



21 **Abstract**

22 This study investigated the pollen spectra from 46 pairs of soil and moss samples (pairs  
23 collected within a 1m<sup>2</sup> squared area). The samples were collected from six common  
24 subtropical vegetation communities in the Meiling Mountains, southeast China, with the  
25 vegetation proportions recorded at the collection point. Principal Component Analysis  
26 (PCA) was used to investigate the separation of the paired assemblages and to determine  
27 whether different plant communities produced distinctive pollen spectra. Paired soil and  
28 moss samples captured similar levels of variability in the pollen assemblages retained, but  
29 there are systematic differences in the mean values of key groups of taxa. Montecarlo  
30 sampling shows that, in most cases, intra-pair differences are greater than could be  
31 explained by counting uncertainty alone.

32 In this study, discriminant analysis of surface soil and moss found that 91.3% of the soil  
33 samples and 87% of the moss samples were correctly classified into their vegetation  
34 communities. However, the detailed pollen assemblages suggest that mosses provide a  
35 more accurate representation of the contemporary vegetation composition than soils.

36 Pollen assemblages from moss samples seem to record local vegetation more accurately  
37 than those from soil samples. Higher vegetation diversity within an arboreal forest  
38 community leads to greater differences between moss-soil pairs. In bamboo forests, pollen  
39 assemblages in soils and moss show strong influence from the surrounding communities,  
40 which makes it hard to identify bamboo forest via surface sample pollen assemblages alone.

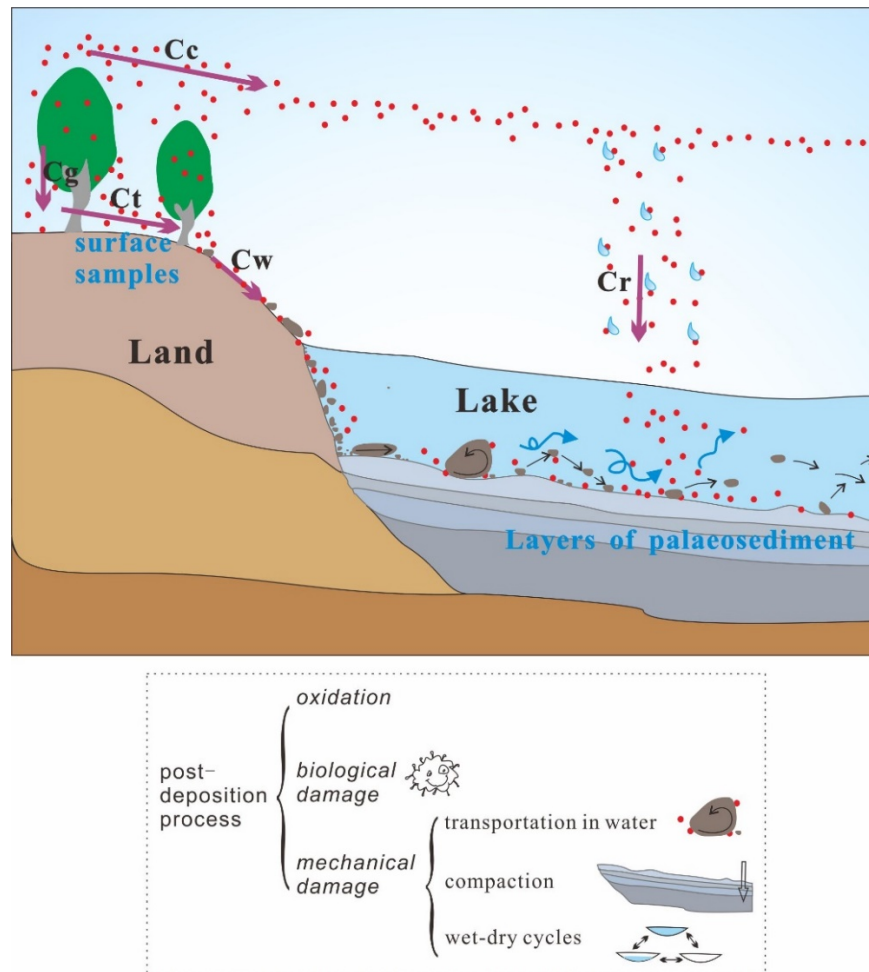
41 **Keywords**

42 pollen-vegetation calibration, soil and moss, southeast China, subtropical, surface pollen  
43 samples, vegetation diversity

## 44 INTRODUCTION

45 The use of surface samples as natural pollen traps to investigate the pollen signal produced  
46 by extant vegetation has become a standard tool for improving interpretation of  
47 palaeopollen assemblages (Erdtman, 1969; Adam & Mehringer, 1975; Faegri et al., 1989;  
48 Moore et al., 1991). Pollen assemblages can be recovered from a wide variety of contexts  
49 (e.g. forensic studies (Wiltshire, 2004; Mildenhall, 2006)), but caution is needed when  
50 interpreting palaeosamples, as the pollen assemblages is determined by the taphonomic and  
51 preservation conditions of the specific context (Potter, 1967; Felde et al., 2016; Xu et al.,  
52 2016). Pollen taphonomy is defined as the whole process leading to the creation of pollen  
53 assemblages from living vegetation (West, 1973), which is usually divided into pollen  
54 production, pollen transport, sedimentation and post-depositional processes (Coles et al.,  
55 1989; Campbell, 1999). Surface pollen samples only reflect part of this process, since post-  
56 depositional processes have only acted for a period of months to years, whereas  
57 palaeosamples experience much longer periods of post-deposition (Figure 1). It is generally  
58 assumed that post-depositional processes have negligible effects on pollen assemblages,  
59 although this is highly context-dependent (e.g. Havinga, 1984; Holmes, 1994; Twiddle &  
60 Bunting, 2010).

61 For comparison with the assemblages preserved in the sedimentary deposits, surface pollen  
62 spectra have been collected in a variety of ways using both artificial traps (e.g. Tauber traps  
63 (Tauber, 1974); Cundill traps (Cundill, 1986)) and ‘natural traps’ where taphonomy and  
64 preservation are believed to be comparable with the sediment-forming system (mainly from  
65 waterlogged sediments (e.g. Faegri et al., 1989; Wilmshurst & McGlone, 2005; Pandey et  
66 al., 2021), moss polsters (e.g. Caseldine, 1981; Hjelle, 1998; Pardoe et al., 2010) and soil  
67 samples (e.g. Riding et al., 2007)).



68

69 FIGURE 1 Schematic diagram showing Tauber model of pollen taphonomy for surface sample in  
 70 lakes. Red dot: pollen grain, Cc: canopy component, Ct: trunk space component, Cr: long-distance  
 71 component by precipitation, Cw: runoff component, Cg: gravity component (after Tauber, 1965,  
 72 1967; Jacobson & Bradshaw, 1981; redrawn from Bunting et al., 2013). Post-depositional damage  
 73 to pollen grains is likely to be context-specific, which is assumed to have more effects on fluvial  
 74 sediment samples.

75 Pollen assemblages from mosses and soils have been widely used to inform the  
 76 interpretation of past land cover from pollen records. For instance, pollen representation  
 77 studies using moss or surface soil from different vegetation communities aim to see if open  
 78 and forest communities can (or cannot) be differentiated through modern pollen data (e.g.  
 79 Tarasov et al., 1998; Djamali et al., 2009; Connor et al., 2004; Salonen et al., 2011).

80 Poaceae presents a particular challenge, since the pollen type is widely found in Quaternary  
81 sediments, but in subtropical regions it can originate from two functionally different groups,  
82 herbaceous and arboreal (bamboo) grasses. Soil and moss samples can also be used to  
83 calibrate models of pollen dispersal and deposition (e.g. [Mazier et al., 2012](#)). These  
84 calibration exercises produce estimates of the Relative Pollen Productivity (RPP) of plant  
85 taxa (e.g. [Mazier et al., 2008](#); [Broström et al., 2008](#); [Li et al., 2018](#)) and Relevant Source  
86 Area of Pollen (RSAP), which for soils or mosses under tree canopies are typically a few  
87 hundred meters. Studies in different locations yield varying estimates of RPP for the same  
88 taxa, which could reflect real differences between geographic regions due to climate  
89 differences and species mixture, or it could be an artefact caused by the use of different  
90 pollen traps between studies.

91 Moss polsters are widely used in terrestrial surface sampling (e.g. [Moore et al., 1991](#);  
92 [Bunting & Hjelle, 2010](#); [Farrell et al., 2016](#)). Different species of moss may differ in their  
93 growth form and surface texture. The growth form, namely the shape, density and height  
94 of moss, plays an important role in filtering and retention of different pollen grains  
95 ([Crowder & Cuddy, 1973](#); [Boyd, 1986](#)). Most investigators do not specify the species of  
96 moss collected for their studies although [Boyd \(1986\)](#) indicated that *Brachyheciitri*  
97 *rittabuktrn* has the best trapping efficiency among eight moss types studied in Scotland. In  
98 general, polster-forming mosses are always a better choice to ensure the efficiency of  
99 trapping pollen.

100 In order to get a reliable pollen assemblage, it is important to have an average of several  
101 years of pollen deposition, since annual differences in flowering occur. Unlike artificial  
102 pollen traps, the time period over which pollen has been deposited is not easily known for  
103 moss polsters. [Crowder & Cuddy \(1973\)](#) suggested that mosses may reflect the pollen  
104 deposition from 5-15 years, whilst [Bradshaw \(1981\)](#) proposed that the green parts of the

105 moss represent the last 5 years of growth. Cundill (1985) suggested that the period of pollen  
106 deposition represented by moss polsters varied depending on when they were collected. A  
107 direct comparison study between modified Tauber traps and moss samples in Finland found  
108 that moss samples represented only 1-2 years of pollen deposition (Räsänen et al., 2004).  
109 For some mosses, it is possible to identify annual growth markers and therefore determine  
110 the age of the sampled material (e.g. *Sphagnum* and *Polytrichum*) (Räsänen et al., 2004).

111 Surface soil samples are quite widely used to obtain modern pollen assemblages due to  
112 their easy accessibility, especially in semi-arid and arid areas where moss polsters are not  
113 readily available (e.g. Maher, 1963; Hevly et al., 1965; Hill, 1996; Carrión, 2002; Zhao et  
114 al., 2009; Li et al., 2011). However, the pollen assemblages from soils need to be interpreted  
115 with caution (Adam & Mehringer, 1975; Hill, 1996). There are potential risks of  
116 incorporation of older pollen by mixing, of selective pollen decay and long-term pollen  
117 accumulation (Moore et al., 1991). Preservation of pollen in soil can be influenced by  
118 factors such as pH level and temperature. Soil fauna, such as earthworms, are also  
119 responsible for producing vertical movements of pollen in soils (Walch et al., 1970).

120 In this paper we present a comparison of soil and moss pollen assemblages in a subtropical  
121 forest area where moss and soil were both available. Multiple sites were selected in each  
122 of the dominant plant communities, and at each site paired moss and soil samples were  
123 collected within a 1m<sup>2</sup> quadrat. We assumed that the initial pollen deposition across the  
124 quadrat was even and consistent, and that any observed differences between the paired  
125 samples is largely due to differences in the trap type (i.e. soil or moss). The aims of this  
126 study are to investigate:

- 127 1. whether the pollen assemblages are different between the two types of ‘natural  
128 traps’ in a subtropical environment,
- 129 2. whether the cause of any detected difference can be identified (e.g. sampling

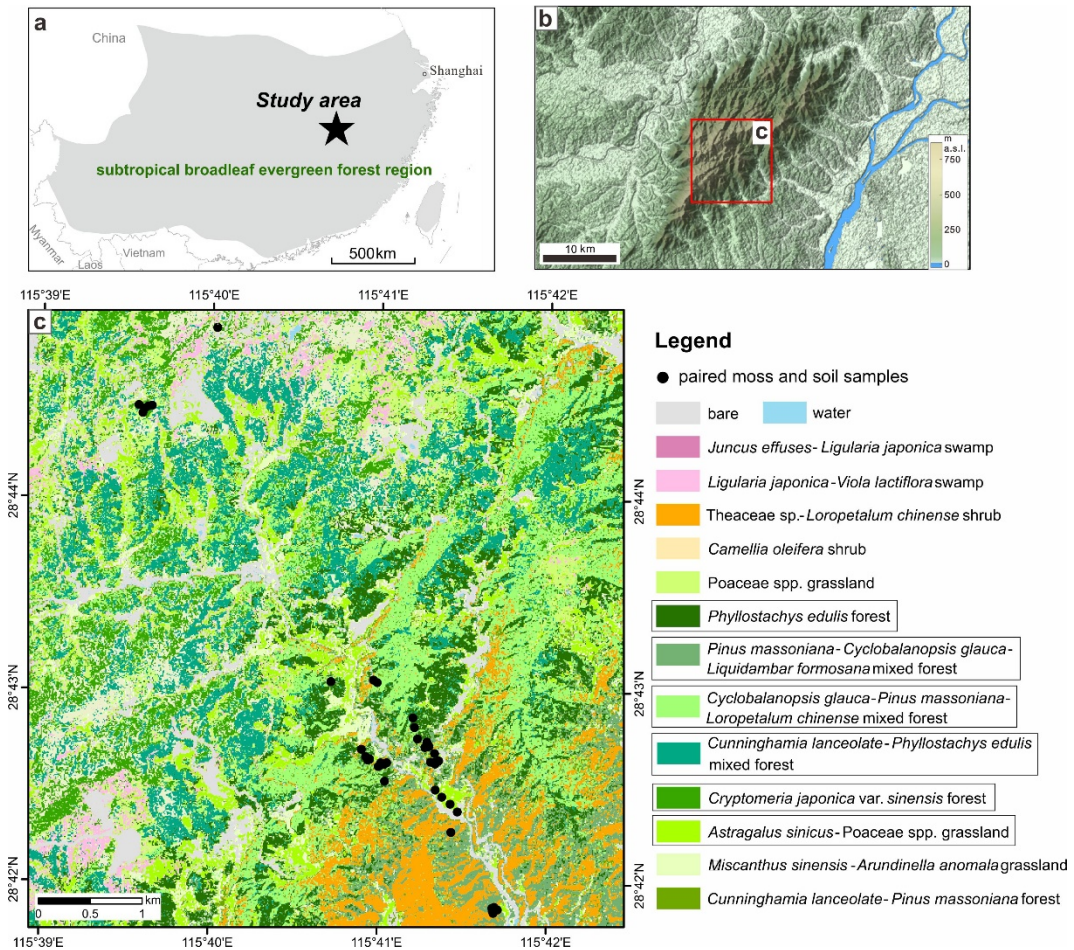
130 effects, differences in effective pollen source area, differences in short-term  
131 preservation of pollen, etc.),  
132 3. whether pollen assemblages from natural traps are able to discriminate between  
133 different sub-tropical vegetation communities, especially between the ecologically  
134 distinct Poaceae dominated grassland and bamboo forest.

## 135 **MATERIALS AND METHODS**

### 136 **Study area and sampling**

137 This study was conducted in the sub-tropical forest in the Meiling National Scenic Area in  
138 southeast China (28°31'N - 28°54'N, 115°34'E - 115°53'E; [Figures 2a](#) and [2b](#)). The  
139 mountain range is approximately 39 kilometers long and oriented in a northeast-southwest  
140 direction. The climate is mainly controlled by the southeast subtropical monsoon, with an  
141 annual average temperature of 18.8 °C and annual mean precipitation of 1760 mm ([China](#)  
142 [Meteorological Administration Data Service Center, 1981-2010](#)).





143

144 FIGURE 2 Locations of the 46 paired sampling sites in Meiling Mountains, southeast China (a.  
 145 location of the study area, b. DEM map showing the Meiling Mountains, c. vegetation map  
 146 showing distribution of 13 biogeographic groups and locations of the 46 paired samples). The  
 147 paired samples are located in the six main communities, which are highlighted with boxes in the  
 148 legend.

149 Forest coverage within the Scenic Area is around 89% (Ding et al., 1965). The vegetation  
 150 communities are mainly subtropical needleleaf forest (dominated by *Pinus massoniana* and  
 151 *Cunninghamia lanceolata*), subtropical broadleaf deciduous forest (characterized by  
 152 *Castanea sequinii*, *Quercus serrata* var. *breviptiolata* and *Platycarya strobilacea*),  
 153 subtropical broadleaf evergreen forest (dominated by *Castanopsis sclerophylla* and  
 154 *Cyclobalanopsis glauca*), subtropical bamboo forest (dominated by *Phyllostachys edulis*)



155 and scrub. The bamboo forest is managed by the villagers living nearby. Scattered fields  
156 used for growing rice and vegetables occur in the valleys and foothills, which sometimes  
157 become grassland when the farmlands are abandoned.

158 During field excursions in March and April 2016, 46 sample points were selected in the six  
159 main communities (five forest and one grassland; [Figure 2c](#); [Table 1](#)). In order to avoid  
160 different size openings, sampling sites in the forest are chosen to be under forest canopy.  
161 The paired sites are spaced at least 50m apart, a distance chosen on the assumption that the  
162 pollen source area for ground cover plants under the forest canopy would be short. Samples  
163 came from sites not visibly altered by recent human disturbance. The coordinates and  
164 altitude of each site were measured with hand-held GPS.

165 TABLE 1 Number of sample points located in each community

Abbreviation	Vegetation communities	Main species	No. of sample points in each community
<i>Phy. F</i>	<i>Phyllostachys edulis</i> forest	<i>Phyllostachys edulis</i> , <i>Theaceae</i> sp.	10
<i>Cun.-Pin. F</i>	<i>Cunninghamia lanceolata</i> - <i>Pinus massoniana</i> forest	<i>Pinus massoniana</i> , <i>Cunninghamia lanceolata</i>	7
<i>Cyc.-Pin.-Lor. F</i>	<i>Cyclobalanopsis glauca</i> - <i>Pinus massoniana</i> - <i>Loropetalum chinense</i> mixed forest	<i>Pinus massoniana</i> , <i>Loropetalum chinense</i> , <i>Cyclobalanopsis glauca</i> , <i>Liquidambar</i> <i>formosana</i>	10
<i>Pin.-Cyc.-Liq. F</i>	<i>Pinus massoniana</i> - <i>Cyclobalanopsis glauca</i> - <i>Liquidambar formosana</i> mixed forest	<i>Cyclobalanopsis glauca</i> , <i>Liquidambar</i> <i>formosana</i> , <i>Pinus massoniana</i> , <i>Platycarya</i> <i>strobilacea</i> , <i>Castanea</i> sp., <i>Cunninghamia</i> <i>lanceolata</i>	9
<i>Cry. F</i>	<i>Cryptomeria japonica</i> var. <i>sinensis</i> forest	<i>Cryptomeria japonica</i> var. <i>sinensis</i>	6
<i>Mis.-Aru. G</i>	<i>Miscanthus sinensis</i> - <i>Arundinella anomala</i> grassland	<i>Miscanthus sinensis</i> , <i>Arundinella anomala</i>	4

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167 At each sample point, a 1m<sup>2</sup> quadrat was placed over a suitable moss polster, and both the

168 moss polster and adjacent soil were sampled. Pollen assemblages from these two sources  
169 are referred to as a pair. In order to keep sample volume consistent, samples were collected  
170 using inverted sample containers measuring 7.5 cm \* 7.5 cm \* 1 cm in size, and only the  
171 green parts of the moss polster were collected. Vegetation cover (percentage of canopy  
172 species present) was recorded using the Crackles Bequest Project methodology (Bunting et  
173 al., 2013). The regional vegetation map was derived from interpretation of the Sentinel-2  
174 image coupled with detail ground-based vegetation surveys to define the boundaries of the  
175 communities.

176 Pollen extraction from surface samples followed standard preparation techniques (Faegri  
177 et al., 1989; Moore et al., 1991). One *Lycopodium* tablet (27560 spores/tablet) was added  
178 to each sample as a tracer. The chemical treatment procedures used include HCl (10%),  
179 KOH (10%), HF (40%), and samples were then acetolyzed with acetic anhydride and  
180 sulfuric acid (9:1), sieved and mounted in glycerine jelly. A minimum of 400 terrestrial  
181 pollen grains were counted for each sample. Pollen were identified with reference to Wang  
182 et al. (1995) and Tang et al. (2016) and counted under an optical microscope at  
183 magnification of 400×.

## 184 Data analysis methods

### 185 Pollen data

186 In order to reduce the bias caused by abundantly produced but poorly dispersed spores  
187 (Wilmshurst & McGlone, 2005), pollen percentages of the terrestrial taxa were calculated  
188 based on all terrestrial pollen grains. Percentages of aquatic herbs' pollen and ferns' spores  
189 were calculated based on a sum of all pollen and spores. The pollen percentage diagram  
190 was plotted using Tilia 2.0.4 (Grimm, 1991 and updated versions).

191 For numerical analysis of pollen assemblages, principal component analysis (PCA) is

192 performed with CANOCO (CANOnical Community Ordination) 4.5 (ter Braak &  
193 Verdonschot, 1995; ter Braak & Smilauer, 1997, 2002). The PCA was carried out on a  
194 dataset including 49 pollen and spore types, all those with a value of over 2% in at least  
195 two samples. A definition of ordination is that it arranges sample points in such a way that  
196 distance between points corresponds as well as possible with the dissimilarity between sites  
197 (ter Braak, 1994); points which are close together in the diagram are similar in species  
198 composition. Therefore, we calculated the Pythagorean distance between each paired  
199 sample in the ordination plot as a measure of similarity and compared vectors of difference  
200 to determine whether there was a systematic pattern to the differences seen.

201 We also grouped paired samples according to their community of origin and averaged the  
202 distance for each vegetation community, then plotted the centroids of each sample type in  
203 the six communities. The coordinates ( $X_i$ ,  $Y_i$ ) of centroids were calculated based on the  
204 formula below:

$$205 \quad X_i = \frac{1}{k} (\sum_1^k x_k)$$

$$206 \quad Y_i = \frac{1}{k} (\sum_1^k y_k)$$

207 Where  $X_i$  is the x coordinate of the centroid for community i, and  $Y_i$  is the y coordinate  
208 of the centroid for community i,

209  $x_k$  is the axis 1 value of sample core from PCA,  $y_k$  is the axis 2 value of sample  
210 core from PCA,

211 i is the number of the vegetation community; in this study, n=1,2,3,4,5,6,

212 k is the number of the samples in each forest zones.

213 In order to evaluate whether different vegetation communities could be identified from

214 pollen assemblages, discriminant analysis was performed using SPSS 17.0 (SPSS Inc.,  
215 1993-2007). This method has been efficiently used to aid pollen-based palaeovegetation  
216 reconstruction (e.g. Liu & Lam, 1985; MacDonald & Ritchie, 1986) and to assess the  
217 relationship between modern pollen and vegetation (e.g. Shen et al., 2008; Marcos &  
218 Mancini, 2012). The discriminant functions can be generated from known groups of sample  
219 sets, and then be applied to classify new cases which have measures for the predictor  
220 variables but unknown group membership (SPSS Inc., 1993-2007). In this study,  
221 percentage of major pollen types were used to create the discriminant function, these were  
222 used as *a priori* groups for discriminant analysis. The samples were then classified into  
223 predicted vegetation communities.

#### 224 Counting error

225 Counting error is an important parameter which needs to be taken into account in  
226 determining whether the difference between pairs is a real difference in the underlying  
227 pollen assemblage, or an apparent difference caused by sampling effects. We used a  
228 Montecarlo approach to determine the difference between samples due solely to sampling  
229 effects, by taking a random sample pair in each of the 6 communities, using the recorded  
230 pollen proportions as a probability distribution, then simulating multiple pollen counts of  
231 the same assemblage. This procedure was repeated 5 times for each simulated sample, thus  
232 generating 25 simulated pairs in each community. These real and simulated pairs were  
233 reranked using PCA and then compared pairwise using Pythagorean distance based on the  
234 ordination scores from PCA.

#### 235 Effect of vegetation composition on sample difference

236 We hypothesized that sample pairs from more diverse vegetation communities would tend  
237 to have larger intra-pair differences. We calculated the Shannon index (Shannon & Weaver,

238 1949) and the Simpson index (Simpson, 1949) for each community based on the  
239 composition data on the canopy species, choosing these metrics owing to their extensive  
240 application in the ecological literature (e.g. Duelli & Obrist, 1998; Keylock, 2005; Allen et  
241 al., 2009).

242 The Shannon index of diversity is defined as:

$$243 \quad S_{Shannon} = - \sum_{i=1}^N p_i \ln p_i$$

244 The Simpson index is calculated as follows:

$$245 \quad S_{Simpson} = 1 - \sum_{i=1}^N p_i^2$$

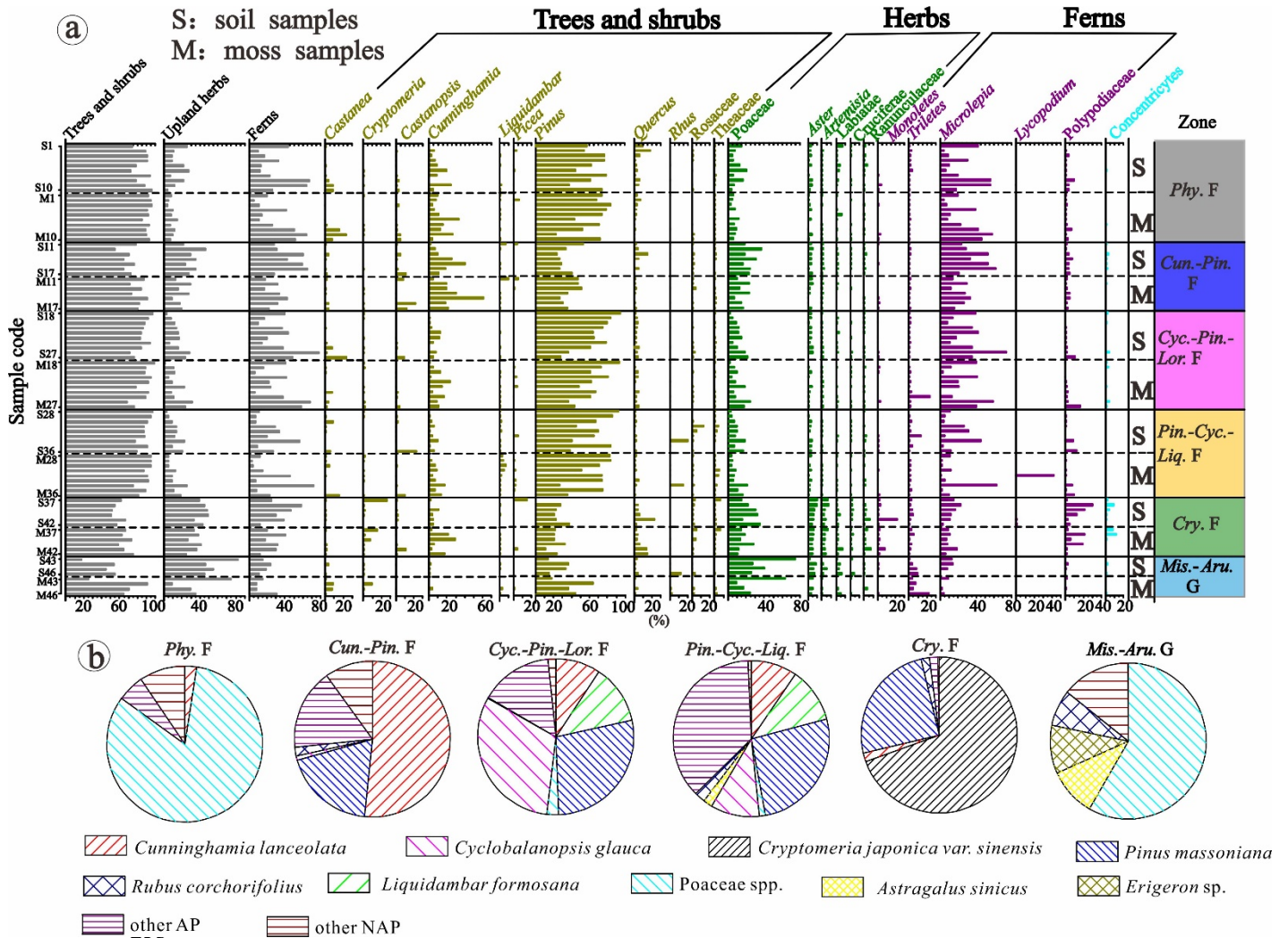
246 Where N is the number of species in the community,

247  $p_i$  is the proportion of species i

## 248 **RESULTS**

### 249 Differences between moss and soil samples

250 Generally, soil and moss samples show similar characteristics and ranges, but different  
251 mean values of key groups of taxa. The mean percentages of arboreal types are lower and  
252 of herb taxa are higher in soil samples than in moss samples (Figure 3).



254 FIGURE 3 Pollen assemblages and vegetation composition in the six vegetation communities  
 255 including a) pollen percentage diagram from paired surface soil and moss samples and b) pie chart  
 256 showing the average vegetation percentage in the six communities.

257 **Pollen assemblages in the six vegetation communities**

258 Generally, *Pinus* and *Cunninghamia* dominate the pollen spectra of all forests, even in some  
 259 communities where both of them are rarely found in vegetation (e.g. the bamboo forest,  
 260 *Cryptomeria japonica var. sinensis* forest). *Poaceae* is the most abundant herbaceous pollen  
 261 type in all the forest assemblages.

262 Compared to the pollen assemblage of the five forest zones, the pollen spectra in the

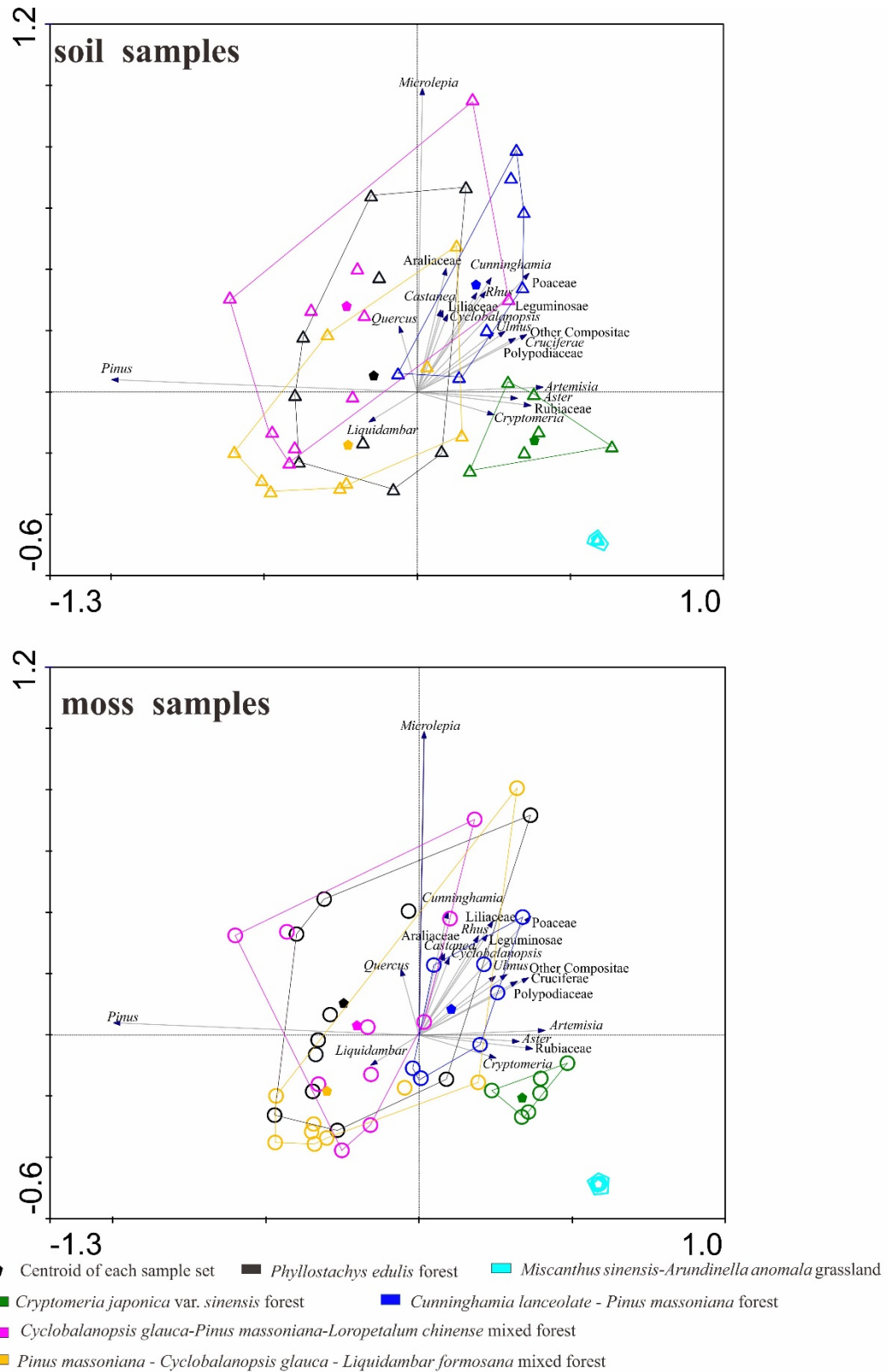
263 grassland are characterised by higher upland herbs and lower arboreal types. The main  
264 species in the pollen spectra are *Pinus*, Poaceae and Compositae types. Although there is  
265 no *Pinus* present within the 100 m radius area around these sampling points, there are still  
266 *Pinus* pollen grains present in all grassland samples.

#### 267 [Ordination analysis](#)

268 [Figure 4](#) shows ordination plots of axes 1 and 2, which have eigenvalues of 0.533 and 0.266  
269 respectively, and together explain 79.9% of the total variance in the dataset. Analysis was  
270 run with all samples together, but the results are plotted separately for soil and moss  
271 samples for clarity. The envelope encompassing the assemblages from the *Cun.-Pin.* F and  
272 the *Cry.* F are larger for soil samples than for moss samples, but the other four communities  
273 have similar envelope sizes for both sample types.

274 Many of the species are assigned low species scores and therefore have little impact on the  
275 distribution of samples. For clarity, only the top 20 scoring species are shown in [Figure 4](#).  
276 Non-Arboreal Pollen (NAP) types and Arboreal Pollen (AP) types are not separated clearly  
277 along either axis, in fact the fern *Microlepia* seems to be the most important species in  
278 determining sample location ([Fig. 4](#)). The high value of *Microlepia* represents background  
279 noise by its high local over-representation, and this justifies our approach whereby the ferns  
280 were excluded from the pollen sum to avoid bias.





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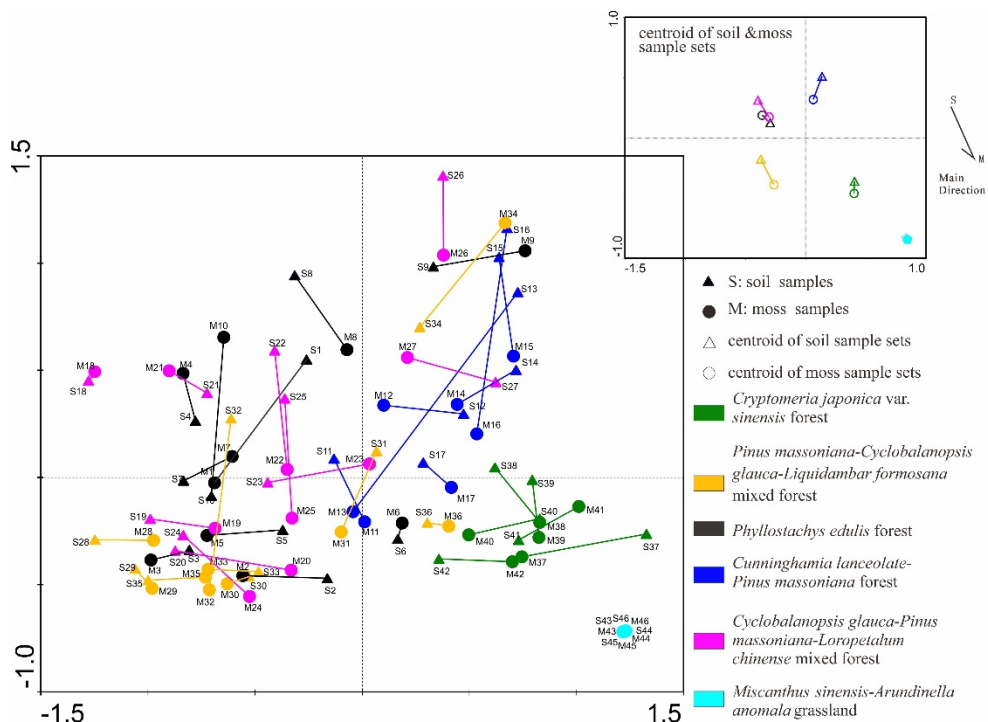
282 FIGURE 4 Ordination based on Principle Components Analysis (PCA) diagram showing pollen

283 assemblages in the 6 vegetation zones. All data were included in the analysis, but are plotted on

284 separate diagrams for clarity. Ellipses are envelopes around samples from them. Centroids  
 285 (multivariate centers of distribution) of each vegetation communities were plotted post hoc to  
 286 visualize these relationships among sites.

287 Paired sample distances

288 Figure 5 shows the sample pairs plotted on the same axes as Figure 4, joined by lines to  
 289 show the vector of difference. There is no common vector direction for individual pairs in  
 290 any of the six communities, but when the centroids of each community group were  
 291 considered (Figure 5 inset), all groups showed a dominant ‘north’ to ‘south’ trend, from the  
 292 soil sample sets to the moss sample sets.

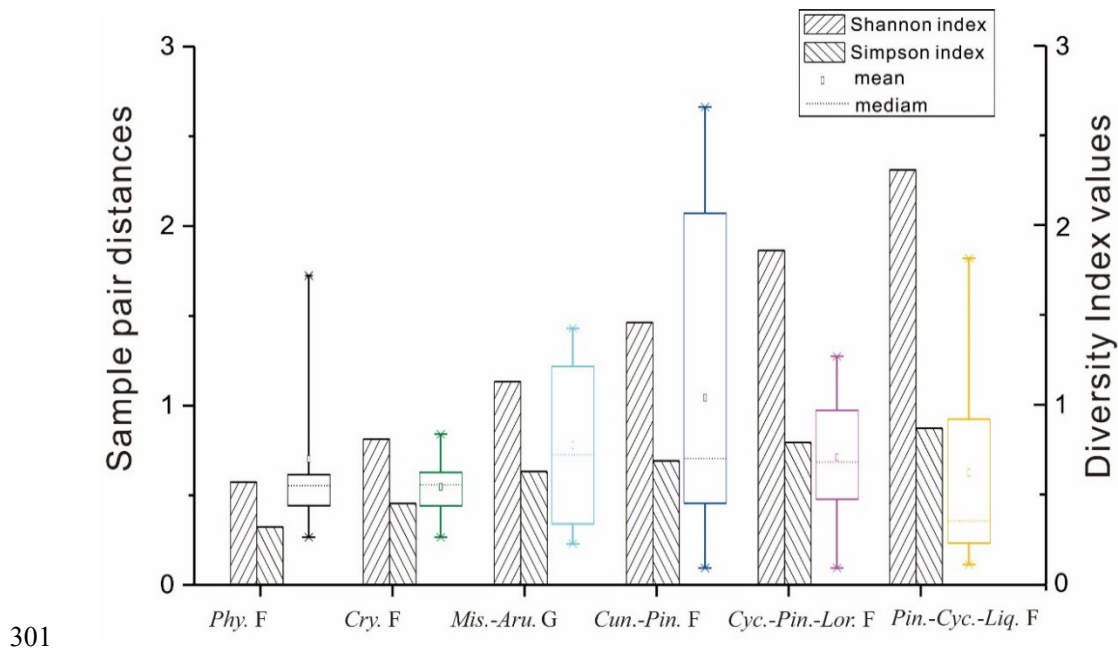


293  
 294 FIGURE 5 Ordination (PCA) diagram showing the patterns of change on paired samples. Filled  
 295 up-triangle symbols: soil samples; filled circle symbols: moss sample. Insert: plot of centroids of  
 296 soil (empty up-triangle) and moss (empty circle) samples for each forest zone.

297 Possible controls on paired sample difference

## 298 Vegetation diversity

299 For each of the communities, the Shannon index and the Simpson index were calculated  
300 and are presented in [Figure 6](#).



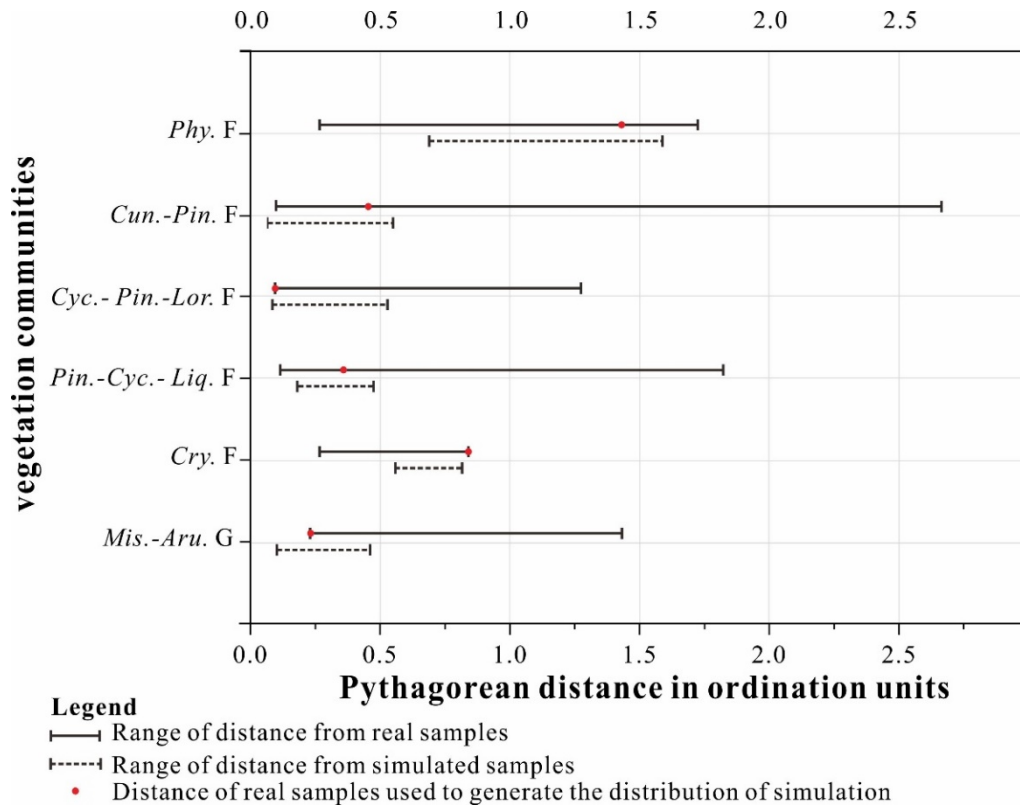
301  
302 FIGURE 6 Boxplot showing paired sample distance in six communities. The middle line and the  
303 box represent the median and the first through third quartiles, respectively.

304 Both diversity indexes give the same rank order for the six vegetation communities.  
305 Maximum diversity is seen in the *Pin.-Cyc.-Liq. F*, and minimum values were found in the  
306 *Phy. F*. The median paired sample distance is the greatest in the *Cun.-Pin. F*, which also has  
307 relatively high vegetation diversity.

## 308 Counting error

309 After sorting all real and simulated samples again by PCA, the Pythagorean differences  
310 between all pairs were calculated according to the sample scores ([Figure 7](#)). The range of

311 distances seen between the simulated samples, shown by the black dashed lines on Figure  
 312 7, indicate the range of difference values arising due to counting errors.



313  
 314 FIGURE 7 Comparison of Pythagorean distance in ordination units from real sample pair used for  
 315 generating the simulation (black line) and simulated sample pairs (black dashed line) in six  
 316 vegetation communities, the distances are calculated from sample scores from PCA output using  
 317 152 samples (92 real plus 60 simulated samples). The red dots show the distance of the real pairs  
 318 used to create the distribution for simulation. The simulation count is generated using the recorded  
 319 pollen proportions as a probability distribution.

320 The Pythagorean differences between paired soil and moss samples are greater than can be  
 321 explained just by taking account of counting errors, especially in the *Cun.-Pin. F*, *Cyc.-*  
 322 *Pin.-Lor. F* and *Pin.-Cyc.-Liq. F* communities, suggesting that there are some real  
 323 differences in the pollen assemblages present in soils and mosses.

324 Identifying vegetation communities from pollen assemblages

325 Percentage data of the 20 main pollen types (those with high scores from the PCA) were  
326 used for discriminant analysis of surface soil and moss, respectively. The results show that  
327 91.3% (42 out of 46) of the soil samples and 87% (40 out of 46) of the moss samples (Table  
328 2) were correctly classified into their actual vegetation communities.

329 Samples from vegetation communities show clear grouping, with *Mis.-Aru. G* (grassland)  
330 and *Cry. F* (forest) clearly separate at the bottom right, and the other four forest  
331 communities overlapping in the upper portion of the ordination diagram (Figure 4). The  
332 discriminant analysis misclassifications all occurred within this group of four forest types,  
333 including S7, S10, M3 and M6 from *Phy. F*, M13 from *Cun.-Pin. F*, S21, M18 and M21  
334 from *Cyc.-Pin.-Lor. F*, S35 and M33 from *Pin.-Cyc.-Liq. F* (Figure 8). This pattern is also  
335 demonstrated by their low probability of analogue (<0.5).

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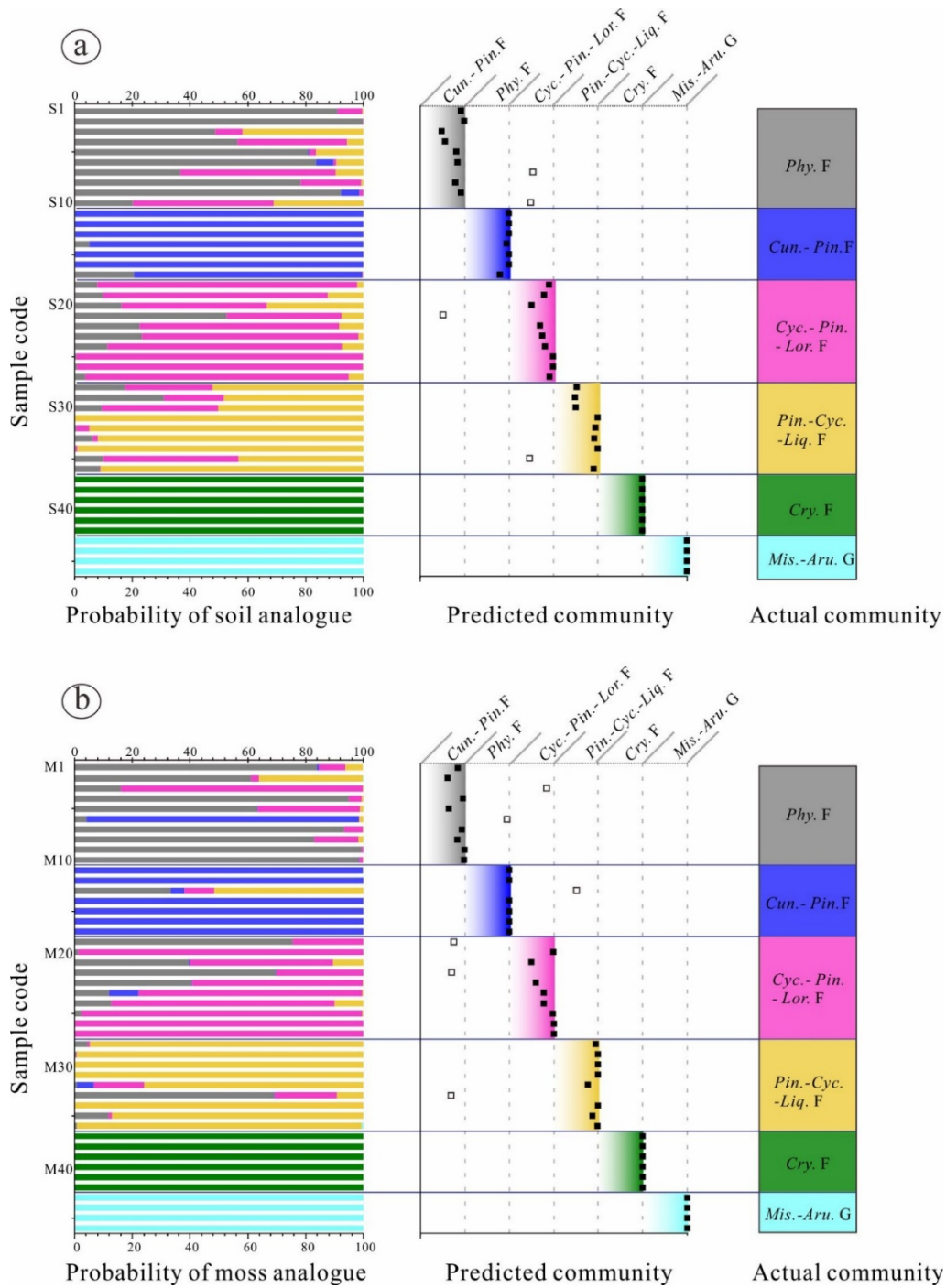
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345 TABLE 2 Results of the discriminant analysis for soil and moss pollen assemblages

Sample type	Actual community	No. of samples	Predicted community					
			1	2	3	4	5	6
soil	<i>Phy.</i> F (1)	10	8(80%)	0	2(20%)	0	0	0
	<i>Cun.- Pin.</i> F (2)	7	0	7(100%)	0	0	0	0
	<i>Cyc.- Pin.- Lor.</i> F (3)	10	1(10%)	0	9(90%)	0	0	0
	<i>Pin.-Cyc.-Liq.</i> F (4)	9	0	0	1(11.1%)	8(88.9%)	0	0
	<i>Cry.</i> F (5)	6	0	0	0	0	6(100%)	0
	<i>Mis.-Aru.</i> G (6)	4	0	0	0	0	0	4(100%)
moss	<i>Phy.</i> F	10	8(80%)	1(10%)	1(10%)	0	0	0
	<i>Cun.- Pin.</i> F	7	0	6(85.7%)	0	1(14.3%)	0	0
	<i>Cyc.- Pin.- Lor.</i> F	10	2(20%)	0	8(80%)	0	0	0
	<i>Pin.-Cyc.-Liq.</i> F	9	1(11.1%)	0	0	8(88.9%)	0	0
	<i>Cry.</i> F	6	0	0	0	0	6(100%)	0
	<i>Mis.-Aru.</i> G	4	0	0	0	0	0	4(100%)

Percent of cases correctly classified: soil samples=91.3% ; moss samples=87%

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FIGURE 8 Comparison between predicted vegetation communities of discriminant analysis and actual vegetation types at sampling locations (a. soil samples, b. moss samples). ‘Probability of soil/moss analogue’ shows the probability of the sample in each of the six communities, which is determined by the chi-square distance between the sample and the group centroid defined by the discriminant functions. ‘Predicted community’ is assigned to the group for which it has the largest discriminant score. Misclassified samples were indicated by hollow box.



354 **DISCUSSION**

355 Pairwise comparisons between soil and moss samples

356 [Figures 3 and 4](#) show that the pollen assemblages from soil and moss samples from different  
357 communities occupy the same space in the ordination diagram, but paired samples differ  
358 from each other ([Figure 5](#)). In some cases, the soil sample envelope is larger than moss  
359 sample envelope ([Figure 4](#)), which implies that the variation of soil pollen assemblages in  
360 those communities is larger than that of moss pollen assemblages.

361 Theoretically, [Sugita \(1994\)](#) estimates the relevant source area of pollen (RSAP) for basin  
362 with a radius of 2m (forest hollows) as 50-100m. Empirical study by [Calcote \(1995\)](#)  
363 supports the model prediction, and further confirms that 40%-50% of the pollen in the  
364 forest hollows comes from plants growing within 50-100m of the hollow. In this study, the  
365 samples in the forest are located beneath the forest canopy, and each pair was separated by  
366 at least 50 m and most by considerably more distance. Autocorrelation due to the sampling  
367 strategy is not likely to influence the pairwise differences since the sampling distance is  
368 close to the RSAP.

369 Counting a pollen assemblage produces an estimate of the true assemblage composition  
370 through sampling. Simulation ([Figure 7](#)) suggests that there are differences between paired  
371 soil and moss samples in excess of those arising due to counting errors. Other sources of  
372 uncertainty might be introduced during the analysis process, such as measurement error  
373 during sample collection (which would affect concentration but not percentage data), or  
374 different responses of soil and moss assemblages to treatments during sample preparation.

375 [Vegetation diversity](#)

376 Plant communities are innately more diverse than pollen communities since pollen  
377 taxonomy is derived from plant taxonomy and often cannot discriminate to the same level,

378 and Figure 6 clearly shows that pollen assemblages are less biodiverse than plant  
379 assemblages in each community. However, vegetation diversity does not seem to be  
380 systematically related to sample pair distances. The variation between distance value for  
381 pairs within the same community is large, and there are only small differences in median  
382 values between communities. A difference might be expected if the less abundant plant  
383 types in the more diverse vegetation communities are under-represented, but the sample  
384 size seems to be sufficient to capture the overall diversity, likely because the community  
385 patches are small compared to the effective pollen source area, so the pollen assemblages  
386 are also picking up a general regional signal.

#### 387 Preservation differences

388 Pollen trapped in soil is considered more likely than that from moss to experience post-  
389 depositional decay and therefore for assemblages to undergo systematic changes over  
390 relatively short periods of time (Havinga, 1964, 1967). Pollen types have differential  
391 susceptibility to oxidative damage and removal from the assemblage. Havinga (1984)  
392 found that spores and Cichorioideae (*Taraxacum*) were more resistant to decay than the  
393 other taxa, and Sangster & Dale (1961,1964) ranked pollen types from least to most  
394 resistant as '*Populus* < *Acer* < *Corylus* < *Alnus* < *Quercus* < *Fraxinus* < *Typha* < *Salix* <  
395 *Betula* < *Ulmus* < *Pinus*'.

396 If there was a systematic difference between moss and soil pairs, we would expect to see  
397 consistent ordination vector direction, at least within communities, since all soils would  
398 have more decay-resistant types and fewer decay sensitive types than their paired mosses.  
399 Figure 5 shows that there is no common direction of difference, therefore we consider it  
400 unlikely that observed differences are caused mainly by post-depositional changes.  
401 However, Figure 5 does show that the community centroids have a common vector of  
402 difference, which in the ordination seems to be largely driven by moss assemblages

403 containing fewer fern-spores than soil pollen assemblages when averaged within  
404 communities (moss average between 15.0% and 31.8%; soil average between 17.1% and  
405 44.6%). Fern spores are known to be fairly robust and resistant to decay (Havinga, 1984),  
406 and this might imply that the soil samples contain more spores because they represent a  
407 longer period of pollen deposition and/or because post-depositional biasing has acted to  
408 increase the apparent proportion of fern spores by removing other pollen types, but other  
409 explanations related to microhabitat are also possible (considered below).

#### 410 *Local taphonomy*

411 Our study design implicitly assumes that the pollen deposition within the sampling quadrat  
412 was even and consistent and that differences between paired samples would reflect mainly  
413 counting and preservation differences. However, it is possible that pollen is not evenly  
414 distributed across the sampled 1m<sup>2</sup> quadrat, contributing to some of the observed  
415 differences. Tauber's (1965, 1977) model of the taphonomic routes by which pollen and  
416 spores arrive at moss and soil samples includes not just the canopy component ( $C_c$ ) and  
417 long-distance component by precipitation ( $C_t$ ), the components usually considered to be  
418 dominant in palaeorecords, but also three more local components, runoff ( $C_w$  – pollen  
419 deposited on a soil surface then moved by surface water flow), trunk space ( $C_t$  – pollen  
420 released from flowers located under the vegetation canopy and transported by local air  
421 currents), and gravity ( $C_g$  – grains and spores falling from flowering structures directly onto  
422 the sampling point under the influence of gravity) (Figure 1). In this study, sample locations  
423 were chosen on flat areas away from tree trunks to minimize contributions from  $C_w$ , but  $C_t$   
424 and  $C_g$  are both plausible sources of pollen, and would contribute local elements.

425 For arboreal taxa, where all flowering structures are several meters above the ground, the  
426 assumption of even pollen rain is more reasonable than for understory taxa, which are  
427 smaller and grow closer to the ground. The quadrats for collecting the samples were placed

428 in locations free from understory plants (wherever possible) to minimize the possible bias  
429 caused by  $C_g$  pollen input, but in subtropical forests, the contribution of nearby understory  
430 vegetation (mainly shrubs and ferns) through  $C_t$  cannot be neglected. Pollen transport  
431 through the trunk space is found to be an important source of pollen delivered to small  
432 lakes and forest hollows in a mixed deciduous forest (e.g. Tauber, 1965, 1967; Andersen,  
433 1970). In this study, the trunk space component is likely to play a different role in different  
434 communities. The four mixed subtropical forest communities (i.e. *Cun.-Pin.* F, *Cyc.-Pin.* F,  
435 *Pin.-Cyc.-Liq.* F, *Cry.* F) have quite dense understorey vegetation, therefore might  
436 contribute to an uneven trunk-space pollen component. In the open grassland (*Mis.-Aru.*  
437 G), there is no clearly defined trunk space, and samples were taken at least 100m from the  
438 forest edge (beyond the likely “edge effect”, which is often explained as a trunk space  
439 transport phenomenon; Bunting & Farrell, 2018), but a  $C_g$  component from local vegetation  
440 is more likely to contribute to these samples. The bamboo forest (*Phy.* F) is likely to be  
441 different from the other forest sites since the understory vegetation is generally sparse,  
442 which may increase the trunk space component from the arboreal taxa, but decrease the  
443 understorey contribution.

444 Tauber’s model assumes that all pollen is transported in the air, but zoophily is also  
445 commonly found in sub-tropical taxa. Insects may have a preference for visiting soil or  
446 moss, affecting the pollen input. For example, mosses may provide shelter from wind, a  
447 warmer microclimate, or serve as a food source (Strong, 1967; Gerson, 1969), therefore  
448 attract more pollen-carrying insect visits than soil surfaces nearby. The influence of insects  
449 on pollen assemblages is considered to be more local than regional, therefore if this is an  
450 important process in these samples, there should be more local pollen components in moss  
451 samples than in soil samples.

452 Pollen grains deposited onto the surface of a moss or soil sample are assumed to stay in

453 place for at least a few years, but this is not necessarily the reality. This study shows that the  
454 adjacent sites with similar vegetation may show differences in the pollen-vegetation  
455 relationships. Water movement through soil and mosses might be different. Pollen  
456 movement driven by exogenic process such as raindrops and local surface runoff are more  
457 likely to have an impact on soil than moss, especially in this hilly area. Another possibility  
458 is the difference in the ability to capture pollen grains between soil and moss. The growth-  
459 form and the surface texture of moss may affect the entrapment efficiency of pollen grains  
460 (Boyd, 1986). In order to minimize difference between pairs, all mosses used for this study  
461 have similar growth forms.

462 Differences in soil depth, microtopography, and the precise position relative to vegetation  
463 canopies (e.g. in the drip zone or under the crown of a tree) would likely mean that a  
464 consistent pattern of differences within communities would not be seen, making a  
465 difference due to this cause harder to detect.

466 Microfaunal activity is also an important contributor to soil mixing which can alter the  
467 surface pollen spectra (Moore et al., 1991; Walch et al., 1970), and since mosses tend to be  
468 damper than soil, and to be mainly made of living material rather than a decaying food  
469 source, burrowing microfauna are less likely to interact with mosses than with soils.

470 Differences between vegetation communities—— can we tell them apart from  
471 modern pollen assemblages?

472 Based on the quantitative results of discriminant analysis conducted on 46 paired soil and  
473 moss samples, the six local vegetation communities can be distinguished by their modern  
474 pollen assemblages. Ordination showed overlapping envelopes for assemblages from four  
475 of the forest types but discriminant analysis was able to separate them effectively.

476 Selection of samples——moss or soil?

477 In some cases, the soil sample envelopes are larger than the moss sample envelopes in the  
478 ordination diagram. This indicates that there is less variability among moss samples  
479 collected in the same vegetation communities (Figure 4), which in turn suggests a greater  
480 likelihood that a small number of samples can be “representative” of the community pollen  
481 signal, therefore requiring less effort in collecting and processing samples. Although this  
482 study has not ruled out preservation and post-depositional reworking as factors altering soil  
483 samples, we do suggest that the former is not a dominant process since not all paired  
484 samples are altered in the same way. In some studies (e.g. Räsänen et al., 2004; Mazier et  
485 al., 2006; Fall, 2012), these very local effects are mitigated by collecting multiple samples  
486 within a small area and amalgamating them which might reduce very local effects such as  
487 uneven pollen distribution from nearby understory taxa, but this will not remove the overall  
488 differences seen here. Measuring the local-scale vegetation component in a quantitative  
489 way (Farrell et al., 2016), and the development of a standard sampling method which  
490 minimizes its effect, are needed for further study.

491 Soil samples contain more upland herb taxa and fewer arboreal types than the adjacent  
492 moss samples. The category “upland herbs” is made up of taxa which are not found in the  
493 forests and occur only rarely in the Meiling Mountains as weeds in areas of human activity,  
494 therefore most pollen in this category is believed to have come from sources beyond the  
495 mountains in the surrounding open agricultural landscape and can be considered a marker  
496 of the proportion of ‘background’ pollen in the assemblages. This suggests that soil sample  
497 pollen assemblages contain a larger background pollen component than the moss  
498 assemblages.

499 Is it possible to separate the ecologically distinct but Poaceae-dominated communities  
500 of grassland and bamboo forest from the pollen record?

501 In this study, the surface pollen assemblages include results from two typical subtropical  
502 communities dominated by Poaceae, i.e. abandoned farmland and bamboo forest, where  
503 the land use is strongly affected by human activity.

504 The bamboo forest stands out in this study, since it has the lowest diversity index, but  
505 relatively large distances between the pollen assemblages in sample pairs. Pollen spectra  
506 in the bamboo forest are dominated by *Pinus* (62.2% (soil) and 63.9% (moss) on average)  
507 and *Cunninghamia* (8.2% (soil) and 12.9% (moss) on average), both from plant taxa which  
508 are rarely present in the bamboo forest but frequently appear in adjacent forests of the  
509 Meiling Mountains. *Phyllostachys edulis* (Poaceae) is an important bamboo species which  
510 is widely cultivated in southeast China, and has larger pollen grains (an average diameter  
511 of 61µm) than those of grassland species (Zhang et al., 2016). However, little Poaceae is  
512 recorded in bamboo forests, therefore increasing the relative proportion of regional pollen  
513 input. Bamboo pollen was also found to be underrepresented in bamboo forest by Zheng et  
514 al. (2008) and Basumatary et al. (2014). A combination of factors may lead to this. The  
515 bamboo flowers irregularly (Bedell, 1997; Yuan et al., 2007), and it often surrounded by  
516 forests with high pollen producers, which can swamp the pollen signal of bamboo.

517 In the bamboo forest, the high variability between samples despite the relative lack of  
518 understory vegetation may be due to higher occurrence of overland water flow and  
519 therefore changes in soil pollen assemblages. The measured gross amount of runoff in  
520 bamboo forests was larger than that in broadleaved forests (Li & Wang, 2003), therefore  
521 this effect is likely to be stronger in the bamboo forest than in the other forest types studied  
522 here.



523 The *Mis.-Aru. G* is the only ‘open area’ involved in this study. The ordination figure  
524 separates the grassland in the bottom right corner. Unlike the datasets in the five forests,  
525 both moss and soil envelopes in the grassland are very small, and the distances between  
526 each pair can be negligible. One possible reason is the lack of trunk space transport in the  
527 grassland community, which therefore increased the relative proportion of long distance  
528 pollen input and effectively created a more even pollen rain. Another possible reason is that  
529 being out in the open land, the mosses are drier on average and behave more like soil.

## 530 **CONCLUSION**

531 This study finds that surface samples of moss or soil from adjacent sites with similar  
532 vegetation do differ in the pollen assemblages recorded. Soil samples contain more upland  
533 herb taxa and fewer arboreal types than the adjacent moss samples. Soil samples are more  
534 likely to be affected by post-depositional decay, faunal activity and soil mixing, which may  
535 contribute to the differences between soil and moss samples. Regardless of cause, our study  
536 implies that mosses provide a more accurate representation of the contemporary vegetation  
537 than soils. Pollen assemblages in soils are often biased by physical, chemical and biological  
538 factors, and understanding the preservation and decay of pollen in soil requires further  
539 investigation.

540 Although ordination analysis showed overlapping envelopes for assemblages from four of  
541 the forest types, discriminant analysis was able to separate vegetation communities  
542 effectively. The results of this study also found that there is less variability among the moss  
543 samples within the same vegetation community. Less variability in samples means there is  
544 a greater likelihood that a small number of samples are “representative” of the community,  
545 which saves time and effort. From this perspective, moss samples are a better choice for  
546 characterizing vegetation communities using pollen assemblages. Given the clear  
547 separation of vegetation types in the discriminant analysis, soil samples are also recording

548 a clear pollen signal of vegetation.

549 Pollen assemblages from the bamboo forest are susceptible to contamination from the  
550 surrounding forest, which makes it difficult to identify the vegetation community by the  
551 surface pollen assemblage only. However, pollen spectra from the Poaceae dominated  
552 grassland are easy to separate from the other five subtropical forest communities, and  
553 samples collected from the grassland tend to be more similar to each other.

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571 **AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS**

572 M.J.B. and Y.F. contributed to the ideas and designed methodology; Y.F. collected and  
573 analysed the data; Y.F. and M.J.B. wrote the manuscript with input from all authors (C.M.  
574 and X.Y.). All authors contributed to the drafts and gave final approval for publication.

575 **Data Availability**

576 Surface pollen data will be made available through the University of Hull data repository.

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