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Pastures to woodlands: changes in soil microbial communities and carbon following reforestation

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A B S T R A C T

Reforestation of agricultural lands has the potential to sequester C, while providing other environmental benefits. It is well established that reforestation can have a profound impact on soil physicochemical properties but the associated changes to soil microbial communities are poorly understood. Therefore, the objective of this study was to quantify changes in soil physicochemical properties and microbial communities in soils collected from reforested pastures and compare then to remnant vegetation and unreforested pastures. To address this aim, we collected soil from two locations (pasture and its adjacent reforested zone, or pasture and its adjacent remnant vegetation) on each of ten separate farms that covered the range of planting ages (0–30 years and remnant vegetation) in a temperate region of southeastern Australia. Soils were analysed for a range of physicochemical properties (including C and nutrients), and microbial biomass and community composition (PLFA profiles). Soil C:N ratios increased with age of tree planting, and soil C concentration was highest in the remnant woodlands. Reforestation had no clear impact on soil microbial biomass or fungal:bacterial ratios (based on PLFA's). Reforestation was associated with significant changes in the molecular composition of the soil microbial community at many farms but similar changes were found within a pasture. These results indicate that reforestation of pastures can result in changes in soil properties within a few decades, but that soil microbial community composition can vary as much spatially within pastures as it does after reforestation.

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1. Introduction

Carbon sequestration in vegetation and soils has substantial potential to help mitigate further climate change. Reforestation of pastures is an important means of sequestering C in the soil ([Hoogmoed](#page--1-0) et al., 2012; IPCC, 2013). Reforestation can provide other environmental benefits, such as the provision of habitat for native flora and fauna, increasing habitat connectivity, and reducing non-point source pollution from agriculture [\(Cunning-](#page--1-0)ham et al., [2015b](#page--1-0)). For this reason, reforestation of marginal agricultural land is seen as an important form of land-use change ([Mackey](#page--1-0) et al., 2013).

In addition to increasing soil C levels, reforestation can change the chemical nature of C inputs into the soil (de [Alcântara](#page--1-0) et al., 1996; [Smith](#page--1-0) et al., 2012). Trees being long-lived perennial plants

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<http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.apsoil.2016.05.003> 0929-1393/© 2016 Elsevier B.V. All rights reserved. typically produce nutrient poor and resistant to decomposition tissues, whereas agricultural plants typically allocate most of their C to photosynthetically active, high nutrient and readily decomposed tissues (Aerts and [Chapin,](#page--1-0) 2000). This can have important implications for soil C cycling, as the residence time of C in the soil is linked closely to its chemical nature and its accessibility to microbes (Conte et al., 2010; de [Alcântara](#page--1-0) et al., 1996; Smernik and [Oades,](#page--1-0) 2001). Additionally, the cycling of C in soil is determined to some degree by its C:N ratio and management (e.g. [Giardina](#page--1-0) et al., [2000](#page--1-0)). For example, an increase in soil C:N ratio is often associated with the conversion from pasture to woodland, due to increased C: N ratio of the litter inputs, and reduced disturbance and fertiliser inputs (Hoogmoed et al., 2014; [Hoogmoed](#page--1-0) et al., 2012; Ussiri et al., [2006](#page--1-0)).

Reforestation can change physicochemical properties of the soil (see [Cunningham](#page--1-0) et al., 2015b; and references therein). For example, soil nutrient levels (especially N) often decrease following reforestation due to cessation of fertiliser addition, reduced Corresponding author. The corresponding author. The corresponding author. The corresponding author. Corresponding author. and increased nutrient immobilisation (Garten and [Ashwood,](#page--1-0) 2002; Hooker and [Compton,](#page--1-0) 2003). However, increases in soil nutrients (both N and P) have been reported following reforestation of highly-degraded soils (Jiao et al., [2012\)](#page--1-0) and centuries after reforestation ([Wilson](#page--1-0) et al., 1997). Removal of livestock associated with reforestation can change soil physicochemical properties due to reduced levels of nutrient redistribution and grazing effects on plant-soil feedbacks (Holland and Detling, 1990; [Semmartin](#page--1-0) et al., [2008\)](#page--1-0). These changes in soil properties may have significant effects on soil biotic communities, including those that regulate the cycling of C and nutrients in soils ([Bardgett](#page--1-0) and Wardle, 2010; De Deyn et al., 2008; Ng et al., [2014b\)](#page--1-0).

The biomass, activity and diversity of soil microbial communities is affected strongly by changes in soil physicochemical properties [\(Bossio](#page--1-0) and Scow, 1998; Ng et al., 2014b), with most of this information coming from agricultural systems. In contrast, few insights have been gained about how soil microbial communities respond to reforestation. Soil microbial communities can differ between forested (plantations and native woodlands) and agricultural lands ([Bossio](#page--1-0) et al., 2005; Singh et al., 2007), among different types of agriculture [\(Drenovsky](#page--1-0) et al., 2010), and within a few years among different methods of revegetating agricultural lands [\(Hedlund,](#page--1-0) 2002). However, how reforestation of pastures with mixed-species, affects soil microbial communities remains largely unknown.

Despite the tremendous complexity of soil microbial communities, predictions can be made about how different groups of soil microbes, such as fungi and bacteria, will respond to revegetation. For example, following reforestation and afforestation (i.e. planting trees on areas that were historically treeless) of agricultural lands, soil C:N ratios generally increase [\(Berthrong](#page--1-0) et al., 2009; [Cavagnaro,](#page--1-0) 2016; Mackay et al., 2016), which is likely to cause a shift from bacterial to fungal dominance in soil communities (Busse et al., 2009; Fierer et al., 2009; [Högberg](#page--1-0) et al., [2007\)](#page--1-0). Given that soil communities play an important role in soil C and nutrient cycling [\(Bardgett](#page--1-0) and Wardle, 2010; De Deyn et al., 2008; Ng et al., [2014b\)](#page--1-0), it is valuable to determine how reforestation alters the microbial composition of soils.

Here, we quantify changes in the microbial community and soil physicochemical properties following the conversion of pastures to mixed-species plantings dominated by species belonging to the genera Eucalyptus L'Hér. and Acacia Mill. We selected mixedspecies plantings because they are planted increasingly instead of single-species plantings, and their higher above-ground biodiversity potential. We hypothesized that with time, the soil physicochemical properties and microbial community composition of tree plantings would become increasingly divergent from that of the adjacent pasture. To test this hypothesis, we surveyed a replicated chronosquence of sites ranging from treeless pastures through to remnant woodlands on ten farms in a temperate region of southeastern Australia. In order to account for differences in soil properties among farms, at each farm we sampled soils from both the reforested or remnant vegetation zones and an adjacent unreforested pasture.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Study area and design

This study focused on tree plantings on formerly-grazed pastures in northern Victoria, Australia (Table 1). Prior to European settlement in the 1840s, the region was dominated by Eucalyptus woodlands (10–30 m tall, 10–30% projective foliage cover (i.e. percentage of the sky blocked out by leaves and stems), [Specht,](#page--1-0) [1981](#page--1-0)) with grassy understoreys. Since European settlement the land has been cleared extensively and converted predominantly to dryland cropping and pasture-based grazing systems. Consequently,this region offers substantial opportunities for reforestation. The region has a temperate climate with seasonal changes in mean monthly maximum temperature $(12.8-31.0\degree C)$ and minimum temperature (3.2–14.9 \degree C), and a winter-dominant annual precipitation of 500–700 mm year⁻¹ (Table 1).

This study involved a survey of ten grazing farms that were selected to cover a representative range of time since reforestation (Table 1). At each of the 10 farms two sites were established, one of which was a 'reference pasture site' and the other was a 'treatment site' ([Fig.](#page--1-0) 1). The two sites on each farm were located 50 m apart from one another, but were in the same topographic position and on the same soil type (see below), and had the same management prior to re-forestation. The treatment sites were of the following classes: reforested patches, remnant woodland patches, or pastures. The reforested sites were planted with Trees 10, 18 or 30 years prior to sampling (i.e. there were two farms per age class) and were included to provide an indication of changes in soil properties with time since tree planting. The remnant sites were included to represent a potential trajectory for plantings at maturity (two farms). The reference pasture -pasture comparison (two farms) was included to provide a temporal reference without reforestation (0 years) for soil properties, and a spatial reference for the variability of soil properties across a field. This paired design allowed us to assess changes in soil properties under various stages of reforestation (i.e. treatment sites) relative to a conventional pasture management scenario (i.e. reference pasture sites). It also allowed us to partially account for differences among farms due to variation in land-use history and local soil properties.

The treatment sites on each farm included the whole tree planting or patch of remnant vegetation (approx. 2 ha), with an equivalent area sampled in the adjacent reference pastures. The

Environmental characteristics of the survey sites from the ten farms.

^a Age = years since planting. Age for the pastures was zero as they were not reforested and was unknown (na) for the remnant woodlands (see text).

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