

# ACCEPTED VERSION

T.R. Cavagnaro

**Life at the interface: above- and below-ground responses of a grazed pasture soil to reforestation**

Applied Soil Ecology, 2016; 100:27-37

© 2015 Elsevier B.V. All rights reserved.

This manuscript version is made available under the CC-BY-NC-ND 4.0 license

<http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/4.0/>

Final publication at <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.apsoil.2015.12.002>

## PERMISSIONS

<https://www.elsevier.com/about/policies/sharing>

Accepted Manuscript

Authors can share their [accepted manuscript](#):

**24 Month Embargo**

**After the embargo period**

- via non-commercial hosting platforms such as their institutional repository
- via commercial sites with which Elsevier has an agreement

**In all cases [accepted manuscripts](#) should:**

- link to the formal publication via its DOI
- bear a CC-BY-NC-ND license – this is easy to do
- if aggregated with other manuscripts, for example in a repository or other site, be shared in alignment with our [hosting policy](#)
- not be added to or enhanced in any way to appear more like, or to substitute for, the published journal article

**18 August 2021**

<http://hdl.handle.net/2440/100483>

**Title:** Life at the interface: above- and below-ground responses of a grazed pasture soil to reforestation.

5 **Author:**

Cavagnaro, T.R.

**Affiliation:**

School of Agriculture, Food and Wine, University of Adelaide, Waite Campus, PMB1

10 Glen Osmond, SA, 5064, Australia.

**Corresponding author:**

Associate Professor Timothy Cavagnaro

Email: [timothy.cavagnaro@adelaide.edu.au](mailto:timothy.cavagnaro@adelaide.edu.au)

Phone: +61 8 8313 2770

15

**Running title:**

Life at the interface

**Abstract:**

20 Conversion of agricultural lands to mixed species woody plantings is increasingly being undertaken as a means of sequestering C and increasing biodiversity. The implications of such changes in landuse for soil communities, and the ecosystem services they provide (e.g. nutrient and C cycling), are relatively little understood. Results of a detailed study of vegetation, soil physicochemical properties and soil

25 communities (primarily microbial) to reforestation of a pasture (15 years post  
reforestation), and its immediately adjacent un-restored pasture, are presented.  
Whereas the reforested portion of the site had significantly higher levels of tree  
canopy cover and a well-developed litter layer than the immediately adjacent  
pasture, the reverse was true for grass biomass. Although there were no differences  
30 in total root biomass between the sampling zones, the pasture zone was dominated  
by fine roots and the reforested zone by coarse roots. Reforestation had a significant  
impact on soil physicochemical properties, with soil C, C:N and mineral N being  
higher than in the pasture. The reforestation also supported a greater microbial  
PLFA, a higher Fungal:Bacterial PLFA ratio and a different microbial community  
35 (based on PLFA profiles) from that of the adjacent pasture. There were also  
difference in earthworm abundance, with earthworms present and absent in soils  
from the pasture and reforested zones, respectively. All of the changes in vegetation,  
soil physicochemical properties and biotic communities occurred abruptly at the  
interface between the land-use types, with no evidence of an interaction between  
40 side of fence (reforested versus pasture zones) and distance from the fence. Results  
are discussed in the context of changes in land-use on soil ecology and their  
potential functional significance.

**Key Words:**

45 Pasture; Phospholipid Fatty Acid (PLFA); Reforestation; Soil carbon; Soil ecology; Soil  
microbial community.

## 1 Introduction

50 There is great potential to sequester C in the soil (Lal, 2004). This can be achieved in many ways, including the addition of C-rich materials to the soil, changes in specific farming practices, and land-use change (Cunningham et al., 2015a; Minoshima et al., 2007; Ng et al., 2014; Paul et al., 2002; Quilty and Cattle, 2011). One approach that is receiving increasing attention is the conversion of agricultural lands, especially those  
55 that are marginal or are expected to become so under climate change, to mixed species woody plantings (Cunningham et al., 2015b). This approach to C sequestration can also provide additional environmental benefits, such as the provision of habitat, improving soil stability, and reducing the risk of point source pollution (Bradshaw et al., 2012; Burger et al., 2010; Cunningham et al., 2015b).

60 Reforestation can have a profound impact on soil properties. For example, soil N levels are generally lower following reforestation compared to agricultural lands due to the addition of fertilizers in fields (Garten and Ashwood, 2002), and the large N demand of growing trees (Berthrong et al., 2009). In contrast, P mineralization and availability can be higher in tree plantings than in agricultural  
65 lands (Chen et al., 2008; Wilson et al., 1997). Increases in the amounts and stability of soil C have also been reported following reforestation of agricultural lands (Cunningham et al., 2015a; de Alcântara et al., 1996; Smith et al., 2012). These changes in soil C are likely due differences in the amount and chemical nature of plant litter inputs from trees compared to crop and pasture species (Aerts and  
70 Chapin, 2000). Soil C:N ratios can also increase following reforestation of pastures (Berthrong et al., 2009; Cunningham et al., 2015a; Cunningham et al., 2012). These

changes in soil chemistry are often associated with changes in soil microbial communities and their functioning.

Shifts in microbial community composition following reforestation have been reported (e.g. Bossio et al., 2005; Hedlund, 2002; Wu et al., 2013). An increase in soil fungal:bacterial (PLFA) ratios, as high as 50%, has also been found following reforestation of pastures (MacDonald et al., 2009). These increases in fungal:bacterial (PLFA) ratios can be explained by a positive relationship between soil fungal:bacterial (PLFA) and soil C:N ratios (Busse et al., 2009; Högberg et al., 2007; Waring et al., 2013). Together, such changes in soil microbial community composition and bacterial and fungal biomass can have implications for soil nutrient and carbon cycling as soil microbes play an important role in these processes (Bardgett and Wardle, 2010; Jackson et al., 2008; Paul, 2006).

Although soil ecological responses to reforestation of agricultural lands have been studied (e.g. Bossio et al., 2005; Hedlund, 2002; Singh et al., 2007), relatively little is known about patterns of change at the interface between these land-use types. However, some insights have been gained. For example, in a study of soil and vegetation properties at the interface between a reforested pasture and its immediately adjacent un-restored pasture, an abrupt change in both the amounts and forms of C (by  $^{13}\text{C}$  solid-state NMR) was found (Smith et al., 2012). The same was also true for rates of nutrient cycling processes (specifically potential N mineralization), which were higher in the reforested zone. Impacts on soil communities were not considered in this earlier work. Given their importance in soil C and nutrient cycling (see Bardgett and Wardle, 2010; Jackson et al., 2008; Paul, 2006, for detailed review), this is an important knowledge gap.

Here results of a study of soil ecological responses of a pasture soil to reforestation are presented. The study focused on the interface between an area that had been converted from a pasture to a tree planting 15 years prior to sampling, and a contiguous pasture of a similar size that had been managed in the same way as the tree planting prior to its establishment. Particular emphasis was placed on changes in soil microbial community composition, soil C stocks and aspects of soil N cycling. It was hypothesised that planting trees on the pasture would result in:

1. An abrupt change in soil physicochemical properties at the interface between the two land-uses;
2. An increase in the fungal:bacterial (PLFA) ratio in the reforested portion of the site compared to the pasture; and
3. The development of microbial community in the reforested portion of the site that was different from that of the pasture.

110 **2 Materials and Methods.**

2.1 Field site and survey design

Soils were collected from a grazed (sheep) pasture farm in Archie's Creek, in the West Gippsland region of Victoria, Australia. The region has a temperate climate with a mean maximum temperature in the hottest month of 23.4°C, and a mean  
115 minimum temperature in the coolest month of 5.9°C, and an annual mean rainfall of 1095 mm/year (<http://www.bom.gov.au/climate/>, last accessed June, 2015). Prior to European settlement, this region was covered predominantly in woodlands and forests dominated by *Eucalyptus* species. These woodlands and forests have been extensively cleared since the 1840s for pasture and stock production.

120 The field site included an area that had been converted from a pasture to a tree planting 15 years prior to sampling. The tree planting was 2 ha in size, and was immediately adjacent to a pasture (3 ha in size) that had been managed in the same way as the tree planting prior to its establishment (i.e. previously part of the same field). The tree planting was established by fencing out grazing stock and hand  
125 planting tubestock seedlings into furrows/rip-lines at 3 m spacing. The site contained a mixture of native plant species and was dominated by *Eucalyptus globulus* spp. *globulus* and *E. obliqua*, with a tree density of 690 trees ha<sup>-1</sup> and a basal area of 23.8m<sup>2</sup> ha<sup>-1</sup> (Cunningham, unpublished).

Patterns in soil properties at the pasture/tree-planting interface were studied  
130 at the site in September 2013 (Austral Spring). A 36 m × 36 m plot that (equally) spanned both sides of the fence line dividing the pasture and the tree planting was established (Figure 1); this spatially explicit sampling design is based on that of Smith *et al.* (2012). Importantly, the main plot was located on the site where all sampling

zones were in a similar topographical position so as to avoid any gradients that may  
135 have existed across the site prior to reforestation. The main plot was divided into six  
contiguous sampling zones (referred to as zones A, B, C, D, E and F, hereafter), each  
of which was 36 m long (parallel to the direction of the fence line), and 6 m wide  
(perpendicular to the direction of the fence line). Thus, each sampling zone was  
divided into six equally sized (i.e. 6 m × 6 m) sampling plots, giving a total of 36 plots  
140 across the site.

## *2.2 Sample collection and analysis*

Tree canopy cover (i.e. extent) was quantified in the center of each plot (following  
Burger et al., 2010). Surface litter was collected from each plot from a centrally  
145 located 0.25 m × 0.25 m quadrat. Grass biomass was also collected from within each  
of the litter sampling quadrats. Litter and grass dry weights were determined  
(separately) after drying of the samples at 60°C for 48 h.

After collection of grass and litter, three soil cores were collected from within  
each litter sampling quadrat by gently tapping metal cores (7.2 cm diameter) of  
150 known volume (203 cm<sup>3</sup>) into the soil to a depth of 5 cm. This sampling zone was  
selected as this soil layer is where biological activity is greatest in these soils  
(Cavagnaro, un-published). The first core was used for measurement of bulk density  
and root biomass as follows. All soil was removed from the core and divided into two  
sub-samples. The first sub-sample was used to determine soil gravimetric moisture  
155 content following drying at 105°C for 48 h, and calculation of bulk density (see Smith  
et al., 2012), and the second for determination of root biomass. Roots were carefully  
washed from the soil, separated into to fine (<2 mm diameter) and coarse (>2 mm



diameter) roots, dried for 48 h at 60°C, and root biomass per g dry soil determined. The remaining two soil cores were immediately combined in the field, place in a  
160 plastic bag, and stored immediately at 4°C in a portable, battery powered refrigerator. The refrigerated samples, all of which were collected on the same day, were returned to the laboratory for immediate processing and analysis the following day. Soil processing involved carefully mixing soil samples and passing them through a 2 mm sieve to remove stones and any coarse woody debris. All earthworms were  
165 also collected and counted. The sieved soil samples were then divided into four sub-samples for the following analyses.

The first subsample was placed in a tube and immediately frozen at -20°C for subsequent microbial analysis (see below). The second sub-sample was used to determine gravimetric moisture content (as above). The third sub sample was use  
170 for determination of mineral N and potentially mineralizable N (PMN), as follows. Triplicate soil samples (30 g moist soil) were taken, extracted with 2 M KCl, and inorganic N content determined colorimetrically using a modification of the method reported in Miranda *et al.* (2001) for NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>-N, and in Forster (1995) for NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>-N. Potential mineralizable N (PMN) was determined by anaerobic incubation (following  
175 Potthoff et al., 2005; Waring and Bremner, 1964). The fourth sub-sample was air dried and analyzed for key physicochemical properties, including plant-available (Colwell) P, pH and EC (1:5 water extracts), total C and N (by dry combustion) and labile (permanganate oxidisable) carbon. These analyses were performed by the Environmental Analysis Laboratory, Southern Cross University (see  
180 <http://scu.edu.au/eal/>, for details of laboratory methods, last accessed November, 2015).

The soil sub-sample frozen at the time of processing was used for microbial analysis by PLFA. PLFA's were extracted and identified as described previously (see Mosse et al., 2012; Ng et al., 2014). Briefly, PLFAs were extracted using citrate buffer and alkaline methanolysis of phospholipids. The PLFA profile was then identified using a Varian CP 38/00 gas chromatograph fitted with a 5% phenyl:95% methylsiloxane column (Varian, Walnut Creek CA, USA). The fatty acids i15:0, a15:0, 15:0, i16:0, 16:1 $\omega$ 7, i17:0, a17:0, 17:0cy, and 17:0 were chosen as bacterial biomarkers and linoleic acid (18:2 $\omega$ 6,9) was chosen as the biomarker for decomposer fungi, based on Ng *et al.* (2014). These PLFA's were then used to calculate Fungal:Bacterial PLFA ratios.

#### 2.4 Data analysis

Box plots were constructed for vegetation, soil physicochemical, microbial community and worm abundance data, for each sampling location (A – F) using the *Boxplot* function in R (Murrell, 2005). Boxplots were selected for data presentation as they display the median, minimum, maximum, first and third quartiles, and any outliers in a single graphic.

As soil samples were taken at varying distances from the fence separating the paddock and the reforested zone, it is not valid to make direct comparisons between the two sampling zones using, for example, an ANOVA-based approach (Smith et al., 2012; Zar, 1999). To overcome this issue, spatial patterns in soil properties were described using piecewise linear (a.k.a. broken-stick) regression modelling. This approach allowed us to examine the relationships between soil variables and 'side of fence' (i.e. reforested-zone versus pasture-zone). This approach was also used to test

for interactions between side of fence and distance from the fence; however, there were no significant interactions, and so results of this analysis are not considered further. This analysis was performed using linear mixed effects models, using the Lem4 package in R (Bates et al., 2015). The Lem4 package provides an estimate, and  
210 its associated standard error (S.E.), of the model intercept and slope of the parameter(s) of interest. We then used the pbkrtest package in R (Halekoh and Højsgaard, 2014) to use the Kenward-Roger approximation to get approximate degrees of freedom and the *t*-distribution to get *p*-values. These *p*-values were then used to identify significant differences in vegetation or soil properties on either side  
215 of the fence. To aid in interpretation of the results, the *p*-values are presented on each data Figure, and are also presented in a summary Table, along with other output from this data analysis (Table 1).

Microbial community composition (PLFA; mol percent) data were analyzed with non-metric multidimensional scaling (NMDS) ordination. This analysis was  
220 performed in R using the metaMDS function in the vegan package (Oksanen et al., 2012), with default parameters except for: autotransform = false, trymax = 100, pc = false, distance = bray. Only those PLFA's that were present in more than 10% of samples were included in this analysis. The final stress value in the NMDS was 0.12. Further, 95% confidence ellipses around locations were generated using the  
225 ordiellipse() function. Correlations between the NMDS ordination of the microbial community composition and soil variables were tested with 1000 permutations in the envfit() function in the vegan package in R. Soil variables included in this analysis were: soil moisture, NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>-N, NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>-N, PMN, Colwell P, pH, EC, Total C (%), soil C:N and bulk density. Other soil variables were omitted because they were either highly

230 correlated with another variable included in the analysis (e.g. labile C, total N and  
total C), or were highly correlated with land use – e.g. the presence and (complete)  
absence of worms in the pasture and reforested zones respectively. Permutational  
multivariate analysis of variance (perMANOVA) was also employed to test  
235 significance of the experimental factors (reforested zone versus pasture) microbial  
community (PLFA) datasets and to assess the relative proportion of variation that  
each factor contributed (Anderson, 2001). PerMANOVA analyses were performed in  
R with the adonis function in the vegan package with the default parameters (Bray-  
Curtis distance measure, 999 permutations). To explore changes in specific PLFA's  
and their relationship to environmental variables, a second NMDS was constructed  
240 in which specific PLFA's were ordinated and overlaid with the same vectors (of  
environmental variables) as above. N.B. While this analysis used data for all PLFA's,  
the resulting ordination had a large number of PLFA's clustered around the origin,  
making it difficult to identify those individual PLFA's. Therefore, in the Figure (Figure  
245 6b), these PLFA's at the origin have been removed for the sake of clarity of data  
presentation.

### 3 Results

#### 3.1 Vegetation and litter

Fifteen years after reforestation there were substantial differences in the vegetation,  
250 both above- and below-ground, and litter layers between the reforested and pasture  
plots (Figure 2). Whereas the reforested portion of the site had an extensive tree  
canopy (canopy cover =  $56 \pm 1.5$  %) and a well-developed litter layer (Figure 1) than  
the immediately adjacent pasture, the reverse was true for grass biomass. These  
differences in vegetation extended below-ground with the pasture and reforested  
255 zones having significantly higher (Table 1) fine root biomass and coarse root biomass  
than one another, respectively (Figure 2). There were, however, no significant  
differences in total root biomass between the two sides of the fence (Table 1).  
Although the interaction between side of fence and distance from fence was not  
significant, fine root biomass was notably lower immediately adjacent to the fence.

260

#### 3.2 Soil physicochemical properties

The concentrations of total C, labile C and soil C stocks (in the 0-5 cm soil layer) were  
significantly higher in the reforested zone than in the pasture zone (Table 1, Figure  
3a-c). Total soil N concentration was also significantly higher in the reforested zone  
265 than the pasture zone (Table 1, Figure 3d), but the difference between the zones was  
less than that for total C; nevertheless, soil C:N ratios were higher in the reforested  
zone than the pasture zone (Table 1, Figure 3e). Soil bulk density did not differ  
significantly between the two sampling zones (Table 1, Figure 3f).

Mineral N, measured as both  $\text{NH}_4^+$ -N and  $\text{NO}_3^-$ -N were significantly higher in  
270 the reforested zone than in the pasture zone (Table 1, Figure 4a,b). There was,

however, no difference in PMN between the two sampling zones (Table 1, Figure 4c). Levels of plant-available (Colwell) P were generally high and did not differ between the two sampling zones (Table 1, Figure 4d). Whereas soil pH was significantly lower in the reforested zone than the pasture zone, the reverse was true for EC (Table 1, 275 Figure 4e,f). The differences in pH were, however, small and levels of EC low, suggesting that the biological significance of these differences may be minimal.

### 3.3 Soil communities

There was a clear impact of reforestation on both vegetation and soil 280 physicochemical properties, providing a strong contrast for assessing soil ecological responses to land-use change. Whereas total PLFA, fungal PLFA and bacterial PLFA did not differ between the reforested and pasture zones (Table 1, Figure 5a-c), the Fungal:Bacterial PLFA ratio did, with the ratio significantly higher in the reforested zone than the pasture zone (Table 1, Figure 5d). This increase in Fungal:Bacterial 285 PLFA ratio was associated with an increase in soil C:N ratio, as indicated by a positive correlation between C:N and Fungal:Bacterial PLFA ratios ( $P < 0.001$ ;  $R^2 = 0.44$ ). There were also significantly more earthworms in the pasture zone than the reforested zone (Table 1, Figure 5e). The soil microbial communities were also clearly different between the two sampling zones (Figure 6), with the difference in communities on 290 either side of the fence (i.e. reforested versus pasture zone) significantly different (perMANOVA  $p = 0.001$ ). The differences in the communities were associated with soil mineral N, EC, Total (%) C and soil C:N ratio, as indicated by the vectors on Figure 6a. Further analysis of the PLFA data indicated no clear patterns between specific PLFA's and the different environmental variables (Figure 6b) found to be associated

295 with differences in microbial community composition at the site level (i.e. compare Figure 6a, b). Although some PLFA's were strongly separated on the NMDS (Figure 6b), there was no clear relationship between the PLFA's (most of which are reported to be bacterial markers) and the environmental variables on the ordination.

## 300 **4. Discussion**

Trees were well established with a dense canopy, a substantial litter layer and no grassy understory fifteen years after reforestation of the pasture. This contrasted the pasture which had no trees, very little litter and a dense pasture sward. This finding is consistent with earlier work showing a relatively rapid development of vegetation following reforestation (Burger et al., 2010; Cunningham et al., 2015b). Reforestation resulted in changes below-ground, with strong differences in soil physicochemical (hypothesis 1) and biological properties (hypotheses 2, 3) observed between the pasture and reforested sampling zones. Changes above- and below-ground occurred abruptly on either side of the fence-line, with no evidence of a gradient with increasing distance on either side of the fence, as indicated by a lack of interaction between side of fence and distance of fence in the piecewise linear regression modelling. Results are now discussed in the context of above- and below-ground impacts of reforestation of this pasture.

### 315 *4.1 Vegetation and litter*

Abrupt changes in vegetation on either side of the fence line were evident both above- and below-ground. Although there were no differences in root biomass between the two zones, the composition (i.e. fine roots versus coarse roots) differed greatly. This reflects the absence of a grassy understory (fine roots) in the reforested zone, and the absence of trees (coarse roots) in the pasture zone. It is important to note, however, that some coarse roots were observed in the pasture immediately adjacent to the fence. Given that the trees grew along the fence-line, and roots can



extend large distances from the base of a tree (Ashton, 1975; Toky and Bisht, 1992), this was to be expected.

325           Substantial amounts of litter were found on the reforested portion of the site, but not the pasture. The rate of litter accrual in the reforested zone was  $\geq 10 \text{ t ha}^{-1}$  post-reforestation. This rate of accrual is almost twice that observed in eucalyptus-dominated mixed species woody plantings in lower rainfall region in northern Victoria, Australia (Cunningham et al., 2015a), but within the range  
330 expected for forests (Cunningham et al., 2015a; Pregitzer and Euskirchen, 2004). Although litter stocks are less stable than soil C, and at greater risk of loss (e.g. due to fire), they represent an important store of C in these systems and can be considered as potential “future soil C”. The rate at which C in the litter layer enters the soil C pool will vary depending on a range of factors, including the chemical  
335 composition of the litter, environmental and edaphic conditions and rates of biological activity (Cou<sup>^</sup>teauxa et al., 1995; Melillo et al., 1992; Smernik and Oades, 2001). Future studies would benefit for more detailed studies of litter composition, both at the level of tissue types (e.g. leaves, sticks, etc.), but also at a chemical level (e.g. cellulose and lignin content, etc).

340

#### *4.2 Soil physicochemical properties*

Reforestation of the pasture was associated with higher levels of mineral N ( $\text{NO}_3^-$ -N and  $\text{NH}_4^+$ -N) compared to the adjacent pasture. This is in contrast to other studies showing lower levels of mineral N following reforestation of agricultural lands  
345 (Berthrong et al., 2009; Garten and Ashwood, 2002). One possible explanation is that fertilizer inputs in the pasture may have been low, or non-existent (data not

available). Alternatively, the higher levels of mineral N following reforestation may be a result of the presence of a number of tree species that form associations with N-fixing bacteria, including members of the genera *Acacia* and *Allocasuarina*. An earlier study at a different site, but with a similar botanical composition, found that levels of N can be higher under N-fixing trees, but impacts on soil N (and C) varied with tree species (Hoogmoed et al., 2014). The higher levels of mineral N observed in the present study may also reflect greater turn-over of N in the soil, although this was not reflected in levels of potentially mineralizable N measured at the time of sampling. Longer term studies of N cycling will be important in helping us to understand the dynamics of N-cycling in these systems.

Soil C stocks and concentrations were higher in the reforested portion of the site compared to the pasture. The increase in soil C was both substantial and rapid, with an increase observed 15 years after reforestation, and in a soil already high (for the region) in C (i.e. 4-5% total C in the pasture soil). These high rates of C sequestration are likely a reflection of the relatively high rainfall and net primary productivity at this site. In addition to a general increase in total soil C, labile (permanganate oxidisable) C was also higher in the reforested portion of the site. This increase in labile C likely reflects C released from recently deposited plant litter and root exudates. Finally, soil C:N ratios were higher in the reforested portion of the site than the pasture. This increase, which is consistent with earlier work (Berthrong et al., 2009; Cunningham et al., 2012) but has not been previously demonstrated in these systems, is likely to have important impacts on soil communities, as will now be discussed.

370

### 4.3 Soil communities

Reforestation of the pasture resulted in significant changes in soil communities at the Total PLFA and structural levels (diversity and community composition).

375 Although total microbial, fungal and bacterial PLFA, did not differ between sampling zones, there was a shift towards greater fungal dominance (increased Fungal:Bacterial PLFA ratio) of the soil microbial community with reforestation. This increase in the Fungal:Bacterial PLFA ratio, which can be explained by a small, albeit non-significant increase in fungal PLFA in the reforested zone and bacterial PLFA in the pasture, was positively correlated with the soil C:N ratio, as in earlier studies  
380 (Fierer et al., 2009; Waring et al., 2013).

Reforestation resulted in the development of a microbial community that was compositionally different from that of the adjacent pasture, consistent with earlier studies (Bossio et al., 2005; Hedlund, 2002; Wu et al., 2013). These differences were associated with differences in soil C, mineral N pools, C:N ratios and  
385 soil EC, all of which are known to have an impact on microbial community composition and activity (e.g. Ng et al., 2014; Smuckler et al., 2010; Steenwerth et al., 2003). Whereas clear differences in microbial community composition between the reforested and pasture zones were observed in the ordination of the PLFA data (Figure 6a), there was little variation between sampling locations (i.e. distance from  
390 fence) within the sampling zones. That is, there was no evidence of the adjacent land-use having an impact on microbial community composition immediately adjacent to the fence. Given the abrupt changes in vegetation and soil physicochemical properties between the sampling zones, this was not unexpected. Despite the changes in microbial community composition at the site level (i.e.

395 separation sites on basis of land-use in Figure 6a), there was no clear indication of these changes being associated with specific PLFA's (Figure 6b). This suggests that changes in community composition were due to complex changes in the relative abundance of a range of PLFA's; this is worthy of further investigation.

## 400 **5 Conclusions.**

The results presented here show that 15 years after reforestation of a former pasture, substantial changes can be observed both above- and below-ground. These changes occurred abruptly at the interface between the two land-use types, with no interaction between land-use and distance from fence observed. Changes in the microbial community at the total PLFA, fungal:bacterial PLFA ratio, and whole community composition levels point to the relatively rapid development of a microbial community following reforestation that is different from that of the adjacent pasture. The functional implications of these changes, especially at the level of the ecosystem services provided by soil biota, are of particular interest and worthy of further investigation. Although not a primary focus of this study, there was also a very strong difference in earthworm abundance between the sampling zones; this observation is also in need of further detailed investigation in these systems given the important role of earthworms in soil processes (Paul, 2006). While it is important to not make broad generalizations beyond this site (or sampling depth) about changes that occur below-ground following reforestation, it was clear at this site that dramatic changes were observed in the upper soil layer of this site. As landscapes become increasingly fragmented, understanding changes in above- and

below-ground components of ecosystems, especially at the interface between landuse types, will become increasingly important.

420

## **Acknowledgements**

The author wishes to thank the landholder for access to their farm to undertake this work. Thanks for Ms Jess MacKay for assistance in the field and laboratory (while at Monash University), Dr Shaun Cunningham for assistance in identifying the field site  
425 and many enjoyable discussions over the years, and Dr Jim Thomson and Dr Tim Bowles for advice on data wrangling and analysis in R. I also thank the editor and two anonymous reviewers for comments on an earlier version of the manuscript that helped to improve it greatly. This work was funded via the award for a Future Fellowship to the author by the Australian Research Council (FT120100463).  
430 Excelsior!

## References

- 435 Aerts, R., Chapin, F.S.I., 2000. The mineral nutrition of wildplants revisited: a re-evaluation of process and patterns. *Adv. Ecol. Res* 30, 1-67.
- Anderson, M.J., 2001. A new method for non-parametric multivariate analysis of variance. *Austral Ecol.* 26, 32-46.
- Ashton, D.H., 1975. The root and shoot development of *Eucalyptus regnans* F. Muell. *Aust. J. Bot.* 23, 867-887.
- 440 Bardgett, R.D., Wardle, D.A., 2010. Aboveground-Belowground Linkages: Biotic Interactions, Ecosystem Processes, and Global Change. Oxford University Press, Oxford.
- Bates, D., Maechler, M., Bolker, B., Walker, S., Christensen, R.H.B., Singmann, H., Dai, B., Grothendieck, G., 2015. lme4: Linear Mixed-Effects Models using 'Eigen' and S4.
- 445 Berthrong, S.T., Jobbagy, E.G., Jackson, R.B., 2009. A global meta-analysis of soil exchangeable cations, pH, carbon, and nitrogen with afforestation. *Ecol. Apps.* 19, 2228-2241.
- Bossio, D.A., Girvan, M.S., Verchot, L., Bullimore, J., Borelli, T., A., A., Scow, K.M., Ball, A.S., Pretty, J.N., Osborn, A.M., 2005. Soil microbial community response to land use change in an agricultural landscape of western Kenya. *Microb. Ecol.* 49, 50-62.
- 450 Bradshaw, C.J.A., Bowman, D.M.J.S., Bond, N.R., Murphy, B.P., Moore, A.D., Fordham, D.A., Thackway, R., Lawes, M.J., McCallum, H., Gregory, S.D., Dalal, R.C., Boer, M.M., Lynch, A.J.J., Bradstock, R.A., Brook, B.W., Henry, B.K., Hunt, L.P., Fisher, D.O., Hunter, D., Johnson, C.N., Keith, D.A., Lefroy, E.C., Penman, T.D., Meyer, W.S.,
- 455 Thomson, J.R., Thornton, C.M., VanDerWal, J., Williams, R.J., Keniger, L., Specht, A., 2012. Brave new green world—consequences of a carbon economy for the conservation of Australian biodiversity. *Biol. Conserv.* 161, 71-90.
- Burger, B., Reich, P., Cavagnaro, T.R., 2010. Trajectories of change: riparian vegetation and soil conditions following livestock removal and replanting. *Austral Ecol.* 35, 980-987.
- 460 Busse, M.D., Sanchez, F.G., Ratcliff, A.W., Butnor, J.R., Carter, E.A., R.F., P., 2009. Soil carbon sequestration and changes in fungal and bacterial biomass following incorporation of forest residues. *Soil Biology & Biochemistry* 41, 220-227.
- Chen, C.R., Condon, L.M., Xu, Z.H., 2008. Impacts of grassland afforestation with coniferous trees on soil phosphorus dynamics and associated microbial processes: a review. *Forest Ecol. Manage.* 255, 396-409.
- 465 Couˆteaux, M.-M., Bottner, P., Berg, B., 1995. Litter decomposition, climate and litter quality. *TREE* 10, 63-66.
- Cunningham, S.C., Cavagnaro, T.R., Mac Nally, R., Paul, K.I., Baker, P.J., Beringer, J.,
- 470 Thomson, J., Thompson, R.M., 2015a. Reforestation with native mixed-species plantings in a temperate continental climate effectively sequesters and stabilizes carbon within decades. *Glob. Change. Biol.* 21, 1552.
- Cunningham, S.C., Mac Nally, R., Baker, P.J., Cavagnaro, T.R., Beringer, J., Thomson, J.R., Thompson, R.M., 2015b. Balancing the environmental benefits of reforestation in agricultural regions. *Prespect. Plant Ecol.* 17, 301-317.
- 475 Cunningham, S.C., Metzeling, K.J., Mac Nally, R., Thomson, J.R., Cavagnaro, T.R., 2012. Changes in soil carbon of pastures after afforestation with mixed species: sampling, heterogeneity and surrogates. *Ag. Ecosyst. Environ.* 158, 58-65.

- 480 de Alcântara, F.A., Buurman, P., Curi, N., Furtini Neto, A.E., van Lagen, B., Meijer,  
E.L., 1996. Changes in soil organic matter composition after introduction of riparian  
vegetation on shores of hydroelectric reservoirs (Southeast of Brazil). *Soil Biol.  
Biochem.* 36, 1497-1508.
- Fierer, N., Strickland, M.S., Liptzin, D., Bradford, M.A., Cleveland, C.C., 2009. Global  
patterns in belowground communities. *Ecol. Letts.* 12, 1-12.
- 485 Forster, J.C., 1995. Soil nitrogen., in: Alef, K., Nannipieri, P. (Eds.), *Methods in Applied  
Soil Microbiology and Biochemistry*. Academic Press San Diego, CA., pp. 79–87.
- Garten, C.T., Ashwood, T.L., 2002. Landscape level differences in soil carbon and  
implications for soil carbon sequestration. *Glob. Biogeochem. Cy.* 16, 61/61–61/14.
- 490 Halekoh, U., Højsgaard, S., 2014. pbrtest: Parametric bootstrap and Kenward-  
Roger-based methods for mixed model comparison.
- Hedlund, K., 2002. Soil microbial community structure in relation to vegetation  
management on former agricultural land. *Soil Biol. Biochem.* 34, 1299–1307.
- Högberg, M.N., Högberg, P., Myrold, D.D., 2007. Is microbial community composition  
in boreal forest soils determined by pH, C-to-N ratio, the trees, or all three?  
495 *Oecologia* 150, 590-601.
- Hoogmoed, M., Cunningham, S.C., Baker, P.J., Beringer, J., Cavagnaro, T.R., 2014. N-  
fixing trees in restoration plantings: effects on nitrogen supply and soil microbial  
communities. *Soil Biol. Biochem.* 77, 203-212.
- 500 Jackson, L., Burger, M., Cavagnaro, T., 2008. Roots, nitrogen transformations, and  
ecosystem services. *Ann. Rev. Plant Biol.* 59, 341–363
- Lal, R., 2004. Carbon sequestration in dryland ecosystems. *Environ. Manage.* 33,  
528–544.
- MacDonald, C.A., Thomas, N., Robinson, L., Tate, K.R., Ross, D.J., Dando, J., Singh,  
B.K., 2009. Physiological, biochemical and molecular responses of the soil microbial  
505 community after afforestation of pastures with *Pinus radiata*. *Soil Biol. Biochem.* 41,  
1642–1651.
- Melillo, J.M., Aber, J.D., Muratore, J.F., 1992. Nitrogen and lignin control of  
hardwood leaf litter decomposition dynamics. *Ecology* 63, 621-626.
- 510 Minoshima, H., Jackson, L.E., Cavagnaro, T.R., Sánchez-Moreno, S., Ferris, H., Temple,  
S.R., Mitchell, J.P., 2007. Soil food webs and carbon dynamics in response to  
conservation tillage in legume rotations in California. *Soil Sci. Soc. Am. J.* 71, 952-963.
- Miranda, K.M., Espey, M.G., Wink, D.A., 2001. A rapid, simple spectrophotometric  
method for simultaneous detection of nitrate and nitrite. *Nitric Oxide* 5, 62-71.
- 515 Mosse, K.M.P., Patti, A.F., Christen, E.W., Cavagnaro, T.R., 2012. Physicochemical and  
microbiological effects of long- and short-term winery wastewater application to  
soils. *J. Hazard. Mat.* 201, 219-228.
- Murrell, P., 2005. *R Graphics*. Chapman & Hall/CRC Press., London, UK.
- Ng, E., Rose, M.T., Scheffe, C.R., Wilkinson, K., Smernik, R.J., Cavagnaro, T.R., 2014.  
Does the chemical nature of soil carbon drive the structure and functioning of soil  
520 microbial communities? *Soil Biol. Biochem.* 70, 54-61.
- Oksanen, J., Blanchet, F.G., Kindt, R., Legendre, P., Minchin, P.R., Hara, R.B., Simpson,  
G.L., Solymos, P., Stevens, M.H.H., Wagner, H., 2012. *vegan: Community Ecology  
Package*.
- Paul, E.A., 2006. *Soil microbiology, ecology and biochemistry*. Academic Press.



- 525 Paul, K.I., Polglase, P.J., Nyakuengama, J.G., Khanna, P.K., 2002. Changes in soil carbon following afforestation. *Forest Ecol. Manage.* 168, 241-257.
- Potthoff, M., Jackson, L.E., Steenwerth, K.L., Ramirez, I., Stromberg, M.R., Rolston, D.E., 2005. Soil biological and chemical properties in restored perennial grassland in California. *Restor. Ecol.* 13, 61-73.
- 530 Pregitzer, K.S., Euskirchen, E.S., 2004. Carbon cycling and storage in world forests: biome patterns related to forest age. *Glob. Change. Biol.* 10, 2052-2077.
- Quilty, J.R., Cattle, S.R., 2011. Use and understanding of organic amendments in Australian agriculture: a review. *Soil Res.* 49, 1-26.
- Singh, B.K., Tate, K.R., Kolipaka, G., Hedley, C.B., Macdonald, C.A., Millard, P., 535 Murrell, C.J., 2007. Effect of afforestation and reforestation of pastures on the activity and population dynamics of methanotrophic bacteria. *Appl. Environ. Microb.* 73, 5153-5161.
- Smernik, R.J., Oades, J.M., 2001. Background Signal in Solid State <sup>13</sup>C NMR Spectra of Soil Organic Matter (SOM)--Quantification and Minimization. *Solid State Nuclear* 540 *Mag. Reson.*, 74-84.
- Smith, M., Conte, P., Berns, A.E., Thomson, J., Cavagnaro, T.R., 2012. Spatial patterns of, and environmental controls on, soil properties at a riparian-paddock interface. *Soil Biol. Biochem.* 49, 39-45.
- Smuckler, S.M., Sánchez-Moreno, S., Fonte, S.J., Ferris, H., Klonsky, K., O'Geen, A.T., 545 Scow, K.M., Steenwerth, K.L., Jackson, L.E., 2010. Biodiversity and multiple ecosystem functions in an organic farmscape *Ag. Ecosyst. Environ.* 139, 80-97.
- Steenwerth, K.L., Jackson, L.E., Calderon, F.J., Stromberg, M.R., Scow, K.M., 2003. Soil microbial community composition and land use history in cultivated and grassland ecosystems in coastal California. *Soil Biol. Biochem.* 35, 489-500.
- 550 Toky, O.P., Bisht, R.P., 1992. Observations on the rooting patterns of some agroforestry trees in an arid region of north-western India. *Agroforest. Sys.* 19, 245-263.
- Waring, B.G., Averill, C., Hawkes, C.H., 2013. Differences in fungal and bacterial physiology alter soil carbon and nitrogen cycling: insights from meta-analysis and theoretical models. *Ecol. Letts.* 16, 887-894.
- 555 Waring, S.A., Bremner, J.M., 1964. Ammonium production in soil under waterlogged conditions as an index of nitrogen availability. *Nature* 201, 951-952.
- Wilson, B.R., Moffatt, A.J., Nortcliff, S., 1997. The nature of three ancient woodland soils in southern England. *J. Biogeog.* 24, 633-646.
- 560 Wu, J.P., Liu, Z.F., Sun, Y.X., Zhou, L.X., Lin, Y.B., Fu, S.F., 2013. Introduced Eucalyptus urophylla plantations change the composition of the microbial community in subtropical China. *Land Deg. Develop.* 24, 400-406.
- Zar, J.H., 1999. *Biostatistical Analysis*, 4th ed. Prentice Hall, New Jersey.

565

**Table 1.** Summary of analysis of vegetation, soil physicochemical and biological properties by piecewise linear (a.k.a. broken-stick) regression modelling (see text).

<b>Property</b>	<b>Estimate</b>	<b>S.E.</b>	<b>t-value</b>	<b>p-value (KR)</b>
<i>Vegetation</i>				
Canopy Cover (%)	55.8	1.5	37.9	0.000006
Litter Mass (g dry weight)	1216.7	127.6	9.5	0.0007
Grassy Biomass (g dry weight)	-152.7	20.2	-7.6	0.002
Coarse Root Biomass (g dry weight)	2.9	0.6	4.7	0.009
Fine Root Biomass (g dry weight)	-4.4	1.1	-4.0	0.02
Total Root Biomass (g dry weight)	-1.6	1/2	-1.3	0.3
<i>Soil Physicochemical</i>				
Total C (%)	1.5	0.3	5.1	0.007
Labile C (%)	0.5	0.1	5.4	0.006
Soil C stock (t ha <sup>-1</sup> )	6.4	1.7	3.7	0.02
Total N (%)	0.06	0.02	2.9	0.04
Soil C:N	1.8	0.3	2.8	0.004
Bulk Density (g cm <sup>-3</sup> )	-0.04	0.06	-0.7	0.5
NH <sub>4</sub> <sup>+</sup> -N (µg g <sup>-1</sup> )	1.0	0.3	3.6	0.02
NO <sub>3</sub> <sup>-</sup> -N (µg g <sup>-1</sup> )	7.5	1.4	5.4	0.006
PMN (µg g <sup>-1</sup> )	-3.1	8.2	-0.4	0.7
Colwell P (µg g <sup>-1</sup> )	0.3	2.1	0.1	0.9
pH	-0.15	0.05	-2.9	0.05
EC	0.06	0.01	9.5	0.0007
<i>Soil microbes</i>				
Total PLFA (nmol g <sup>-1</sup> )	-115.0	55.2	-2.1	0.1
Fungal PLFA (nmol g <sup>-1</sup> )	6.0	2.7	2.2	0.09
Bacterial PLFA (nmol g <sup>-1</sup> )	-60.5	25.2	-2.4	0.07
Fungal:Bacterial PLFAratio	0.05	0.008	6.4	0.003
Worm abundance (worms kg <sup>-1</sup> )	-6.6	1.4	-4.6	0.01

## Figure Captions

**Figure 1.** Schematic diagram of field site and sampling regime. All soil and vegetation samples were taken from the center of each plot. N.B. diagram not drawn to scale.

575 The fence was a barbed wire fence 1 m in height and the width of a single line of wire.

**Figure 2.** Key above- and below-ground vegetation properties, including (a) litter mass, (b) grassy biomass, (c) coarse root biomass, (d) fine root biomass, and (e) total

580 root biomass, at each sampling location. N.B. sampling locations A, B and C, and D, E and F are located in the reforested, and pasture zones respectively (see text and

Figure 1). Box plots display median, minimum, maximum, first and third quartiles, and any outliers;  $N = 6$ . Significant differences between land-use types (i.e.

reforested, and pasture zones) were identified using piecewise linear regression

585 modelling (see text) and exist where  $P < 0.05$ ; see also Table 1 for full details of data analysis.

**Figure 3.** Soil physicochemical properties, including (a) total (%) C (b) labile (%) C, (c) soil C stock, (d) total (%) N, (e) soil C:N ratio, and (f) bulk density, at each sampling

590 location. N.B. sampling locations A, B and C, and D, E and F are located in the reforested, and pasture zones respectively (see text and Figure 1). Box plots display

median, minimum, maximum, first and third quartiles, and any outliers;  $N = 6$ .

Significant differences between land-use types (i.e. reforested, and pasture zones)

were identified using piecewise linear regression modelling (see text) and exist

595 where  $P < 0.05$ ; see also Table 1 for full details of data analysis.

**Figure 4.** Soil physicochemical properties, including (a)  $\text{NH}_4^+\text{-N}$  (b)  $\text{NO}_3^-\text{-N}$ , (c) potentially mineralizable N (PMN), (d) Plant available (Colwell) P, (e) pH, and (f) EC, at each sampling location. N.B. sampling locations A, B and C, and D, E and F are  
600 located in the reforested, and pasture zones respectively (see text and Figure 1). Box plots display median, minimum, maximum, first and third quartiles, and any outliers;  $N = 6$ . Significant differences between land-use types (i.e. reforested, and pasture zones) were identified using piecewise linear regression modelling (see text) and exist where  $P < 0.05$ ; see also Table 1 for full details of data analysis.

605

**Figure 5.** Soil biological properties, including (a) total PLFA (b) bacterial PLFA, (c) fungal PLFA, (d) fungal:bacterial PLFA ratio, and (e) worms, at each sampling location. N.B. sampling locations A, B and C, and D, E and F are located in the reforested, and pasture zones respectively (see text and Figure 1). Box plots display  
610 median, minimum, maximum, first and third quartiles, and any outliers;  $N = 6$ . Significant differences between land-use types (i.e. reforested, and pasture zones) were identified using piecewise linear regression modelling (see text) and exist where  $P < 0.05$ ; see also Table 1 for full details of data analysis.

615 **Figure 6.** Nonmetric multidimensional scaling ordination of soil microbial communities (PLFA) (a) at all sampling locations, and (b) for specific PLFA's. N.B. sampling locations A, B and C, and D, E and F are located in the reforested, and pasture zones respectively (see text and Figure 1). 95% confidence ellipses are given for each sampling zone (A-F). Correlations of key soil properties with microbial

620 community composition are depicted by the vectors. The length and angle of the vector represent the strength and direction of the relationship to the microbial community. All vectors depict statistically significant correlations ( $p < 0.001$ ; see text). N.B. the first axis of the ordinations differs between plots (a) and (b); see also Materials and Methods for additional details on data presentation and analysis.

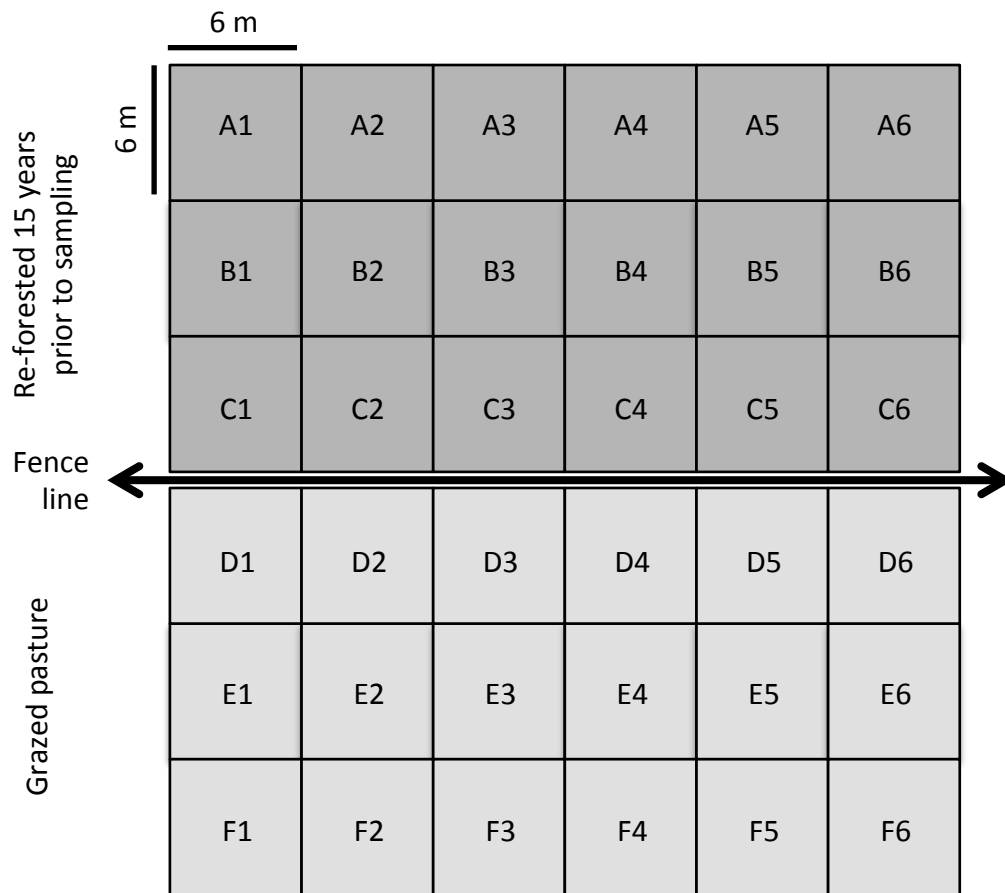


Figure 1.

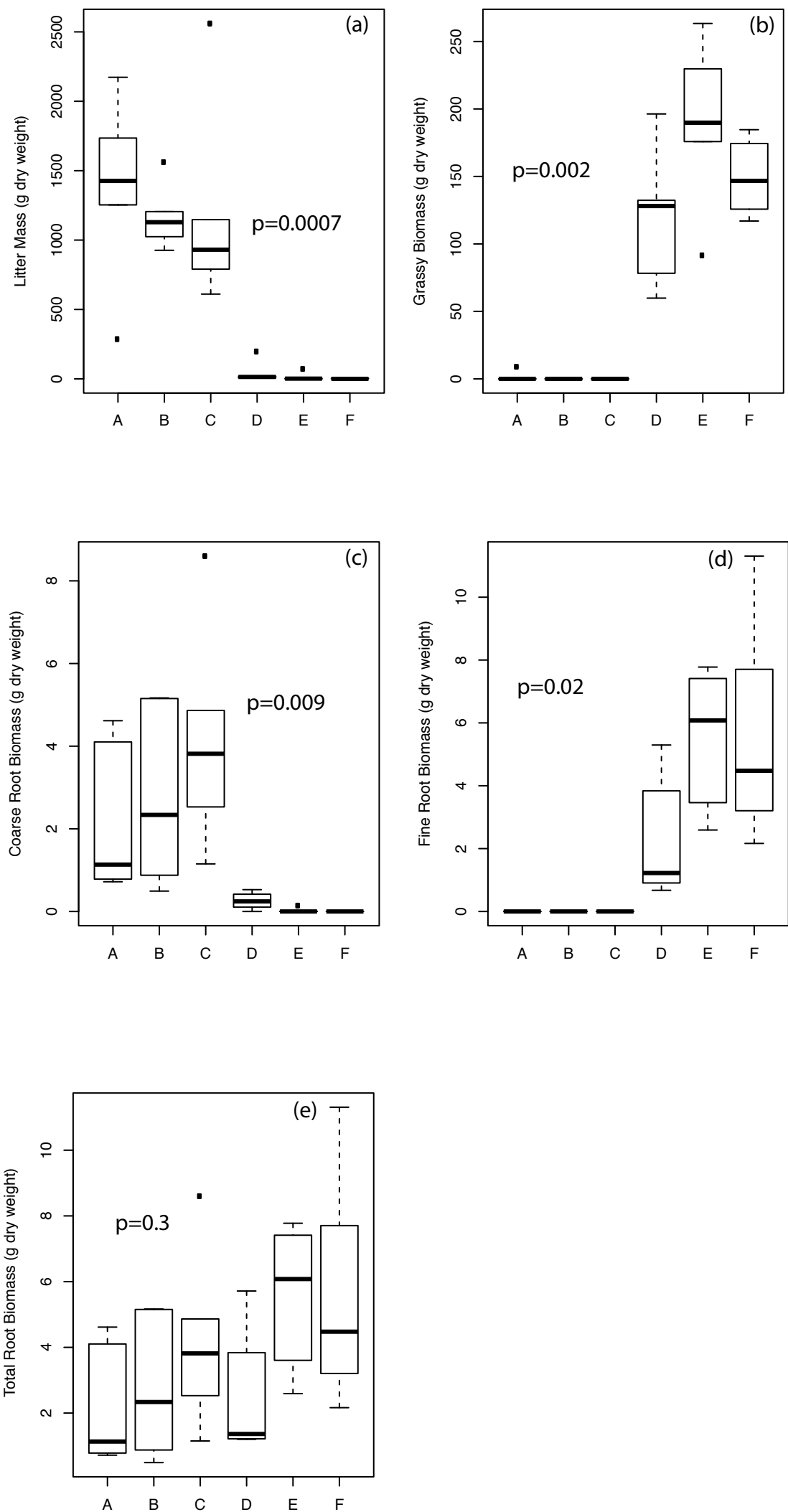


Figure 2

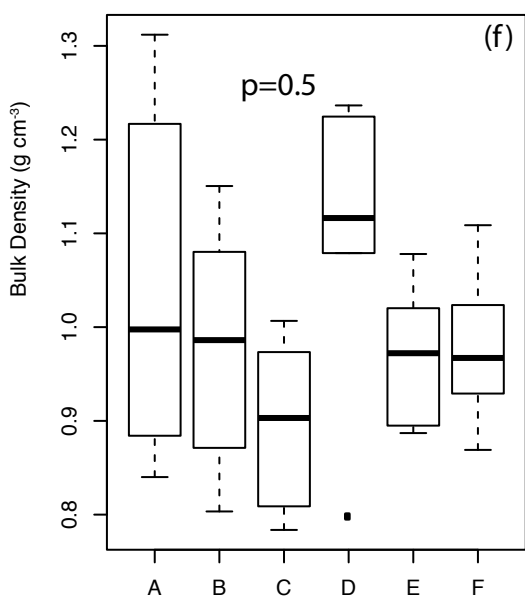
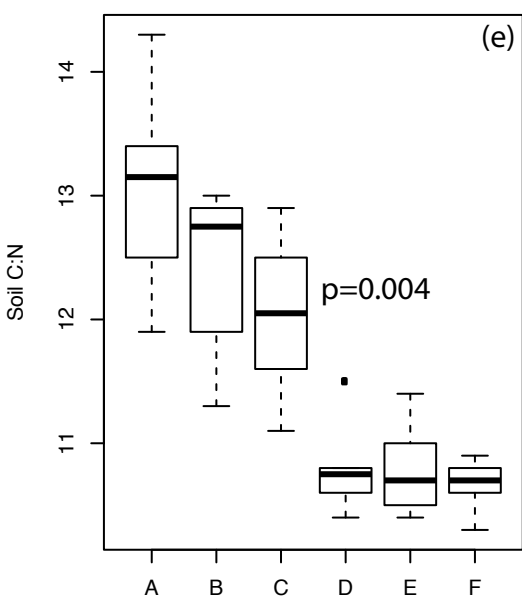
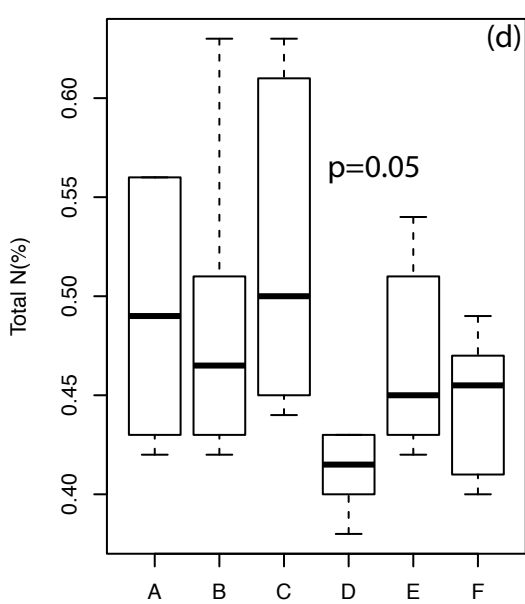
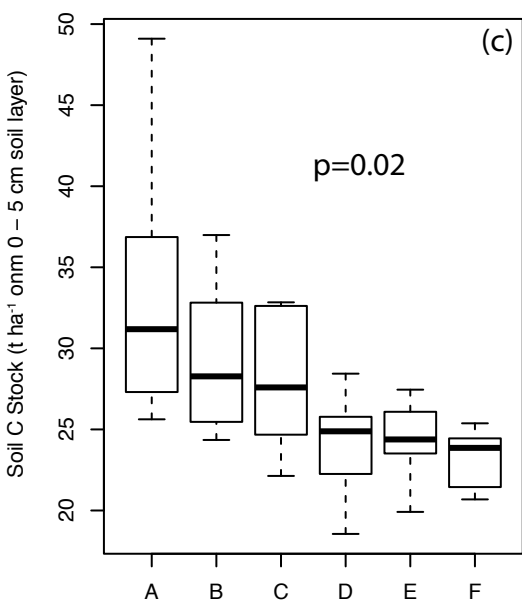
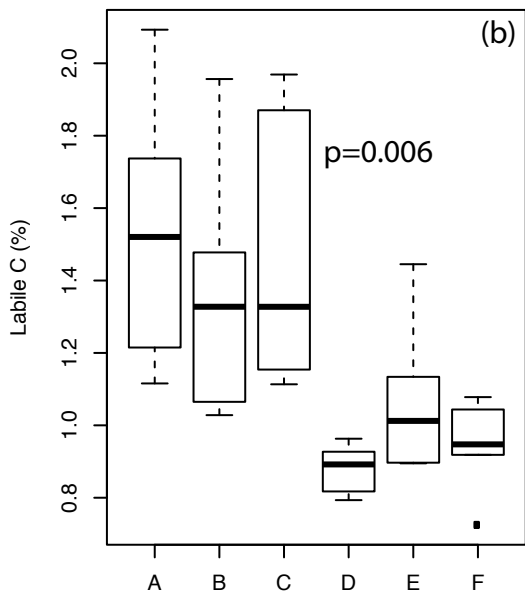
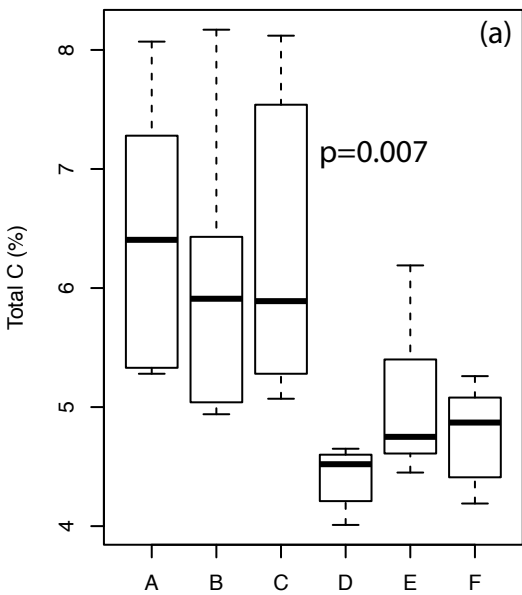


Figure 3



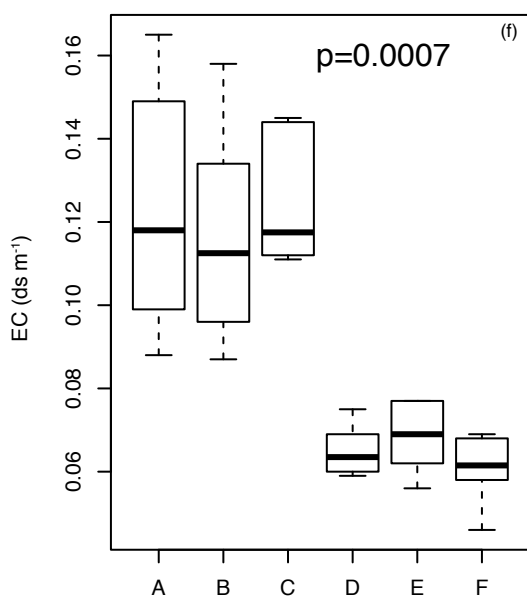
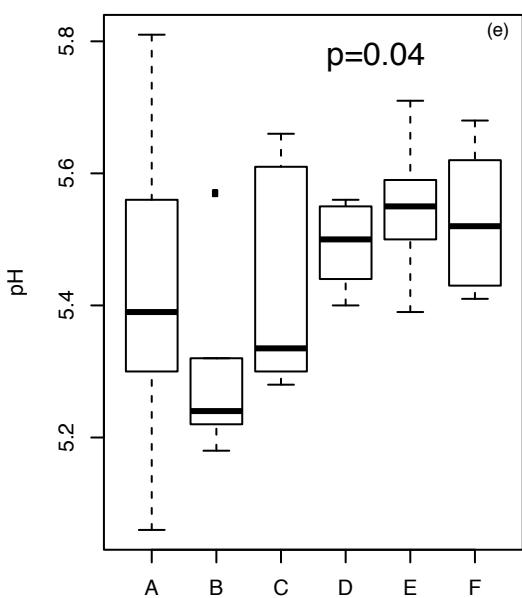
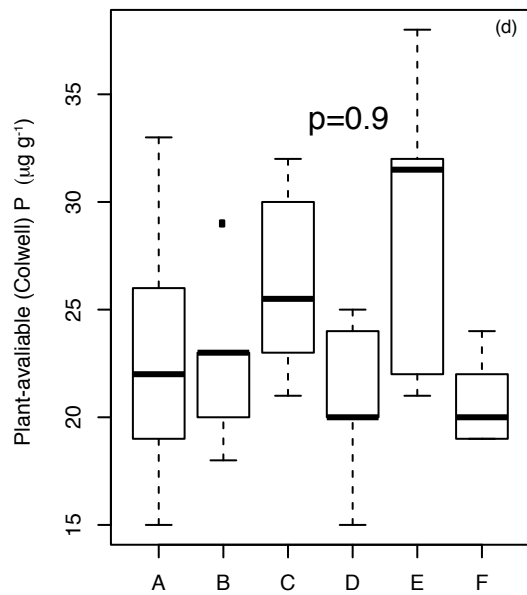
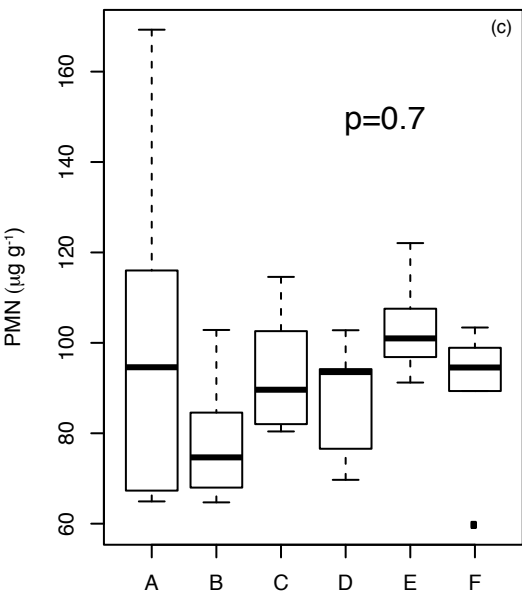
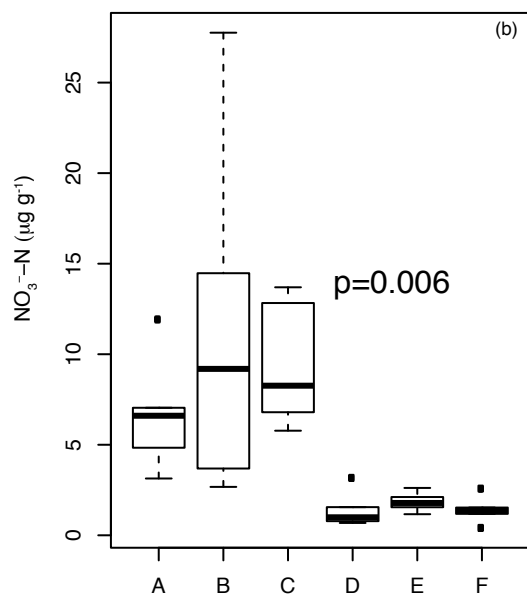
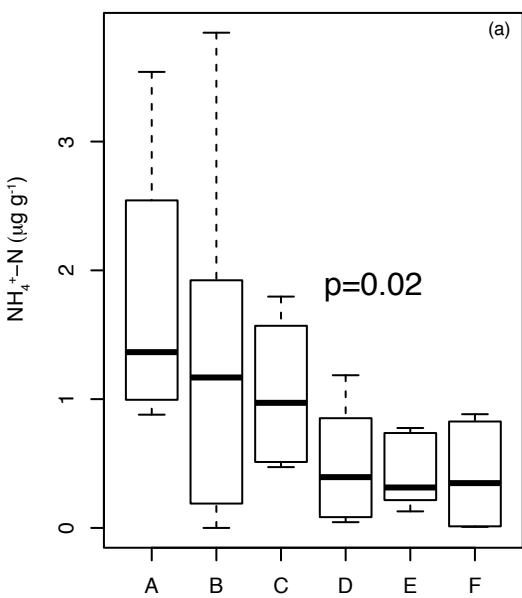


Figure 4

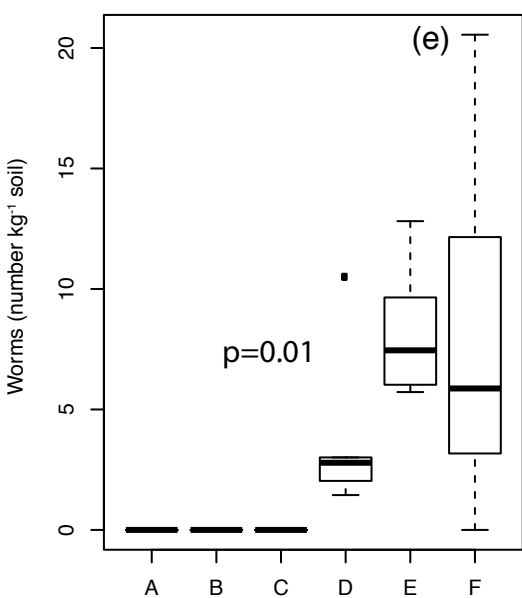
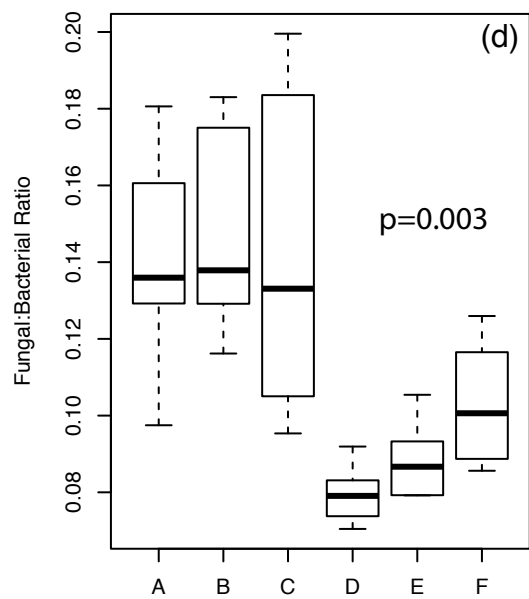
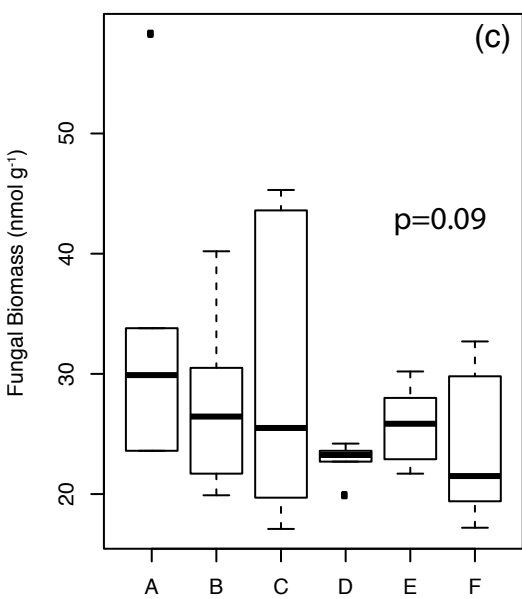
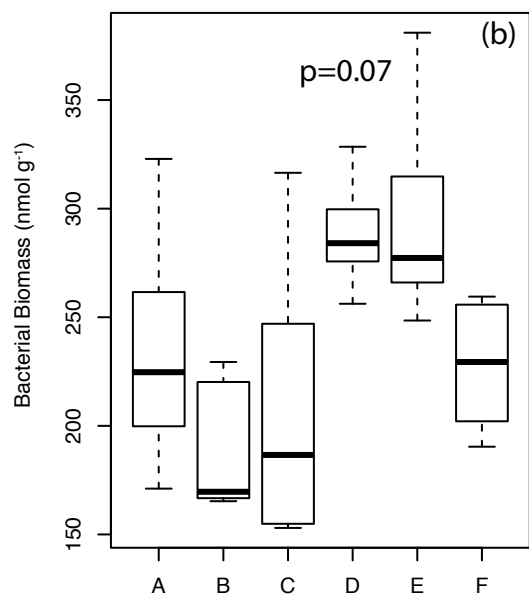
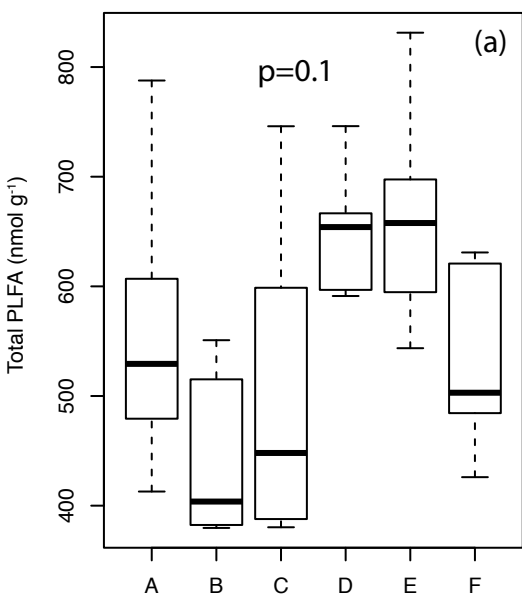


Figure 5

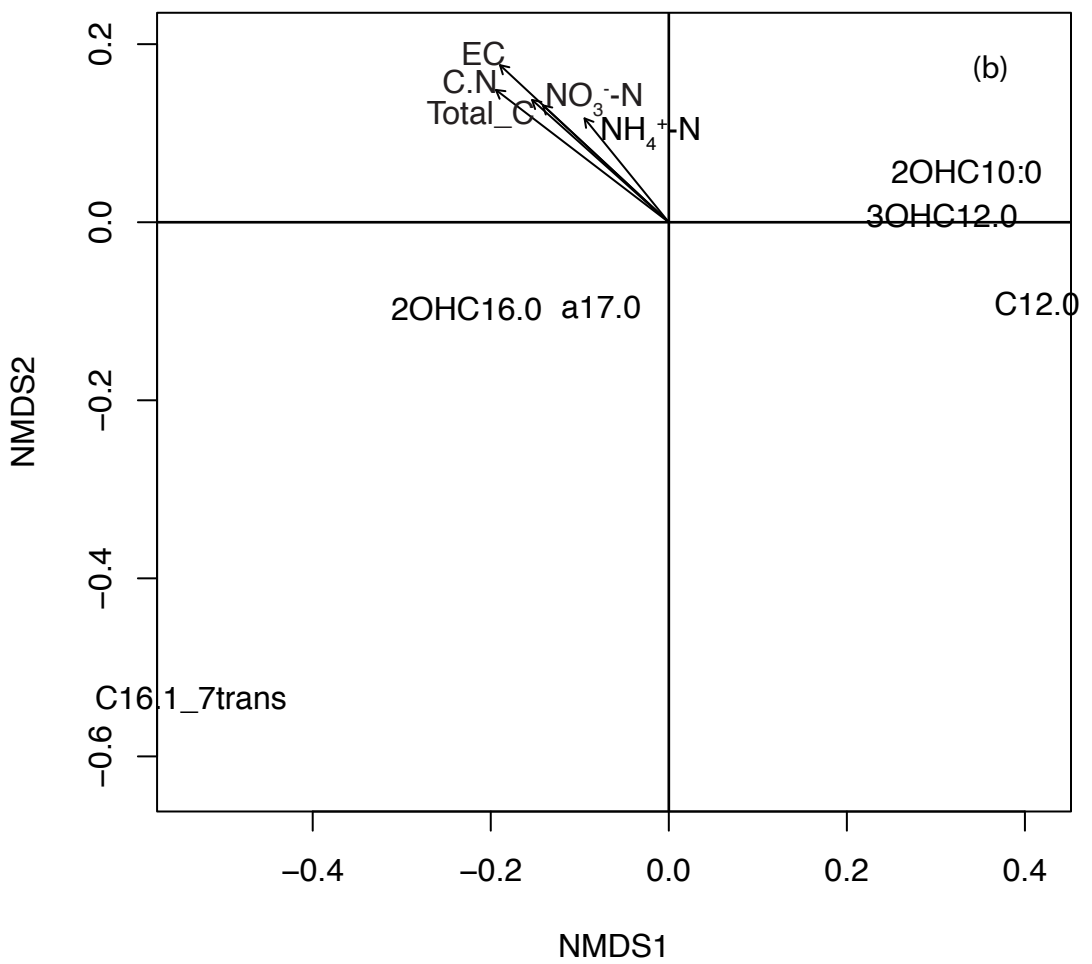
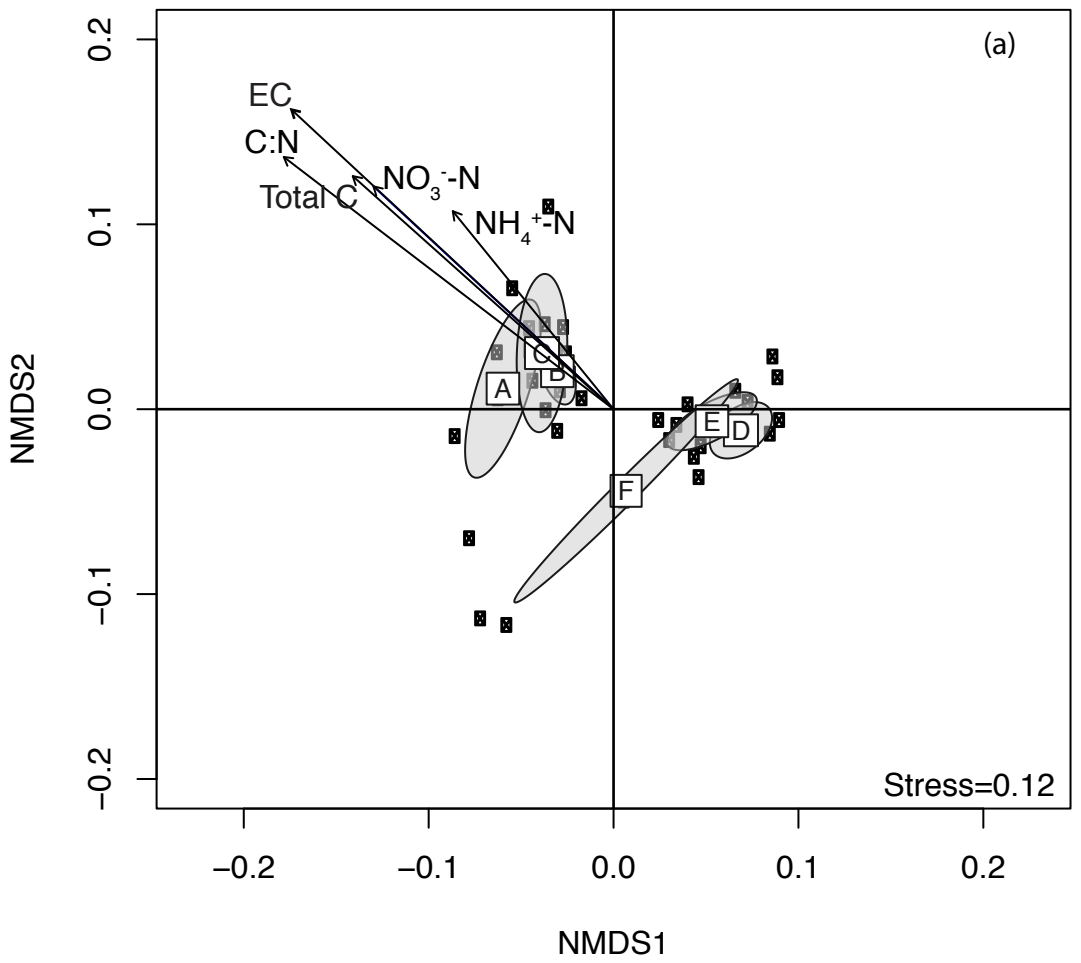


Figure 6