

1 **Impacts of prescribed burning on soil greenhouse gas**
2 **fluxes in a suburban native forest of south-eastern**
3 **Queensland, Australia**

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16
17 **Abstract**

18 Prescribed burning is a forest management practice that is widely used in Australia to reduce
19 the risk of damaging wildfires. Prescribed burning can affect both carbon (C) and nitrogen (N)
20 cycling in the forest and thereby influence the soil-atmosphere exchange of major greenhouse
21 gases, i.e. carbon dioxide (CO₂), methane (CH₄) and nitrous oxide (N₂O). To quantify the
22 impact of a prescribed burning (conducted on 27 May 2014) on greenhouse gas exchange and
23 the potential controlling mechanisms, we carried out a series of field measurements before
24 (August 2013) and after (August 2014 and November 2014) the fire. Gas exchange rates were
25 determined in 4 replicate plots which were burned during the combustion and in another 4
26 adjacent unburned plots located in green islands, using a set of static chambers. Surface soil
27 properties including temperature, pH, moisture, soil C and N pools were also determined
28 either by in situ measurement or by analysing surface 10 cm soil samples. All of the chamber
29 measurements indicated a net sink of atmospheric CH₄, with mean CH₄ uptake ranging from

1 1.15 to 1.99 mg m⁻² d⁻¹. Prescribed burning significantly enhanced CH₄ uptake as indicated
2 by the significant higher CH₄ uptake rates in the burned plots measured in August 2014. In
3 the following 3 months, the CH₄ uptake rate was recovered to the pre-burning level. Mean
4 CO₂ emission from the forest soils ranged from 2721.76 to 7113.49 mg m⁻² d⁻¹. The effect of
5 prescribed burning on CO₂ emission was limited within the first 3 months, as no significant
6 difference was observed between the burned and the adjacent unburned plots in both August
7 and November 2014. The CO₂ emissions showed more seasonal variations, rather than the
8 effects of prescribed burning. The N₂O emission in the plots was quite low, and no significant
9 impact of prescribed burning was observed. The changes in understory plants and litter layers,
10 surface soil temperature, C and N substrate availability and microbial activities, following the
11 prescribed burning, were the factors that controlled the greenhouse gas exchanges. Our
12 results suggested that the low intensity prescribed burning would decrease soil CO₂ emission
13 and increase CH₄ uptake, but this effect would be present within a relative short period. Only
14 slight changes in the surface soil properties during the combustion and very limited impacts
15 of prescribed burning on the mineral soils supported the rapid recovery of the greenhouse gas
16 exchange rates.

17

18 **1 Introduction**

19 As a result of continuously increasing greenhouse gas emissions, global climate change
20 studies have predicted a drier future with high probability of increasing temperatures, lower
21 average rainfall and increase in the frequency and severity of droughts and extreme weather
22 events (Sherwood and Fu, 2014; Fu et al., 2015). In Australia, climate changes were also
23 identified as key drivers of the increases in days with high fire risk weather and probability of
24 severe wildfires (Murphy and Timbal, 2008; Fest, 2013). In response to these predictions, the
25 use of prescribed burning is increased in Australia forest management to protect both native
26 and plantation forests from the risk of damaging wildfires (Wang et al., 2014). Prescribed
27 burns are generally targeted at the understorey vegetation and surface litters, while aiming for
28 minimum damage to overstorey trees. Despite the controlled burning conditions, prescribed
29 burning can still have significant effects on soil water content and soil temperature. The
30 combustion event would also result in amounts of charcoal and dying tree roots (Kim et al.,
31 2011; Sullivan et al., 2011) and therefore alter root activities, organic matter decomposition,
32 availability of substrate and soil N dynamics (Weber, 1990; Certini, 2005; Livesley et al.,

1 2011; Wang et al., 2014). All these parameters are closely related to three major greenhouse
2 gas exchanges at soil-atmosphere interface, namely carbon dioxide (CO₂), methane (CH₄)
3 and nitrous oxide (N₂O). Studies have paid special attention to these greenhouse gas fluxes,
4 not only because of the warming effect caused by CO₂, CH₄ and N₂O in the atmosphere
5 globally (Sherwood and Fu, 2014), but also because of their use as very effective indicators
6 for evaluating soil C and N pools and soil microbial activities (Weber, 1990). Many studies
7 have been conducted to quantify CO₂, CH₄ and N₂O exchanges at forest soil-atmosphere
8 interface and the impact of intensive wildfires in different climate regions, but very few
9 works have reported the effects of prescribed burning on soil greenhouse gas emissions,
10 especially in Australia.

11 The CO₂ is the primary greenhouse gas and account for a major part of anticipated global
12 warming (Sommerfeld et al., 1993). Within the forest ecosystem, soil is the major C reservoir
13 while soil respiration is an important mechanism that releases the fixed C into atmosphere
14 (Seidl et al., 2014). Forest fires are generally reported to decrease soil CO₂ efflux (Weber,
15 1990; Burke et al., 1997; Kim et al., 2011; Livesley et al., 2011). The key driving factors of
16 fires on CO₂ efflux are the changes in soil temperature, moisture and fine root activities. As
17 the altered temperature and moisture could change the amplitude of seasonal variations in
18 CO₂ emissions, reduced fine root activities after fires are more responsible for the decreased
19 CO₂ (Kim et al., 2011; Sullivan et al., 2011). Sullivan et al. (2011) also concluded that
20 reduced microbial respiration indicated by microbial biomass after prescribed burning could
21 further contribute to the decreased CO₂ efflux. Unlike with this “decrease” effect, Fest et al.
22 (2015) also reported that low intensity burning slightly increased soil CO₂ flux in temperature
23 eucalypt forest systems. This is attributed to the higher inputs of easily decomposable
24 compounds, higher surface temperature and soil nutrient depletion after burning treatments
25 (Fest et al., 2015).

26 The CH₄ is the second most important greenhouse gas, with a global warming potential of 25
27 times greater than CO₂. Aerated forest soils are one of the most important biological sink of
28 CH₄ as the results of oxidation of atmospheric CH₄ by methanotrophic bacteria. Studies have
29 reported both positive (Livesley et al., 2011; Sullivan et al., 2011; Fest, 2013) and no
30 significant impacts of fires on forest soil CH₄ uptake (Kim et al., 2011). Since soil gas
31 diffusivity is one of the key regulators of soil CH₄ uptake in the forest soil system, prescribed
32 burning altered soil moisture condition, and removal of litter layer and soil O horizon would

1 weaken or eliminate the barrier effect of the surface soil and thereby increase diffusion of
2 CH₄ into soil profile (Sullivan et al., 2011; Fest, 2013).

3 The N₂O emission is less reported in forest soil studies, despite the greater climate warming
4 potential of N₂O than CO₂ and CH₄ and the large contribution of forest soil N₂O emission to
5 the global atmospheric N₂O budget (Kiese and Butterbach-Bahl, 2002; Kiese et al., 2003).
6 Fires would affect soil N₂O emission by altering the rates of nitrification and denitrification
7 processes but there are only few published studies and their results are inconsistent. Fires
8 could change forest soil N storages but the mechanism of driving N₂O emission changes is
9 unclear (Certini, 2005; Nave et al., 2011). Available N substrate (Kiese et al., 2003), soil
10 moisture and temperature (Fest et al., 2009), water filled pore space (Kiese and Butterbach-
11 Bahl, 2002) and stand conditions (Butterbach-Bahl et al., 1997) are potential factors which
12 could affect N₂O emission rates.

13 The eucalypt dominated natural forest ecosystem studied in this experiment is quite typical
14 across most of Australia's forest areas, with a total of 92 million hectares or 74% of
15 Australia's forest area (Department of Agriculture,
16 <http://www.agriculture.gov.au/abares/forestsaustralia/profiles/eucalypt-forest>). These forests
17 hold important C storage over the country and also provide important ecosystem services
18 such as biodiversity, recreation, water resource and wood products (Fest et al., 2009).
19 Prescribed burning is one of the most important management tools in Australia to protect
20 these forests from fires and maintain their functions, including forest regeneration, site
21 preparation, fuel reduction and habitat management (Guinto et al., 2000; Bai et al., 2012;
22 Wang et al., 2014). Some studies have reported the greenhouse gas emissions from Australian
23 forest soils (Kiese and Butterbach-Bahl, 2002; Dalal et al., 2003), but the impact of
24 prescribed burning on Australian eucalyptus forests are rarely studied. Therefore, we have
25 limited understanding about the magnitude and direction of the effect of prescribed burning
26 on the greenhouse gas exchange which is critical to understand the interaction between
27 burned ecosystem and the atmosphere. In this study, we setup four sampling plots which had
28 similar stand conditions to address the following questions: (1) would prescribed burning
29 affect greenhouse gas emissions at the soil atmosphere interface? (2) How long would these
30 effects last? And (3) what would be the controlling factors? To address these questions, we
31 conducted a series of field measurements of CH₄, CO₂ and N₂O exchange at surface soil
32 before and after prescribed burning. To examine the potential driving factors and mechanisms

1 we also collected surface soil samples for analysing biological, chemical and physical
2 variables which might be altered by prescribed burning.

3

4 **2 Methods**

5 **2.1 Site description**

6 The study was carried out in Toohey Forest (27°30'S, 135°02'E), located 10 km south of
7 Brisbane in south-eastern Queensland, Australia (Figure 1). This forest accounts for about
8 600 hectares dominated by different species of eucalypt and contains some 460 species of
9 vascular plants. About half of this forest is a local government conservation reserve and
10 surrounded by suburban areas (Catterall and Wallace, 1987; Catterall et al., 2001; Farmer et
11 al., 2004). The climate for the region and around is characterized as subtropical with a
12 dominant weather pattern of hot, wet summers and cool, dry winters. The mean annual
13 rainfall is about 1000 mm, with the majority received during summer months. Temperatures
14 generally ranged between approximately 30 and 35 °C in summer and 10 and 15 °C in winter.

15 Patterns of burning prior to the 1950s are unknown, but from the 1950s to the early 1970s,
16 individual fires probably burned across a large proportion of the area. From the early 1970s
17 individual fires were confined to more localized areas and created a spatially heterogeneous
18 fire regime. Since 1993, 27 blocks within Toohey Forest have been conducted with regular
19 prescribed burnings (Wang et al., 2015). Prescribed burnings are generally low intensity cool
20 burns, and usually occur at the end of the dry season in winter. Generally, every burning
21 event would last for several hours (usually overnight) from ignition to extinguishing of any
22 small fires. The fire was monitored and controlled during the burning.

23 The prescribed burning of this study was conducted on 27 May 2014. Last recorded burning
24 in this block was in 18 June 1999. Before the prescribed burning, we selected 4 plots (around
25 30 m between each other, Figure 1) with similar stand conditions for sampling. The
26 understory of these plots was burned out during the recent prescribed burning, left a layer of
27 wood charcoal on the ground. After the burning, these 4 plots were measured repeatedly at
28 three months (August 2014) and six months (November 2014). Detailed sampling dates and
29 weather conditions for the selected sampling events were listed in Table 1. Briefly, the
30 sampling events were conducted under clear weather condition and there were no major
31 precipitation events either 30 days or 90 days before the sampling events. Furthermore,

1 another 4 unburned plots adjacent to the burned plots as paired plots were selected to further
2 examine the impacts of prescribed burning. These unburned plots were located in the adjacent
3 green islands of those not touched by the recent prescribed burning.

4 (Figure 1)

5 **2.2 Sampling method**

6 As previously described, 4 plots was selected for sampling. We treated these 4 plots as
7 replicates and a series of experiments, including impacts of burning on soil greenhouse gas
8 emission, N transformation and litter decomposition, were carried out in each plot, a total of
9 11 chambers (rings) were established for specific purposes through introducing different
10 treatments (e.g. water or solution application, N isotope enrichment), only the chamber for
11 soil gas sampling was left untreated and the results were presented here.

12 We adopted a static chamber method to measure CO₂, CH₄ and N₂O emissions
13 simultaneously. A PVC chamber (cylinder with a diameter of 245 mm, wall thickness
14 approximately 4 mm and length 300 mm) was installed in each of the 4 plots. The chambers
15 were sharpened at the bottom edge and were pushed 10 cm into the soil using a hammer.
16 Weed control was performed within and around the chamber to prevent the impacts of
17 grasses. Sampling was conducted a week later after the chambers were set. Gas fluxes across
18 the soil-atmosphere interface were determined daily by sampling air in the headspace of PVC
19 chambers during the 4-day field measurement. The internal volume of a chamber was 9.4 L
20 when placed 10 cm deep into forest floor. There were 4 holes evenly distributed on the
21 chamber (10 cm above ground) to help the inner atmosphere fully mixed with outside, on all
22 sampling occasions prior to each gas sampling, these holes were sealed with a set of rubber
23 plugs. The top of the chamber was also covered with a cap fastened with black rubber band to
24 prevent any gas exchange between the inner headspace and the outside. After covering the
25 cap, 15 ml gas samples were taken from the sampling port at the centre of the chamber top at
26 0 and 60 min after chamber deployment. A 25 ml syringe was attached to the sampling port
27 and the plunger of the syringe was pumped up and down several times to mix the gases in the
28 chamber before taking a sample. Gas samples were immediately injected into pre-evacuated
29 15-ml tubes capped with butyl rubber stoppers and prepare for analysis of CO₂, CH₄ and N₂O.
30 Gas sampling was conducted for 4 consecutive days to capture consistent emission patterns
31 from the 4 plots and the data was pooled for statistical analysis (Lennon, 2011).

1 All gas samplings were conducted during daylight hours from approximately 8:00 to 12:00.
2 However, considering of the great spatial heterogeneity of soil gas fluxes reported by existing
3 studies (Kim et al., 2011; Sullivan et al., 2011), the acquired results in the present study
4 might be tangled with burning induced impacts and spatial related variabilities due to the
5 relative large distance among the plots (Prosser, 2010). We considered the similarity of soil
6 and stand conditions (eucalypt forest with moderate density) and plot location (middle slope)
7 when selecting the plots, which would partly offset this potential impact.

8 **2.3 Soil property analysis**

9 The top 10 cm soil in the chamber was collected with a shovel. Collected soil samples were
10 thoroughly mixed and passed through a 2 mm sieve. Soil moisture was measured
11 gravimetrically after drying at 105 °C for 48 hours. pH was measured with a 1:5 aqueous
12 solutions after shaking for 30 min. Soil inorganic N concentrations were extracted with 2 *M*
13 KCL and measured using a modified micro-diffusion method (Wang et al., 2015) and a
14 Discrete Chemistry Analyser (Westco Smartchem SC 200, Discrete Wet Chemistry Analyser).
15 To determine water soluble organic C (WSOC) and total N (WSTN), 7 g fresh soil was added
16 to 35 ml distilled water in a 50 ml plastic centrifuge vial, the suspension was then shaken by
17 an end-over-end shaker for 5 min followed by centrifuging at 10000 rpm for 10 min. The
18 suspension was then filtered through a Whatman 42 filter paper and a 33 mm Millex syringe-
19 driven 0.45 µm filter successively before analysed with a Shimadzu TOC-VCSH/CSN
20 TOC/N analyser. Similarly, hot water extractable organic C (HWEOC) and total N (HWETN)
21 were also measured, while the only difference was, 1:5 soil water solution, was incubated in a
22 capped and sealed tube at 70 °C for 18 hours.

23 Soil microbial biomass C (MBC) and N (MBN) were determined using the fumigation-
24 extraction method described by Vance et al. (1987) and Brookes et al.(1985). Briefly,
25 fumigated and non-fumigated soils (5 g dry weight equivalent) were extracted with 25 ml of
26 0.5 *M* K₂SO₄ (soil/extractant ratio 1:5). The fumigation lasted for 16 hours. Samples were
27 shaken for 30 minutes and then filtered through a Whatman 42 filter paper. Soluble organic C
28 and total soluble N (TSN) in the fumigated and non-fumigated samples were determined
29 using a Shimadzu TOC-VCSH/CSN TOC/N analyser. MBC and MBN were calculated using
30 conversion factors of 2.64 and 2.22 for C (Vance et al., 1987) and N (Brookes et al., 1985),
31 respectively.

1 **2.4 Gas analysis**

2 Collected gas samples were sent to laboratory for gas chromatography (GC) analysis for CO₂,
3 CH₄ and N₂O concentrations shortly after the field sampling. The concentrations of CO₂ and
4 CH₄ were measured using a GC system (GC-2010 PLUS Shimadzu) with Flame Ionization
5 Detector and N₂O was measured using the same GC system with Electron Capture Detector.
6 The standards (0.5 ppm for CH₄, 400.5 ppm for CO₂ and 0.3 ppm for N₂O) were run before
7 and after each set of samples to ensure the reproducibility of measurements. Gas fluxes for
8 CO₂, CH₄ and N₂O were determined from a regression analysis with gas concentration
9 change within the chamber versus time.

10 **2.5 Statistical analysis**

11 All statistical analyses were performed using IBM SPSS STATISTICS (version 20) software.
12 One-way ANOVA was introduced to examine statistically significant differences between
13 soil gas fluxes measured before and after the burning in the burned plots. This analysis was
14 also applied to compare the fluxes between burned and unburned plots in Aug 2014 and Nov
15 2014, respectively. Collected soil properties and gas fluxes at the four replicate plots during
16 the three sampling events were also pooled together for Pearson correlation analysis to detect
17 possible effects of soil environmental variables on soil CO₂, CH₄ and N₂O fluxes.

18

19 **3 Results**

20 **3.1 Greenhouse gas exchange rates before and after prescribed burning**

21 Average CH₄, CO₂ and N₂O emissions rates of the 4 replicate plots for each sampling event
22 were listed in Table 2. While temporal patterns of gas exchange for the 4-day sampling of the
23 3 sampling periods were shown in Figure 2. Coefficient of variance (CV, ratio of the standard
24 deviation to the mean) among the plots during the 4 sampling days ranged from 14%-68%
25 (mean 32%), 9%-15% (mean 10%) and 10%-28% (mean 16%), for Aug 2013, Aug 2014 and
26 Nov 2014, respectively. All the sampling plots showed negative CH₄ emissions rates during
27 the three sampling events, or uptake atmospheric CH₄. In the burned plots, mean CH₄ uptake
28 was significantly increased by 64% three months after the prescribed burning ($p < 0.001$),
29 while during the third sampling period, CH₄ uptake rate became similar to that before the
30 burning ($p = 0.843$). In the unburned plots, CH₄ uptake was relatively stable during the dates

1 of the sampling periods and also showed less variation between August 2014 and November
2 2014. The significant difference in mean CH₄ uptake rate in August 2014 ($p < 0.001$) but
3 similar rates in November 2014 ($p = 0.921$) also confirmed that the CH₄ uptake increased at
4 the first three months but was recovered to the pre-burning level about six months after
5 prescribed burning.

6 Soil CO₂ flux showed relative higher variance as indicated by the higher standard deviations
7 (Figure 2) and CVs (ranged from 43% to 50% during the three sampling periods). Mean CO₂
8 emission from all burned plots was significantly decreased by 41% in August 2014 ($p <$
9 0.001). In November 2014, CO₂ efflux rates had exceeded that before the burning by 28% but
10 the difference was not significant ($p = 0.392$). Similar CO₂ emission rates between the burned
11 and adjacent unburned plots during the sampling dates of August 2014 ($p = 0.549$) and
12 November 2014 ($p = 0.218$) were also observed. This might indicated that the temporal
13 dynamics detected at the burned plots reflected more natural variations rather than burning
14 induced impacts.

15 The lower N₂O emission rates, compared to that in August 2013, were found both in August
16 2014 ($p = 0.003$) and November 2014 ($p < 0.001$). During the three sampling periods, the
17 study plots were not solely performed as a source of atmospheric N₂O, on 27 August 2013, 6
18 August 2014 and most days of November 2014, but the plots also took up N₂O from the
19 atmosphere. No significant difference in N₂O emission was observed between the burned and
20 unburned plots in both August and November 2014.

21 (Table 2)

22 (Figure 2)

23 **3.2 Soil basic properties and their relationships with gas exchange rates**

24 After the prescribed burning, soil moisture showed no significant difference between burned
25 and unburned plots ($p = 0.804$), although most of the sampling plots (5 out of 8 for the two
26 sampling events in 2014) had relative higher values. Soil temperature was slightly higher for
27 most sampling dates at in the burned plots, but no significant difference was found in August
28 2014 ($p = 0.644$) and November 2014 ($p = 0.751$). The pH in the surface soil was higher in
29 2014 than in 2013, and the values in all burned plots were slightly higher than those of
30 unburned sites ($p = 0.293$). NO₃-N was quite low both before and after the prescribed burning,
31 but NH₄-N was significantly increased after the prescribed burning.

1 When relating these soil parameters to greenhouse gas emissions from the soil surface, soil
2 temperature showed a positive correlation with the CH₄ uptake (R = 0.232, p = 0.044) and
3 CO₂ efflux (R = 0.47, p < 0.000) and a negative correlation with N₂O emission (R = -0.284, p
4 = 0.011). pH was negatively correlated with the CH₄ uptake (R = -0.595, P = 0.006) and CO₂
5 (R = -0.591, p = 0.006) emission. NH₄-N was negatively correlated with N₂O emission (R = -
6 0.533, p = 0.015).

7 (Table 3)

8 **3.3 Soil C and N dynamics before and after burning**

9 There was no significant difference in WSOC in the burned plots between August 2013 and
10 August 2014, and only slightly decreased WSOC was observed in August 2014. However,
11 WSOC was significant higher in November 2014 (p = 0.034). No significant difference was
12 found between any sampling periods for WSTN, despite higher WSTN in some burned plots
13 than those before the prescribed burning and in the unburned plots. HWEOC was
14 significantly increased in August 2014 than that in August 2013 (p < 0.001) and in November
15 2014 it was recovered to the level before the prescribed burning (p = 0.929). The difference
16 in HWEOC between the burned and adjacent unburned plots were also significant in August
17 2014 (p = 0.0361) but insignificant in November 2014. The situation was similar for
18 HWETN.

19 MBC in the burned plots in August 2014 was 378.94 mg kg⁻¹, which was lower than that in
20 August 2013 (522.45 mg kg⁻¹, p = 0.069), and this value did not change much in November
21 2014 (380.37 mg kg⁻¹).

22 The correlation analysis between soil C or N pools and gas emissions showed that CH₄
23 uptake was negatively correlated with WSOC (R = 0.523, p = 0.018). CO₂ efflux had
24 negative correlation with HWEOC (R = -0.690, p = 0.001) and HWETN (R = -0.730, p <
25 0.001). N₂O emission was positively correlated with MBN (R = 0.565, p = 0.009).

26 **4 Discussions**

27 **4.1 Impacts of prescribed burning on soil properties**

28 Prescribed burning resulted in a slightly increase in the surface soil temperature of this study,
29 which is in the agreement with most of the literature (Burke et al., 1997; Certini, 2005). The
30 burning of the understory vegetation cover, together with the consumption of fuel loads,

1 removal of litter layer and increased charred materials on the soil surface would all affect soil
2 temperatures by intercepting direct sunlight and moderating the loss of soil heat by radiation.
3 However, the controlled burning condition or low fire intensity limited this difference at an
4 insignificant level. Meanwhile, the 4 selected plots in the study did not show consistent
5 fluctuations in the surface soil moisture before and after the prescribed burning, which would
6 generally be expected to decrease after a fire (Burke et al., 1997; Kim et al., 2011; Sullivan et
7 al., 2011). Generally, increased soil temperature, combined with the reduced shade, would
8 result in higher evaporation rates and therefore restrict the movement of water into soil
9 profile (Burke et al., 1997; Certini, 2005). This might be attributed to the representativeness
10 of the measurements and one measurement for each sampling period might not be adequate to
11 represent the physical state of water in the soil (Weber, 1990).

12 An increase in soil pH values was found in the burned plots in August 2014 and it was
13 returned to a similar level in November 2014. Although no significant difference was found
14 between the burned and adjacent unburned plots in 2014, pH values for the burned plots were
15 still higher than those at the unburned plots. The increased pH after the prescribed burning
16 would be probably due to the release of extractable basic cations from the deposited ashes
17 during the burning. Several studies also reported increased pH after the fire (Guinto et al.,
18 1999; Certini, 2005; Kim et al., 2011; Xue et al., 2014) and the increased pH would either be
19 recovered to the pre-burning level within a year (Rhoades et al., 2004; Xue et al., 2014) or
20 last for longer periods (Arocena and Opio, 2003; Ponder Jr et al., 2009; Granged et al., 2011),
21 depending on the site condition and burning intensities.

22 $\text{NH}_4\text{-N}$ was significantly increased after the prescribed burning, but no significant changes
23 were observed for $\text{NO}_3\text{-N}$, since $\text{NH}_4\text{-N}$ was a direct product of combustion and NO_3^- was
24 formed from NH_4^+ some weeks or months later as a result of nitrification (Covington and
25 Sackett, 1992; Diaz-Raviña et al., 1992; Wang et al., 2015). Hence, the increase in $\text{NH}_4\text{-N}$
26 was probably due to the transformation of organic N during the combustion. Also the
27 deposition of organic N in ash and enhanced ammonification would also contribute to the
28 increased NH_4^+ (Knoepp and Swank, 1993; Wan et al., 2001). This was also supported by the
29 similar findings of Nardoto and Bustamante (2003) in savannas of Central Brazil and
30 Covington and Sackett (1992) in a ponderosa pine forest in USA.

31 The prescribed burning significantly reduced MBC in the surface soil and it showed no
32 apparent sign of recovery six months after the prescribed burning. Decreased MBC after

1 prescribed burning or wildfires have been reported and it would normally last for several
2 years (Prieto-Fernández et al., 1998). As for the other two soil liable organic C pool
3 indicators, WSOC showed no significant change before and after burning while HWEOC was
4 significantly increased in August 2014 and returned to the pre-burning level in November
5 2014. While the low intensity of prescribed burning may only cause volatilization of organic
6 C to a limited extent, soil microbes might be decreased due to their sensitiveness to
7 temperature (Hernández et al., 1997; Neary et al., 1999). This microbial lysis, as well as the
8 heat-induced alterations of soil organic matter, contributed to the release of carbohydrates
9 which were reflected by the initial increase in HWEOC.

10 **4.2 Variations in greenhouse gas exchanges and their driving factors**

11 **4.2.1 CH₄ uptake**

12 The CH₄ uptake rates before prescribed burning and six months after the burning from the
13 burned plots and all fluxes from the unburned plots fall in the range of CH₄ fluxes reported
14 by Kiese et al. (2003) (from 0.84-1.63 mg m⁻² d⁻¹) and a recent study by Rowlings et al. (2012)
15 which were conducted in a similar forest ecosystem in Australia. While the high uptake rate
16 of CH₄ three months after the burning was also comparable to the results obtained in
17 Australia forests under extreme dry conditions (Fest et al., 2009; Rowlings et al., 2012). The
18 prescribed burning increased CH₄ uptake in this study. The same effect has also been
19 reported by Burke et al. (1997) and Sullivan et al. (2011). However, unlike most studies
20 reporting that the enhanced CH₄ uptake may last for several years, our results indicated that
21 CH₄ uptake rate was returned to the pre-burning level within six months after the prescribed
22 burning. We obtained this conclusion from the similar CH₄ uptake rates in November 2014
23 when compared to the CH₄ uptake in the unburned plots and the rates before the burning in
24 the burned plots. The low fire intensity of the prescribed burning in this study might cause
25 less impact on the system and therefore shorten the required time to recover to the pre-
26 burning conditions. Studies have found that fire intensity has significant effect on forest soil
27 CH₄ consumption and CO₂ emissions while severe wildfires always impact gas exchange
28 rates for the subsequent several years (Burke et al., 1997; Neary et al., 1999; Sullivan et al.,
29 2011). Kim et al. (2011) also found a quick recovery of CH₄ uptake that after 2 years of low
30 intensity burnings in a Japanese forest.

1 Soil moisture has been shown to be a key parameter controlling CH₄ consumption by the
2 soils through limiting the transport of atmospheric CH₄ to microbial communities living at
3 depth in the soil (Burke et al., 1997). However, we observed no significant relationships
4 between soil moisture and CH₄ uptake as reported by other studies (Sommerfeld et al., 1993;
5 Kiese et al., 2003; Livesley et al., 2011). This was probably due to the low intensity burning,
6 and hence the prescribed burning did not affect soil water conditions in the soil horizons
7 relevant to the CH₄ oxidation, or the soil moisture was partly recovered to the pre-burning
8 level. Castro et al. (1994) found that moisture control was strongest when between 60% and
9 100% of available soil pore space was water filled. Meanwhile, surface soil temperature
10 appeared to show more significant influence on CH₄ uptake in this study. We also found
11 weak but significant relationship between CH₄ uptake and soil pH. The mechanism of how
12 increased pH would affect soil CH₄ uptake after fire is not clear, and Jaatinen et al. (2004)
13 estimated that the increased pH after fire caused any change in the methanotroph community
14 and would not be directly responsible for the increased uptake rates. Therefore, the increased
15 pH in our study would probably indirectly affect CH₄ uptake together with other fire
16 introduced changes.

17 The relative high and significant correlation between CH₄ uptake and WSOC indicates that
18 the decreased soil C might have increased CH₄ diffusion into the soil profile. Removal of the
19 C rich O horizon caused by the prescribed burning eliminated a barrier for CH₄ diffusion.
20 This is also supported by the decreasing CH₄ uptake and recovered WSOC in November
21 2014, combined with recovered litter deposit and ground plant regrowth. This effect of
22 prescribed burning reduced thickness of organic layer to CH₄ uptake was also found in
23 similar forest ecosystems (Saari et al., 1998; Steinkamp et al., 2001). Another possible reason
24 for the observed characteristics of CH₄ uptake is the physical changes in the surface soil.
25 Although not measured in the current study, literature has shown that low to moderate fires
26 would increase soil structure stability due to the formation of the hydrophobic film on the
27 external surface of aggregates (Mataix-Solera and Doerr, 2004). With lack of the protection
28 of ground plants and litter layers, surface soil was more likely to loose more fine fractions
29 and lead to soil coarsening by the increased erosion (Certini, 2005). These physical changes
30 in the surface soil would all form channels ideal for diffusion of atmosphere CH₄ into the soil
31 profile and thereby increase CH₄ oxidation rates.

32 **4.2.2 CO₂ effluxes**

1 The studied plots acted as a persistent source of atmospheric CO₂ before and after the
2 prescribed burning, while the CO₂ emission rates, either before or after the burning, were
3 similar to the results obtained by Carlyle and Than (1988) in a native forest with low soil
4 moisture (about 5520 mg m⁻² d⁻¹) and by Rowlings et al. (2012) in an Australian subtropical
5 rainforest (around 3600 mg m⁻² d⁻¹). However, the CO₂ emission values were much lower
6 than the reported high soil respirations (over 20000 mg m⁻² d⁻¹) in various Australian forest
7 ecosystems with high soil moisture and temperature (Carlyle and Than, 1988; Fest et al.,
8 2009; Rowlings et al., 2012). A number of studies have reported reduced CO₂ emissions after
9 the fire due to diminished root activity and lower root respirations (Czimczik et al., 2006;
10 Kim et al., 2011; Sullivan et al., 2011), and the effects would last for various length from less
11 than 2 years (Weber, 1990; Irvine et al., 2007) to longer periods (Burke et al., 1997).
12 However, in this study, it seems that CO₂ emission started recovering three months after the
13 burning. This is supported by the similar CO₂ emission rates in August 2014 (p = 0.218) and
14 November 2014 (p = 0.549) between the burned and adjacent unburned plots. The decreased
15 CO₂ flux three months after the burning, which is only 41% of that before burning, might be
16 attributed to the reduced root respiration and decomposition activities related to soil microbial
17 communities. The observed high HWEOC value in August 2014 probably indicated increased
18 dead fine roots after the combustion of ground biomass, which was in agreement with the
19 estimation that after removing the aboveground biomass, most fine roots would die within 2
20 months by Fahey and Arthur (1994). Meanwhile, studies have reported that root respiration
21 could contribute up to 50% of the total soil respiration (Irvine and Law, 2002; Zerva and
22 Mencuccini, 2005). Decomposition of the dead fine roots could lead to the flush of C
23 substrate but this was limited by the decreased microbial activities in this study, suggested by
24 the significant lower MBC and MBN values in August and November 2014. Meanwhile,
25 lower MBC in the burned plots compared to the unburned plots probably also suggested a
26 reduced heterotrophic contribution to total soil respiration. Similar finding was also reported
27 by Sullivan et al. (2011) who concluded that MBC explained a large proportion of the
28 variation in soil CO₂ flux at the burned site than at the unburned sites in a ponderosa forest in
29 south-western USA. Considering the positive relationship between CO₂ efflux and WSOC,
30 which was an important part of soil labile C, microbial biomass was likely to be limited by
31 the amount of labile C available for assimilation into microbial biomass. Maheswaran and
32 Attiwill (1989) and Zerva and Mencuccini (2005) also reported reduced CO₂ emission which
33 was related to reduced microbial populations limited by an available source of C after the fire.

1 Such explanation can be further supported by the subsequent recovery of CO₂ flux six months
2 after the burning, combined with recovered MBC to the near pre-burning level and higher
3 WSOC levels than before the burning. It was also reasonable that higher temperature in
4 November 2014 had stimulated the surface soil respiration and therefore could contribute to
5 the higher CO₂ emission rate.

6 **4.2.3 N₂O emissions**

7 The soil-atmosphere fluxes of N₂O measured in the study were very small (-0.21 to 0.54 mg
8 m⁻² d⁻¹ before the burning and -0.18-0.11 mg m⁻² d⁻¹ after the burning). These low fluxes were
9 similar to the small N₂O emission reported by Fest et al. (2009) and Livesley et al. (2011),
10 but was much lower than the range of 0.75-8.19 mg m⁻² d⁻¹ recorded by Kiese et al. (2003) in
11 a tropical rainforest and the range of 0.62-1.57 mg m⁻² d⁻¹ by Rowlings et al. (2012) in a
12 subtropical rainforest. No significant effect of prescribed burning was observed on the N₂O
13 emission. Since forest soils were generally accepted as a source of atmospheric N₂O
14 (Butterbach-Bahl et al., 1997), the negative values we measured might be attributed to the
15 changes in N₂O concentration were quite low during the chamber employment, and these
16 changes were below the detection limit of the GC system. Even though the dry and well
17 aerated soil of the sampled plots would make it prone to nitrification rather than
18 denitrification, the observed small inorganic N pool (NH₄⁺ < than 10 mg N kg⁻¹ while NO₃⁻ <
19 0.1mg N kg⁻¹) dominated by NH₄⁺ also limited the nitrification processes. Although there was
20 a significant increase in NH₄⁺ three months (p = 0.009) and six months (p = 0.009) after the
21 burning, nitrification was still negligible. This could be attributed to low soil water
22 availability and dry conditions after prescribed burning, since the removal of understory
23 plants and litter layers and increased evapotranspiration rates would limit the activities of soil
24 nitrifiers (Livesley et al., 2011). Also the prescribed burning induced charcoal at the soil
25 surface which would also suppress N₂O exchange rates as reported in a recent controlled
26 experiment in Japan (Kim et al., 2011). However, accumulated N substrate, either NH₄⁺ or
27 NO₃⁻, might cause further high N₂O emissions under appropriate conditions, for example, wet
28 after precipitations.

29 **4.3 Contribution of the gas emissions to the burning introduced greenhouse** 30 **gas effect**

1 Although consistently consuming atmospheric CH₄, the forest soil in Toohey Forest still
2 acted as a net C source to the atmosphere, due to the greater CO₂ emission rates during the
3 studied period. However, the burning induced lower CO₂ emission and higher CH₄ uptake
4 rates could significantly reduce the amount of C released into atmosphere, especially when
5 extending these effects to the first several months after the burning. This reduced C emission
6 could partly compensate the greenhouse gas effect during the operation of the burning -
7 prescribed burning could cause eruption of CO₂ into the atmosphere by combusting
8 photosynthetic fixed C embedded in understory plants, litter layers, surface soil organic C
9 and also the consumption of fossil fuels. Data on the C loss due to prescribed burning, fuel
10 consumed and continuous measurement of soil gas exchanges are required to quantify the
11 burning-caused greenhouse effect in future studies.

12

13 **5 Conclusion**

14 The low intensity prescribed burning in Toohey Forest caused changes in both soil properties
15 and greenhouse gas exchange rates. Soil CH₄ uptake was significantly enhanced due to the
16 increased CH₄ diffusivity into the soil profiles. The removal of litter layer and surface soil
17 organic materials and the altered soil physical structural caused by the prescribed burning
18 were the major factors contributing to the increased CH₄ diffusion. The CO₂ emission was
19 largely decreased but it was largely caused by natural annual variations. Changes in root
20 respiration and soil microbial community were the two controlling factors related to the effect
21 of prescribed burning on CO₂ emission. Due to the controlled condition of prescribed burning,
22 both CH₄ uptake and CO₂ emission started to recover about three months after the burning
23 and it would appear that the gas exchange rates were recovered to the pre-burning level about
24 six months after the burning. This rapid recovery was closely related to the limited effect of
25 prescribed burning on the soil. However, the decreased CO₂ emission and increased CH₄
26 uptake during this period could still partly compensate the greenhouse gas effect caused by
27 the combustion of C during the burning. The N₂O emission was quite low in the studied plots
28 and showed no obvious impacts of prescribed burning.

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3

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- 29

1 Table 1. Weather conditions for the three sampling events, precipitation was recorded by the
 2 Mt Gravatt Alert weather station (27.55° S, 153.07° E, ~2 km from the sampling plots) and
 3 the data were collected at the website of Bureau of Meteorology (<http://www.bom.gov.au>).

Sampling events	Sampling dates	Antecedent precipitation* (30 days, mm)	Antecedent precipitation (3 months, mm)	Rainfall during sampling period	Temperature measured on-site
Aug 2013	27-30	4	71	0	24.76
Aug 2014	5-8	10 ¹	22	0	23
Nov 2014	10-13	11	85 ²	0	29.88

4 * Total rainfall for the indicated periods

5 1 highest daily rainfall was 7 mm recorded on 27 Jul 2014

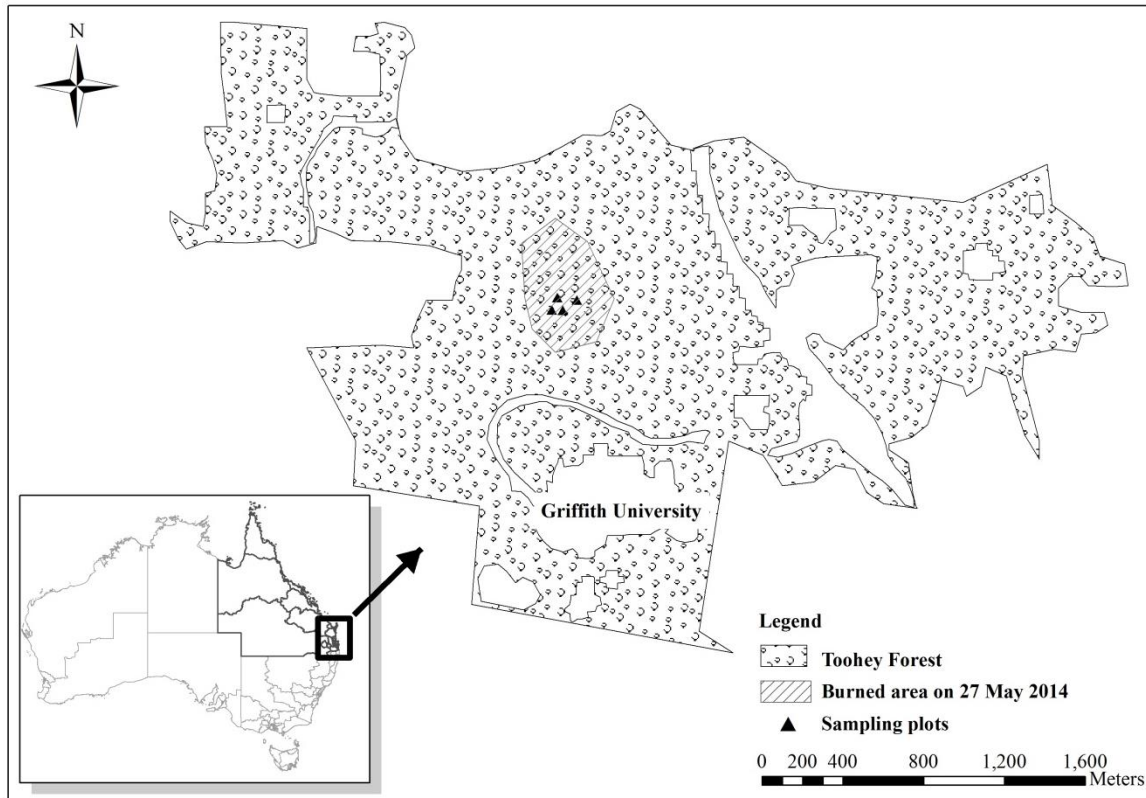
6 2 most rainfall for this period was recorded on 17 August 2014 (69 mm)

1 Table 2. Average gas exchange rates from surface soil in Toohey Forest before and after the
 2 prescribed burning. Values in parentheses indicate standard errors for the 4 replicate plots of
 3 each sampling period. Significant differences between measurements before and after the
 4 burning in the burned plots presented in lowercase letters. Significant differences between
 5 burned and adjacent unburned plots presented in uppercase letters. Mean values followed by
 6 the same letter are not significantly different (one-way ANOVA, $p \geq 0.05$).

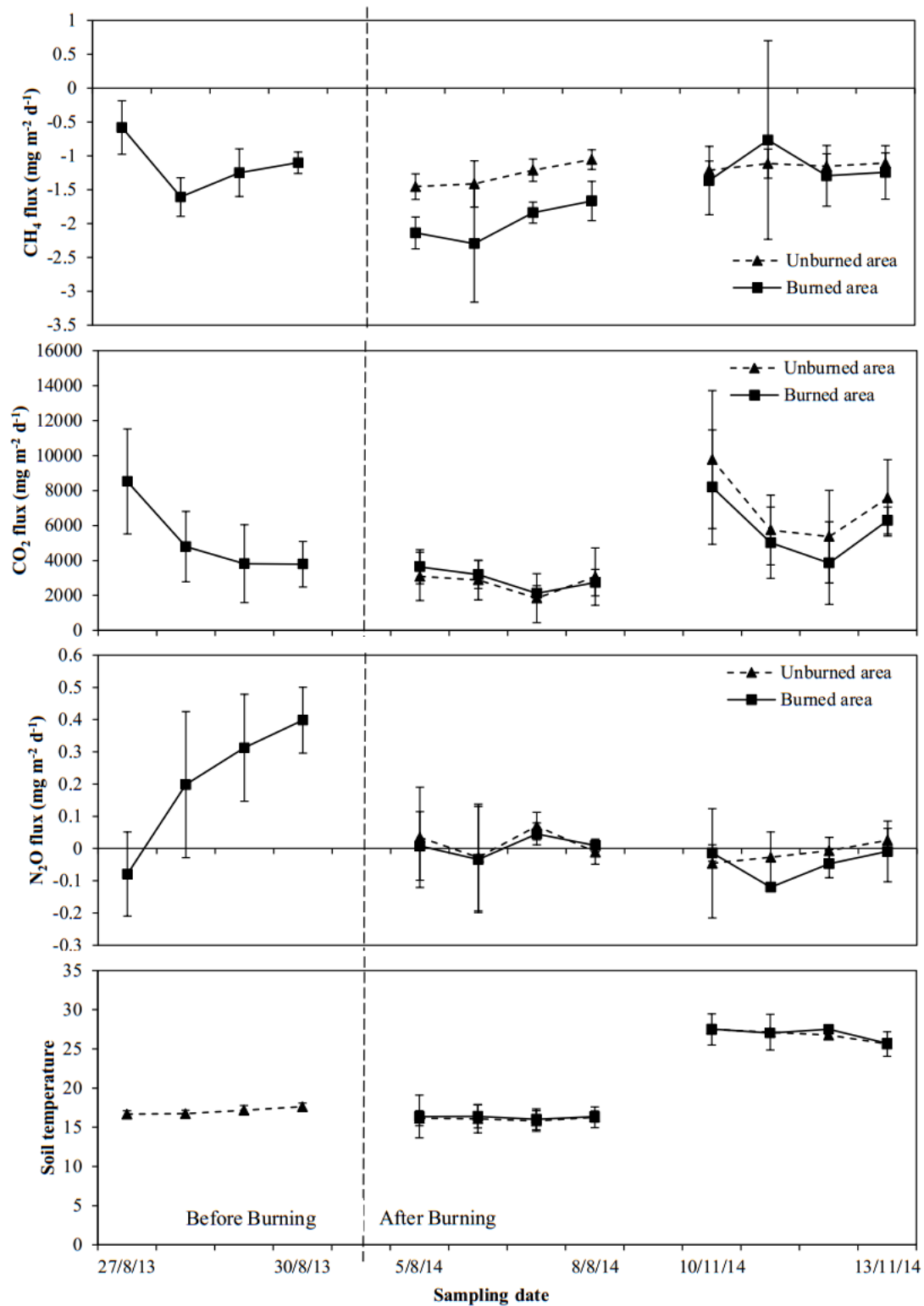
Sites	Dates	CH₄ mg m⁻² d⁻¹	CO₂ mg m⁻² d⁻¹	N₂O mg m⁻² d⁻¹
Burned	Aug 2013	-1.21 (0.42)a	5009.17 (2657.67)a	0.21 (0.24)a
	Aug 2014	-1.99 (0.51)bA	2974.24 (895.78)bA	0.00 (0.10)aA
	Nov 2014	-1.17 (0.78)aC	5835.69 (2639.99)aB	-0.04 (0.07)bB
Unburned	Aug 2014	-1.28 (0.26)B	2721.76 (1360.24)A	0.02 (0.11)A
	Nov 2014	-1.15 (0.16)C	7113.49 (3086.07)B	-0.01 (0.09)B

- 1 Table 3. Surface soil properties in Toohey Forest before and after the prescribed burning. Values in parentheses indicate standard errors for the 4
- 2 replicate plots of each sampling period. Soil moisture is presented in %. Other parameters (except pH) are presented in mg kg⁻¹

Sites	Date	Moisture	pH	NH₄-N	NO₃-N	WSOC	WSTN	HWEOC	HWETN	MBC	MBN
Burned	Aug 2013	12.3 (4.4)	4.33 (0.10)	1.78 (0.55)	0.02 (0.03)	88.83 (13.54)	7.10 (0.83)	875.44 (180.32)	67.80 (10.38)	522.45 (76.18)	56.37 (14.2)
	Aug 2014	10.3 (2.7)	5.76 (0.17)	6.76 (2.30)	0.09 (0.05)	80.00 (20.20)	6.81 (2.16)	2809.99 (479.18)	183.75 (39.10)	378.94 (103.58)	35.77 (10.00)
	NOV 2014	10.3 (3.0)	4.88 (0.24)	10.63 (4.18)	0.10 (0.12)	148.09 (38.25)	7.38 (2.97)	893.47 (310.29)	54.08 (19.32)	444.68 (45.27)	48.02 (7.15)
Unburned	Aug 2014	10.1 (2.0)	5.44 (0.24)	3.79 (1.67)	0.03 (0.04)	97.27 (28.36)	7.22 (1.19)	3638.29 (571.01)	203.91 (17.70)	493.62 (73.81)	45.26 (8.19)
	NOV 2014	9.8 (2.3)	4.67 (0.16)	6.44 (1.83)	0.04 (0.07)	114.35 (28.30)	5.14 (1.29)	942.56 (254.30)	51.94 (13.02)	406.07 (249.90)	42.76 (14.56)



1
2 Figure 1. Map of the study site in Toohey Forest located in south-eastern Queensland, Australia.



1

2 Figure 2. CH₄, CO₂ and N₂O exchange rates and on-site measured soil temperature before
 3 and after the prescribed burning. The dash line indicated the date of burning conducted on 27
 4 May 2014. Each sampling period lasted for 4 days and the values were averaged from the 4
 5 selected plots each day. The vertical bars indicated the standard error of the mean.