## 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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- 5 Y. Zhao<sup>1, 2\*</sup>, Y. Z. Wang<sup>1, 3\*</sup>, Z. H. Xu<sup>1</sup>, L. Fu<sup>1, 4</sup>
- 6 [1] Environmental Futures Research Institute and School of Natural Sciences, Griffith
- 7 University, Nathan, Brisbane, Queensland 4111, Australia
- 8 [2] Institute of Geographical Sciences and Natural Resources Research, Chinese Academy of
- 9 Sciences, Beijing, 100101, China
- 10 [3] Key Laboratory of Pollution Processes and Environmental Criteria, College of
- 11 Environmental Science and Engineering, Nankai University, Tiantin 300071, China
- 12 [4] Key Laboratory of Digital Earth Science, Institute of Remote Sensing and Digital Earth,
- 13 Chinese Academy of Sciences, Beijing 100101, China
- \* These authors make equal contributions to this work.
- 15 Correspondence to: Z. H. Xu (zhihong.xu@griffith.edu.au)

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#### 17 Abstract

- 18 Prescribed burning is a forest management practice that is widely used in Australia to reduce
- the risk of damaging wildfires. It-Prescribed burning can affect both carbon (C) and nitrogen
- 20 (N) cycling in the forest and thereby influence the soil-atmosphere exchange of major
- 21 greenhouse gases, i.e. carbon dioxide (CO<sub>2</sub>), methane (CH<sub>4</sub>) and nitrous oxide (N<sub>2</sub>O). To
- 22 quantify the impact of a prescribed burning (conducted on 27 May 2014) on greenhouse gas
- 23 exchange and the potential controlling mechanisms, we carried out a series of field
- measurements before (August 2013) and after (August 2014 and November 2014) the fire.
- 25 Gas exchange rates were determined at in 4 replicate sites plots which were burned during the
- 26 combustion and <u>in</u> another 4 adjacent unburned <u>sites plots</u> located in green islands, using a set
- 27 of static chambers. Surface soil properties including temperature, pH, moisture, soil C and N
- 28 pools were also determined either by in situ measurement or by analysing surface 10 cm soil
- 29 samples. All of the chamber measurements indicated a net sink of atmospheric CH<sub>4</sub>, with

mean CH<sub>4</sub> uptake ranging from 1.15 to 1.99 mg m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>. The Prescribed burning significantly enhanced CH<sub>4</sub> uptake as indicated by the significant higher CH<sub>4</sub> uptake rates at in the burned sites plots measured in August 2014. While within In the next following 3 months, the CH<sub>4</sub> uptake rate was recovered to the pre-burning levels. Mean CO<sub>2</sub> emission from the forest soils ranged from 2721.76 to 7113.49 mg m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>. The effect of prescribed burning on CO<sub>2</sub> emission was limited within the first 3 months, as no significant difference was observed between the burned and the adjacent unburned sites plots in both August and November 2014. The temporal dynamics of the CO<sub>2</sub> emissions presented showed more seasonal variations, rather than the burning effects of prescribed burning. The N<sub>2</sub>O emission at in the studied sitesplots was quite low, and no significant impact of prescribed burning was observed. The changes in understory plants and litter layers, surface soil temperature, C and N substrate availability and microbial activities, resulting from following the prescribed burning, were the factors that controlled the greenhouse gas exchanges. Our results suggested that the low intensity prescribed burning would decrease soil CO2 emission and increase CH4 uptake, however, but this effect would be present within a relative short period. Only slight changes in the surface soil properties during the combustion and very limited damages impacts of prescribed burning in on the mineral soils supported the quick rapid recovery of the greenhouse gas exchange rates.

#### 1 Introduction

As the a result of continuously increasing greenhouse gas emissions, global climate change studies have predicted a drier future with high probability of increasing temperatures, lower average rainfall and increase in the frequency and severity of droughts and extreme weather events (Zhao et al., 2013; Sherwood and Fu, 2014; Fu et al., 2015). As for In Australia, climate changes were also identified as key drivers of the increases in days with high fire risk weather and probability of severe wildfires (Murphy and Timbal, 2008; Fest, 2013). In response to these predictions, the use of prescribed burning is increased in Australia forest management to protect both native and plantation forests from the risk of damaging wildfires (Wang et al., 2014). The Prescribed burns are generally targeted at the understorey vegetation and surface litters, while aiming for minimum damage to overstorey trees. Despite the controlled burning conditions, prescribed burning can still have significant effects on altering environmental factors including soil water content and soil temperature. The combustion

event would also result in amounts of charcoal and dying tree roots (Kim et al., 2011; 1 2 Sullivan et al., 2011) and therefore altering alter root activities, decomposition of organic 3 matters decomposition, availability of substrate and soil N dynamics (Weber, 1990; Certini, 2005; Livesley et al., 2011; Wang et al., 2014). All these parameters are closely related to 4 three major greenhouse gas exchanges at soil-atmosphere interface, namely carbon dioxide 5 6  $(CO_2)$ , methane  $(CH_4)$  and nitrous oxide  $(N_2O)$ . Studies have paid special attentions to soil 7 CO<sub>2</sub>, CH<sub>4</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>O these greenhouse gas fluxes, not only because of the warming effect caused by CO<sub>2</sub>, CH<sub>4</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>O in the atmosphere globally (Zhao et al., 2013; Sherwood and 8 Fu, 2014), but also because of their use as very effective indicators for evaluating soil C and 9 N pools and soil microbial activities (Weber, 1990). Many studies have been conducted to 10 quantify CO<sub>2</sub>, CH<sub>4</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>O exchanges at forest soil-atmosphere interface and the impact of 11 intensive wildfires of in different climate regions, but very few works have reported the 12 effects of prescribed burning on soil greenhouse gas emissions, especially in Australia. 13 14 The CO<sub>2</sub> is the primary greenhouse gas and account for a major part of anticipated global warming (Sommerfeld et al., 1993). Within the forest ecosystem, soil is the major C reservoir 15 while soil respiration is an important mechanism that releases the fixed C into atmosphere 16 (Seidl et al., 2014). Forest fires are generally reported to decrease soil CO<sub>2</sub> efflux (Weber, 17 18 1990; Burke et al., 1997; Kim et al., 2011; Livesley et al., 2011). The reported key driving 19 factors of fires on CO2 efflux are the changes in soil temperature, moisture and fine root activities. As the altered temperature and moisture reflect could change the amplitude of the 20 seasonal variations in CO2 emissions, reduced fine root activities after fires are more 21 responsible for the decreased CO<sub>2</sub> (Kim et al., 2011; Sullivan et al., 2011). Sullivan et al. 22 (2011) also concluded that reduced microbial respiration indicated by microbial biomass after 23 24 prescribed burning could further contribute to the decreased CO<sub>2</sub> efflux. Unlike with this "decrease" effect, Fest et al. (2015) also reported that low intensity burning slightly increased 25 soil CO<sub>2</sub> flux in temperature eucalypt forest systems. This is attributed to the higher inputs of 26 easily decomposable compounds, higher surface temperature and soil nutrient depletion after 27 burning treatments (Fest et al., 2015). 28 29 The CH<sub>4</sub> is the second most important greenhouse gas forcing climate change, with a global warming potential of 25 times greater than CO2. Aerated forest soils are one of the most 30 important biological sink of CH<sub>4</sub> as the results of oxidation of atmospheric CH<sub>4</sub> by 31 methanotrophic bacteria. Studies have reported both positive (Livesley et al., 2011; Sullivan 32

et al., 2011; Fest, 2013) and no significant impacts of fires on forest soil CH<sub>4</sub> uptake (Kim et

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al., 2011). Since soil gas diffusivity is one of the key regulators of soil CH<sub>4</sub> uptake in the 1 forest soil system, the prescribed burning altered soil moisture condition, and removal of 2 3 litter layer and soil O horizon would weaken or eliminate the barrier effect of the surface soil and thereby increase diffusion of CH<sub>4</sub> into soil profile (Sullivan et al., 2011; Fest, 2013). 4 The N<sub>2</sub>O emission is less reported in forest soil studies, despite the greater climate warming 5 potential of N<sub>2</sub>O than CO<sub>2</sub> and CH<sub>4</sub> and the large contribution of forest soil N<sub>2</sub>O emission to 6 the global atmospheric N<sub>2</sub>O budget (Kiese and Butterbach-Bahl, 2002; Kiese et al., 2003). 7 Fires would affect soil N<sub>2</sub>O emission by altering the rates of nitrification and denitrification 8 9 processes but few published studies have reported inconsistent results; there are only few published studies and their results are inconsistent. Fires could change forest soil N storages 10 but the mechanism of driving N<sub>2</sub>O emission changes is unclear (Certini, 2005; Nave et al., 11 2011). Available N substrate (Kiese et al., 2003), soil moisture and temperature (Fest et al., 12 2009), water filled pore space (Kiese and Butterbach-Bahl, 2002) and stand conditions 13 (Butterbach-Bahl et al., 1997) are potential factors which could affect N<sub>2</sub>O emission rates. 14 15 The eucalypt dominated natural forest ecosystem studied in this experiment is quite typical 16 across most of Australia's forest areas, with a total of 92 million hectares or 74% of of Australia's forest area (Department Agriculture, 17 http://www.agriculture.gov.au/abares/forestsaustralia/profiles/eucalypt-forest). These forests 18 19 hold important C storage over the country and also provide important ecosystem services 20 such as biodiversity, recreation, water resource and wood products (Fest et al., 2009). Prescribed burning is one of the most important management tools in Australia to protect 21 these forests from firestorm and maintain their functions, including forest regeneration, site 22 preparation, fuel reduction and habitat management (Guinto et al., 2000; Bai et al., 2012; 23 Wang et al., 2014). Some studies have reported the greenhouse gas emissions from Australian 24 25 forest soils (Kiese and Butterbach-Bahl, 2002; Dalal et al., 2003), but the impact of prescribed burning on Australian eucalyptus forests are rarely studied. Therefore, we have 26 limited understanding about the magnitude and direction of the effect of prescribed burning 27 28 on the greenhouse gas exchange which is critical to understand the interaction between burned ecosystem and the atmosphere. In this study, we setup four sampling sites plots which 29 had similar stand conditions to address the following questions: (1) would prescribed fire 30 burning affect greenhouse gas emissions at the soil atmosphere interface? (2) And if so, 31 hHow long would these effects last? and (3) wWhat would be the controlling factors? To 32 address these questions, we conducted a series of field measurements of CH<sub>4</sub>, CO<sub>2</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>O 33

- 1 exchange at surface soil before and after a-prescribed burning. To examine the potential
- 2 driving factors and mechanisms we also collected surface soil samples for analysing
- 3 biological, chemical and physical variables which might be altered by the prescribed burning.

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#### 2 Methods

## 2.1 Site description

- 7 The study was carried out in Toohey Forest (27°30'S, 135°02'E), located 10 km south of
- 8 Brisbane in south-eastern Queensland, Australia (Figure 1 Figure 1). This forest accounts for
- 9 about 600 hectares dominated by different species of eucalypt and contains some 460 species
- 10 of vascular plants. About half of this forest is a local government conservation reserve and
- surrounded by suburban areas (Catterall and Wallace, 1987; Catterall et al., 2001; Farmer et
- 12 al., 2004). The climate for the region and around is characterized as subtropical with a
- dominant weather pattern of hot, wet summers and cool, dry winters. The mean annual
- rainfall is about 1000 mm, with the majority received during winter summer months.
- 15 Temperatures generally ranged between approximately 30 and 35 °C in summer and 10 and
- 16 15  $^{\circ}$ C in winter.
- 17 Patterns of burning prior to the 1950s are unknown, but from the 1950s to the early 1970s,
- individual fires probably burned across a large proportion of the area. From the early 1970s
- 19 individual fires were confined to more localized areas and created a spatially heterogeneous
- 20 | fire regime. Since 1993, 27 blocks within Toohey Forest haves been conducted with regular
- 21 prescribed burnings (Wang et al., 2015). Prescribed burnings are generally low intensity cool
- burns, and usually occur at the end of the dry season in winter. Generally, every burning
- 23 event would last for several hours (usually overnight) from ignition to extinguishing of any
- small fires. The fire was monitored and controlled during the burning. The prescribed burning
- 25 related withof this study was conducted on 27 May 2014. Before the prescribed burning, we
- 26 selected 4 sites plots with similar stand conditions for sampling. The understory of these sites
- 27 plots was burned out during the recent prescribed burning, left a layer of wood charcoal on
- the ground. After the <u>prescribed</u> burning, these 4 <u>sites-plots</u> were measured repeatedly at three
- 29 months (August 2014) and six months (November 2014)—later. Detailed sampling dates and
- weather conditions for the selected sampling events were listed in Table 1. Basically, the
- 31 sampling events were conducted under clear weather condition and there were no major

Additionally Furthermore, another 4 unburned sites—plots adjacent to the burned plots as paired plots were selected to further examine the impacts of prescribed burning. These sites unburned plots were located in some-the adjacent green islands of those not touched by the recent prescribed burning and were near the existing four burned sites.

6 (Figure 1)

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## 2.2 Sampling method

We adopted a static chamber method to measure CO<sub>2</sub>, CH<sub>4</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>O emissions simultaneously. A PVC chamber (cylinder with a diameter of 245 mm, wall thickness approximately 4 mm and length 300 mm) was installed in each of the 4 sitesplots. The chambers were sharpened at the bottom edge and were pushed 10 cm into the soil using a hammer. Weed control was performed within and around the chamber to prevent the impacts of grasses. Sampling was conducted a week later after the chambers were set. Gas fluxes across the soil-atmosphere interface were determined daily by sampling air in the headspace of PVC chambers during the 4-day field measurement. The internal volume of a chamber was 9.4 L when placed 10 cm deep into forest floor. There were 4 holes evenly distributed on the chamber (10 cm above ground) to help the inner atmosphere fully mixed with outside, on all sampling occasions prior to each gas sampling, these holes were sealed with a set of rubber plugs. The top of the chamber was also covered with a cap fastened with black rubber band to prevent any gas exchange between the inner headspace and the outside. After covering the cap, 15 ml gas samples were taken from the sampling port at the centre of the chamber top at 0 and 60 min after chamber deployment. A 25 ml syringe was attached to the sampling port and the plunger of the syringe was pumped up and down several times to mix the gases in the chamber before taking a sample. Gas samples were immediately injected into pre-evacuated 15-ml tubes capped with butyl rubber stoppers and prepare for analysis of CO<sub>2</sub>, CH<sub>4</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>O. All gas samplings were conducted during daylight hours from approximately 8:00 to 12:00.

## 2.3 Soil properties property analysis

The top 10 cm soil in the chamber was collected with a shovel. Collected soil samples were thoroughly mixed and passed through a 2 mm sieve. Soil moisture was measured gravimetrically after drying at 105  $^{\circ}$ C for 48 hours. pH was measured with a 1:5 aqueous solutions after shaking for 30 min. Soil inorganic N concentrations were extracted with 2 M

- 1 KCL and measured using a modified micro-diffusion method (Wang et al., 2015) and a
- 2 Discrete Chemistry Analyser (Westco Smartchem SC 200, Discrete Wet Chemistry Analyser).
- 3 To determine water soluble organic C (WSOC) and total N (WSTN), 7 g fresh soil was added
- 4 to 35 ml distilled water in a 50 ml plastic centrifuge vials, the suspension was then shaken by
- 5 an end-over-end shaker for 5 min followed by centrifuging at 10000 rpm for 10 min. The
- 6 suspension was then filtered through a Whatman 42 filter paper and a 33 mm Millex syringe-
- 7 driven 0.45 µm filter successively before analysed by with a Shimadzu TOC-VCSH/CSN
- 8 TOC/N analyser. Similarly, hot water extractable organic C (HWEOC) and total N (HWETN)
- 9 were also measured, while the only difference was, 1:5 soil water solution, was incubated in a
- 10 capped and sealed tube at 70  $^{\circ}$ C for 18 hours.
- 11 Soil microbial biomass C (MBC) and N (MBN) were determined using the fumigation-
- 12 extraction method described by Vance et al. (1987) and Brookes et al. (1985). Briefly,
- 13 fumigated and non-fumigated soils (5 g dry weight equivalent) were extracted with 25 ml of
- 14 0.5 M K<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> (soil/extractant ratio 1:5). The fumigation lasted for 16 hours. Samples were
- shaken for 30 minutes and then filtered through a Whatman 42 filter paper. Soluble organic C
- and total soluble N (TSN) in the fumigated and non-fumigated samples were determined
- 17 using a Shimadzu TOC-VCSH/CSN TOC/N analyser. MBC and MBN were calculated using
- conversion factors of 2.64 and 2.22 for C (Vance et al., 1987) and N (Brookes et al., 1985),
- 19 respectively.

## 20 2.4 Gas analysis

- 21 Collected gas samples were sent to laboratory for gas chromatography (GC) analysis for CO<sub>2</sub>,
- 22 CH<sub>4</sub> and  $N_2O$  concentrations right shortly after the field campaigns ampling. The
- 23 concentrations of CO<sub>2</sub> and CH<sub>4</sub> was-were measured using a GC system (GC-2010 PLUS
- 24 Shimadzu) with Flame Ionization Detector and N<sub>2</sub>O was measured using the same GC system
- with Electron Capture Detector. The standards (0.5 ppm for CH<sub>4</sub>, 400.5 ppm for CO<sub>2</sub> and 0.3
- ppm for  $N_2O$ ) were run before and after each set of samples to ensure the reproducibility of
- 27 measurements. Gas fluxes for CO<sub>2</sub>, CH<sub>4</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>O were determined from a regression analysis
- with gas concentrations change within the chamber versus time (Zhao et al., 2013).

## 2.5 Statistical analysis

All statistical analyses were performed using IBM SPSS STATISTICS (version 20) software. One-way ANOVA was introduced to examine statistically significant differences between soil gas fluxes measured before and after the burning in the burned plots. This analysis was also applied to compare the fluxes between burned and unburned plots in Aug 2014 and Nov 2014, respectively. Repeated measures ANOVA was used to examine statistically significant differences and changing patterns of soil gas fluxes and soil variables following the prescribed burning with the measurement date as the repeated factor. Collected soil properties and gas fluxes at the four replicate plots during the three sampling events were also pooled together for Pearson correlation analysis Correlation analysis was tested for to detect possible effects of soil environmental variables on soil CO<sub>2</sub>, CH<sub>4</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>O fluxes.

#### 3 Results

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## 3.1 Greenhouse gas exchange rates before and after prescribed burning

Average CH<sub>4</sub>, CO<sub>2</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>O emissions rates of the 4 replicate sites plots for each sampling event were listed in Table 1 Table 2. While temporal patterns of gas exchange for the 4-day sampling of the 3 sampling periods were shown in Figure 2. Coefficient of variance (CV, ratio of the standard deviation to the mean) among the plots during the 4 sampling days ranged from 14%-68% (mean 32%), 9%-15% (mean 10%) and 10%-28% (mean 16%), for Aug 2013, Aug 2014 and Nov 2014, respectively. All the sampling plotssites showed negative CH<sub>4</sub> emissions rates during the three sampling events, or uptake atmospheric CH<sub>4</sub>. At-In the burned plotssites, mean CH<sub>4</sub> uptake was significant-significantly increased by 64% three months after the prescribed burning (p < 0.001), while during the third sampling period,  $CH_4$  uptake had similar  $CH_4$  uptake rate as that became similar to that before the burning (p = 0.843). At-In the unburned plotssites, CH<sub>4</sub> uptake was relative-relatively stable during the dates of each the sampling periods and also showed less variation in uptake rate between August 2014 and November 2014. The significant difference in mean CH<sub>4</sub> uptake rate in August 2014 (p < 0.001) but similar rates in November 2014 (p = 0.921) also confirmed that the CH<sub>4</sub> uptake increased at the first three months but was recovered to the pre-burning level about six months after the prescribed burning. Soil CO<sub>2</sub> flux showed relative higher variance as indicated by the higher standard deviations (Figure 2) and CVs (ranged from 43% to 50% during the three sampling periods). Mean CO<sub>2</sub>

- 1 2014 (p < 0.001). In November 2014, CO<sub>2</sub> efflux rates had exceeded that before the burning
- 2 by 28% but the difference was not significant (p = 0.392). Similar  $CO_2$  emission rates
- 3 between the burned and adjacent unburned plotseites during the sampling dates in-of August
- 4 2014 (p = 0.549) and  $\frac{1}{100}$  November 2014 (p = 0.218) were also observed. This might indicated
- 5 that the temporal dynamics detected at the burned plots reflected more natural variations
- 6 rather than burning induced impacts.
- 7 As for The lower N<sub>2</sub>O, lower emission rates, compared to that in August 2013, were found
- 8 both in August 2014 (p = 0.003) and November 2014 (p < 0.001). During the three sampling
- 9 periods, the study sites plots were not solely performed as a source of atmospheric  $N_2O$ , on
- 10 27 August 2013, 6 August 2014 and most days one November 2014, but the plotssites also
- 11 took up N<sub>2</sub>O from the atmosphere. No observed significant difference in N<sub>2</sub>O emission was
- 12 <u>observed</u> between the burned and unburned <u>sites plots</u> in both August and November 2014.
- 13 (Table <u>42</u>)
- 14 (Figure 2)

## 3.2 Soil basic properties and their relationships with gas exchange rates

- After the <u>prescribed</u> burning, <del>mean</del>-soil moisture-of the surface soil showed no significant
- 17 difference between burned and unburned plotssites (p = 0.804), although most of the
- sampling plotssites (5 out of 8 for the two sampling events in 2014) had relative higher values.
- 19 Soil temperature was slightly higher during for most sampling dates at in the burned
- 20 plots<del>sites</del>, but no significant difference was found in August 2014 (p = 0.644) and November
- 21 2014 (p = 0.751). The pH in the surface soil was higher in 2014 than in 2013, and the values
- 22 at in all burned plotssites were slightly higher than those of unburned sites (p = 0.293).  $NO_3$ -
- N was quite low both before and after the <u>prescribed</u> burning, but NH<sub>4</sub>-N was significantly
- 24 increased after the <u>prescribed</u> burning.
- 25 When relating these soil parameters to greenhouse gas emissions from the soil surface, soil
- temperature showed a positive correlation with the  $CH_4$  uptake (R = 0.232, p = 0.044) and
- 27  $CO_2$  efflux (R = 0.47, p < 0.000) and a negative correlation with  $N_2O$  emission (R = -0.284, p
- 28 = 0.011). pH was negatively correlated with the CH<sub>4</sub> uptake (R = -0.595, P = 0.006) and CO<sub>2</sub>
- 29 (R = -0.591, p = 0.006) emission. NH<sub>4</sub>-N was negatively correlated with  $N_2O$  emission (R = -
- 30 0.533, p = 0.015).
- 31 (Table 23)

## 3.3 Soil C and N dynamics before and after burning

- There was no significant difference in WSOC at-in the burned plotssites between August 2013 and August 2014, and only slightly decreased WSOC was observed in August 2014. However, WSOC was significant higher in November 2014 (p = 0.034). Comparing to the unburned sites, WSOC in most burned sites (3 out of 4) was lower in August 2014 (p = 0.387) while higher in November 2014 (p = 0.237). No significant difference was found between any sampling periods for WSTN, despite higher WSTN at-in some burned plotssites than those before the prescribed burning and in the unburned plotssites. HWEOC was significantly increased in August 2014 than that in August 2013 (p < 0.001) and in November 2014 it was recovered to the level before the prescribed burning (p = 0.929). The difference in HWEOC between the burned and adjacent unburned plotssites were also significant in August 2014 (p = 0.0361) but insignificant in November 2014. The situation was similar for HWETN.
- Mean-MBC at in the burned plotssites in August 2014 was 378.94 mg kg<sup>-1</sup>, which was lower than that in August 2013 (522.45 mg kg<sup>-1</sup>, p = 0.069), and this value did not change much in November 2014 (380.37 mg kg<sup>-1</sup>). Burned sites also showed lower MBC values when compared to the unburned sites both in August (p = 0.121) and November (p = 0.516) 2014.
- 17 MBN had the same dynamics as MBC.
  - The correlation analysis between soil C or N pools and gas emissions showed that CH<sub>4</sub> uptake was negatively correlated with WSOC (R = 0.523, p = 0.018). CO<sub>2</sub> efflux has had negative correlation with HWEOC (R = -0.690, p = 0.001) and HWETN (R = -0.730, p < 0.001). N<sub>2</sub>O emission was positively correlated with MBN (R = 0.565, p = 0.009).

## 4 Discussions

#### 4.1 Burning ilmpacts of prescribed burning on soil properties

The pPrescribed burning has resulted in a slightly increase in the surface soil temperature of this study, which is in the agreement with most existing of the literature results (Burke et al., 1997; Certini, 2005). The burning of the understory vegetative vegetation cover, together with the resulted consumption of fuel loadss, removal of litter layer and increased charred materials on the soil surface would all moderate affect soil temperatures by intercepting direct sunlight and moderating the loss of soil heat by radiation. However, the controlled burning condition or low fire intensity limited this difference at thean insignificant level. Meanwhile, the 4 selected plotssites in the study did not show consistent fluctuations in the

surface soil moisture before and after the prescribed burning, which would generally be expected to decrease after a fire (Burke et al., 1997; Kim et al., 2011; Sullivan et al., 2011). Generally, increased soil temperature, combined with the reduced shade, would result in higher evaporation rates and therefore restricts the movement of water into soil profile (Burke et al., 1997; Certini, 2005). This be might attributed to the representativeness of the measurements and one measurement for each sampling period might not suffice be adequate to represent the physical state of water in the soil (Weber, 1990).

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

NH<sub>4</sub>-N was significantly increased after the <u>prescribed</u> burning, but no significant changes were observed for NO<sub>3</sub>-N<sub>2</sub>- <u>sSince NH<sub>4</sub>-N wais</u> a direct product of combustion and NO<sub>3</sub>- <u>wais</u> formed from NH<sub>4</sub>+ some weeks or months later as a result of nitrification (Covington and Sackett, 1992; Diaz-Raviña et al., 1992; Wang et al., 2015). Hence, the increase in NH<sub>4</sub>-N was probably due to the transformation of organic N during the combustion. Also the deposition of organic N in ash and enhanced ammonification would also contribute to the increased NH<sub>4</sub>+ (Knoepp and Swank, 1993; Wan et al., 2001). This was also supported by the similar <u>phenomenon found by findings of</u> Nardoto and Bustamante (2003) in savannas of Central Brazil and Covington and Sackett (1992) in a ponderosa pine forest in USA.

The <u>prescribed</u> burning <u>has</u>-significantly reduced MBC in the surface soil and it showed no apparent sign of recovery six months <u>later</u>-after the <u>prescribed</u> burning. Decreased MBC after prescribed burning or wildfires have been reported and it would normally last for several years (Prieto-Fern andez et al., 1998). As for the other two soil liable organic C pool indicators, WSOC showed no significant change before and after burning while HWEOC <u>was</u>

significantly increased in August 2014 and returned to the pre-burning level in Novemebr 2 2014. While the low intensity of the prescribed burning may only cause volatilization of organic C to a limited extent, soil microbes might be decreased due to their sensitiveness to temperature (Hern ández et al., 1997; Neary et al., 1999). This microbial lysis, as well as the heat-induced alterations of soil organic matter, contributed to the release of carbohydrates which were reflected by the initial increase in HWEOC.

#### 4.2 Variations in greenhouse gas exchanges and their driving factors

#### 4.2.1 CH<sub>4</sub> uptake

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The CH<sub>4</sub> uptake rates before prescribed burning and six months after the burning from the burned plotssites and all fluxes from the unburned plotssites fall in the range of CH<sub>4</sub> fluxes obtained-reported by Kiese et al. (2003) (varies-from 0.84-1.63 mg m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>) and a recent study by Rowlings et al. (2012) which were conducted in a similar forest ecosystem in Australia. While the high uptake rate of CH<sub>4</sub> three months after the burning was also comparable to the results obtained in Australia forests under extreme dry conditions (Fest et al., 2009; Rowlings et al., 2012). The prescribed burning increased CH<sub>4</sub> uptake in this study. The same effect has also been reported by Burke et al. (1997) and Sullivan et al. (2011). However, unlike most studies reporting that the enhanced CH<sub>4</sub> uptake may last for several years, our results indicated that CH<sub>4</sub> uptake rate was returned to the pre-burning level within six months after the prescribed burning. We obtained this conclusion from the similar CH<sub>4</sub> uptake rates in November 2014 when compared to the CH<sub>4</sub> uptake at-in the unburned plotssites and the rates before the burning atin the burned plotssites. The low fire intensity of the prescribed burning in this study may might cause less impact on the system and therefore shorten the required time to recover to the pre-burning conditions for the studied forest. Studies have found that fire intensity has significant effect on forest soil CH4 consumption and CO2 emissions while severe wildfires always impact gas exchange rates for the subsequent several years (Burke et al., 1997; Neary et al., 1999; Sullivan et al., 2011). Kim et al. (2011) also found a quick recovery of CH<sub>4</sub> uptake that after 2 years of low intensity burnings in a Japanese forest. Soil moisture has been shown to be a key parameter controlling CH<sub>4</sub> consumption by the

Soil moisture has been shown to be a key parameter controlling CH<sub>4</sub> consumption by the soils through limiting the transport of atmospheric CH<sub>4</sub> to microbial communities living at depth in the soil (Burke et al., 1997). However, we observed no significant relationships between soil moisture and CH<sub>4</sub> uptake as reported by other studies (Sommerfeld et al., 1993;

Kiese et al., 2003; Livesley et al., 2011). This was probably due to the low intensity burning, and hence the prescribed burning did not affect the soil water conditions in the soil horizons relevant to the CH<sub>4</sub> oxidation, or the soil moisture was partly recovered to the pre-burning level and was also lower than the range of strong moisture control. Castro et al. (1994) found that moisture control was strongest when between 60% and 100% of available soil pore space was water filled. Meanwhile, surface soil temperature appeared to show more significant influence on CH<sub>4</sub> uptake in this study. We also found weak but significant relationship between CH<sub>4</sub> uptake and soil pH. The mechanism of how increased pH would affect soil CH<sub>4</sub> uptake after fire is not clear, and Jaatinen et al. (2004) estimated that the increased pH after fire caused any change in the methanotroph community and would not be directly responsible for the increased uptake rates. Therefore, the increased pH in our study would probably indirectly affect CH<sub>4</sub> uptake together with other fire introduced changes.

The relative high and significant correlation between CH<sub>4</sub> uptake and WSOC indicates that the decreased soil C may might have increased CH<sub>4</sub> diffusion into the soil profile. Removal of the C rich O horizon caused by the prescribed burning eliminated a barrier of for CH<sub>4</sub> diffusion. This is also supported by the decreasing CH<sub>4</sub> uptake and recovered WSOC in November 2014, combined with recovered litter deposit and ground plants regrowth. This effect of prescribed burning reduced thickness of organic layer to CH<sub>4</sub> uptake was also found in similar forest ecosystems (Saari et al., 1998; Steinkamp et al., 2001). Another possible reason for the observed characteristics of CH<sub>4</sub> uptake is the physical changes in the surface soil. Although not measured in the current study, literature has shown that low to moderate fires would increase soil structure stability due to the formation of the dydrophobic film on the external surface of aggregates (Mataix-Solera and Doerr, 2004). With lack of the protection of ground plants and litter layers, surface soil was more likely to loose more fine fractions and lead to soil coarsening by the increased erosion (Certini, 2005). These physical changes in the surface soil would all ereate aform channels ideal for diffusion of atmosphere CH<sub>4</sub> into the soil profile and thereby increase CH<sub>4</sub> oxidation rates.

#### 4.2.2 CO<sub>2</sub> effluxes

The studied <u>plotssites</u> acted as a persistent source of atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> before and after the <u>prescribed</u> burning, while the CO<sub>2</sub> emission rates, either before or after <u>the</u> burning, were similar to the results obtained by Carlyle and Than (1988) in a native forest with low soil moisture (about 5520 mg m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>) and by Rowlings et al. (2012) in an Australian subtropical

rainforest (around 3600 mg m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>). However, the CO<sub>2</sub> emission values were much lower 1 than the reported high soil respirations (over 20000 mg m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>) in various Australian forest 2 3 ecosystems with high soil moisture and temperature (Carlyle and Than, 1988; Fest et al., 2009; Rowlings et al., 2012). A number of existing studies have reported reduced CO<sub>2</sub> 4 5 emissions after the fire due to diminished root activity and lower root respirations (Czimczik et al., 2006; Kim et al., 2011; Sullivan et al., 2011), and the effects would last for various 6 length from less than 2 years (Weber, 1990; Irvine et al., 2007) to longer periods (Burke et al., 7 1997). However, in this study, it seems that CO<sub>2</sub> emission started recovering three months 8 after the burning. This is supported by the similar  $CO_2$  emission rates in August 2014 (p = 9 0.218) and November 2014 (p = 0.549) between the burned and the adjacent unburned 10 plotssites. The decreased CO<sub>2</sub> flux three months after the burning, which is only 41% of that 11 before burning, might be attributed to the reduced root respiration and decomposition 12 activities related to soil microbial communities. The observed high HWEOC value in August 13 14 2014 probably indicated increased dead fine roots after the combustion of ground biomass, which was in agreement with the estimation that after removing the aboveground biomass, 15 most fine roots would die within 2 months by Fahey and Arthur (1994). Meanwhile, studies 16 17 have reported that root respiration could contribute up to 50% of the total soil respiration (Irvine and Law, 2002; Zerva and Mencuccini, 2005). Decomposition of the dead fine roots 18 could lead to the flush of C substrate but this was limited by the decreased microbial 19 activities in this study, suggested by the significant lower MBC and MBN values in August 20 and November 2014. Meanwhile, lower MBC inat the burned plotssites compared to the 21 unburned plots<del>sites</del> probably also suggested a reduced heterotrophic contribution to total soil 22 23 respiration. Similar finding was also reported by Sullivan et al. (2011) who concluded that MBC explained a large proportion of the variation in soil CO2 flux at the burned site than at 24 the unburned sites in a ponderosa forest in south-western USA. Considering the positive 26 relationship between CO<sub>2</sub> efflux and WSOC, which was an important part of soil labile C, the 27 microbial biomass was likely to be limited by the amount of labile C available for assimilation into microbial biomass. Maheswaran and Attiwill (1989) and Zerva and 28 Mencuccini (2005) also reported reduced CO<sub>2</sub> emission which was related to reduced 29 microbial populations limited by an available source of C after the fire. Such explanation can 30 be further supported by the subsequent recovery ofing CO<sub>2</sub> flux six months after the burning, 31 combined with recovered MBC to the near pre-burning level and higher WSOC levels than 32 before the burning. It was also reasonable that higher temperature in November 2014 had 33

- stimulated the surface soil respiration and therefore could contribute to the higher CO<sub>2</sub>
- 2 emission rate.

#### 4.2.3 N<sub>2</sub>O emissions

precipitations.

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The soil-atmosphere fluxes of N<sub>2</sub>O measured in the current-study were very small (-0.21 to 4 0.54 mg m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup> before the burning and -0.18-0.11 mg m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup> after the burning). These low 5 fluxes were similar to the small N<sub>2</sub>O emission reported by Fest et al. (2009) and Livesley et al. 6 (2011), but was much lower than the range of 0.75-8.19 mg m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup> recorded by Kiese et al. 7 (2003) in a tropical rainforest and the range of 0.62-1.57 mg m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup> by Rowlings et al. (2012) 8 in a subtropical rainforest. No significant effect of prescribed burning was observed on the 9 N<sub>2</sub>O emission. Since forest soils were generally accepted as a source of atmospheric N<sub>2</sub>O 10 (Butterbach-Bahl et al., 1997), the negative values we measured might be attributed to the 11 changes in N<sub>2</sub>O concentration during the chamber employment were quite low during the 12 chamber employment, and these changes were below the detection limit of the GC system. 13 Even though the dry and well aerated soil of the sampled sites makesplots would make it 14 prone to nitrification rather than denitrification, the observed small inorganic N pool (NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> < 15 than 10 mg N kg $^{-1}$  while NO $_3$  $^-$  < 0.1mg N kg $^{-1}$ ) dominated by NH $_4$  $^+$  also limited the 16 nitrification processes. Although there was a significant increase in  $NH_4^+$  three months (p = 17 0.009) and six months (p = 0.009) after the burning, nitrification was still negligible. This 18 could be attributed to enhanced situation of low soil water availability and dry conditions 19 20 after prescribed burning, due to since the removal of understory plants and litter layers and increased evapotranspiration rates would, limited the activities of soil nitrifiers (Livesley et 21 al., 2011). Also the prescribed burning induced charcoal at the soil surface which would also 22 supress N<sub>2</sub>O exchange rates which wereas reported in a recent controlled experiment in Japan 23 (Kim et al., 2011). However, the accumulated N substrate, either NH<sub>4</sub> or NO<sub>3</sub>, might cause 24 further high N<sub>2</sub>O emissions with under appropriate conditions, for example, wet after 25

# 4.3 Contribution of the gas emissions to the burning introduced greenhouse gas effect

Although consistently consuming atmospheric CH<sub>4</sub>, the forest soil in Toohey Forest still acteds as a net C source to the atmosphere, due to the greater CO<sub>2</sub> emission rates during the studied period. However, the burning induced lower CO<sub>2</sub> emission and higher CH<sub>4</sub> uptake

rates could significantly reduce the amount of C released into atmosphere, especially when extending these effects to the first several months after the burning. This reduced C emission could partly compensate the greenhouse gas effect during the operation of the burning —; prescribed burning could cause eruption of  $CO_2$  into the atmosphere by combusting photosynthetic fixed C embedded in understory plants, litter layers, surface soil organic C and also the consumption of fossil fuels to manipulate the fires. Data on the C burnedloss due to prescribed burning, fuel consumed and continuous measurement of soil gas exchanges are required to quantify the burning—caused greenhouse effect in future studies.

5 Conclusion

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The low intensity prescribed burning in Toohey Forest caused changes in both soil properties and greenhouse gas exchange rates. Soil CH<sub>4</sub> uptake was significantly enhanced due to the increased CH<sub>4</sub> diffusivity into the soil profiles. The removal of litter layer and surface soil organic materials and the altered soil physical structural caused by the prescribed burning were the major factors contributing to the increased CH<sub>4</sub> diffusion. The CO<sub>2</sub> emission was largely decreased but it was a combination of burning introduced variation and natural seasonal variations largely caused by natural annual variations. Changes in root respiration and soil microbial community were the two controlling factors related to burning the effect of prescribed burning on CO<sub>2</sub> emission. Due to the controlled condition of the prescribed burning, both CH<sub>4</sub> uptake and CO<sub>2</sub> emission started to recover about three months after the burning and it would appears that the gas exchange rates were recovered to the pre-burning level about six months after the burning. This quick-rapid recovery was closely related to the limited effect of prescribed burning on the soil and no dramatic damages in the mineral soils. However, the decreased CO<sub>2</sub> emission and increased CH<sub>4</sub> uptake during this period could still partly compensate the greenhouse gas effect caused by the combustion of C during the burning. The N<sub>2</sub>O emission was quite low at in the studied sites plots and showed no obvious impacts from theof prescribed burning. Finally, a continuous monitoring of soil properties and soil greenhouse gas exchanges and even ecosystem gas exchange rates before and after burning is important to reveal the key mechanisms and quantify the complex impacts of burning on forest ecosystem and regional climate.

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Table 1. Weather conditions for the three sampling events, precipitation was recorded by the Mt Gravatt Alert weather station (27.55° S, 153.07° E, ~2 km from the sampling plots) and 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	<u>27-30</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>71</u>	<u>0</u>	<u>24.76</u>
Aug 2014	<u>5-8</u>	$10^{1}$	<u>22</u>	<u>0</u>	<u>23</u>
Nov 2014	<u>10-13</u>	<u>11</u>	<u>85<sup>2</sup></u>	<u>0</u>	<u>29.88</u>

\* Total rainfall for the indicated periods

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- 5 <u>1 highest daily rainfall was 7 mm recorded on 27 Jul 2014</u>
  - 2 most rainfall for this period was recorded on 17 August 2014 (69 mm)

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Sites	Dates	CH <sub>4</sub>	CO <sub>2</sub>	N <sub>2</sub> O	
Sites	Dates	$mg m^{-2} d^{-1}$	mg m <sup>-2</sup> d <sup>-1</sup>	mg m <sup>-2</sup> d <sup>-1</sup>	
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	

Table 23. Surface soil properties in Toohey Forest before and after the prescribed burning. Values in parentheses indicate standard errors for the 4 replicates replicate plots of each sampling period. Soil moisture is presented in %. Other parameters (except pH) are presented in mg kg<sup>-1</sup>

Sites	Date	Moisture	pН	NH <sub>4</sub> -N	NO <sub>3</sub> -N	WSOC	WSTN	HWEOC	HWETN	MBC	MBN
Burned	Aug 2013	12.3	4.33	1.78	0.02	88.83	7.10	875.44	67.80	522.45	56.37
		(4.4)	(0.10)	(0.55)	(0.03)	(13.54)	(0.83)	(180.32)	(10.38)	(76.18)	(14.2)
	Aug 2014	10.3	5.76	6.76	0.09	80.00	6.81	2809.99	183.75	378.94	35.77
		(2.7)	(0.17)	(2.30)	(0.05)	(20.20)	(2.16)	(479.18)	(39.10)	(103.58)	(10.00)
	NOV 2014	10.3	4.88	10.63	0.10	148.09	7.38	893.47	54.08	444.68	48.02
		(3.0)	(0.24)	(4.18)	(0.12)	(38.25)	(2.97)	(310.29)	(19.32)	(45.27)	(7.15)
Unburned	Aug 2014	10.1	5.44	3.79	0.03	97.27	7.22	3638.29	203.91	493.62	45.26
		(2.0)	(0.24)	(1.67)	(0.04)	(28.36)	(1.19)	(571.01)	(17.70)	(73.81)	(8.19)
	NOV 2014	9.8	4.67	6.44	0.04	114.35	5.14	942.56	51.94	406.07	42.76
		(2.3)	(0.16)	(1.83)	(0.07)	(28.30)	(1.29)	(254.30)	(13.02)	(249.90)	(14.56)

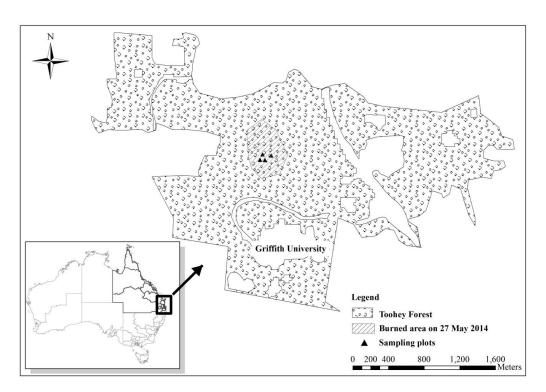


Figure 1. Map of the study site in Toohey Forest located in south-eastern Queensland, Australia.

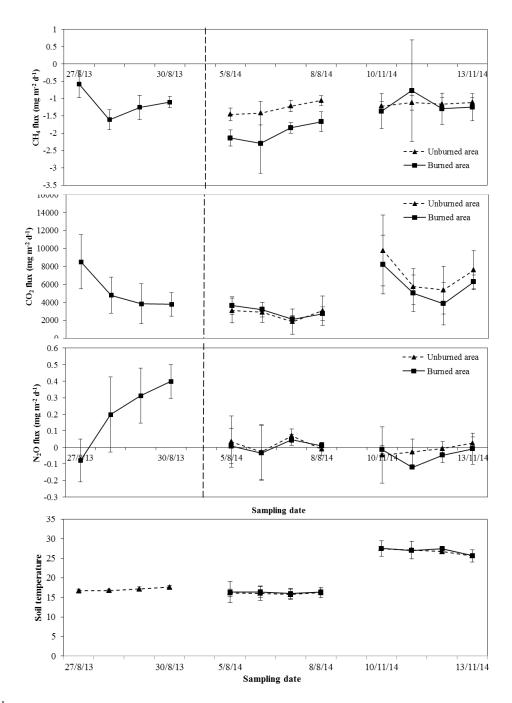


Figure 2. CH<sub>4</sub>, CO<sub>2</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>O exchange rates <u>and on-site measured soil temperature</u> before and after the prescribed burning. The dash line indicated the date of burning conducted on 27

- 1 May 2014. Each sampling period lasted for 4 days and the values were averaged from the 4
- 2 selected sites plots each day. The vertical bars indicated the standard error of the mean.