

1 Long-term impacts of wildfire and logging on forest soils

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35 **ABSTRACT**

36 Soils are a fundamental component of terrestrial ecosystems, and play key roles in
37 biogeochemical cycles and the ecology of microbial, plant and animal communities. Global
38 increases in the intensity and frequency of ecological disturbances are driving major changes
39 in the structure and function of forest ecosystems, yet little is known about the long-term
40 impacts of disturbance on soils. Here we show that natural disturbance (fire) and human
41 disturbances (clearcut logging and post-fire salvage logging) can significantly alter the
42 composition of forest soils for far longer than previously recognized. Using extensive
43 sampling across a multi-century chronosequence in some of the tallest and most carbon-dense
44 forests worldwide (southern Australian, mountain ash (*Eucalyptus regnans*) forests), we
45 provide compelling evidence that disturbance impacts on soils are evident up to least eight
46 decades after disturbance, and potentially much longer. Relative to long-undisturbed forest
47 (167 years old), sites subject to multiple fires, clearcut logging or salvage logging were
48 characterized by soils with significantly lower values of a range of ecologically important
49 measures at multiple depths, including available phosphorus and nitrate. Disturbance impacts
50 on soils were most pronounced on sites subject to compounding perturbations, such as
51 multiple fires and clearcut logging. Long-lasting impacts of disturbance on soil can have
52 major ecological and functional implications.

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59 Natural disturbances such as fire are major drivers of the structure and function of terrestrial
60 ecosystems worldwide, and influence key biotic and abiotic patterns and processes^{1–4}.
61 Climate change and increases in human disturbances, such as logging, have altered natural
62 fire regimes, resulting in an increase in large-scale fires across terrestrial ecosystems over the
63 past few decades^{1,5,6}. These compounding disturbances are driving significant changes in
64 the structure and function of ecosystems^{7,8}.

65 While the effects of natural and human disturbances are well characterized for biotic
66 communities, little is known about their long-term impacts on the abiotic components of soil
67 environments, despite their importance for ecosystem function^{9–11}. Soils play key roles in
68 (1) the demography, interspecific interactions and community structure of plant and microbial
69 communities, (2) biogeochemical cycles, (3) biomass production and environmental filtering
70 and buffering, and (4) climate change mitigation through the sequestration of carbon and
71 other greenhouse gases^{12–17}. Limited knowledge about the impacts of disturbances on soils
72 hinders the ability to predict the long-term responses of ecosystems to increasing natural and
73 human disturbance^{10,16,18,19}. In a period of rapid, global environmental and climatic
74 change during which disturbances such as fire and anthropogenic landuse changes are
75 predicted to increase and intensify, it is critical to quantify their respective impacts on soils to
76 facilitate management and planning^{3,20,21}.

77 Here, we quantify the impact of natural disturbance (fire) and human disturbances (clearcut
78 and post-fire salvage logging) on soil measures across a multi-century chronosequence in the
79 mountain ash forests of southeastern Australia. Typical fire regimes in these forests are
80 characterized by infrequent, high-intensity fires that have historically occurred every 75–150
81 years²². However, the frequency of these fires has increased and some areas have
82 experienced multiple high-severity fires over the past century, including those in 1926, 1932,
83 1939, 1983 and most recently in 2009⁸. Fires in 1939, 1983 and 2009 burned large areas of

84 mountain ash forest (> 150,000 ha in 1939, 17,250 ha in 1983 and 53,500 ha in 2009²³). In
85 addition, these forests have been subject to clearcut logging since the 1970s and post-fire
86 salvage logging since the late 1930s^{8,24}. Climatic changes within southeastern Australia are
87 predicted to increase the prevalence of hot and dry conditions over the next few decades²⁵.
88 These predictions, coupled with the increasing coverage of high-severity- fire-prone logging
89 regrowth (aged 7–35 years) will potentially increase the frequency of high-intensity stand-
90 replacing fires in these forests^{20,21,25,26}.

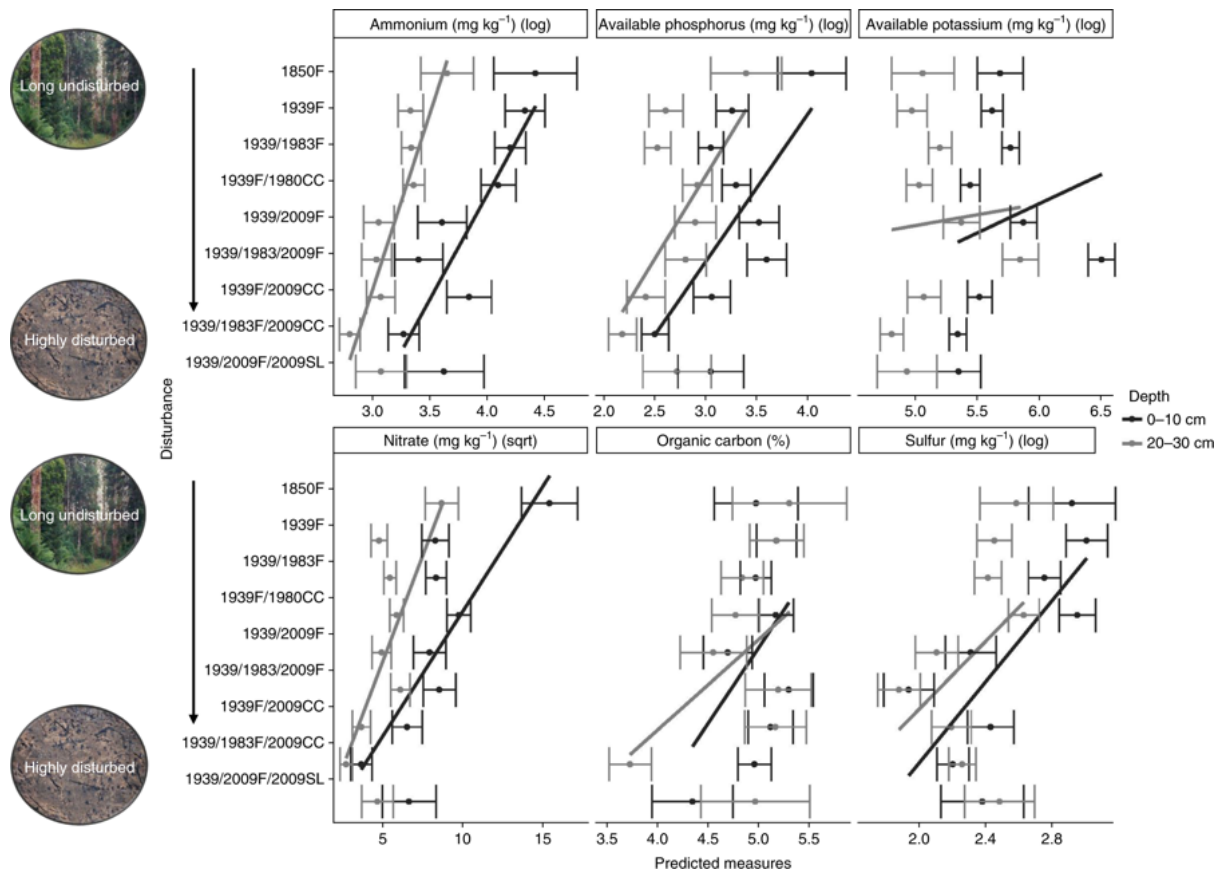
91 From 729 soil cores collected across 81 sites, we used generalized linear models to
92 investigate the influence of nine disturbance history categories varying in stand age (8, 34, 78
93 and 167 years), fire frequency (0, 1, 2 and 3 fires in recorded history since 1850), clearcut
94 and salvage logging events and environmental variables on measures of organic carbon,
95 macro soil nutrients (ammonium nitrogen (ammonium), nitrate nitrogen (nitrate), available
96 phosphorus, available potassium, sulfur), micronutrients (boron (hot CaCl₂), diethylene
97 triamine pentaacetic acid (DTPA) iron, DTPA manganese, DTPA copper, DTPA zinc),
98 exchangeable cations (exc.) (exc. aluminium, exc. calcium, exc. magnesium, exc. Potassium
99 and exc. sodium), soil chemistry (pH(CaCl₂), electrical conductivity (conductivity)),
100 sand/silt/clay (%) and soil moisture (% dry mass) (gravimetric moisture content) from two
101 depths of forest soil (0–10 cm and 20–30 cm)²⁷.

102 **Multi-decadal disturbance impacts on forest soils**

103 We discovered that fire, clearcut logging and salvage logging significantly influenced soil
104 measures in the 0–10 cm and 20–30 cm layers of soil. Significant effects were evident up to at
105 least eight decades post-fire and three decades post-clearcut logging ($P < 0.001$ to $P = 0.05$)
106 (Supplementary Tables 3 and 4). For instance, nitrate and available phosphorus were
107 significantly lower across the chronosequence at sites burnt and/or logged and aged 78, 34

108 and 8 years old, relative to long-undisturbed sites ($P < 0.001$ to $P = 0.05$) (Fig. 1,
109 Supplementary Fig. 1 and Supplementary Table 3 and 4).

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112 **Fig. 1 |** Disturbance histories influence soil measures along a multi-century chronosequence.

113 Predicted values of vital soil measures (\pm standard error) in relation to disturbance history

114 category, with trend lines. Predictions are shown for a single parent rock type (type 3:

115 Supplementary Table 2), Australian soil classification type (dermosol) and the mean

116 elevation, slope and abundance of dominant plant life forms for each respective disturbance

117 history category. See Supplementary Tables 3 and 4 for a complete list of the influence of all

118 environmental factors. The y axis lists disturbance history categories with the year of

119 occurrence of each disturbance event (F = fire, CC = clearcut, SL = salvage logged). Credit:

120 photographs taken by Esther Beaton and David Lindenmayer.

121 Relative to sites burnt once, forest stands burnt twice in recorded history (since 1850) were
122 characterized by significantly lower levels of ammonium, nitrate, organic carbon, available
123 phosphorus, sulfur, DTPA iron, boron and exchangeable aluminium cations in the 0–10 cm
124 layer of soil ($P < 0.001$ to $P = 0.02$), and ammonium, organic carbon, available phosphorus,
125 exchangeable potassium and aluminum cations, and soil moisture in the lower layer of soil
126 (20–30 cm depth) ($P < 0.001$ to $P = 0.04$) (Fig. 2 and Supplementary Tables 5 and 6). In
127 contrast, soil pH(CaCl₂) was significantly higher in the 0–10 cm layer of soil, relative to sites
128 burnt once ($P = 0.01$) (Supplementary Table 5).

129 In forest stands burnt three times, ammonium, sulfur, exchangeable aluminium cations and
130 DTPA iron were significantly lower in the top 0–10 cm of soil, relative to sites subject to one
131 fire ($P < 0.001$ to $P = 0.05$) (Fig. 2 and Supplementary Tables 5 and 6). In contrast, available
132 potassium and pH(CaCl₂) were significantly higher in the 0–10 cm of soil ($P < 0.001$) and
133 exchangeable cations were significantly higher in the 0–10 cm and 20–30 cm layers of soil,
134 relative to sites burnt once ($P < 0.001$ to $P = 0.02$) (Fig. 2 and Supplementary Tables 5 and 6).

135 Sites subject to compounding disturbances, such as multiple fires and clearcut logging or
136 post-fire salvage logging, consistently had the lowest values of soil measures across the
137 chronosequence, relative to long-undisturbed sites ($P < 0.05$) (Fig. 1 and Supplementary
138 Tables 3 and 4). Specifically, clearcut logging resulted in significantly lower levels of
139 ammonium, nitrate, available phosphorus, available potassium, DTPA zinc, DTPA copper,
140 boron and exchangeable cations in the 0–10 cm of soil ($P < 0.001$ to $P = 0.04$), and available
141 potassium, ammonium, organic carbon, available phosphorus, exchangeable cations and soil
142 moisture in the lower 20–30 cm layer of soil, relative to unlogged forest ($P < 0.001$ to $P =$
143 0.04) (Supplementary Tables 5 and 6). Furthermore, clearcut logged sites had a significantly
144 higher sand content in the 0–10 cm of soil, compared to unlogged sites ($P = 0.01$). Salvage
145 logged sites had significantly lower ammonium, DTPA iron, boron and exchangeable cations

146 in the 0–10 cm layer of soil ($P < 0.001$ to $P = 0.04$), and exchangeable sodium and boron in
147 the 20–30 cm layer of soil, relative to unlogged forest ($P < 0.001$) (Fig. 2 and Supplementary
148 Table 5 and 6) (see Supplementary Information for further details).

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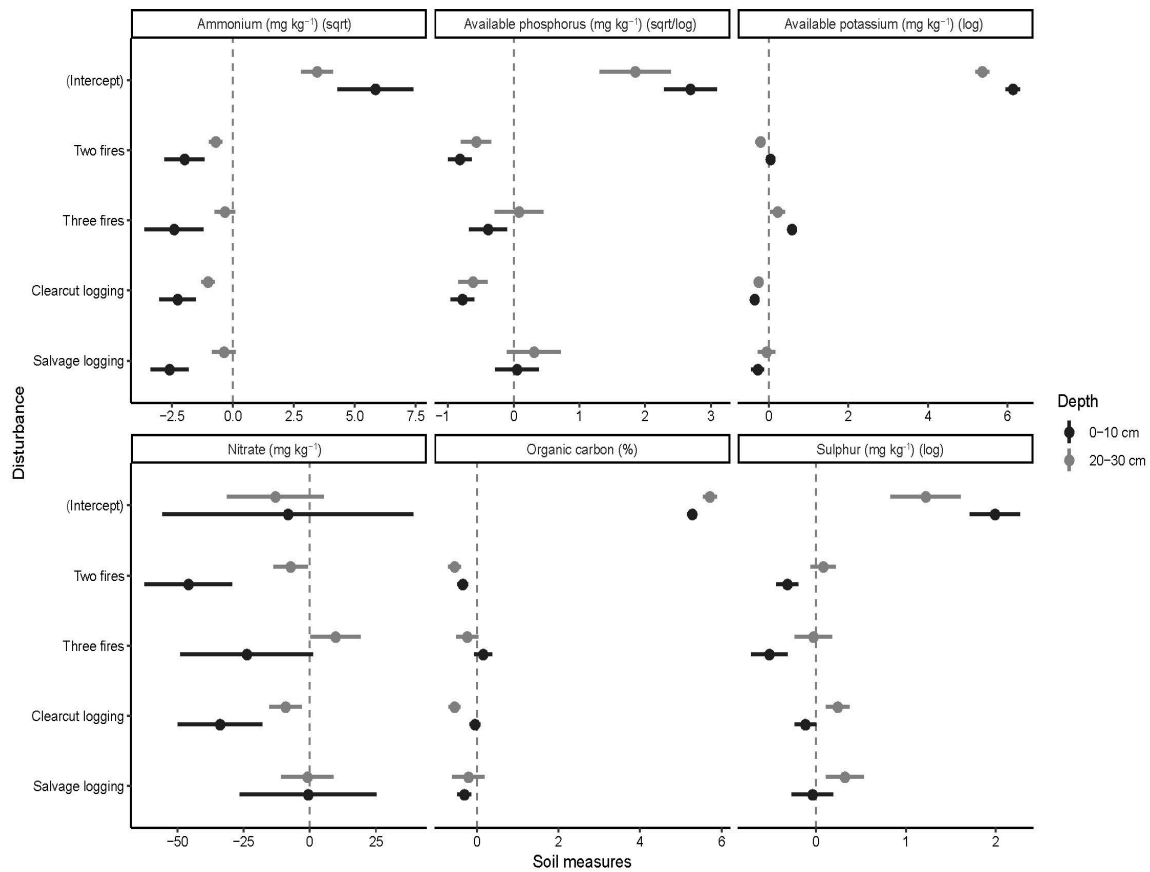
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160 **Fig. 2** | The pervasive impacts of multiple fires and logging on soil measures. Coefficients
 161 from generalized linear models of each soil measure with respect to disturbance type,
 162 parent rock and Australian soil classification, elevation, slope and the abundance of
 163 dominant plant life forms (parent rock type, Australian soil classification, elevation, slope
 164 and the abundance of dominant plant life forms not displayed here). Model factors =
 165 number of fires, clearcut and salvage logging, parent rock and Australian soil classification;
 166 covariates = elevation, slope and the abundance of dominant plant life forms. Note that
 167 available phosphorus levels in the 0–10 cm were log-transformed, and in the 20–30 cm were
 168 square-root transformed. A complete list of the influence of the factors and covariates
 169 generated using these models is provided in Supplementary Tables 5 and 6.

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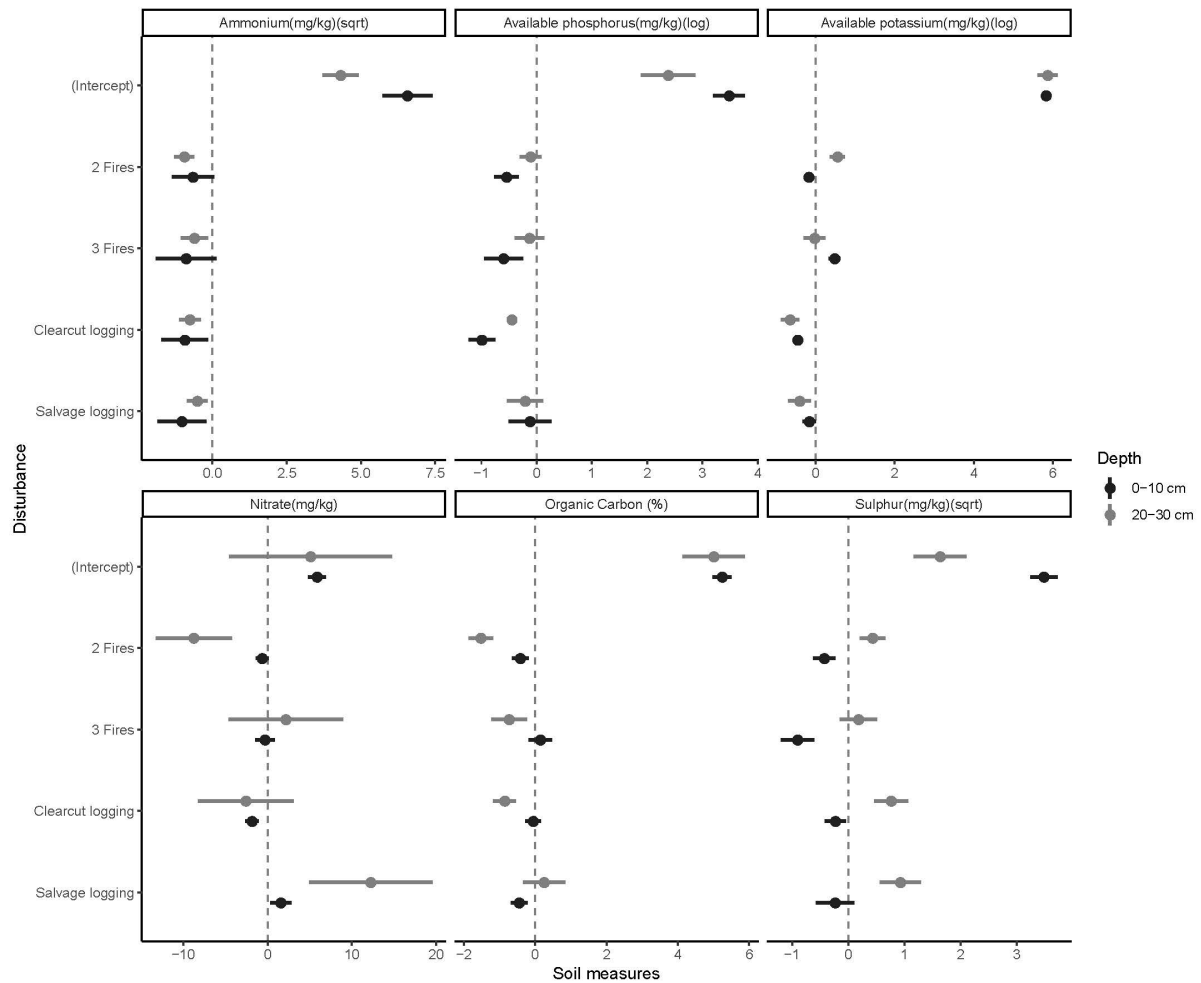
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173 **Historical impacts on soil measures**

174 By analysing a subset of our data with identical stand age (8 years) but with different prior
175 disturbance histories, we demonstrate that fire and clearcut logging significantly influence
176 key soil measures even when controlling for age/successional effects. Sites clearcut in 2009
177 were characterized by significantly lower concentrations of nitrate, available phosphorus and
178 available potassium in the top 0–10 cm layer of soil ($P < 0.001$ to $P = 0.03$), and ammonium,
179 organic carbon, available phosphorus and available potassium in the 20–30 cm of soil,
180 relative to similarly aged unlogged sites ($P < 0.001$ to $P = 0.04$). Sites burnt twice (last in
181 2009) resulted in significantly lower levels of available phosphorus and sulfur in the 0–10 cm
182 of soil ($P = 0.02$ to $P = 0.03$) and of ammonium, organic carbon and available potassium in
183 the 20–30 cm of soil, relative to similarly aged sites burnt once ($P < 0.001$ to $P = 0.02$). Sites
184 burnt three times (last in 2009) had significantly lower levels of sulfur in the 0–10 cm of soil
185 ($P < 0.01$), and higher levels of available potassium, relative to similarly aged sites burnt
186 once ($P < 0.001$) (Fig. 3 and Supplementary Table 7).

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189 **Fig. 3** | the impact of fire and logging in similarly aged forests on soil measures. Coefficients
 190 from generalized linear models of each soil measure in similarly aged sites (last disturbed in
 191 2009) with respect to disturbance type, parent rock and Australian soil classification,
 192 elevation, slope and the abundance of dominant plant life forms. Model factors = number of
 193 fires, clearcut and salvage logging, parent rock and Australian soil classification; covariates =
 194 elevation, slope and the abundance of dominant plant life forms. Note that nitrate levels in 0–
 195 10 cm were square-root transformed. A complete list of the influence of the factors and
 196 covariates generated using these models is provided in Supplementary Table 7.

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199 **Implications of long-term impacts on forest soils**

200 We discovered that both natural and human disturbances can have long-term effects on forest
201 soils. Soil temperatures can exceed 500 °C during high-intensity fires and result in the loss of
202 soil nutrients, organic carbon and organic matter through volatilization and postfire erosion,
203 which can reduce soil fertility^{10,18,28,29}. Consistent with other studies, we found multiple
204 fires resulted in lower levels of soil measures, across both soil depths, relative to long-
205 undisturbed forests¹⁰. In contrast to our discoveries, the impacts of a single fire on forest
206 soils have been previously found to be short-term, and can result in an increase in plant
207 productivity, decomposition and microbial activity^{10,18,28}. However, we found that a single
208 fire event can result in significantly lower levels of key measures, such as nitrate nitrogen and
209 available phosphorus, that persist for at least eight decades post-fire, relative to long-
210 undisturbed sites. These long-lasting impacts also were seen in the 20–30 cm soil layer,
211 which indicates that these post-fire effects may not only be attributed to changes in key soil
212 measures, but probably indicate post-fire erosion and nutrient leaching, and reflect changes in
213 biological processes and composition^{28–30}.

214 Logging impacts observed in this study were highly significant in both the short and mid term
215 (8 and 34 years), and result from the high-intensity combination of physical disturbance
216 (clearing of forest with machinery) and post-logging ‘slash’ burning (of remaining
217 vegetation)³¹. These disturbances can expose the forest floor¹⁸, compact the soil³², volatilize
218 soil nutrients²⁸ and redistribute organic matter^{28,33}, resulting in the release of large amounts
219 of CO₂ into the atmosphere (Fig. 4)³³. These impacts can alter plant–soil–microbial
220 dynamics and subsequently decomposition rates and carbon storage, and result in the
221 leaching of dissolved organic carbon and nitrogen, and the depletion of base cations, reducing
222 overall site productivity^{3,18,28,34}. Given the long-lasting impacts of fire, we suggest that the
223 logging-related depletion of key soil measures may act as a precursor for longer-term, and

224 potentially severe changes in soil composition³³. Multi-decadal logging impacts occur in
225 other large-tree, slow turnover forests, such as boreal forests (which experience losses in soil
226 carbon and nitrogen), and can take up to a century to recover^{3,9,18,19,28,33,35}. The long-
227 lasting impacts of both fire and clearcut logging in mountain ash ecosystems indicate that the
228 abiotic soil environments of this (and possibly other) forest ecosystems may be maladapted to
229 frequent, high-intensity disturbances that exceed natural disturbance return intervals^{3,28}.
230 Therefore, predicted changes to global disturbance patterns, such as increasing fire intensity
231 and frequency, could result in severe declines in key soil measures in the long term, with
232 major ecological and functional implications³.

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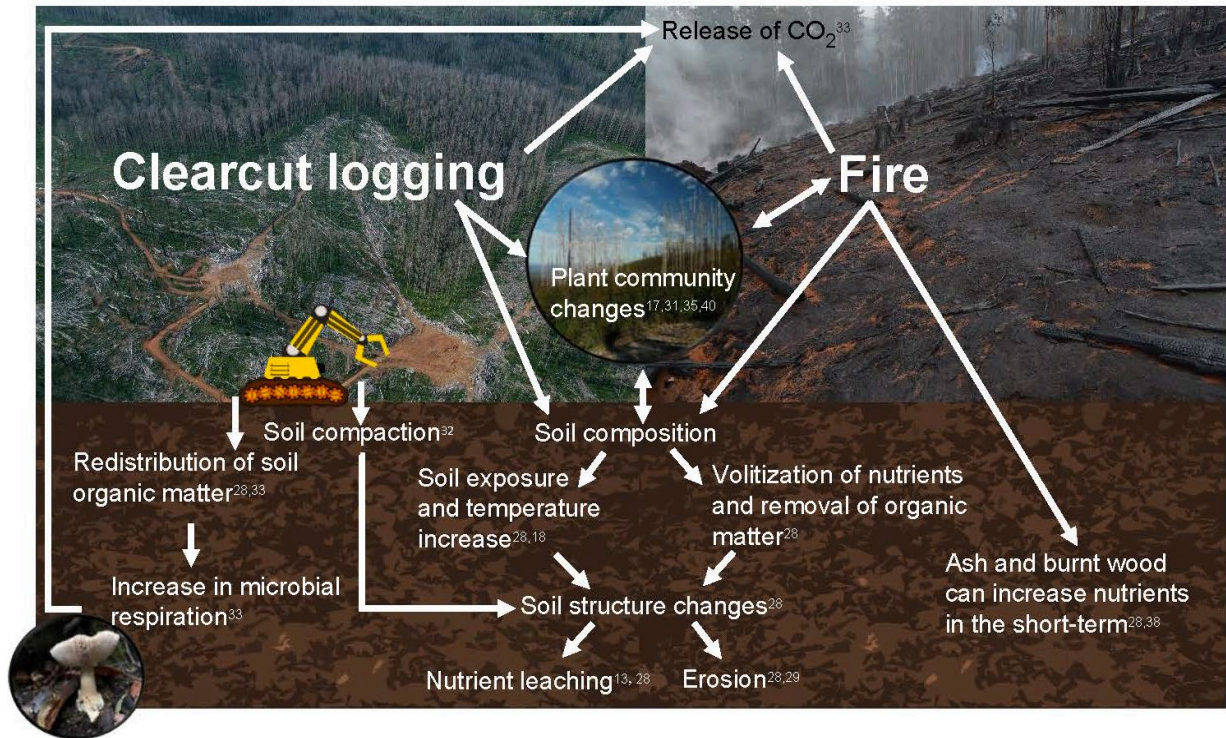
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247 **Fig. 4** | Post-disturbance processes and pathways that influence and impact abiotic soil
 248 environments. White arrows indicate influential relationships and flow-on effects associated
 249 with disturbance in soil environments. For example, fire and clearcut logging can alter the
 250 structural integrity of soils, which can impede the water and nutrient holding capacity of soils
 251 and subsequently result in nutrient leaching and erosion, potentially impacting plant
 252 productivity. Credit: images provided by Elle Bowd, David Lindenmayer and David Blair.

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259 In mountain ash forests and other slow-turnover forests, vegetation rapidly regenerates after
260 stand-replacing disturbances^{36,37}. This growth is supported by an increase in light and the
261 availability of phosphorus and nitrogen from surface ash deposits³⁸. Further inputs of these
262 key nutrients are a product of self-thinning and litterfall³⁹, microbial activity⁴⁰ and above-
263 ground biological fixation from species such as Acacias, which can dominate post-
264 disturbance regrowth and offset losses in nitrogen within nine years post-disturbance⁴¹.
265 Despite these biochemical inputs, our results demonstrate that significantly lower
266 concentrations of key nutrients such as nitrate and available phosphorus are still evident up to
267 eight decades post-fire and three decades post logging, with the lowest measures found in
268 highly disturbed forests subject to compounding disturbances. We did not measure the uptake
269 rate of nutrients in the surrounding vegetation, which may explain some deficits within the
270 soil in some ecosystems⁴². However, when controlling for successional stage, we found
271 unlogged sites burnt in 2009 consistently had higher estimates of key soil measures relative to
272 similarly aged sites logged in 2009. This comparison indicates that disturbance intensity and
273 frequency is a major factor in determining the composition of forest soils, regardless of stand
274 age and nutrient uptake (Fig. 3).

275 **Recommendations for forest management**

276 We have empirically demonstrated long-term natural and human disturbance impacts on
277 forest soils. Climate change and human disturbances are projected to increase large stand-
278 replacing fires globally^{3,43,44}. This will probably result in substantial long-term losses of
279 crucial soil measures, which can effect ecosystem function and forest productivity and
280 growth over the medium to long term^{18,45–47}. To maintain vital soil nutrient pools and
281 preserve the key functions that soils have in ecosystems, such as carbon sequestration and the
282 regulation of plant and microbial community productivity, land managers should consider the
283 impacts of current and future disturbances on soils in ecosystem assessments and land-use

284 management and planning. Specifically, perturbations such as fire (outside the historical fire
285 return interval of 75–150 years²²) and clearcut and post-fire salvage logging should be
286 limited wherever possible, especially in areas previously subject to these disturbances.
287 Aboveground ecosystem legacies that occur in highly fertile, long-undisturbed sites, such as
288 large old trees, are diminishing globally, and can take over a century to recover from the
289 impacts of disturbance⁴⁸. Our findings suggest that below-ground abiotic soil environments
290 may take a similar amount of time to recover.

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