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# Land-use intensification and agroforestry in the Kenyan highland: impacts on soil microbial community composition and functional capacity

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- 1 Land-use intensification and agroforestry in the Kenyan highland: impacts on soil
- 2 microbial community composition and functional capacity

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#### Abstract

- 14 This study investigates microbial communities in soil from sites under different land use in
- 15 Kenya. We sampled natural forest, forest plantations, agricultural fields of agroforestry farms,
- agricultural fields with traditional farming and eroded soil on the slopes of Mount Elgon,
- 17 Kenya. We hypothesised that microbial decomposition capacity, biomass and diversity 1)
- decreases with intensified cultivation; and 2) can be restored by soil and land management in
- 19 agroforestry. Functional capacity of soil microbial communities was estimated by degradation
- of 31 substrates on Biolog EcoPlates<sup>TM</sup>. Microbial community composition and biomass were
- 21 characterised by phospholipid fatty acid (PLFA) and microbial C and N analyses.
- All 31 substrates were metabolised in all studied soil types, i.e. functional diversity did
- 23 not differ. However, both the substrate utilisation rates and the microbial biomass decreased
- 24 with intensification of land use, and the biomass was positively correlated with organic matter
- 25 content. Multivariate analysis of PLFA and Biolog EcoPlate™ data showed clear differences
- between land uses, also indicated by different relative abundance of PLFA markers for certain

- 27 microorganism groups. In conclusion, our results show that vegetation and land use control
- the substrate utilisation capacity and microbial community composition and that functional
- 29 capacity of depleted soils can be restored by active soil management, e.g. forest plantation.
- However, although 20 to 30 years of agroforestry farming practises did result in improved soil
- 31 microbiological and chemical conditions of agricultural soil as compared to traditional
- 32 agricultural fields, the change was not statistically significant.
- 33 Key words: Biolog EcoPlate<sup>TM</sup>, PLFA, soil nutrients, agriculture, forest plantation, soil C

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### 1. Introduction

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The high growth in human population in Sub-Saharan Africa has led to intensification of agriculture, deforestation and use of less suitable land for agriculture. The traditional techniques often leave the soil open to erosion by wind and rain, which result in depletion of soil organic matter and nutrients, in turn leading to lowered fertility. In addition to decreased productivity, these conditions lead to loss of biodiversity both in flora and fauna (Tscharntke et al., 2012; Matson et al., 1997). The above-ground loss of biodiversity is well documented and of great concern, while the below-ground effects have been less studied. There is now, however, an increasing number of studies that have documented changes in soil microorganisms and fauna biodiversity of tropical soils in relation to intensified land use (e.g. Bossio et al., 2005; Huising et al., 2011). The traditional agricultural maize mono-cropping often results in removal of the aboveground biomass of stover after harvest. The consequences for soil fertility are reduced carbon and nutrient supplies (Mutuo et al., 2005). The tillage of crop fields also disturbs the habitats of soil organisms that in most cases show lower numbers and biomass in cultivated land than in undisturbed soil (Brady et al., 2002). This study examines the structure and functional capacity of the microbial community in soil under different land uses on the slope of Mount Elgon in western Kenya, which is intensively used for agriculture. For more than 20 years, implementation of agroforestry in the region has been promoted with help of the NGO Vi Agroforestry Project (Vi AFP) and this type of land use is now wide spread. The aim is to conserve and restore soil fertility and to diversify agricultural production for improvement of farmers' economy and increase of wood

production for fuel and construction. The agroforestry systems mainly include inter-cropping,

trees scattered on farm, trees along conservation structures, hedgerow planting and woodlots (Gachene et al., 2003; Maundu and Tengnäs, 2005; Dharani, 2002). Mulching with leaves from the trees to the agricultural fields of agroforestry system farms is a recommended practice as well as other forms of returning crop residues to the soil. The beneficial effects of agroforestry on several ecosystem services and its capacity to restore soil structure and function have been assumed and have in many cases been supported by empirical studies (Jose, 2009; Sharma, 2009; Smith et al., 2013; Vincenti et al., 2013). However, not all studies have been able to demonstrate consistently significant effects on soil conditions and in particular not on soil microbial communities (e.g. Lacombe et al., 2009; Tornquist et al., 1999).

In this study the following hypotheses were tested: 1) Deforestation, agricultural cultivation and overuse of land resources lead to decrease of microbial biomass, change in community composition and decreasing functional capacity of soil microorganisms. 2) The microbial communities can be restored by active soil management, including implementation of agroforestry. The functional capacity of soil microorganisms was estimated by measuring the degradation of 31 different substrates on Biolog EcoPlates<sup>TM</sup>. Microbial community composition and biomass were characterised by phospholipid fatty acid (PLFA) analysis and by determination of microbial C and N. The microbial community was also analysed in relation to chemical and physical soil conditions.

#### 2. Materials and Methods

81 2.1. Study area

The study took place on the slopes of Mt Elgon, west of Kitale in Rift Valley province, Kenya (coordinates of area centre: 1°04'N, 34°04'E). The areas surrounding Mt Elgon National Park have been almost completely deforested due to agriculture and fuel wood collection, but to a great extent, trees have now been reintroduced in agroforestry systems and in forest plantations and wood lots. The climate is highland equatorial with a mean annual temperature of 18 °C (Kitale town, 1900 m a.s.l.) and average annual precipitation of around 1300 mm, most falling during April-July (long rains) and October-November (short rains). The soils on the mountain slopes are reddish sandy clay loams developed from basalt and ashes and rich in organic matter. By the foot of the mountain the soils are dark brown andosols and nitosols. Maize and sunflowers are the most favoured crops, while *Acacia* spp., *Grevillea robusta*, *Sesbania sesban*, *Calliandra calothyrsus*, *Passiflora edulis*, *Cordia africana*, *Markhamia lutea* and *Persea americana* are the most commonly planted tree species. Mt Elgon National Park covers the area of the mountain above ca 2200 m and up to the summit at 4321 m a.s.l. The vegetation is composed of a zonation of mountain forest and afro-alpine vegetation above the tree line.

# 2.2. Sampling

Soil samples were taken in four different habitat types representing increasing land-use intensity: planted forest or woodlots consisting of many different species of trees (FO); agroforestry fields (AF); agricultural fields (AG = harvested and not replanted maize fields); and eroded land (ER= bare, uncultivated land often used as pathways). Together with staff from Vi AFP, farms on the chosen altitudes and cultivation systems were selected. There were nine replicates of each land use; five replicates were situated on altitudes between 1900 and 2000 m and four replicates on altitudes between 2000 and 2200 m. All sampling sites were on

small-scale farms, except one that was situated on Olof Palme Agroforestry Centre (OPAC, 1900 m a.s.l.). AF soil samples were collected in small agricultural fields surrounded by planted trees. For comparison, soil sampling (four replicates) was also performed in indigenous forest of Mt Elgon National Park (EL, 2200-2400 m a.s.l.). Dominating trees in the EL sites were *Okotea usambarensis*, *Olea africana* and *Juniperus procera*. In total, this added up to 40 sampling locations spread over an area of more than 100 km<sup>2</sup>.

Samples for soil physical and chemical analyses were collected on all 40 locations during February – March 2007. Five soil cores from 0-25 cm depth were randomly collected with an auger from a ca. 25 m x 25 m area. The cores were bulked into one soil sample, put in plastic bags and tagged and then carefully mixed. The bags were left open to air-dry for a minimum of five days before transport to the lab at Moi University in Eldoret where soil physical and chemical analyses were done.

Samples for soil microbial analyses were taken at the same 40 locations as for physical and chemical analyses and by the same sampling technique, but at a later date during March 2007. These samples were transported in cool boxes and with minimal disturbance within 46 h to the Tropical Soil Biology and Fertility Programme of International Centre for Tropical Agriculture/World Agroforestry Centre laboratory in Nairobi (TSBF-CIAT/ICRAF) where total microbial C and N and Biolog EcoPlate™ analysis were done on the fresh soil.

Thereafter the remaining soil was stored in freezer at -20 °C for later transport to SLU in Uppsala, Sweden, where the PLFA analysis was done.

# 2.3. Physical and chemical analyses

All physical and chemical analyses were performed according to Okalebo et al. (1993) and/or Anderson and Ingram (1993). Briefly, soil particle size analysis was performed using the

hydrometer method. Sand, silt and clay content of the soil was measured as percentage of weight of oven-dry and organic matter-free soil. Extractable nitrate was determined by a colorimetric method. Soil samples were extracted with potassium sulphate after which salicylic acid and sodium hydroxide were added and then analysed by the molybdenum blue method. After colour development, absorbance was read at 419 nm. Plant available P was analysed by the Olsen method. Air-dried soil was extracted with sodium bicarbonate at pH 8.5. The solution was filtered and the absorbance was measured at 880 nm. The organic carbon content was determined by complete oxidation by heating after addition of sulphuric acid and aqueous potassium dichromate mixture. The remaining potassium chromate that was titrated against ferrous ammonium sulphate gave the measure of organic carbon content. For total nitrogen, samples were completely oxidised by treating with hydrogen peroxide, selenium and sulphuric acid. After the acid digestion, sodium reagents were added and the absorbance was measured at 650 nm.

# 2.4. Microbial analyses

Microbial C (MBC) and N (MBN) was analysed by chloroform fumigation-extraction.

Fumigated and non-fumigated soil was extracted with potassium sulphate and the difference in concentration gave the amount of microbial biomass C and N in soil (Anderson and Ingram, 1993).

Microbial metabolic activity was measured using 96-well Biolog EcoPlates<sup>TM</sup> where soil microbes are cultured in different substrates. The assay is based on the capacity of microorganisms to utilise different substrates and thus generating a metabolic fingerprint providing information on functional biodiversity in the soil (Insam, 1997; Preston-Mafham et al., 2002). Out of the 31 carbon sources, seven were carbohydrates, two amines/amides, six

amino acids, nine carboxylic acids, three miscellaneous and four polymers (Biolog, 2007). From each of the 40 samples, 10 g of fresh soil was suspended in 90 ml of 0.145 M NaCl (dilution to 10<sup>-1</sup>). With additional NaCl solution, the suspension was subsequently diluted to 10<sup>-3</sup>, transferred to the wells and the plates were incubated for four days at 25 °C. The colour development was followed over time by measuring the absorbance at 595 nm every 24 h up to 96 h. Average well colour development (AWCD) was calculated both as the total sum and for the different groups of substrates (Elfstrand et al., 2007). The diversity in colour development for all substrates after 96 h incubation was calculated with the Shannon-Weaver Diversity Index, according to the formula: H' =  $-\Sigma p_i \ln p_i$ , where  $p_i$  is the proportion of AWCD of a particular substrate to the AWCD of all substrates of a certain land use (Yan et al., 2000). Extraction and methylation of PLFAs were done as described by Börjesson et al. (1998). Fatty acid methyl esters (FAME) were subsequently quantified by gas chromatography (Hewlett-Packard model 6890 GC) as described by Börjesson et al. (1998) and Steger et al. (2003). 37 peaks were identified as PLFAs using a gas chromatograph with a massspectrometer (Hewlett-Packard HP 6890 equipped with a HP 5973 mass selective detector). Fatty acids were used as markers for different general groups of microorganisms (Börjesson et al., 2012; Elfstrand et al., 2007; Frostegård and Bååth, 1996, Frostegård et al., 2011).

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# 2.5. Statistical analyses

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Data for soil physical, chemical and biological factors were analysed with a General Linear Model with the land uses (FO, AF, AG and ER) and altitudes as model components (Minitab 15 or PASW Statistics 17.0). When significant effects were found (P<0.05) Tukey's pairwise comparisons was used to compare treatment means. Since the sampling locations of Mt Elgon natural forest (EL) was situated on higher altitude than the other sampling sites, the difference

between EL and the other four land uses cannot be attributed only to land use, an altitude effect cannot be excluded. Therefore, EL was not included in the statistical analysis but the results are shown for comparative purposes. Data were tested for normal distribution and if needed log transformation was done in order not to violence the assumptions of normality and equal variances. Correlation analysis among all soil variables was performed. A principal component analysis (PCA) was done on correlation matrix for Biolog-data (Minitab 15) and covariance matrix for PLFAs converted to mole percentage (JMP ver., SAS Institute, Cary, U.S.A.). In this case the EL data were also included.

#### 3. Results

3.1. Altitude effects

There were no significant differences between the two altitudes for any of FO, AF, AG and ER land uses, in any of the tested variables, except for PLFA. Therefore, results of the lower, 1900-2000 m a.s.l., and the higher altitude level, 2000-2200 m a.s.l., will in most cases be presented together. Results from EL (only on altitudes 2200-2400 m a.s.l.) are presented as a reference but not included in the statistical analysis.

3.2. Soil physics, chemistry and microbial biomass

The clay content was significantly higher in ER than in AF and FO while AG was not significantly different from ER. Sand and silt content showed the opposite trend with the highest percentage in FO and AF (Table 1).

Land use generally affected most soil chemical parameters in similar direction, with an increasing trend from ER to AG and AF, FO and EL the highest (Table 1). The mean pH, C and N significantly separated FO from AG and ER, but not from AF, and mean of EL was the highest. The MBC and MBN showed similar patterns; the concentrations increased with decreasing disturbance. The concentration of plant available phosphorus was significantly higher in AF than in ER and AG, while EL had the lowest value.

3.3. Decomposition capacity of soil microorganisms and functional diversity

The substrate utilisation capacity of soil microbes followed the same pattern as for soil physical and chemical variables. Thus, total AWCD was highest in EL, FO and AF, intermediate in AG (not significantly different from the land uses with trees) and significantly lower in ER (Table 1). Utilisation patterns were similar also when split into the different substrate groups, i.e. carbohydrates, amines/amides, amino acids, carboxylic acids, miscellaneous and polymers (data not shown). Total AWCD was, however, not significantly correlated with any of the other variables, except a positive correlation to plant available phosphorus (Table 2).

All 31 substrates were utilised in soil from all habitat types, but at different rate, and
decomposition rates of each substrate were lower in the more disturbed land uses. The
functional diversity measured as Shannon-Weaver index did not differ among land uses
(range of H': 3.313-3.356). The PCA score plot analysis (Fig. 1) clearly separates ER from
the rest of land uses. It also shows a slight separation of tree-based systems from AG, which is
the most similar to ER.

3.4. Microbial community biomass and composition

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Total PLFA concentration (Table 3), which reflects total microbial biomass, differed significantly among land uses and was the highest in EL (281 mmol g<sup>-1</sup>) followed by FO, AF, AG and ER in decreasing order. However, the difference between AG and AF was not significant. This is the same trend as for microbial N and C. Total PLFAs per g soil C (Table 3) also show significant differences between the land uses (P<0.001) with the amounts in EL 2.7 times those in ER. However, the differences were smaller than when calculated per g soil. The total PLFA content was positively correlated with most of the chemical and biological soil properties (Table 2). Exceptions are nitrate and clay that were significantly negatively correlated with total PLFA, while the correlation with AWCD was only weakly positive. Similar to Biolog EcoPlate<sup>TM</sup> data, the PCA of PLFA data showed ER to form a distinct cluster separated from the other sites (Fig. 2). In the loading plot (figure not shown), the main drivers for PC 1 were monounsaturated PLFAs (16:1ω7, 18:1ω5 and 18:1ω7) on the positive side and 20:4 together with branched PLFAs (i16:0, i17:0, a17:0, br18:0) on the negative side; while PLFA 16:0 dominated strongly in the positive direction of PC 2. Thus, the position of ER samples in Fig. 2 can be explained by relatively high proportions of branched PLFAs compared to the other sites, but also low proportions of the mentioned mono-unsaturated PLFAs (Table 4). Looking at single PLFAs, most had highest concentrations per g soil (as well as per g microbial biomass C) in EL with a decreasing trend towards ER, like the values for total PLFA. One exception is 20:4 (a marker for Protozoa) that had markedly higher values per gram soil and per g C in ER than in the other land uses. Expressed as relative contributions, the sum of PLFA markers for bacteria constituted 55-60 % of the PLFA, except in ER, where it was 49.5 % (Table 3). PLFAs typical of G+ bacteria (except actinobacteria) also had lower share in ER (19.6 %) than in the other land

uses (24.2-26.7 %) while the markers for actinobacteria had the highest relative abundance in AG (3.3 %) and the lowest in EL (1.8 %). Signature fatty acids for G- bacteria had the highest percentage in EL (28.5 %) and significantly lower in ER (20 %), while markers for fungi had a share of around 7 % in all land uses.

Table 4 shows the relative abundance of each PLFA as percentage of total PLFA. The most abundant fatty acid in all land uses was 16:0 followed by i15:0, the former ubiquitous in all living matter, the latter a marker for G+ bacteria. A number of PLFAs are sticking out with different values for certain land uses. For example, 18:1ω7 (a marker for G- bacteria) had higher relative contribution in EL than in the other habitats. Moreover, 10Me18:0 (marker for actinobacteria) and 10Me16:0 (marker for sulphur reducing bacteria) were especially abundant in AF and AG. ER stood out from the other habitats by significantly lower contributions of several PLFAs, e.g. markers for sulphur reducing bacteria, G-, G+ and actinobacteria. Conversely, the contribution of the Protozoa marker 20:4 was substantially higher in ER than in the other habitats. Relative values of markers for fungi (18:2, 18:3 and 18:1ω9) did not separate among land uses.

#### 4. Discussion

Since EL only occurs on higher altitudes than the other studied land uses it was not included in the statistical analysis. However, data from EL can give a quite realistic indication of what conditions could be expected in undisturbed forest soils also on lower elevation. Also among the other four land uses, initial conditions were probably not completely identical. Difference in soil particle size distribution with higher clay and lower sand contents in ER and AG than in FO (with AF intermediate) indicate that sites with more sandy and probably less fertile

soils have been selected for forest plantation while the soils with more clay and higher fertility have been used for agriculture and agroforestry.

The high clay contents in ER could possibly be explained by the fact that the upper, sandier soil horizons (with more organic matter) have been washed away while soils richer in clay in lower horizons have been exposed. With this in mind, our results demonstrate a decrease in soil organic matter, microbial C and N and microbial biomass with increasing disturbance related to cultivation, which supports our first hypothesis.

Although the relative abundance of PLFAs typical for microbial groups differed to some extent among the studied habitats (Fig. 2, Table 3 and 4), all PLFAs were detected in all of them. Also all 31 tested substrates were decomposed in all habitats (Table 1, Fig.1). This indicates that on microbial community level, probably no vital functional and structural features of the soils were lost by intensified land use. However, the capacity (decomposition rate) and microbial biomass did decrease substantially. Thus, our first hypothesis is supported regarding decreased biomass and activity, but less obviously regarding microbial diversity. However, in the case that some organisms disappear, as long as there is a broad spectrum of organisms remaining, others can take advantage of the changed conditions of altered land use and decomposition can be sustained (Griffiths et al., 2001; Susilo et al., 2004).

The Biolog method, based on incubations, has been found to favor just a few genera; those that can grow on the substrates and those that are fast growing (r-strategists), while the majority of oligotrophic species (K-strategists) are out-competed. Still, the Biolog EcoPlate<sup>TM</sup> contains a high number of substrates that are relevant for the soil environment and thereby expresses the action of a large number of enzymes. Therefore, it has been useful for comparing microbial communities in contrasting environmental samples. It has been recommended to combine the Biolog method with other techniques for analysis of the functional ability of the entire soil microbial community (Ros et al., 2008) but for this study

further analyses were not feasible. We also employed the PLFA analysis, which gives a clear picture of the structure of the microbial community. With knowledge of the ecology of the different microorganism groups this also gives some insight into the functional ability of the community.

Although microbial biomass and decomposition capacity in AF were slightly higher as compared to AG, this difference was not significant. This shows that agroforestry in 20 to 30 years was not sufficient to restore the chemical and biological conditions of agricultural soil to the recommended levels, but forest plantations on the same farms are useful for restoration of soil biodiversity and function (decomposition capacity) of degraded soils. It should be kept in mind that AF samples were taken in arable fields at a certain distance from trees and other perennial vegetation. It is possible that if we had sampled under such vegetation components we could have been able to demonstrate improvement as compared to AG. Microbial community development depends on the growth of the aboveground vegetation either directly (symbionts and decomposers) or indirectly via supply of carbon (autotrophic microbes) (Jasper, 2007).

Bossio et al. (2005) studied soil microbial community response to land use changes in different soil types at several locations in Western Kenya. Soil type was the key determining factor for the microbial community composition (determined by denaturing gradient gel electrophoresis - DGGE and PLFA analyses), with secondary variation between forested and agricultural soils, with highest total abundance and diversity in forested sites. Their data from Biolog Ecoplate<sup>TM</sup> and enzyme activity analyses demonstrated that substrate utilisation profiles were more weakly related to soil type and land use than the microbial community structure was. They concluded that substrate utilisation profiles can be similar in spite of genetically different and less diverse microbial communities, because redundancy among communities will promote soil stability and protect soil processes. This is in agreement with

our results, showing low correlation between total AWCD and microbial biomass, measured as total microbial C and N or PLFA.

Soils of the indigenous forest in EL had lower levels of plant available P than the other habitats except ER. One possible explanation can be that the agricultural soils may have been fertilized with inorganic P, or P has been added by supplementing mulch and other organic matter, especially in the agroforestry system. Burning of crop residues in AF may have supplemented P-rich ash and increased availability of P (Ketterings et al., 2002). Additionally, in the forest soil there certainly was a great competition for P leaving very low plant available amounts in the soil. P deficiency is likely to occur in tropical agricultural soil when levels of plant available P is less than 15 mg per kg soil (Fairhurst, 2012).

Differences among soil types were smaller when relating PLFA to g soil C than to g soil (Table 3). This indicates that not only the concentration of organic matter is decisive for microbial biomass but also substrate quality as well as other biotic and abiotic factors. We can assume that the organic matter in ER was older than in the other habitats since input of fresh organic matter is low.

Mono-unsaturated PLFAs, indicating G- bacteria, some of which are known to be involved in nitrogen cycling, showed lower relative abundance in ER than in the other soil types. It is likely that this reflects the nutritional status, since G- bacteria are known to increase after nitrogen fertilisation, both through mineral fertilisers and manure (Peacock et al., 2001).

In ER, higher values were found for the Protozoa marker 20:4 and for unk17a, br18, 18:0 and i19:0. Branched PLFAs (e.g. br18 and i19:0) may be used as signatures for G+ bacteria. These bacteria may preferentially utilise old organic matter (*e.g.* Waldrop and Firestone, 2004), but since the abundances of these branched PLFAs were rather low in our samples, any conclusion about this would be very speculative. We are unable to explain the high

contribution of 20:4 in ER, and have not found any support in the literature concerning relatively high density of Protozoa in depleted soil. On the contrary, Fierer et al. (2003) found that Gram+ bacteria and actinomycetes tended to increase in proportional abundance with increasing soil depth, while the abundances of Gram- bacteria, fungi, and protozoa were highest at the soil surface and substantially lower in the subsurface where C and nutrient content was lower.

Most abiotic and biotic variables were positively correlated with pH. Fierer and Jackson (2006) studied the diversity of bacterial communities across North and South America. They found that the composition of bacterial communities was unrelated to site temperature, latitude and other variables that typically predict plant and animal diversity. On the local scale, however, differences in communities could largely be explained by soil pH, which is similar as in our data.

In conclusion, we found that Biolog EcoPlate<sup>TM</sup> and PLFA analyses give useful information on structure and function of soil microbial communities, complementary to estimates of organic matter content and total microbial biomass. Our results indicate that the substrate utilisation capacity and microbial community composition is similar in land with similar vegetation and that the functional capacity and microbial biomass of the soil can be restored by active soil management, such as forest plantation. However, 20 to 30 years of agroforestry practices was not enough to significantly change the conditions of agricultural soil as compared to conventional agriculture. It seems that the well documented positive effects that agroforestry has on above-ground harvest yield, other ecosystem services and socio economy (Jose, 2009; Smith et al., 2013; Sharma, 2009; Vincenti et al., 2013) are not as easily demonstrated for soil biology, which in this study was more resistant to change.

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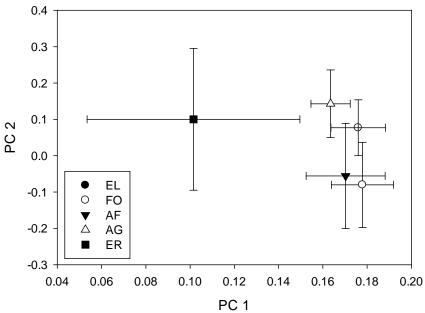
# **Text to figures**

# Fig. 1

PCA multivariate analysis of functional capacity of the soil microorganism community measured with Biolog EcoPlate<sup>™</sup> analysis of decomposition of 31 substrates. Comparison of five land uses. See Table 1 for explanation of land uses. Error bars are standard deviation; for EL n=4, for others n=9. One AG sample was removed as an extreme outlier. PC 1 explains 58.9% and PC2 6.9 of the variation.

# Fig. 2

PCA multivariate analysis of PLFA composition of the soil microorganism community. Comparison of five land uses. See Table 1 for explanation of land uses. Two of the samples were left out in the analysis, due to more than 14 of the PLFAs missing. Error bars are standard deviation. PC 1 explains 90.5 % and PC2 3.8 % of the variation.



503 **BIOLOG - AWCD** 

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PCA multivariate analysis of functional capacity of the soil microorganism community measured with Biolog EcoPlate<sup>TM</sup> analysis of decomposition of 31 substrates. Comparison of five land uses. See Table 1 for explanation of land uses. Error bars are standard deviation; for EL n=4, for others n=9. One AG sample was removed as an extreme outlier. PC 1 explains 58.9% and PC2 6.9 of the variation.

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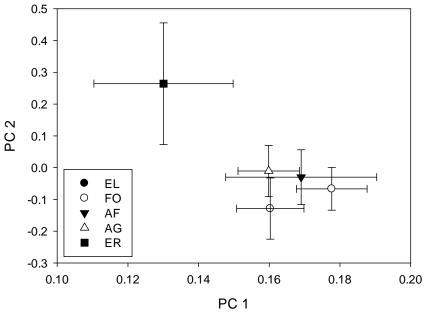
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Fig. 2

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# Microbial community composition and functional capacity in Kenyan highland soil under land-use intensification and agroforestry

Tables Lagerlöf et al. 2014

# Table 1

Chemical, biological and physical soil parameters of habitats with different land uses in Mt Elgon area, Kenya. The mean (±standard deviation) of pH, total soil nitrogen (N), total soil carbon (C), plant available phosphorus (P), nitrate, microbial biomass carbon (MBC), microbial biomass nitrogen (MBN), substrate utilisation capacity by Biolog EcoPlates<sup>TM</sup> (AWCD, average absorbance at 590 nm after 96 h incubation), silt, sand, clay and moisture. ER= Eroded land, AG=Agricultural fields, AF=Agroforestry fields, FO=Planted forest and EL=Mt Elgon NP natural forest. n=9, except for EL where n=4. One-way ANOVA did not include EL. Different letters in the same row for the mean values indicate significant differences at P<0.05 (Tukey's test).

Parameter	ER	AG	AF	FO	ANOVA	EL
					P-values	
pH (H <sub>2</sub> O)	6.2 (0.6) b	6.0 (0.4) b	6.5 (0.5) ab	6.8 (0.5) a	0.006	6.7 (0.3)
N (%)	0.09	0.37 (0.09) b	0.46 (0.27)	0.62 (0.28)	< 0.001	1.06 (0.49)
	(0.07) c		ab	a		
C (%)	1.27	2.34 (0.28)	3.41 (1.51)	3.80 <i>1.02</i> ) a	< 0.001	5.93 (2.41)
	(0.61) c	bc	ab			
P(mg/kg)	8.53	19.6 (11.0) b	60.8 (45.2)	34.7 (40.3)	0.003	14.1 (9.7)

	(10.8) b		a	ab		
Nitrate (µg/kg)	8.9 (5.7)	9.2 (3.7)	6.3 (4.5)	4.9 (3.1)	0.126	7.6 (5.0)
MBC (mg	119( <i>30</i> ) c	173 ( <i>34</i> ) b	212 ( <i>33</i> ) b	283 (52) a	< 0.001	656 (104)
C/kg)						
MBN (mg	6.6 (2.8) c	13.0 (4.5) bc	19.6 (9.9) b	34.6 (11.6)	< 0.001	114 (34.7)
N/kg)				a		
AWCD	0.48	0.85 (0.49)	1.26 (0.36)	1.25 (0.34)	0.002	1.23 (0.29)
	(0.64) b	ab	a	a		
Silt (%)	10.5 (3.1)	18.2 (9.2) a	15.6 (3.3)	12.8 (2.3)	0.031	13.5 (5.7)
	b		ab	ab		
Sand (%)	50.8 (9.6)	53.1 ( <i>12.2</i> ) b	61.5 (9.9)	70.8 (6.3) a	< 0.001	78.0 ( 9.3)
	b		ab			
Clay (%)	38.5(9.4) a	28.7 (13.7)	22.7 (10.5)	16.2 (5.6) c	< 0.001	8.25 (4.2)
		ab	bc			
Moisture (%)	20.0 (6.4)	23.8 (4.3)	25.8 (6.6)	26.5 (5.2)	0.083	45.3 (7.8)

# Table 2

Correlation matrix on chemical, physical and biological soil properties for land uses (see tab. 1 for explanation of land uses) ER, AG, EF and FO: pH, total soil nitrogen (N), plant available soil phosphorus (P), nitrates (Nitr.), total soil carbon (C), moisture, sand, clay, silt, Microbial Biomass carbon (MBC), Microbial Biomass nitrogen (MBN), altitude (Alt), substrate utilization capacity by total Average Well Colour Development from Biolog EcoPlates<sup>TM</sup> (AWCD, 96 h) and total PLFA. The P-values are shown in italics.

	CORRI	CORRELATION COEFFICIENT/ P-values											
	pН	N	P	Nitr.	С	Moist	Sand	Clay	Silt	MBC	MBN	Alt	AWCD
N	0.619												
1	0												
D.	0.362	0.705											
P	0.03	0											
NT*4	-0.375	-0.385	-0.457										
Nitr	0.024	0.02	0.005										
C	0.605	0.882	0.596	-0.4									
С	0	0	0	0.016									
3.5.4	0.159	0.412	0.367	-0.25	0.54								
Moist	0.354	0.012	0.027	0.141	0.001								

Sand	0.499	0.636	0.219	-0.18	0.638	0.169						
Sanu	0.002	0	0.2	0.293	0	0.325						
Clar.	-0.512	-0.7	-0.334	0.128	-0.696	-0.27	-0.893					
Clay	0.001	0	0.047	0.456	0	0.112	0					
G214	0.079	0.205	0.276	0.097	0.192	0.239	-0.135	-0.325				
Silt	0.646	0.23	0.104	0.575	0.262	0.16	0.433	0.053				
MDC	0.349	0.566	0.121	-0.215	0.66	0.355	0.634	-0.57	-0.077			
MBC	0.037	0	0.48	0.208	0	0.033	0	0	0.657			
MDN	0.51	0.587	0.147	-0.187	0.697	0.382	0.615	-0.574	-0.027	0.895		
MBN	0.001	0	0.393	0.274	0	0.021	0	0	0.875	0		
A 14	0.397	0.409	0.54	-0.241	0.278	0.304	0.167	-0.308	0.327	-0.149	-0.12	
Alt	0.016	0.013	0.001	0.156	0.101	0.072	0.329	0.067	0.051	0.386	0.485	
AWCD	0.248	0.305	0.328	0.096	1.237	-0.025	0.021	-0.111	0.199	0.137	0.162	0.148

	0.171	0.07	0.05	0.577	0.164	0.885	0.902	0.521	0.245	0.425	0.346	0.389	
	0.486	0.715	0.279	-0.223	0.717	0.366	0.599	-0.573	0.004	0.902	0.865	0.011	0.221
PLFA	0.003	0	0.099	0.19	0	0.028	0	0	0.982	0	0	0.948	0.195

Table 3

Total PLFA (EL n=4, others n=9) and relative abundance of markers for certain

microorganism groups in soil samples from different land uses in the Kitale area. See table 1

for explanation of land uses. EL not tested in ANOVA. Different letters in the same row for

the mean values indicate significant differences at P<0.05 (Tukey's test).

	ER	AG	AF	FO	ANOVA	EL
Total PLFA						
nmol per g soil	22.6 c	56.5 b	71.7 b	118.7 a	< 0.000	281.8
nmol per g soil	1780.6b	2415.4ab	2101.4b	3125.8a	< 0.001	4752.7
C						
Relative abund	  ance of PLF	'A markers <sup>*</sup>	(% of total I	PLFA)		
Sum Bacteria	49.5 b	58.2 a	56.6 a	56.7 a	< 0.000	59.8
Sum G+	19.6 b	26.7 a	25.4 a	25.3 a	< 0.001	24.2
Bact**						
Actinobact.	2.6 bc	3.3 a	3.0 ab	2.2 c	< 0.000	1.8
Sum G- Bact	20.0 b	22.3 ab	21.8 ab	24.6 a	< 0.01	28.5
Sum Fungi	8.3 a	6.8 a	7.2 a	7.6 a	0.306	8.0
Sum Protozoa	6.6 a	2.1 b	1.8 b	1.5 b	< 0.000	2.4

553	*: Markers for certain of	organism groups:			
554	Sum bacteria: i15:0, a1	5:0, i16:0, 16:1	<u>1</u> 671,	<b>□0</b> Me16:0, i17:0, a17:0	), Cy17, 17:0,
555	18:1	7.01 <b>0M9</b> 1 <b>0</b> /09:1			
556	Sum G+ bacteria excl.	Actinobacteria: i15	5:0, a15:	:0, i16:0, 10Me16:0	
557	Actinobacteria: 10Me1	8:0			
558	Sum G- bacteria: 16:1				□7, 16:□□□ cy17, 17:0, 18:1□
559	Sum fungi: 18:2+18:3,	18:1 🔲 9			
560	Sum Protozoa: 20:4, 20	0:0, 22:0			
561					
562	**: Excluding Actinoba	acteria			
563					
564					
565					

**Table 4** 

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587

16: 1ω5

1.33 c

2.50 b

Relative abundance of individual PLFAs (EL n=4, others n=9) in soil samples from different land uses in the Kitale area. See table 1 for explanation of land uses. EL not tested in ANOVA. Different letters for mean values in the same row indicate significant differences at P<0.05 (Tukey's test).

PLFA Relative abundance – % of total PLFA

573		_					
574		ER	AG	AF	FO	ANOVA	EL
575		_					
576							
577	i14:0	0.30 с	0.47 bc	0.58 ab	0.74 a	<0.000	0.7
578	14:0	0.91 c	1.00 bc	1.08 ab	1.07 a	< 0.000	1.22
579	i15:0	6.32 b	9.63 a	9.27 a	9.47 a	<0.000	8.66
580	a15:0	3.63 b	4.88 a	4.86 a	5.20 a	<0.000	4.88
581	15:0	0.56	0.43	0.58	0.47	0.74	0.71
582	br16a	0.31 b	0.48 a	0.51 a	0.59 a	<0.000	0.73
583	br16b	0.032 b	0.21 a	0.24 a	0.23 a	<0.000	0.19
584	i16:0	5.19	4.78	4.45	4.47	0.264	5.21
585	16:1ω9	0.32 b	0.70 a	0.80 a	0.72 a	<0.000	0.47
86	16:1ω7	3.88 b	4.87 ab	5.17 a	5.43 a	<0.001	6.045

3.20 a

< 0.000

3.29

2.78 ab

588	16:00	16.65	13.57	14.88	15.54	0.554	12.66
589	unk17a	1.60 a	1.20 ab	1.07 ab	1.01 b	< 0.05	0.9
590	br17	1.55 b	3.15 a	3.14 a	2.88 a	<0.000	2.78
591	10Me16	4.55 b	7.46 a	6.87 ab	6.20 ab	< 0.05	5.56
592	unk17b	0.9	0.94	0.54	0.53	0.42	0.42
593	i17:0	3.62 a	2.75 b	2.74 b	2.60 b	0.001	2.57
594	a17:0	3.7	3.12	3.14	2.98	0.214	2.6
595	cy17	1.71 b	2.69 a	2.70 a	2.64 a	0	2.26
596	17:0	0.6	0.63	0.71	0.52	0.432	0.56
597	br18	4.15 a	2.78 ab	2.54 b	2.19 b	<0.01	1.86
598	10Me17	1.22	1.67	1.48	1.17	0.06	1.2
599	18:2+18:3	3.14	2.04	2.15	2.57	0.307	2.64
600	18: 1ω9	5.2	4.77	5.03	5.02	0.508	5.33
601	18: 1ω7	4.34 c	5.32 bc	6.24 ab	7.86 a	0	9.78
602	18: 1ω6	0.28	0.42	0.37	0.28	0.577	0.2
603	18: 1ω5	1.63	1.53	1.93	1.92	0.736	1.69
604	18:0	3.85 a	3.13 ab	2.94 b	2.67 b	<0.01	2.65
605	br19	0.00 b	0.08 ab	0.05 ab	0.13 a	< 0.05	0.55
606	10Me18:0	2.58 bc	3.35 a	3.03 ab	2.28 c	< 0.000	1.87
607	i19:0	3.32 a	2.07 ab	1.57 b	0.92 b	< 0.000	0.9
608	unk19a	1.08	0.63	0.55	0.58	0.05	0.8

609	unk19b	0	0.41	0.12	0.37	0.156	0.02
610	cy19:0/19:1	4.82 a	4.23 ab	3.14 b	4.06 ab	< 0.05	5.67
611	20:4	4.13 a	0.40 b	0.37 b	0.28 b	<0.000	0.47
612	20:0	1.87 a	1.01 ab	0.99 ab	0.84 b	< 0.05	1.13
613	22:0	0.6	0.69	0.4	0.37	0.348	0.84
614							
615	Sum PLFA	100	100	100	100		100
616							
617							