

1 **Effects of prescribed fire for pasture management on soil organic matter and**
2 **biological properties: A 1-year study case in the Central Pyrenees**

3 Antonio Girona-García^{1*}; David Badía-Villas¹; Clara Martí-Dalmau¹; Oriol Ortiz-Perpiñá¹;
4 Juan Luis Mora²; Cecilia M. Armas-Herrera¹

5 ¹Departamento de Ciencias Agrarias y del Medio Natural, Escuela Politécnica Superior
6 de Huesca, Instituto de Investigación en Ciencias Ambientales (IUCA), Universidad de
7 Zaragoza, Ctra. Cuarte s/n, 22071, Huesca, Spain

8 ²Departamento de Ciencias Agrarias y del Medio Natural, Facultad de Veterinaria,
9 Instituto de Investigación en Ciencias Ambientales (IUCA), Universidad de Zaragoza, C/
10 Miguel Servet 177, 50013, Zaragoza, Spain.

11 *Corresponding author: Antonio Girona-García. Departamento de Ciencias Agrarias y
12 del Medio Natural, Escuela Politécnica Superior de Huesca, Instituto de Investigación en
13 Ciencias Ambientales (IUCA), Universidad de Zaragoza, Ctra. Cuarte s/n, 22071,
14 Huesca, Spain. E-mail: agirona@unizar.es . Telephone: +34 974292664

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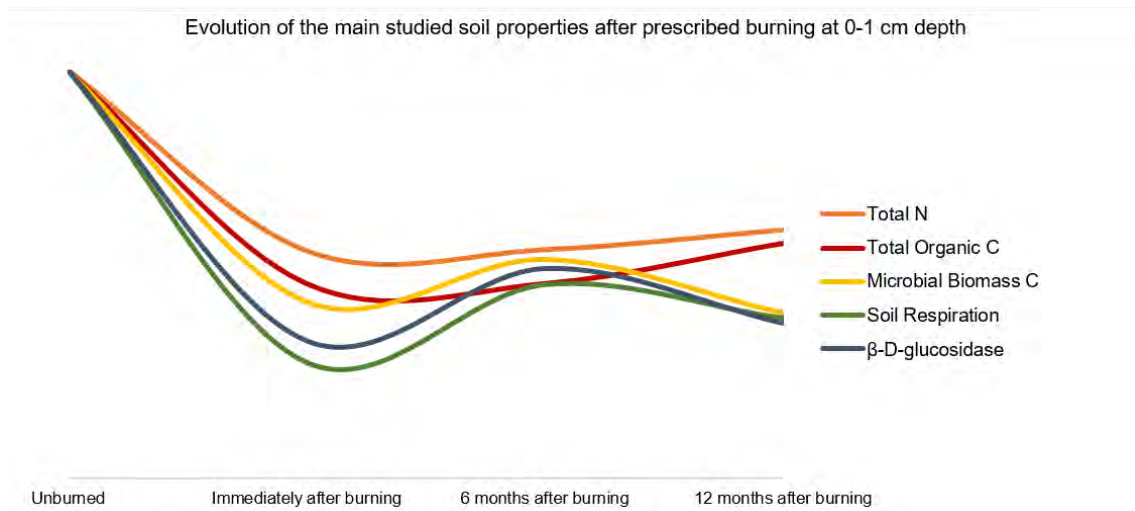
16 **Highlights**

- 17 • Prescribed burning is adopted as a tool to remove shrubs and recover
18 pasturelands
- 19 • Burning effects were evaluated at 0-1, 1-2 and 2-3 cm mineral soil depth
- 20 • Fire severely affected the studied soil properties mainly at 0-1 cm depth
- 21 • No recovery on soil properties was observed 1 year after burning
- 22 • Further research is needed in order to assess the sustainability of this practice

23

24

25 Graphical Abstract



26

27 Abstract

28 Prescribed burning has been readopted in the last decade in the Central Pyrenees to
29 stop the regression of subalpine grasslands in favour of shrublands, dominated among
30 others by *Echinopartum horridum* (Vahl) Rothm. Nevertheless, the effect of this practice
31 on soil properties is uncertain. The aim of this work was to analyse the effects of these
32 burnings on topsoil organic matter and biological properties. Soil sampling was carried
33 out in an autumnal prescribed fire in Buisán (NE-Spain, November 2015). Topsoil was
34 sampled at 0-1 cm, 1-2 cm and 2-3 cm depth in triplicate just before (U), ~1 hour (B0), 6
35 months (B6) and 12 months (B12) after burning. We analysed soil total organic C (TOC),
36 total nitrogen (TN), microbial biomass C (C_{mic}), soil respiration (SR) and β -D-glucosidase
37 activity. A maximum temperature of 438°C was recorded at soil surface while at 1 cm
38 depth only 31°C were reached. Burning significantly decreased TOC (-52 %), TN (-44
39 %), C_{mic} (-57 %), SR (-72%) and β -D-glucosidase (-66 %) at 0-1 cm depth while SR was
40 also reduced (-45 %) at 1-2 cm depth. In B6 and B12, no significant changes in these
41 properties were observed as compared to B0. It can be concluded that the impact of
42 prescribed burning has been significant and sustained over time, although limited to the
43 first two topsoil centimetres.

44 Key words: prescribed burning, soil organic matter, shrub encroachment, subalpine
45 grassland, soil biological activity

46 **1. Introduction**

47 Livestock grazing has been a key factor in the traditional pasture management in the
48 Central Pyrenees (NE-Spain) (San Emeterio et al., 2014). However, in the past decades,
49 this activity has decreased due to changes in socio-economic conditions such as rural
50 exodus and the reduction of stocking densities (Komac et al., 2013). In the present times,
51 most of the European pasturelands are linked to mountain systems (Lasanta, 2010) and
52 specifically in the Central Pyrenees, these lands occupy an approximate surface of
53 600,000 ha (Caballero et al., 2010). The mesophytic pastures that can be found in the
54 Pyrenean mountains are composed by subclimax species that require grazing for its
55 survival against shrubs (Halada et al., 2011). Therefore, the reduction in grazing can lead
56 to a shrub encroachment that, in the Pyrenees, has remarkably increased by woody
57 species such as the thorny cushion dwarf (*Echinopartum horridum* (Vahl) Rothm). This
58 species can colonize several hectares forming large and dense monospecific patches
59 that only let few other species survive in small gaps (Komac et al., 2011). Although
60 encroachment is a natural stage in the grassland conversion to forest and plays an
61 important role in pedogenesis, it entails a threat to biodiversity, pasture potential and
62 flammability risk (Caballero et al., 2010).

63 In order to stop the regression of subalpine grasslands in favour of shrublands,
64 prescribed burning has been readopted in the last decade in the Central Pyrenees.
65 Prescribed burning can be defined as the planned use of fire to achieve precise and
66 clearly defined objectives, which represents a more suitable and less risky practice than
67 the non-regulated traditional agricultural burning (Fernandes et al., 2013). Furthermore,
68 its use is less expensive and more practical in this type of landscape than the mechanical
69 procedures (Goldammer & Montiel, 2010). Nevertheless, fire can affect most of soil
70 physical, chemical and biological properties (Certini, 2005; Mataix-Solera et al., 2011),

71 specially soil organic matter (SOM) and microorganisms (González-Pérez et al., 2004;
72 Mataix-Solera et al., 2009). The extent and duration of burning effects depend mainly on
73 fire severity, i.e. its intensity and duration which are highly influenced by the
74 environmental parameters that determine the combustion process (Certini, 2005). For
75 this reason, prescribed burning is carried out under favourable conditions of soil and fuel
76 moisture, temperature and topography (Molina, 2009) in which the impact on soil is low
77 (Vega et al., 2005). These factors can be very variable so a high heterogeneity is
78 reported in the studies dealing with prescribed fire effects on soil properties. Prescribed
79 burning can produce no effects (Alexis et al., 2007; Goberna et al., 2012; Fultz et al.,
80 2016) or increase organic C and N content (Úbeda et al., 2005; Alcañiz et al., 2016) due
81 to the incorporation of partly charred material or litter (González-Pérez et al., 2004). On
82 the other hand, Armas-Herrera et al. (2016) observed a remarkable decrease in SOM
83 after a *E. horridum* prescribed fire. Dooley & Treseder (2012), after a meta-analysis
84 concluded that the impacts of prescribed fire on soil microbial biomass amount are
85 negligible, although they can induce changes in fungal abundance and diversity. This is
86 of vital importance since microbial biomass is the main factor driving SOM turnover rates
87 and, therefore, regulates the C transfer between soil and the atmosphere (Knicker, 2007;
88 Dooley & Treseder, 2012).

89 Grasslands, defined as ecosystems in which the dominant vegetation is composed by
90 herbaceous species (Jones & Donnelly, 2004), are of great ecological value since they
91 provide food for livestock, habitat for wildlife and improve soil quality and productivity
92 (Follett & Reed, 2010; Saha & Butler, 2017), storing 10-30 % of global SOM (Eswaran
93 et al., 1993). Management practices such as burning can influence soil C sequestration
94 since they can alter the rates of SOM inputs, its composition and how it is incorporated
95 into the soil (Jones & Donnelly, 2004; Follett & Reed, 2010). Therefore, knowing the role
96 that these practices play in C cycle is of special interest in the context of climate change.
97 Additionally, information regarding prescribed fire effects for pasture improvement in

98 subalpine environments on soil properties is scarce (San Emeterio et al., 2014; Armas-
99 Herrera et al., 2016)

100 We hypothesized that given the high soil water content and the low fire intensity that
101 characterises prescribed burning, there would be a low affection on C-related soil
102 properties and in a limited depth. We also argued that the probable low effect of burning
103 would disappear in the short-term due to vegetation recovery. The general aim of this
104 study was to analyse the effects of *E. horridum* prescribed burning for pasture
105 reclamation on topsoil SOM and biological properties and their evolution in the short-
106 term in the Central Pyrenees. Specifically, the effects on: soil total organic C and N,
107 microbial biomass C, basal respiration and β -D-glucosidase activity; immediately, 6
108 months and one year after the prescribed burning.

109

110 **2. Material and methods**

111 2.1. Area of study

112 The area of study comprises 3.8 ha in Buisán, Central Pyrenees (NE-Spain; 42°36'04.4"
113 N 0°00'43.3" E) at 1760 masl dominated by *E. horridum* where the mean annual
114 temperature is 5.7 °C and the mean annual precipitation 1270 mm. The average slope
115 is 12-30 % facing south (SE to W). Soils in the study area range from Eutric to Calcaric
116 Cambisols (IUSS Working Group WRB, 2014) and the main properties of a
117 representative soil profile are given in Table 1. The study area is located in a zone with
118 great pastoral value in the limit of Ordesa and Monte Perdido National Park. In the past,
119 more than 20,000 sheep pastured these lands, while at the present times, this number
120 has decreased below 10,000 animals. Until 1980, shepherds eliminated the incipient *E.*
121 *horridum* by small burnings but due to the prohibition of fire use in that decade, the area
122 has been invaded by this species. The study site is nowadays occupied during summer

123 by shepherds that still practice transhumance to the flat lands of the Ebro Valley. This
 124 guarantees pastoral pressure and cattle trampling in the plot.

125 Table 1. Chemical and physical soil properties of the study area (Eutric Cambisol)

Horizon	Ah ₁ (0-5 cm)	Ah ₂ (5-15 cm)	Bw ₁ (15-25 cm)	Bw ₂ (25-40 cm)	C (40-65 cm)
pH (H ₂ O, 1:2.5)	6.7	6.4	6.7	6.6	6.5
pH (KCl, 1:2.5)	5.9	5.6	5.6	5.4	5.2
EC _{1:5} (μS/cm)	115	80.5	50.5	36.4	32.3
CEC (cmol(+)/kg)	33.1	24.2	19.9	17.9	14.3
OM (g/kg)	173	89.3	53.2	39.1	27.7
C/N	12.9	10.1	9.1	8.1	7.6
Clay (g/kg)	228	318	310	370	370
Silt (g/kg)	661	602	612	550	554
Sand (g/kg)	111	79.9	77.9	80.1	76.1
Textural class (USDA)	Silty loam	Silty clay loam			
FC (g/kg)	546	409	337	325	302
PWP (g/kg)	394	252	202	189	174
AWC (g/kg)	152	157	135	136	128

126 EC: electrical conductivity; CEC: cation Exchange capacity; OM: organic matter; FC:
 127 water content at field capacity; PWP: water content at permanent wilting point; AWC:
 128 available water holding capacity

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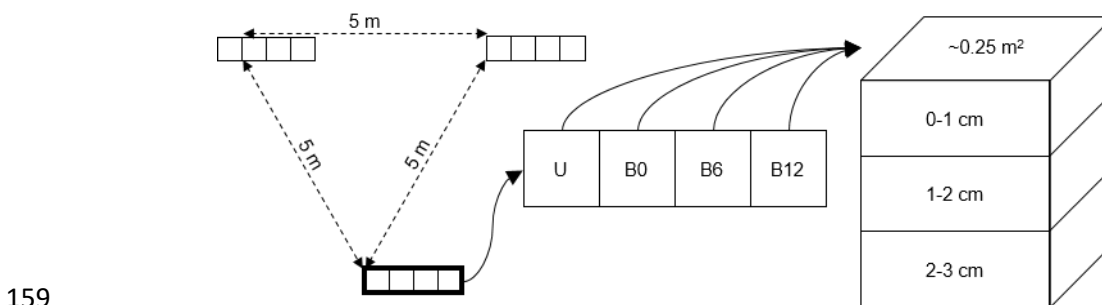
130 2.2. Prescribed fire specifications and soil temperature record

131 The prescribed burning was carried out within the prescription parameters established
 132 for *E. horridum* in November 2015 by qualified firefighters of the EPRIF (Wildfire
 133 Prevention Teams) of Huesca and BRIF (Reinforcement Brigades against Wildfires) of
 134 Daroca units. No rainfall events occurred during 10 days prior to the burning and air
 135 relative humidity was between 35-70 % while the maximum temperature was of 15 °C
 136 with a wind speed <8 km/h. The area had a 75 % surface cover of *E. horridum* and > 90
 137 % of it was eliminated by fire. Burning was applied shrub-to-shrub and fire spread was
 138 of 0.64 ha/hour with a maximum flame length of 1.5 m and 1 m high. The lack of winds
 139 during most of the burning, given the safe conditions under which it was carried out,
 140 increased the required time to accomplish the desired burned surface. Soil temperatures

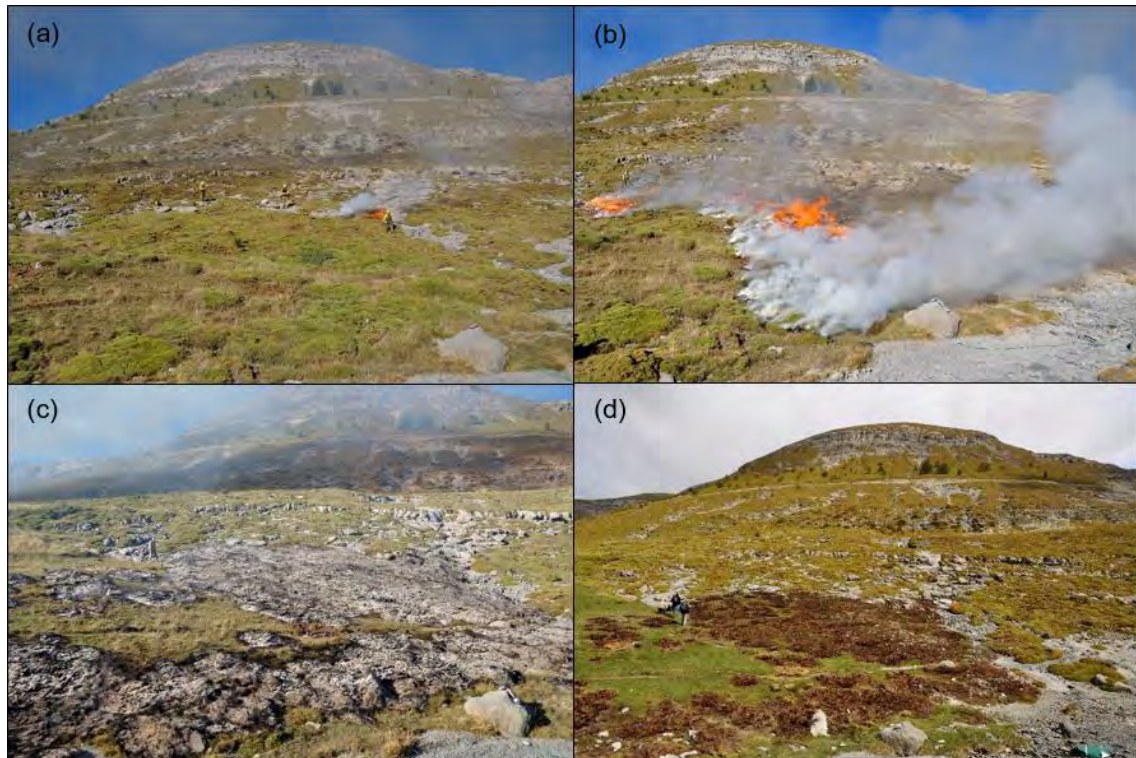
141 were recorded during the burning via type-K thermocouples placed at mineral soil
142 surface and at 1, 2 and 3 cm depth in one of the sampling points.

143 2.3. Soil sampling

144 Soil samples were collected by triplicate in areas with similar vegetation cover, slope and
145 parent material; following a triangle shape with a separation of 5 meters between vertices
146 (Figure 1). The organic horizons were removed prior to soil sampling. Then, a ruler was
147 inserted into the soil to serve as a depth reference and mineral layers were carefully
148 scrapped from the topsoil Ah horizon using a spatula at 0-1, 1-2 and 2-3 cm depth. These
149 samples were taken as unburned controls (U) in the early morning. A couple of hours
150 later prescribed fire was applied and as soon as it cooled down, contiguous plots to U
151 were sampled following the sample procedure, removing ashes and remaining organic
152 horizons, in order to assess the immediate effect of the burning (B0). The area was
153 covered by snow one week after the burning and six months after the fire, just after snow
154 melted in spring 2016, burned soils were sampled again (B6). To monitor the evolution
155 of the selected soil properties further in time, soil was sampled one year after the fire in
156 November 2016 (B12). The visual appearance of the study site over the sampling periods
157 is represented in Figure 2. All samples were collected in plastic bags to avoid desiccation
158 and stored as soon as possible at 4°C to maintain the fresh conditions.



159
160 Figure 1. Design of the sampling plots. Unburned (U), immediately after (B0), 6 months (B6) and one year
161 (B12) after burning sampling



162

163 Figure 2. View of the study site before (a), during (b), immediately after (c) and one year after (d) prescribed
 164 burning

165

166 2.4. Sample preparation and laboratory methods

167 Samples were fresh sieved through a 2 mm mesh and kept in a refrigerator at 4 °C for
 168 later biological analysis. Sub-samples were air dried until constant weight at room
 169 temperature and grounded for total C and N, oxidizable C and carbonates determination.

170 Soil moisture content was determined by the gravimetric method, drying until stable
 171 weight and it was used to calculate all the results on a 105 °C dried soil basis. Total C
 172 (TC) and nitrogen (TN) were determined by elemental analysis (Vario Max CN Macro
 173 Elemental Analyser, Germany). Equivalent CaCO_3 was obtained by the Bernard
 174 Calcimeter method in order to determine the C in form of CaCO_3 and then deducted to
 175 the TC for computing the total organic C (TOC). Microbial biomass C (C_{mic}) was
 176 determined through the chloroform fumigation-extraction method (Vance et al., 1987)
 177 using a calibration factor of $K_c = 0.38$. The C_{mic}/C ratio was calculated based on this data.

178 Before fumigation, K_2SO_4 -extractable C (DOC) was obtained, which is also considered
179 as a labile SOC fraction. SOC mineralisation was measured through incubation assays
180 (28 days) under optimal conditions of 25 °C and 50 % water holding capacity moisture
181 content. The emitted CO_2 was captured by NaOH traps and determined by HCl titration
182 (Anderson, 1982) in selected days during the incubation: 1, 2, 4, 7, 10, 14, 18, 23 and
183 28. From these essays we calculated the cumulative C- CO_2 efflux over 28 days (soil
184 basal respiration, SR); the C mineralisation coefficient (CMC) as SR per oxidizable C
185 unit and time; and the microbial metabolic quotient (qCO_2) as SR per C_{mic} and time.
186 Oxidizable C, determined by the wet-oxidation method with chromic acid (Nelson &
187 Sommers, 1982), was used for the calculation of CMC since in normal conditions, it
188 represents the C fraction that can be degraded by soil microorganisms. The soil β -D-
189 glucosidase enzymatic activity was determined by the Eivazi and Tabatabai (1988)
190 method.

191 2.5. Statistical analysis

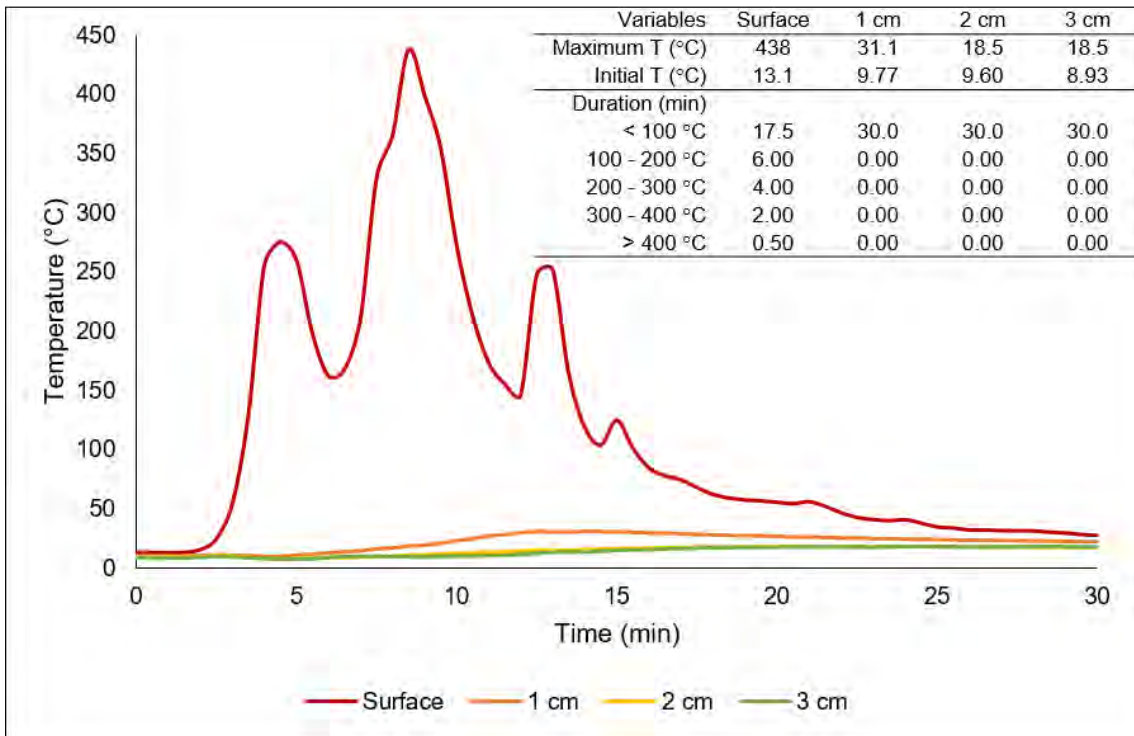
192 In order to identify the differences in the studied soil properties surrogated to burning and
193 post-fire elapsed time as well as soil depth, one-way ANOVA tests were used since the
194 interaction between time and depth was significant. Sampling time (U, B0, B6, B12) was
195 considered as fixed factor to analyse the effect of fire and time, splitting data by soil depth
196 (0-1, 1-2 and 2-3 cm). Additionally, changes in soil properties with depth were checked
197 using soil depth (0-1, 1-2 and 2-3 cm) as fixed factor, splitting data by sampling time (U,
198 B0, B6, B12). All data met the assumptions of normality and homoscedasticity so no
199 transformations were required. These statistical analyses were carried out using
200 StatView for Windows version 5.0.1 (SAS Institute Inc, Cary, North Carolina, USA). Data
201 presented in the text are reported as mean \pm standard deviation of the mean unless
202 otherwise stated.

203

204 **3. Results and discussion**

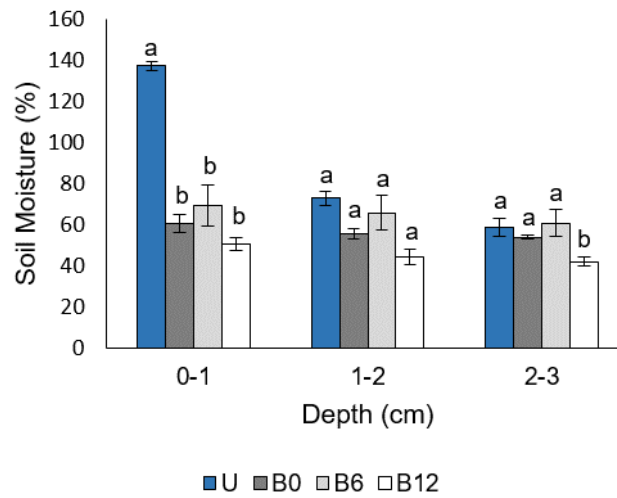
205 3.1. Temperature reached during the prescribed fire and variations in soil water content

206 The data gathered via type-K thermocouples indicated a maximum temperature of 438
 207 °C at soil surface while temperature at 1 cm depth only increased to 31 °C (Figure 3).
 208 Below 1 cm soil depth, temperatures remained almost unaltered during the prescribed
 209 fire. A high soil moisture (Figure 4) was observed in the unburned soil mainly at 0-1 cm
 210 depth since *E. horridum* morphology creates a microhabitat under its canopy in which
 211 temperatures are softened and soil water content is high (Cavieres et al., 2007). This
 212 high soil moisture content observed probably limited heating as it is slowed down by
 213 water content in soil until its complete vaporisation (Campbell et al. 1995; Badía et al.
 214 2017). This affirmation is supported by the fact that water contained in the soil was not
 215 totally vaporised by fire at 0-1 cm soil depth in B0 samples. In addition, the lower soil
 216 moisture content observed in U at 1-2 cm depth as compared to the overlying layer may
 217 have also limited heat diffusivity since air is a worse heat conductor than water.



218

219 Figure 3. Recorded temperature during prescribed burning via type-K thermocouples placed at soil surface,
220 1, 2 and 3 cm depth. The temperature analysis is presented in the upper-right corner



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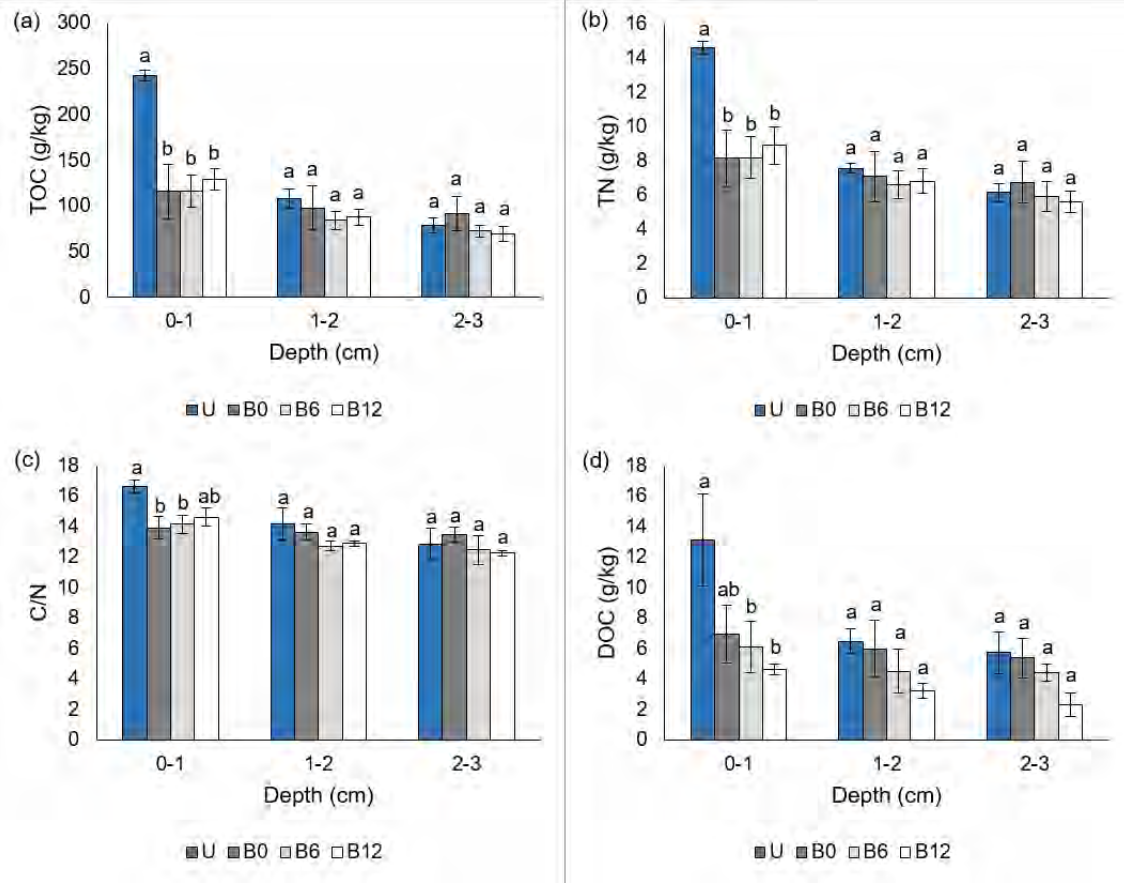
222 Figure 4. Soil water content in unburned (U), immediate post-fire samples (B0) and samples taken six months
223 (B6) and one year (B12) after burning for each studied soil depth (mean value \pm SE of three field replicates).
224 For same sampling depth different letters indicate significant differences among sampling times ($P < 0.05$)

225

226 3.2. Fire effects on soil organic matter

227 The unburned (U) studied topsoil stores large amounts of SOM mainly at 0-1 cm,
228 observing a steep decreasing gradient with depth (Figures 5a, 5b). Burning caused a
229 decrease in TOC and TN at B0 that was only significant at 0-1 cm depth (-52 and -44 %, respectively)
230 due to the substantial organic matter combustion that is initiated when
231 temperatures reach a range of 200-250 °C (Badía & Martí, 2003; Certini, 2005; Santín &
232 Doerr, 2016). The 1-3 cm topsoil depth remained virtually unaffected, not observing
233 differences in TOC and TN values between U and B0. These results match those of a
234 previous study carried out in the Central Pyrenees under similar experimental design
235 (Armas-Herrera et al., 2016) where soil TOC decreased an average of 42 % with fire at
236 0-3 cm depth while TN was reduced a 24 % at 0-1 cm depth. The detected affection in
237 SOM contrasts the data traditionally reported by literature regarding prescribed fires that

238 point null or even positive effects in soil organic C and N content. Several studies show
239 neutral effects of prescribed burning on soil C (Alexis et al., 2007; Fontúrbel et al., 2012,
240 2016) and N (Marcos et al., 2009; Fultz et al., 2016). Furthermore, some authors indicate
241 increases in soil C (Úbeda et al., 2005; Goberna et al., 2012; González-Pelayo et al.,
242 2015) or N (Alcañiz et al., 2016; San Emeterio, 2016) after prescribed fires.
243 Nevertheless, these prescribed burnings were conducted under different vegetation type
244 and reached lower temperatures. Additionally, in some of them it is not clear if ashes and
245 vegetal remains were removed prior to soil sampling as in the present study, so the
246 positive effects might be linked to the incorporation of charred material. At B6, soil TOC
247 and TN values showed no significant differences as compared to B0. This result may be
248 related to the snow accumulation during the elapsed months between samplings as it
249 can slow down SOM mineralisation and soil biological activity in the topsoil (Yi et al.,
250 2015). A slight, not statistically significant, increase in TOC and TN content can be
251 observed in B12 at 0-1 cm depth indicating a trend to recovery, although the determined
252 values are still far from those of the U samples. The absence of significant variations with
253 time could be explained by the lack of ash and charred materials incorporation into soil
254 since most of them were still present on its surface in B6 and B12. On the other hand, N
255 losses could have been higher than the inputs by ashes along this period of time (San
256 Emeterio et al., 2016).



257

258 Figure 5. Fire effects on: a) total organic C (TOC); b) total N (TN); c) C/N ratio and d) K₂SO₄-extractable C
 259 (DOC) in unburned (U), immediate post-fire samples (B0) and samples taken six months (B6) and one year
 260 (B12) after burning for each studied soil depth (mean value ± SE of three field replicates). For same sampling
 261 depth different letters indicate significant differences among sampling times (P < 0.05)

262 Fire also affected organic matter turnover and quality by reducing soil C/N ratio at 0-1
 263 cm depth in B0 as compared to U (Figure 5c). This result is a common effect of fire and
 264 might be related to N stabilisation or higher C losses (Badía & Martí, 2003; González-
 265 Pérez et al., 2004). At B6, C/N values presented no significant differences as compared
 266 to B0; nevertheless, B12 C/N ratio showed a trend towards recovery with intermediate
 267 values between U and B0 at 0-1 cm depth.

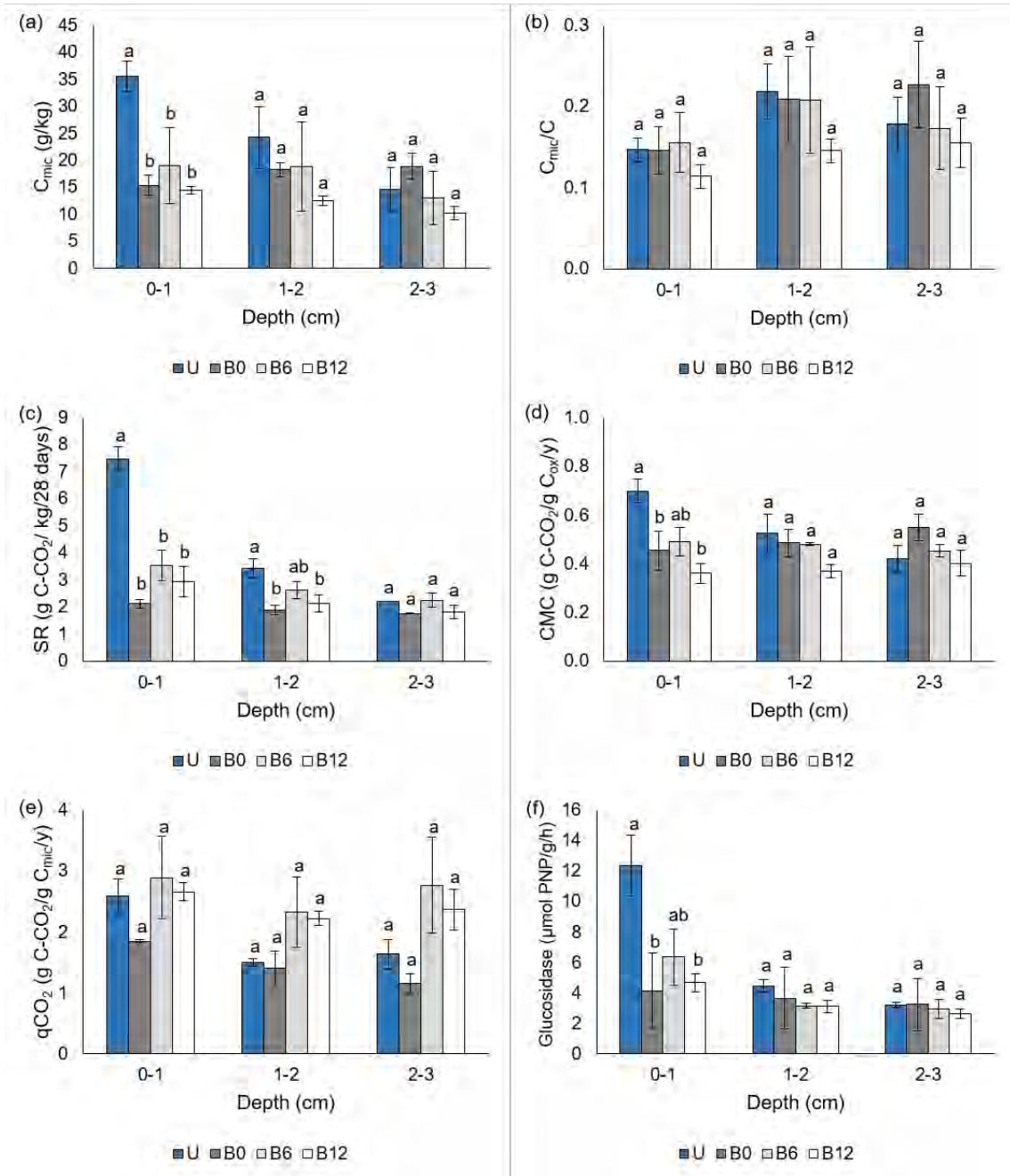
268 Soil DOC content values at 0-1 cm depth showed a trend to decrease in B0 as compared
 269 to U samples although it was not significant (Figure 5d). However, 6 months after the fire
 270 (B6), its content kept decreasing at 0-1 cm depth, being this reduction steeper one year

271 later (B12) in relation to the U values. This result may indicate that the water-soluble,
272 labile C is still being degraded by the remaining active microorganisms (Choromanska &
273 DeLuca, 2001). Furthermore, soil DOC content highly depends on the inputs by the
274 organic layers (Muqaddas et al., 2016) so its combustion eliminates the main DOC
275 source. Additionally, these compounds are easily leached and lost by runoff (Michalzik
276 and Martin, 2013).

277 3.3. Fire effects on soil biological properties and C cycling

278 The estimated soil microbial biomass C (C_{mic}) showed high values in the unburned soil
279 decreasing dramatically along the studied soil depth (Figure 6a) since soil microbial
280 biomass declines rapidly with depth and is concentrated in the more surficial soil 2.5 cm
281 (Knicker, 2007). Immediately after burning, C_{mic} was severely affected, detecting a 57 %
282 decrease at 0-1 cm depth, since it is a very sensitive soil property that can be notably
283 altered at temperatures over 50 °C (Bárcenas-Moreno & Bååth, 2009) although no
284 effects were observed in deeper layers. Armas-Herrera et al. (2016) obtained the same
285 results where C_{mic} decreased remarkably with fire at 0-1 cm depth. Fontúrbel et al. (2012)
286 in a prescribed fire carried out in a Galician shrubland dominated mainly by *Ulex*
287 *europaeus* L. also detected a decrease in C_{mic} after burning although the effect was not
288 as severe as in the present study. On the other hand, authors report an increase in C_{mic}
289 shortly after prescribed fires due to the increase of nutrient availability (Goberna et al.,
290 2012). Additionally, the impact of fire on soil microorganisms depends highly on soil
291 water content as it prevents sudden increases in soil temperatures during fire; however,
292 moist heat can produce a higher mortality than dry heat at 50-210 °C (Mataix-Solera et
293 al., 2009). This might explain the differences in the prescribed fire effects observed in
294 this study as compared to literature since soil moisture was considerably higher than
295 commonly reported. At B6 and B12, no changes in C_{mic} were detected as compared to
296 B0, which could be induced by the direct effect of fire or the elimination and slow recovery
297 of vegetation. Hart et al. (2005) stated that the relation between some plant species and

298 soil microbial communities might be the most important driving factor of soil microbiology
 299 dynamics to the extent that changes in the vegetation after fire can dominate over the
 300 fire effect itself. Furthermore, several years are required before the original unburned
 301 C_{mic} values recover (Bárceñas-Moreno et al., 2011).



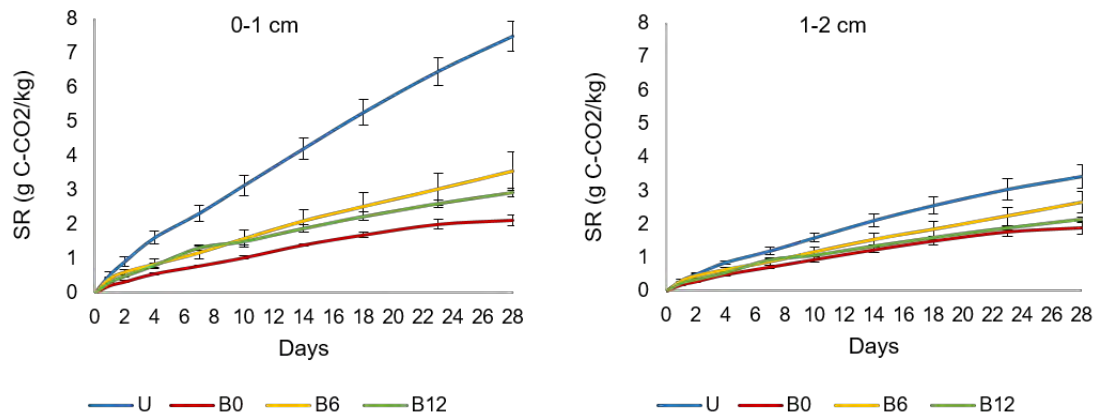
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303 Figure 6. Fire effects on: a) microbial biomass C (C_{mic}); b) C_{mic}/C ratio; c) soil respiration (SR); d) C
 304 mineralisation coefficient (CMC); e) microbial metabolic quotient (qCO_2) and f) β -D-glucosidase activity
 305 (Glucosidase) in unburned (U), immediate post-fire samples (B0) and samples taken six months (B6) and

306 one year (B12) after burning for each studied soil depth (mean value \pm SE of three field replicates). For same
307 sampling depth different letters indicate significant differences among sampling times ($P < 0.05$)

308 No significant changes were observed in the C_{mic}/C ratio with neither fire, time nor depth
309 because both parameters evolved following the same trends (Figure 6b). Soil C_{mic}/C ratio
310 can be used as a soil quality indicator since in soils under degradative processes, such
311 as fires, C_{mic} declines faster than organic matter (Zhao et al., 2012). Nevertheless, the
312 lack of differences along the studied period of time might be related to the microbial
313 populations adapting to the limited available C content since some authors claim that
314 C_{mic}/C increases 1-3 months after fire due to higher nutrient availability (Fontúrbel et al.,
315 2016).

316 Soil respiration (SR) in U, was significantly higher in the upper 0-1 cm as compared to
317 1-3 cm depth (Figure 6c). Burning (B0) had a remarkable effect on SR, suffering a 72 %
318 decrease at 0-1 cm depth and a 45 % reduction at 1-2 cm depth. The cumulative C-CO₂
319 emitted during the incubation assays is represented in Figure 7 for the fire-affected soil
320 depths (0-2 cm). SR was the most affected of all the studied soil properties by burning
321 and the only one that significantly changed at 1-2 cm depth. SR reduction is a common
322 effect surrogated to prescribed fires as reported by many authors (Choromanska &
323 DeLuca, 2001; Hamman et al., 2008; Armas-Herrera et al., 2016). The marked affection
324 on SR observed in the present study could be related to an increased mortality of soil
325 microorganisms by fire due to wet heating (Choromanska & DeLuca, 2002; Mataix-
326 Solera et al., 2009). In B6 and B12, fire effects were still detectable at 0-2 cm depth and
327 no signs of recovery were observed. This contrasts the results found by Fontúrbel et al.
328 (2012) in which the slight prescribed burning affection on SR recovered 180 days after
329 fire to the unburned values although a thicker soil depth (0-5 cm) was sampled as
330 compared to our study.



331

332 Figure 7. Soil respiration (SR) expressed as cumulative C-CO₂ emitted during the incubation assays (28
 333 days) in unburned (U), immediate post-fire samples (B0) and samples taken six months (B6) and one year
 334 (B12) after burning for the fire-affected soil depths (0-1 and 1-2 cm)

335

336 A statistically significant reduction in the C mineralisation coefficient (CMC) was
 337 observed with fire (B0) at 0-1 cm depth while no further changes were detected with
 338 depth (Figure 6d). CMC remained stable along the study period with no significant
 339 differences in B6 and B12 as compared to B0 values. The observed CMC behaviour
 340 might be related to the loss of labile C, as was previously stated since the reduction of
 341 labile soil C can limit the C availability for heterotrophic microbes, decreasing temporarily
 342 mineralization rates (Hamman et al., 2008). Furthermore, García-Pausas et al. (2008)
 343 claimed that in Pyrenean grasslands, C mineralisation in soil surficial layers is related to
 344 the amounts of labile C which may allow higher C use by soil microorganisms.

345 We found no significant changes in the microbial metabolic quotient (qCO₂) neither with
 346 fire, time or depth (Figure 6e). The qCO₂ is an indicator of ecosystem stress so this is an
 347 unexpected result since the fire itself or the new situation surrogated to the elimination
 348 of vegetation cover, i.e. decrease in soil water content, can exert changes in qCO₂
 349 (Zornoza et al., 2007). Nevertheless, a not statistically significant trend to decrease was

350 observed at 0-1 depth immediately after fire (B0) which could indicate a slight affection
351 on this parameter.

352 In the U soils, the β -D-glucosidase activity (Figure 6f) showed a steep gradient with depth
353 and immediately after prescribed burning (B0), suffered a significant reduction of 66 %
354 at 0-1 cm. This severe effect was also reported by Armas-Herrera et al. (2016) in which
355 an average decrease of 49 % was detected at 0-3 cm depth after prescribed fire
356 application. López-Poma & Bautista (2014) in an experimental burning carried out in a
357 *Rosmarinus-Erica* L. Mediterranean shrubland, also observed a remarkable decrease in
358 β -D-glucosidase two weeks after the fire under similar temperatures during burning as
359 the present study (492 °C at soil surface). This immediate reduction after fire of β -D-
360 glucosidase might be explained by denaturation of the enzymes due to high
361 temperatures (Knicker, 2007; Goberna et al., 2012; López-Poma & Bautista, 2014).
362 Nevertheless, some studies indicate that prescribed and experimental shrub burning
363 have no effects on of β -D-glucosidase (Boerner et al., 2008; Fontúrbel et al., 2016). In
364 B6, a transient pulse was detected in β -D-glucosidase activity with an intermediate
365 situation between U and B0 values at 0-1 cm depth. This stationary situation was also
366 observed in CMC values and could be explained by seasonal variations (Fontúrbel et al,
367 2016) as this effect disappears one year later. The behaviour observed in β -D-
368 glucosidase might be also related to the variations in the labile C fraction as it was earlier
369 mentioned, since it is highly regulated by substrate availability (Barreiro et al., 2016).
370 Barreiro et al. (2010) and López-Poma & Bautista (2014) also observed no recovery in
371 β -D-glucosidase activity one year after experimental burning although after this period of
372 time it started to increase.

373 3.4. Vegetation evolution after prescribed burning

374 In the following summer after burning, an incipient vegetation occupation was observed
375 in the burned plots. They were mainly colonised by resprouter species such as *Carex*

376 *flaca*, *Carex humilis*, *Euphorbia cyparissus*, *Iris latifolia*, *Teucrium chamaedrys* and *Viola*
377 *cf. rupestris*. Additionally, reseeding species i.e. the burned *Echinopartum horridum*
378 were also found with a germination gradient. While some seedlings only had two
379 cotyledons others were 1-4 cm tall but not thorny yet. Vegetation represented only a
380 small surface of the burned plots, still covered by necromass such as burned leaves,
381 litter and partially burned branches. The burned plots form a mosaic landscape as it can
382 be seen in Figure 2d, surrounded by vegetal species of the *Bromion erecti* alliance,
383 already present before burning. Since the objective of these prescribed burnings is the
384 reduction of *Echinopartum horridum* cover it seems necessary the introduction of cattle
385 in the burned plots in order to promote the consumption of its seedlings while are still
386 edible, which would facilitate the colonisation of the pastoral species.

387 3.5. General considerations regarding prescribed burning

388 The results obtained in the present study indicate that the initial hypothesis is not
389 completely fulfilled. Fire affection was indeed limited to the topsoil (0-2 cm) but it was
390 much higher than expected. In addition, one year after burning and given the severe
391 effect of fire, no recovery was observed in the studied soil properties. Furthermore, the
392 grasses that have grown in the burned plots only represent a small percentage of its
393 surface.

394 The decrease in C mineralisation detected after prescribed burning could allow for higher
395 C sequestration in the long term, which is a positive effect from the point of view of
396 climate change. Nevertheless, mountain shrubs store large amounts of C in its biomass
397 and litter as a result of the slow decomposition derived from its low biochemical quality
398 (Montané et al., 2007). Therefore, shrub burning entails substantial C losses not
399 accounted for in this work. Additionally, this study has been carried out in the short term
400 so it is risky to make any assumptions regarding this topic in the long term. This suggests
401 that further research is needed in order to detect whether the decrease in C
402 mineralisation could balance the C amount lost by burning at a larger time scale.

403 Comparing our results with those obtained by previous studies carried out in prescribed
404 burnings might be a difficult task given the vast array of different sampling methodologies
405 and ecosystems. The discordance between the data obtained and these reported by
406 literature could be due to the variability in several factors as: 1) the intensity and duration
407 of the prescribed burning as well as how it is distributed (Granged et al., 2011); 2) the
408 vegetation type, its moisture and fuel loads (Neary et al., 1999); 3) weather conditions
409 (Fernandes et al., 2013); 4) the presence and moisture content of the duff layer (Valette
410 et al., 1994); 5) soil moisture, which could pause the temperature rise during the
411 evaporative stage of soil drying (Massman, 2012); 6) a flawed soil sampling design, given
412 the low intensity of prescribed fires, in which maybe too much soil thickness is sampled
413 and a dilution effect is produced (Badía-Villas et al., 2014). This heterogeneity
414 complicates the search for general patterns of prescribed fire effects on soils and
415 suggests that those effects are highly site-dependant.

416

417 **4. Conclusions**

418 All the studied soil properties (TOC, TN, C/N, C_{mic} , SR, β -D-glucosidase) were
419 significantly reduced by fire at 0-1 cm depth while only SR was also affected down to 1-
420 2 cm depth. These results indicate a high affection of prescribed burning on SOM and
421 biological activity although limited to a thin soil layer. Despite the moderate temperatures
422 recorded during the burning, this affection can be explained by the slow fire spread and
423 the effect of wet heating. The results of this research also indicated that none of the
424 studied soil properties recover in the short-term (one year) so monitoring further in time
425 is needed in order to assess the sustainability of this practice in relation to soil
426 conservation and C cycle.

427

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