

Testing the ability of visual indicators of soil burn severity to reflect changes in soil chemical and microbial properties in pine forests and shrubland

José A. Vega · Teresa Fontúrbel · Agustín Merino ·
Cristina Fernández · Andrea Ferreiro · Enrique Jiménez

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Abstract

Aims Areas affected by wildfire comprise spatially complex mosaics of burned patches in which a wide range of burn severities coexist. Rapid diagnosis of the different levels of soil burn severity and their extents is essential for designing emergency post-fire rehabilitation treatments. The main objective of this study was to determine whether visual signs of soil burn severity levels are related to changes in soil chemical and microbial properties immediately after fire.

Methods Eight areas affected by wildfires in NW Spain were selected immediately after fire, and soil chemical and biological properties (pH, extractable Ca, K, Mg and P, SOC, total N, $\delta^{13}\text{C}$, basal soil respiration, Cmic, phosphatase activity, extractable NH_4^+ and NO_3^- , ammonification and nitrification rates and potential N mineralization) were analysed in relation to five levels of soil burn severity (0: Unburned; 1: Oa layer partially or totally intact; 2: Oa layer totally charred; 3: Bare soil and soil structure

unaffected; 4: Bare soil and soil structure affected; 5: Bare soil and surface soil structure and colour altered). **Results** The five visually assessed levels of soil burn severity adequately reflected changes in SOC, pH, and phosphatase activity, which varied gradually with increasing soil burn severity. However, alterations in certain indicators related to the soil organic quality (C/N, Cmic/SOC, qCO_2 , $\delta^{13}\text{C}$) were only detected in the most severely burned areas. Discriminant analysis revealed that the best combination of variables was acid phosphatase activity, SOC and pH, which correctly classified between 64 and 76 % of samples, depending on the levels of soil burn severity considered.

Conclusions The results showed that the proposed soil burn severity categories may be useful for indicating the degree of degradation of important soil chemical and microbiological properties in sites similar to the study area. This, in combination with other factors, will allow prioritization of areas for rehabilitation.

Keywords Wildfire · Soil burn severity · Post-fire rehabilitation criteria · pH · Soil nutrients · SOC · Acid phosphatase · Microbial biomass

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J. A. Vega (✉) · T. Fontúrbel · C. Fernández · E. Jiménez
Centro de Investigación Forestal. Lourizán,
Consellería do Medio Rural e do Mar. Xunta de Galicia,
P.O. Box 127, 36080 Pontevedra, Spain
e-mail: jose.antonio.vega.hidalgo@xunta.es

A. Merino · A. Ferreiro
Escuela Politécnica Superior,
University of Santiago de Compostela,
27002 Lugo, Spain

Abbreviations

SOC	Soil organic carbon
BR	Basal respiration
Cmic	Microbial biomass C
qCO_2	Metabolic quotient (Cmic/SOC)
ANOVA	Analysis of variance
SBS	Soil burn severity

Introduction

Wildfires can significantly perturb soil properties, thus affecting plant growth which has important implications for ecosystem recovery (DeBano et al. 1998; Neary et al. 1999, 2005; Certini 2005; Cerdà and Mataix-Solera 2009). Such perturbations may enhance long-term soil degradation and consequently emergency stabilization and rehabilitation treatments are frequently required (Robichaud et al. 2000; Robichaud 2009). In this context, characterization of the level of soil perturbation in operationally useful terms is clearly essential for designing post-fire management strategies (Parsons et al. 2010). Furthermore, development of a fire severity index relevant to soil changes is considered a research priority (Shakesby and Doerr 2006). The term “soil burn severity” is often used to describe the level of alteration caused by fire in soil, although there is no single definition of the term (Keeley 2009).

Wildfires result in spatially complex mosaics of burned soil patches encompassing a wide range of soil burn severity, in which barely affected areas coexist with others highly perturbed areas. These differences are mainly attributed to the different temperatures reached in the soil and the duration of exposure (Hartford and Frandsen 1992; DeBano et al. 1998; Neary et al. 1999; Certini 2005). The spatial variability in soil burn severity is important because it may increase the diversity of post-fire processes, such as soil erosion, soil degradation, nutrient cycling, and plant regeneration. More specifically, soil burn severity is considered an essential component of any commonly used fire severity index (Ryan 2002; Neary et al. 2005; Key and Benson 2006; Jain and Graham 2007) because of its potential value as an indicator of the level of impact that fire has on the soil, and its influence on post-fire hydrological and erosive responses (Ice et al. 2004; Parsons 2003; Lewis et al. 2006). Therefore, evaluation of this parameter is a critical step in the decision making process for soil rehabilitation tasks (Jain et al. 2008; Parsons et al. 2010).

Several visual indicators of soil burn severity have been defined on the basis of the immediate changes (observed in the field) in the forest floor (level of consumption of organic layer) and mineral soil (changes in colour or structure) and the deposition of ash from the aboveground combustion of biomass after wildfire (Ryan and Noste 1985; Ulery and Graham 1993; Neary et al. 1999, 2005; Ketterings and Bingham 2000; Ryan

2002; Jain et al. 2008; Parsons et al. 2010). However, it is difficult to compare data from different environments, due to differences in vegetation type and soil properties. Jain et al. (2012) have recently reviewed the available literature and proposed an index including 12 classes for temperate forests.

Although there is abundant information about the effects of fire on the soil system, the relevant literature scarcely refers to soil burn severity, or only vague descriptions are given and based on different criteria. Moreover, the relationships between these descriptors and the associated quantitative changes in selected chemical and biological soil properties remain poorly explored.

Post-burn soil colour parameters have been used by Ketterings and Bingham (2000) to evaluate fire severity and to relate it to immediate changes in soil C, N and exchangeable elements. These authors concluded that field colour measurements are of limited usefulness for predicting soil fertility. Brais et al. (2000) used the percentage of mineral soil exposure and charred duff to evaluate the delayed effects of wildfire and salvage harvesting on several soil parameters. These authors found that slight-moderate combustion had little impact on site nutrient status, while severe combustion induced nutrient depletion.

There is broad agreement that severe fires reduce surface SOC content (e.g. Fernández et al. 1997; Mataix-Solera et al. 2002; Certini 2005; Neary et al. 2005). However, absence of any changes (Gimeno-García et al. 2000; Hatten and Zabowski 2010) or even increases (Ludwig et al. 1998) have also been reported after fires of moderate or low severity. The lack of uniformity in the response of the SOC content suggests that the relation between soil SOC consumption and soil burn severity has not been adequately defined. Decreases in C/N ratios after severe wildfire have been described (Fernández et al. 1999; Saito et al. 2007), although soil burn severity was not sufficiently characterized. Measurement of changes in the stable carbon isotope ^{13}C has also been used to explore the soil organic matter transformations caused by soil heating during wildfire (Aranibar et al. 2003; Saito et al. 2007; Certini et al. 2011) although the relationship with soil burn severity has not been addressed. Thus, changes in SOC content, C/N ratio and ^{13}C may potentially be of use as fire severity indicators, with respect to SOM degradation.

One of the most frequent fire effects reported in the literature is increased soil pH (see recent revisions by Neary et al. 2005; Certini 2005; Úbeda and Outeiro 2009). The increase was consistently higher for more pronounced soil heating (Giovannini et al. 1990; Giovannini 1994; Badía and Martí 2003). This suggests that pH may be sensitive to changes in soil burn severity.

Increases in available forms of Ca, Mg and K immediately after wildfires have been observed in many studies (e.g. Neary et al. 1999, 2005; Certini 2005), usually in relation to severe fires. No changes, or decreases, in concentration of these elements have been reported (Carreira and Niell 1992; Vose et al. 1999). Increased concentration in available P in burned soils have frequently been detected (DeBano and Klopatek 1988; Giovannini et al. 1990; Giovannini and Lucchesi 1997; Ketterings and Bingham 2000; Giardina et al. 2000; Kennard and Gholz 2001) although an absence of any changes in fires of low to moderate severity has been also observed (Saá et al. 1993). Therefore, it would be worthwhile exploring whether changes in these nutrients may provide useful information for characterizing soil burn severity.

With respect to soil microbiota, certain indicators, such as microbial C biomass (Cmic), microbial quotient (Cmic/SOC), metabolic quotient (qCO₂) and the activity of some soil enzymes also appear potentially useful, for characterizing the extent of soil perturbation in relation to fire severity (Mataix-Solera et al. 2009; Dooley and Treseder 2012). Large reductions in soil microbial respiration (Pietikäinen and Fritze 1995; D'Ascoli et al. 2005) and enzymatic activities (DeBano and Klopatek 1988; Saá et al. 1993, 1998; Serrasolsas and Khanna 1995; Boerner et al. 2000) have been reported in severely burned soils, although again different measurements of burn severity were used, making comparisons difficult. In general, the responses have not been simultaneously compared with those observed for other levels of burn severity. Moreover, after moderate or prescribed fires, variable responses have been reported, ranging from increases or no changes, to decreases in microbial populations or enzymatic activities (Andersson et al. 2004; D'Ascoli et al. 2005; De Marco et al. 2005; Mabuhay et al. 2006). Nevertheless, none of the former authors have specifically related visual signs of soil burn severity to changes in soil microbial properties.

Large increases in soil ammonium (NH₄⁺) concentrations have generally been observed after severe

wildfire or slash pile burning (Prieto-Fernández et al. 1993; Ellingson et al. 2000), whereas no clear pattern of response has been reported for changes in nitrate (NO₃⁻) concentration. However, very few studies have related these immediate changes to soil burn severity indicators (Romanyà et al. 2001) or fire intensity (Weston and Attwill 1990). Wan et al. (2001) summarized the available literature on the initial impact of fire on mineral forms of soil N, and concluded that in various terrestrial ecosystems soil NH₄⁺ and NO₃⁻ contents generally increased after burning, although specific information about the influence of burn severity was not considered. The immediate response of N mineralization following different types of fires is variable and there is not usually any clear pattern of response (see review by Smithwick et al. 2005), although again these studies did not specifically analyse the effect of fire severity.

In summary, the lack of a standard measurement of soil burn severity in previous studies makes it difficult to relate the changes in soil properties to fire severity. Moreover, some of the apparent divergent conclusions about the effects of fire on soil (e.g. Certini 2005; González-Pérez et al. 2004; Wan et al. 2001) may be due to the lack of appropriate characterization of soil burn severity during the soil sampling process. Therefore, exploration of the response of these properties to burn severity and the relationship between visual signs of burn severity and quantitative changes in selected properties is a research priority. If any such relationship exists, it would provide a very useful tool for land managers to help select and prioritize the most appropriate post-fire activities and to guide rehabilitation and restoration tasks.

In order to address the gaps in knowledge identified above, the main objective of the present study was to determine whether some proposed visual signs of soil burn severity, recognized in the field immediately after fire, are related to levels of changes in selected soil chemical and microbial properties.

Materials and methods

Study sites and sampling

The study was conducted in NW Spain, a region particularly affected by wildfires. In the period 2000–2011 approximately 10,000 wildfires occurred

every year in the region, representing 47 % of all forest fires occurring annually in Spain (Ministerio de Medio Ambiente, Medio Rural y Marino 2011). Eight sites affected by five different wildfires between 2006 and 2009 were selected for study. Three wildfires (Santa María-Alba, Serra de Outes and Pardoesa) burned in areas representative of the Atlantic-climate zone of NW Spain and the other two (Ferreirós and Piñor) in a transition zone between Atlantic and Mediterranean climates. The soil humidity and temperature regimes are Udic (rainfall distributed regularly throughout the year with a 2 months period of partial drought) and Mesic (mean frost-free period, 10 months), respectively.

Four of the sites were *Pinus pinaster* stands (namely P1–P4), and the other four were shrublands (S1–S4) (Table 1).

The soils are developed from granitic rocks, schist and shale, and classified as Humic or Distric Cambisols and Alumi-humic Umbrisols (IUSS Working Group WRB 2006). The texture of all eight soils is loam or sandy loam and all are well drained.

All soils had high SOC contents (9–12 %), very low pH (3.8–4.4) and low amount of extractable base cations (0.5–1.5 cmol_c/kg) and P (5–13 mg/kg). These values are characteristics of forest and shrubland soils developed on acid substrate of granite and schist bedrocks in Galicia.

Experimental design and measurements

Immediately after a wildfire event, a survey was conducted to confirm the availability of adjacent unburned areas. However, no similar unburned areas were found in the surrounding of two of the affected areas (P4 and S4). Between 1 and 3 days after the fires and before the first rainfall event, the approximate fire perimeter of the burned area was overlaid on a map of the area. For the wildfires affecting only shrubland vegetation (Pardoesa, Ferreirós and Piñor), a 200 m grid was overlaid on the map, and four or five randomly chosen intersection points in the grid were used to establish randomly oriented transects of length 150 m. For the large fire affecting Santa María and Alba (9,700 ha), the area covered by forest was previously delimited in an orthoimage; a grid of 1,000 m was overlaid on the map, and four or five randomly chosen intersection points in the grid were used to establish randomly oriented transects of length 150 m. Finally, for the Serra de Outes wildfire, the

areas covered by shrubland, sapling and pole stands were previously delimited in an orthoimage and the same sampling scheme as above was applied. On each transect, the soil burn severity level was visually estimated, at 5 m intervals, following a modified version of Ryan and Noste's (1985) classification (Table 2), and a numerical value was assigned to each level of fire severity. Soil sampling was conducted 3–7 days after fire (Table 1) and before the first rainfall event in the area. A very short and similar interval of time between fire and sampling (with no rainfall) was selected to minimize possible changes in soil properties due to the time elapsed. The length of time between fire event and soil sampling may have a profound impact on the strength of correlation between visual assessment and underlying soil properties. At each sampling point, the type (litter, fermentation and humus), condition (unburned, charred) and the thickness of remaining soil organic layer, when present, were systematically evaluated or measured, in a 30×30 cm sampling quadrat, by two trained observers who independently classified each sampling point. The mean values for each transect and site were calculated. In the forest stands, crown length scorched and percentage of crown length scorched were obtained by measuring the corresponding distances, with a laser hypsometer, for each tree within five circles of radius 8 m. The centres of the circles were uniformly spaced along each transect and a mean value was again calculated for the site (Table 3). The percentage of bare soil was calculated from the number of samples of soil burn severity levels 3–5 relative to the total number of samples. The mean frequency of presence of the different levels of soil burn severity in each site is shown in Table 4. The levels of soil burn severity at each site were listed, and four to five surface mineral soil samples (0–5 cm) for each burn severity level were taken at random. Soil samples were selected to be analyzed at the laboratory only when observations from two independent observers agreed. In those cases where less than four soil samples per level of burn severity were available, a supplementary transect was established; the respective sampling points were classified by burn severity level, and further soil samples were collected. At each sampling point, the upper 0–5 cm of the surface mineral soil was collected in a 30×30 cm sampler. The samples were transported to the laboratory for analysis in cooler insulated containers.

Table 1 Main characteristics of the unburned study sites located in *Pinus pinaster* stands (P1 to P4) and in shrubland areas (S1 to S4)

	Santa María (P1)	Alba (P2)	Serra de Outes (Pole size stands) (P3)	Serra de Outes (Sapling size stands) (P4)	Pardesoa (S1)	Serra de Outes (S2)	Ferreiros (S3)	Piñor (S4)
Location	Pontevedra	Pontevedra	A Coruña	A Coruña	Pontevedra	A Coruña	Lugo	Ourense
Altitude (m a.s.l.)	42° 27' 50" N 8° 37' 5" W 175–190	42° 29' 16" N 8° 37' 49" W 125–135	42° 50' 57" N 8° 59' 54" W 124–350	42° 50' 7" N 9° 2' 46" W 240–257	42° 30' 23" N 8° 17' 28" W 18–44	42° 50' 34" N 8° 59' 28" W 252–429	42° 36' 36" N 7° 10' 48" W 37–60	42° 31' 25" N 8° 4' 23" W 815
Slope (%)	8–56	19–46	12–48	20–39	18–44	26–50	37–60	30–36
Aspect (° N)	NE, WSW	E, WNW	E, W	SE, SW	N	E, SE	NE	SW
Wildfire date ^a	08/4/06	08/5/06	09/14/07	09/14/07	08/8/06	09/14/07	08/24/08	09/28/09
Soil sampling date ^a	08/7–8/06	08/9–10/06	09/18–19/07	09/19–20/07	08/11–12/06	09/20–21/07	08/27–28/08	10/1–2/09
Burned area (ha)	9,700	9,700	600	600	1,040	600	66	350
Dominant vegetation	<i>P. pinaster</i> ; <i>Ulex europaeus</i> , <i>Pteridium</i> sp., <i>Ulex minor</i> , <i>Erica umbellata</i>	<i>P. pinaster</i> ; <i>Ulex minor</i> , <i>Pteridium</i> sp., <i>Erica cinerea</i> , <i>E. umbellata</i>	<i>P. pinaster</i> , <i>Ulex europaeus</i> , <i>U. gallii</i> , <i>Erica umbellata</i>	<i>P. pinaster</i> , <i>Ulex europaeus</i> , <i>Calluna vulgaris</i> , <i>Erica umbellata</i>	<i>Ulex minor</i> , <i>Pteridium tridentatum</i> , <i>Erica umbellata</i> , <i>Halimium alyssoides</i>	<i>Ulex europaeus</i> , <i>Ulex gallii</i> , <i>Daboecia cantabrica</i> , <i>Calluna vulgaris</i> , <i>Erica umbellata</i>	<i>Erica arborea</i> , <i>Pterospartum tridentatum</i> , <i>Cytisus scoparius</i> , <i>Rubus</i> sp.	<i>Pterospartum tridentatum</i> , <i>Ulex europaeus</i> , <i>Halimium alyssoides</i> , <i>Erica umbellata</i> , <i>E. australis</i>
<i>P. pinaster</i> density (trees ha ⁻¹)	730	915	1,080 (314)	9,000 ^b (420)				
<i>P. pinaster</i> diameter a.b.h. (cm)	19.6 (6.9)	15.3 (3.0)	25.2 (4.4)	3.3 ^b (0.4)				
<i>P. pinaster</i> height (m)	13.0 (4.9)	11.0 (2.5)	14.4 (1.9)	2.7 ^b (0.9)				
Shrub stratum height (cm)	28 (14)	87 (25)	158 (47)		78 (14)	122 (31)	158 (85)	
Soil organic cover depth (cm)	6.3 (0.7)	6.9 (0.7)	6.6 (0.6)		6.7 (0.8)	6.9 (0.3)	4.5 (0.4)	
Bedrock	granite	granite	granite and granodiorite	granite and granodiorite	schists	granite and granodiorite	schists	Schists

^a Month/day/year; ^b Values of burned trees

Table 2 Soil burn severity (SBS) levels, including an unburned state, through the immediate post-fire soil and duff visual characteristics

SBS levels	Forest floor (Oi+Oe+Oa)	Mineral soil (Ah horizon)
0	No evidence of fire	No evidence of fire
1	Oa layer (lower duff) partially or totally intact.	Undisturbed
2	Oa layer totally charred and covering mineral soil. There may be ash.	Undisturbed
3	Forest floor completely consumed (bare soil). There may be ash.	Undisturbed. Soil structure unaffected. SOM not consumed. Surface fine roots not burned
4	Forest floor completely consumed (bare soil). There is no charred residue. Thick layer of ash.	Soil structure affected. SOM consumed in the upper layer. Surface soil colour altered (grey). Surface fine roots burned
5	Forest floor completely consumed (bare soil). There is no charred residue.	Soil structure affected. SOM consumed in the upper layer. Surface soil colour altered (reddish). Surface fine roots burned

Laboratory determinations

Soil samples were sieved (2 mm) immediately after arrival to the laboratory. Fresh soil samples were stored in polyethylene bags at 4 °C for no longer than 4–9 days for microbial determinations and 1–3 days for mineral N determinations. Air-dried soil samples were used for chemical analysis. In all cases, subsamples of soil were taken to determine moisture content gravimetrically (oven-dried for 24 h at 105 °C) and results were expressed on a dry soil basis. The pH value was determined in a suspension of soil in deionized water (1:2.5 w/v). Total C, N and S were analysed by dry combustion with a LECO Elemental Analyzer. Since the soil parent material at the study sites is non-calcareous, the total C corresponds to the total organic C.

Isotopic analyses were carried out at six of the eight sites, with an automated CN analyzer coupled to an isotope ratio mass spectrometer. Duplicate analyses were performed on all samples. The C isotopic composition was calculated relative to the Pee Dee Belemnite (V-PDB) standard. Stable isotope ratios of C are expressed

as the ratio of heavy-to-light carbon ($^{13}\text{C}/^{12}\text{C}$), using conventional delta notation ($\delta^{13}\text{C}$), in parts per thousand: $\delta^{13}\text{C} = 1,000 \left[\left(\frac{R_{\text{sample}}}{R_{\text{standard}}} \right) - 1 \right]$, where R_{sample} is the ratio $^{13}\text{C}/^{12}\text{C}$ in the sample and R_{standard} is the ratio $^{13}\text{C}/^{12}\text{C}$ in the standard V-PDB.

Soil respiration was determined by estimation of the CO_2 emission from fresh soil samples incubated for 24 h at 22 °C in an automated impedance meter (BacTrac 4300, SY-LAB GmbH, Austria). The CO_2 output from the soil was determined by KOH absorption and subsequent changes in conductivity. Microbial biomass C (C_{mic}) was determined by the substrate-induced respiration (SIR) method, according to the criteria of Anderson and Domsch (1978). This technique involves the addition of glucose to a soil sample and measurement of the microbial respiratory response that occurs immediately prior to the onset of microbial growth. The initial respiratory response can be related to C_{mic} by the equation $y=40.04x+0.37$, where y is mg biomass C.100 g soil $^{-1}$ and x is the substrate-induced respiration in mL $\text{CO}_2\cdot\text{h}^{-1}\cdot 100\text{ g soil}^{-1}$ (Anderson and Domsch 1978). This equation has been

Table 3 Mean values and standard deviations (in brackets) of soil burn severity (SBS) levels and post-fire soil organic layer depth, bare soil and characteristics of trees of the study sites for each column

	P1	P2	P3	P4	S1	S2	S3	S4
Average SBS level	2.9 (0.4)	3.4 (0.6)	2.3 (1.0)	2.7 (0.5)	4.2 (0.2)	3.2 (0.3)	2.0 (0.7)	4.0 (0.2)
Remaining organic layer depth (cm)	0.8 (0.6)	1.0 (1.0)	2.8 (1.6)	–	0.0 (0.0)	0.6 (0.1)	1.7 (0.9)	–
Percentage of bare soil (%)	72.6 (8.7)	71.8 (19.8)	38.7 (12.6)	54.9 (11.8)	87.6 (6.8)	67.6 (10.6)	28.8 (7.7)	87.44 (7.7)
Crown scorch height (cm)	11.1 (4.4)	8.5 (2.4)	13.4 (1.3)	2.5 (0.1)	–	–	–	–
Percentage of crown length scorched (%)	72 (11)	65 (20)	72 (14)	100 (0)	–	–	–	–

Table 4 Mean frequency of presence of the different soil burn severity (SBS) levels at each site

SBS level	P1	P2	P3	P4	S1	S2	S3	S4
1	10.5 (2.7)	9.7 (3.1)	32.3 (36.7)	8.1 (6.8)	6.3 (3.9)	10.0 (5.0)	53.8 (29.2)	6.3 (4.4)
2	16.9 (12.8)	18.5 (7.3)	29.0 (19.6)	37.1 (22.1)	6.3 (3.9)	22.5 (11.6)	17.5 (13.9)	6.3 (6.3)
3	47.6 (5.5)	26.6 (29.5)	16.1 (15.1)	35.5 (20.9)	6.3 (3.9)	30.0 (14.5)	12.5 (11.9)	9.4 (7.0)
4	20.2 (12.0)	19.4 (29.1)	15.3 (15.1)	12.1 (8.8)	15.0 (7.5)	18.8 (10.5)	8.8 (6.4)	35.9 (5.2)
5	4.8 (5.2)	25.8 (8.0)	7.3 (10.0)	7.3 (2.7)	66.3 (8.5)	18.8 (6.8)	7.5 (4.7)	42.1 (9.1)

successfully applied to a variety of highly organic forest soils (Anderson and Domsch 1993; Wardle 1993). Glucose was added to soil samples, to a final concentration of 5 mg glucose g⁻¹ dry soil, and mixed thoroughly with the soil. The glucose concentration was determined in previous tests. The biomass specific respiration rate, also known as the metabolic quotient (qCO₂) (Anderson and Domsch 1993) was calculated by dividing the basal respiration (BR) by Cmic. The rate of microbial C biomass to SOC was also calculated.

Phosphatase activity was assayed by the method of Tabatabai (1982), modified by Trasar-Cepeda et al. (2003). The analysis involved the measurement of *p*-nitrophenol released during 30 min of incubation at 37 °C with *p*-nitrophenyl phosphate (14 mM) as substrate, buffered to sustain the reaction mixtures at pH 5.0 for the acidic soils under study (the optimum conditions were determined in preliminary tests). Acid phosphatase activity was measured as µg *p*-nitrophenol formed g⁻¹ d.w.h⁻¹.

For the study of extractable soil mineral N concentrations and N mineralization rates, three study sites were considered, since logistic problems precluded conducting the respective analysis for all sites. The NH₄⁺ and NO₃⁻ were extracted with 2 M KCl, according to Mulvaney (1996), and measured with a flux injection analyzer (FIAsstar 5000, Foss Tecator, Denmark). To estimate the N aerobic mineralization capacity, duplicate soil sub-samples were adjusted to 80 % of water filled pore space and incubated at 25 °C for 10 days. The net ammonification and nitrification rates were calculated respectively as the difference between the values of NH₄⁺ and NO₃⁻ present before and after incubation. The net mineralization rate was the sum of the ammonification and nitrification rates. To determine the N mineralization potential, the anaerobic incubation method of Waring and Bremner (1964) was used. Briefly, 5 g of soil and 12.5 ml of water were

placed in a tube, sealed with a stopper, and incubated at 40 °C for 10 days. The concentrations of NH₄⁺ and NO₃⁻ were then determined after extraction with 4 M KCl.

All results are expressed on an oven-dry soil basis.

Statistical analysis

A multifactorial ANOVA was used to test the effect on each soil parameter of two factors: soil burn severity and site. This revealed a significant qualitative interaction between these factors in most of cases. This precluded generalization of the results for all sites and severity levels. Consequently, a series of one way ANOVAs was performed for each soil parameter and for each site. Normality and homogeneity of variance assumptions were tested by the Shapiro-Wilk W-test and the Levene test, respectively. Kruskal-Wallis and Mann-Whitney U non-parametric tests were used in the event of failure of either of these tests. When the ANOVA indicated a significant difference, the Student-Newman-Keuls multiple range test was used to determine which of the means were significantly different.

The ordinary linear regression technique was used to examine the relationships between soil properties.

Discriminant analyses were performed to identify the most useful parameters for classifying burn severity classes. In the first approach, soil burn severity classes 1–5 were considered in relation to the following variables: pH, extractable K+Ca+Mg and P, SOC, N, SOC/N, basal respiration -BR-, microbial C biomass -Cmic-, Cmic/SOC, BR/Cmic and phosphatase activity. In a second version, microbial variables were excluded because they are not routinely determined in laboratory analyses. Thirdly, additional analyses were conducted (to include N mineralization data), with NO₃⁻ concentration and nitrification log-transformed data. In this case, the data set was reduced to 45 samples (because only three sites were studied).

Finally, another approach was used in which only three levels of soil burn severity were considered (low = 1+2, moderate = 3 and high = 4+5). Three levels may be more realistic from a practical point of view, as in the post-fire field evaluations many soil observations must be categorized and time saving is an important factor. Again, two variations were used in the analysis, one considering microbial and chemical variables and the other considering only chemical variables.

A stepwise procedure was used to retain the most significant variables for discrimination of the visual levels of soil burn severity. The Mahalanobis D^2 measure was applied to estimate the discriminant function. This procedure is based on a generalized squared Euclidean distance (which adjusts for unequal variances: Hair et al. 2005). This statistical analysis constructs a predictive model of group membership based on the observed characteristics of each sample. A cross-validation testing procedure was performed to assess the ability of the selected variables to predict soil burn severity (SBS) at the eight sites. Differences were tested with forward-entered variables using $F=3.84$ for entering and $F=2.71$ for removal. Differences were considered significant at $p=0.05$ (Hair et al. 2005). Tolerance values were examined to test for multicollinearity in the Discriminant analyses. When the values were below 0.30, the variable was excluded from the analysis.

All data were processed with SPSS v.13.0 software (SPSS 2004).

Results

Soil pH and available nutrients

At all sites, the pH increased with the level of soil burn severity (SBS) in the uppermost mineral layer (0–5 cm), (Fig. 1a). However, there were no changes in the pH of soils affected by fires of low and moderate intensity (SBS 1, 2 and 3). In the most severely burned soils (SBS 4 and 5), the pH increased by more than 1.5 units, so that the pH ranged between 5.3 and 6.3. The levels of extractable base cations (Fig. 1b) increased following the same trend as pH, with the greatest increases in the concentrations of Ca (data not shown). The extractable P generally increased with SBS (Fig. 1c), except at two sites where there was a relative decrease in P content at the highest level of soil burn

severity. For the maximum burn severity (5), and coinciding with the highest pH values, the P contents of all eight soils were higher than 50 mg kg^{-1} (except P3, with values of 36 mg kg^{-1}).

Soil organic C, N and C/N ratio and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$

In all eight soils the initial SOC was higher than 9 %. The SOC always decreased with fire severity (Fig. 2a). In the soils affected by moderate levels of SBS (levels 2 and 3) relative decreases of between 0 and 57 % were observed related to controls. In the most severely burned soils (level 5 of SBS), the soil lost between 54 and 86 % of the SOC, and contents as low as 2 % were recorded in some soils.

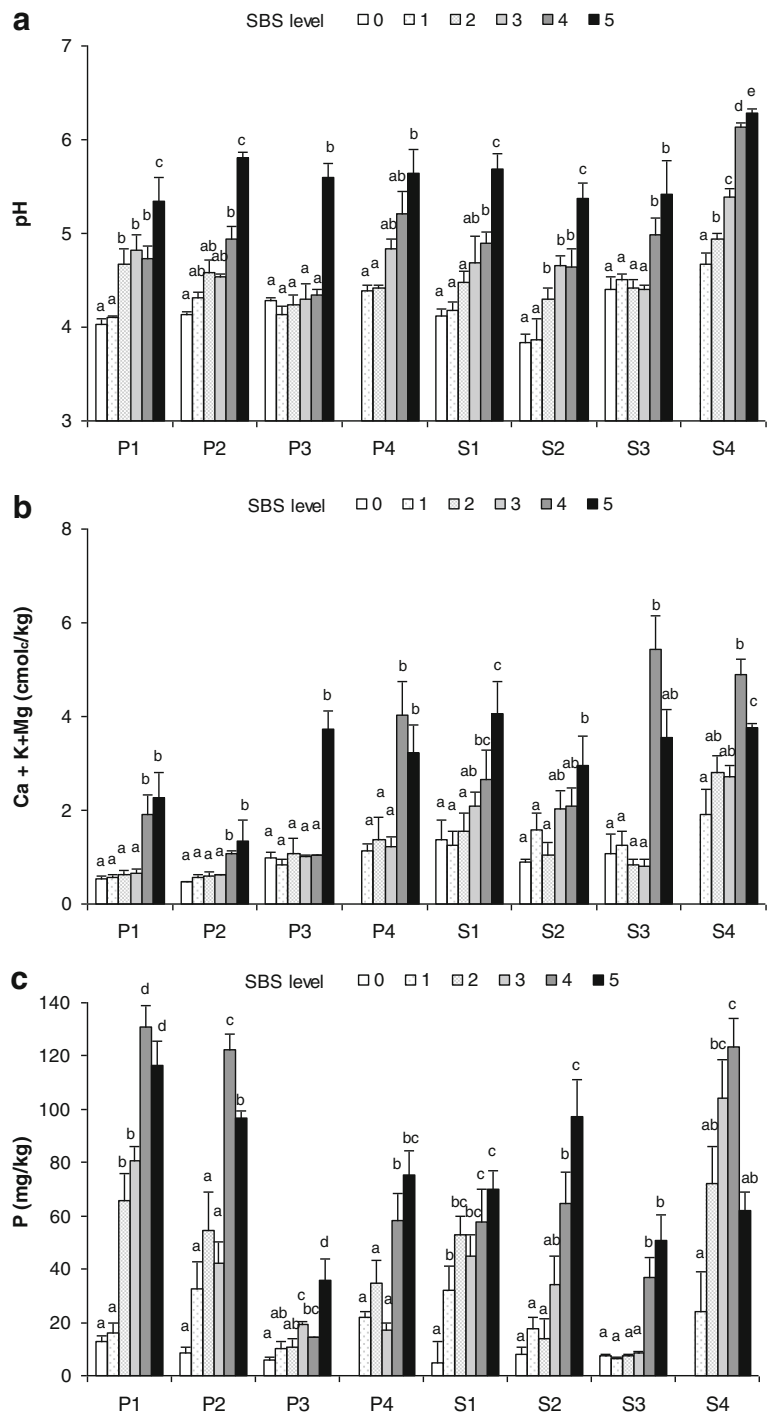
The changes in soil organic N with fire severity (Fig. 2b) followed a similar trend to SOC, although the N losses were lower for the highest level of SBS. Accordingly, the C/N ratio remained fairly constant in the soils affected by fires of low and moderate intensity. Some soils affected by moderate levels of SBS exhibited slightly higher C/N ratios. This parameter only decreased in the most severely burned soils (Fig. 2c). Thus, levels lower than 10 were recorded in 4 of the soils, reflecting the increased C loss with respect to N for high levels of burn severity.

Soil $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values in the unburned soils varied within a narrow range of between -26.7‰ and -27.6‰ (Fig. 2d). Although the responses differed in the soils studied, a common pattern was observed. The $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ levels remained unchanged in the soils affected by low and moderate levels of SBS but increased (less negative values) in the two highest levels of fire severity (SBS 4 and 5). Nevertheless, the relative increases of between 1 and 13 %, corresponding to 0.3 and 4% of absolute increases, were much lower than the total SOC losses.

Soil biological properties (microbial biomass, soil respiration and acid phosphatase)

Soil basal respiration (BR) (Fig. 3a) and microbial biomass C (Cmic) (Fig. 3b) decreased greatly, and the effect was proportional to the SBS. In the most severely burned soils (level 5), the Cmic decreased by between 48 and 93 %. Soil respiration followed a similar trend, with decreases of between 39 and 83 %.

Fig. 1 **a** Soil pH, **b** extractable soil nutrients (sum of Ca, K, Mg; cmol_e/kg and **c** extractable P; mg/kg) for different soil burn severity (SBS) levels at each study site. Bars represent standard errors. Different letters indicate significant differences ($p < 0.05$) among SBS level at each study site



However, the changes in C_{mic}/SOC (Fig. 3c) were rather different. For low-moderate levels of SBS (2 and 3), C_{mic}/SOC was not affected in any of the soils from the eight sites. Although the response was rather variable, large decreases were observed in soils

affected by the highest SBS level, with relative decreases as high as 82 % for site S1.

The metabolic quotient (qCO_2) (Fig. 3d), followed a similar trend; it was rather constant for low and moderate burn severities, and in certain soils

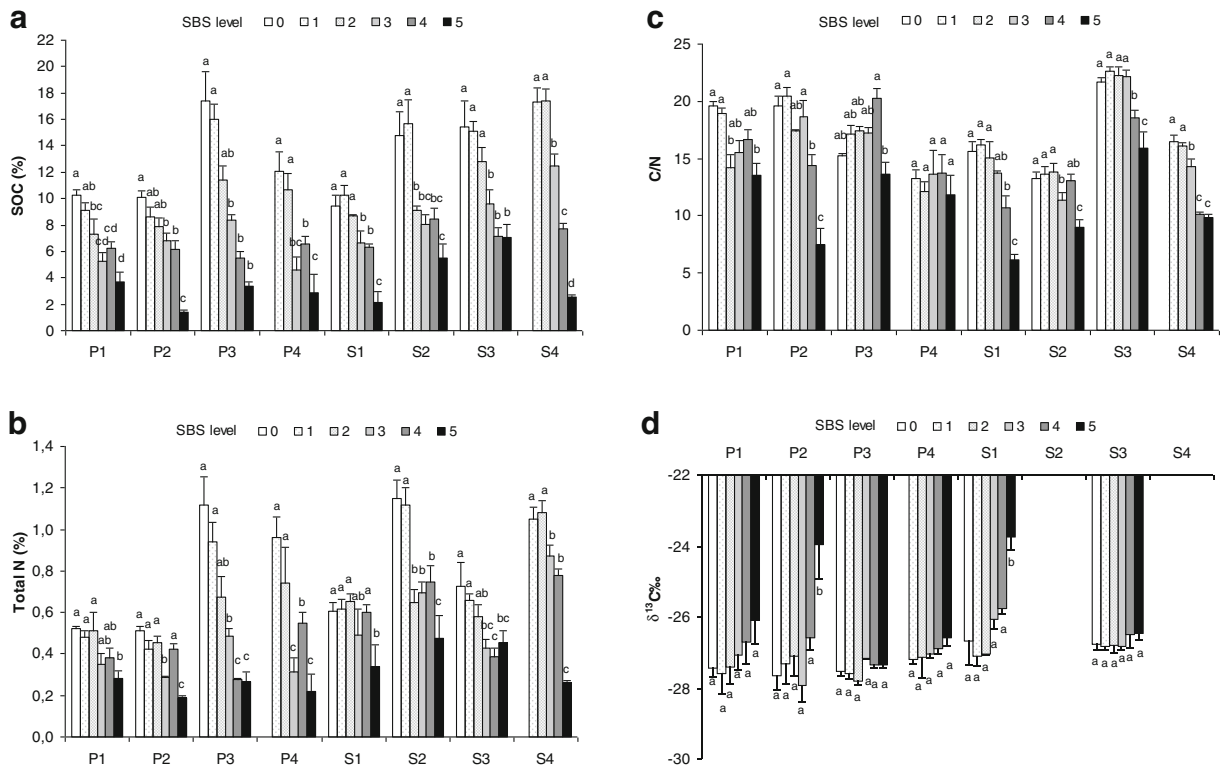


Fig. 2 **a** Soil organic Carbon (SOC), **b** total N, **c** C/N rate and **d** $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values for different soil burn severity (SBS) levels at each study site. Bars represent standard errors. Different letters indicate significant differences ($p < 0.05$) among SBS level at each study site

(coinciding with the lower $\text{C}_{\text{mic}}/\text{SOC}$) increased greatly (up to 5 times the values in the unburned soils) in soils affected by the highest level of SBS (5).

Unlike these parameters, phosphatase activity (Fig. 3e) decreased gradually from a moderate level of SBS (2) upwards. Decreases of between 67 and 99 % were recorded in the highest SBS level (5).

Mineral N and N-transformations

The concentration of NH_4^+ in soil increased with fire severity (Fig. 4a). NO_3^- (Fig. 4b), occurred at much lower concentrations than NH_4^+ and showed little response to fire severity. Coinciding with the increases in NH_4^+ , the ammonification rates (Fig. 4c) decreased and reached negative values (immobilization) at the highest levels of burn severity. Nitrification rates (Fig. 4d) were low and the changes in relation to fire severity were not clear. The N mineralization rates (ammonification plus nitrification) also decreased with fire severity (Fig. 4e) and the greatest effect was observed for the three highest levels of burn severity,

in which immobilization was detected. The potential mineralization (Fig. 4f) increased with fire severity in the three sites studied.

Stepwise discriminant analysis

The first discriminant analysis (Model 1), including the five burn severity classes and all microbial and chemical variables (with the exception of $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and mineral N) showed that phosphatase activity, pH and SOC was the best combination of variables to discriminate the different levels of severity observed in the field. Three functions, which explained respectively 96 %, 3 % and 1 % of the total variability, were obtained. The standardized discriminant function coefficients (Table 5) indicate a slightly greater contribution of phosphatase activity in the model. The analysis correctly classified 64 % of the samples. The percentage of agreement ranged from 55 % for level 3 to 74 % for level 1 (Table 6). When the microbial variables were excluded (Model 2), two functions were obtained (Table 5). SOC and pH were the variables selected and

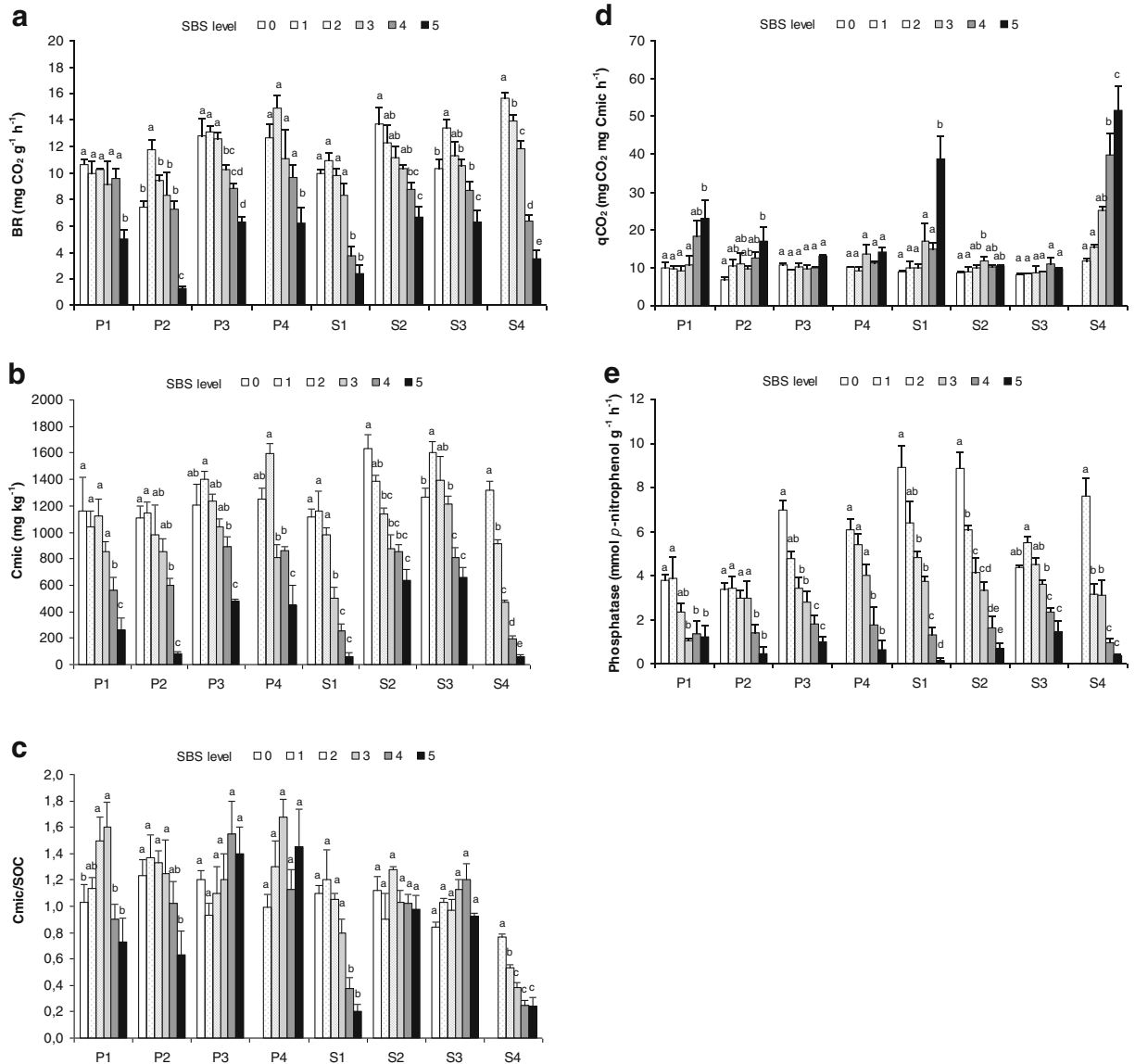


Fig. 3 **a** Basal respiration (BR), **b** microbial biomass C (Cmic), **c** Cmic/SOC rate, **d** metabolic quotient (qCO₂; BR/Cmic) and **e** acid phosphatase activity for different soil burn severity (SBS)

levels at each study site. Bars represent standard errors. Different letters indicate significant differences ($p < 0.05$) among SBS level at each study site

51 % of the samples were correctly classified. The analysis including N mineralization data did not improve the accuracy of these results.

When three levels of burn severity classes (1+2 = low, 3 = moderate and 4+5 = high) were taken into account in the discriminant analysis (Model 3) and microbial and chemical variables were considered (with the exception of $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and mineral N), phosphatase activity, pH and SOC were again selected. Two functions, which explained respectively 97 and 3 % of

the variance, were obtained. The standardized discriminant function coefficients (Table 5) showed similar values to those obtained in model 1. This analysis correctly classified 76 % of the samples. The highest percentage of misclassification occurred in relation to the highest level of burn severity (Table 7). The function obtained misclassified these samples (SBS 3) and included them in the moderate level of burn severity (SBS 2) in 26 % of instances. Finally, when the microbial variables were not included, SOC, pH and the sum of

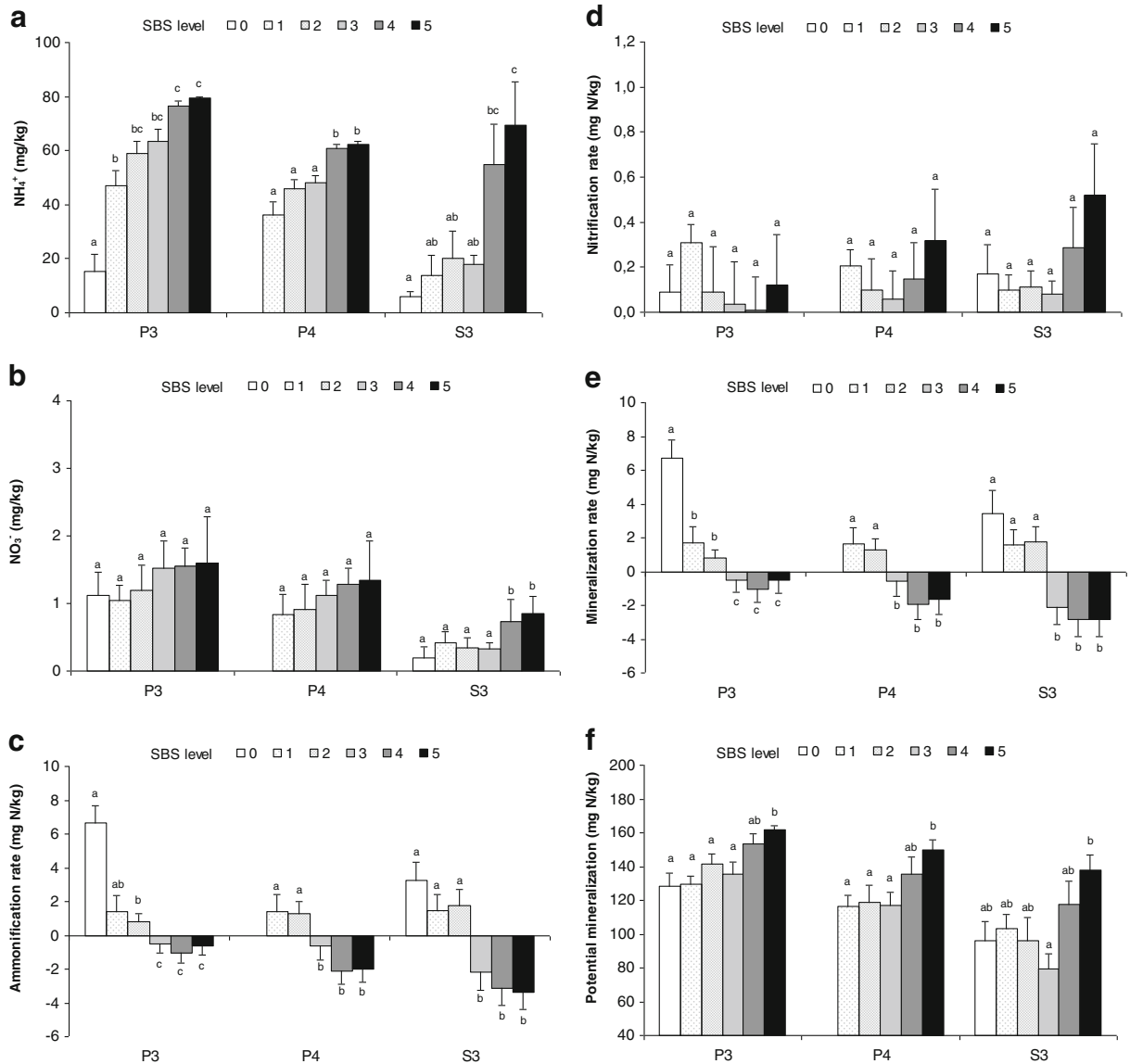


Fig. 4 **a** Concentration of ammonium (NH_4^+) and **b** nitrate (NO_3^-), **c** ammonification rate, **d** nitrification rate, **e** mineralization rate and **f** potential mineralization, for each soil burn

severity (SBS) level at each study site. Bars represent standard errors. Different letters indicate significant differences ($p < 0.05$) among SBS level at each study site

extractable $\text{Ca} + \text{K} + \text{Mg}$ were selected by the discriminant analysis 70 % of the samples were correctly classified. In this case, the standardized discriminant function coefficients (Table 5) indicated a greater contribution of SOC in the model and 70 % of the samples were correctly classified. The highest rate of misclassified samples (33 %) was obtained for burn severity level 3.

Discussion

Soil chemical properties

The progressive increase in soil pH with soil burn severity appears consistent with the response to elevated soil temperatures frequently observed in laboratory experiments (Giovannini 1994; DeBano et al.

Table 5 Standardized discriminant function coefficients, resulting from a stepwise discriminant analysis performed on five (Model 1 and 2) and three (Model 3 and 4) levels of soil burn

	Model 1			Model 2		Model 3		Model 4	
	Function			Function		Function		Function	
	1	2	3	1	2	1	2	1	2
SOC	0.49	-0.41	0.82	0.73	0.69	0.45	0.70	-0.77	0.51
pH	-0.47	0.70	0.56	-0.70	0.72	-0.42	0.82	0.43	0.18
PHO ^a	0.57	0.84	-0.26			0.54	0.01		
CAT ^b								0.35	0.67

^a PHO: acid phosphatase activity

^b CAT: sum of extractable Ca, K, Mg

1998; Hatten and Zabowski 2010), and in the few field studies in which fire severity was measured (Kennard and Gholz 2001; Goforth et al. 2005).

The highest concentrations of cations were generally associated with the highest levels of burn severity, although the response was rather heterogeneous in the different soils. This was observed even though soil samples were collected immediately after the fire and before any rainfall, in order to minimize any possible effects of loss of ashes by wind and to avoid leaching of cations through rainfall. Other authors did not find any variations in soil extractable cations immediately after experimental fires (Johnston and Elliott 1998; Vose et al. 1999) or few months after (Marion et al. 1991) linked to fire severity. The mineral ash characteristics might influence the observed variability, because its composition may broadly vary between fires as a complex function of the initial composition of fuel, its consumption, temperature regime during burning, oxygen supply level and other still unknown factors (Khanna and Raison 1986; Úbeda et al. 2009; Pereira and Úbeda 2010; Pereira et al. 2012). The relative decrease in P content in relation to the highest SBS (level 5) in two of the soils (P2 and S4) may be due to the strong binding of P forms by chemisorption to Al, Fe and Mn oxides (Certini 2005) or to the formation of Ca phosphates (Giovannini et al. 1990). In fact, Saá et al. (1993) described an increase in the fractions of P bound to Fe and Al in severely burned soils in the region. Although P volatilization may also have occurred in some of these soils, this does not appear to

severity with both chemical and microbial variables (Model 1 and 3) and chemical variables only (Model 2 and 4)

be a major mechanism in the present study, given the relatively high volatilization temperature (700 °C) of this element (DeBano et al. 1998; Neary et al. 2005),

Soil organic C, N and C/N ratio and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$

The gradual decrease in SOC with soil burn severity observed in this study may have been favoured by the relatively high SOC contents of the soils. This response contrasts with that frequently observed after wildfires in drier Mediterranean-type soils with lower initial SOC (Almendros et al. 1988, 1990; Gimeno-García et al. 2000). Decreases only for the most severe fires have been observed in field (Kutiel and Naveh 1987; Tomkins et al. 1991; Kennard and Gholz; 2001; Goforth et al. 2005) and

Table 6 Classification accuracies of the stepwise discriminant functions performed on five soil burn severity (SBS) levels including chemical and microbial variables. Values are the percentage classification

	SBS level	Predicted group membership				
		1	2	3	4	5
Original group	1	74.3	22.9	2.9	0	0
	2	14.3	64.3	17.9	3.6	0
	3	3.2	19.4	54.8	22.6	0
	4	0	2.8	16.7	58.3	22.2
	5	0	0	0	32.3	67.7

Values shown in **bold type** represent correct assignments

Table 7 Classification accuracies of the stepwise discriminant functions performed on three soil burn severity (SBS) levels, including chemical and microbial variables. Values are the percentage classification

	SBS level	Predicted group membership		
		1	2	3
Original group	1	77.0	23.0	0
	2	11.4	80.0	8.6
	3	0	26.2	73.8

Values shown in **bold type** represent correct assignments.

laboratory experiments (Hatten and Zabowski 2010; Fontúrbel et al. 2011).

The significant depletion in organic N with fire severity is consistent with that frequently observed in burned soils, especially after very severe fires (Ellingson et al. 2000; Certini 2005). The present results are also consistent with the results of meta-analysis, which did not reveal any changes in total N concentration after fires of low severity (Wan et al. 2001; Nave et al. 2011).

The decrease in C/N ratios observed only in the most severely burned soils agrees with the findings reported by Fernández et al. (1999) for similar types of soil affected by severe wildfires. This is also consistent with a higher rate of C loss with respect to N observed after wildfires (Johnson et al. 2004). The slight increases in C/N found in some soils subjected to moderate levels of SBS may reflect the accumulation of recalcitrant organic forms in charred material (Knicker et al. 2005).

The $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values in the unburned soils are in accordance with those observed for forest soils in the region ($-27.0\text{‰} \pm 0.2\text{‰}$; Fernández et al. 2004). The increases in $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ found only in the most severely burned soils might reflect the preferential volatilization of the lighter isotope at such high temperatures (Saito et al. 2007). An alternative explanation is that there is not discrimination at all due to burning and the level of organic C is not interfering the mass spectrometry analysis. Anyway, the response of stable isotope signature of SOM to fire is still a matter of debate (Certini et al. 2011). The absence of changes in $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ for low severity burned soils agrees with that observed in wildfires by Saito et al. (2007) and Certini et al. (2011) where not significant changes in SOC

content were also detected. Therefore, our results suggest that $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ is unlikely that it would be an adequate indicator to discriminate soil burn severity levels.

Soil biological properties (microbial biomass, soil respiration and phosphatase activity)

The Cmic clearly responded to burn severity, in contrast to previous observations of no notable changes in soils affected by fires of low severity (Fontúrbel et al. 2012). Post-fire decreases in Cmic have been also observed after very severe fires by Prieto-Fernández et al. (1998) and Andersson et al. (2004) and attributed to direct heat-induced microbial mortality and lack of a C source (Choromanska and DeLuca 2001; Andersson et al. 2004; Hart et al. 2005; Díaz-Raviña et al. 2012). The slight increases in Cmic and BR, distinguished for low levels of burn severity, were consistent with other results observed in fires of low-moderate intensity (Andersson et al. 2004; D'Ascoli et al. 2005; Hatten and Zabowski 2010).

Interestingly, the decrease in Cmic/SOC and BR, and the increases in qCO_2 , only found in the most severely burned soils, suggest that soil microbial growth was limited only at these levels of SBS. This may be due to the lack of the most labile C fractions and the macromolecular condensation of organic compounds conferring resistance to microbial attack (Almendros et al. 1988, 1990; González-Pérez et al. 2004). In addition, soil biota may also be negatively affected by certain organic pollutants (Kim et al. 2003) and heavy metals (Pereira and Úbeda 2010) produced by the combustion process.

The observed decrease in soil acid phosphatase activity in fires of moderate and high levels of SBS is consistent with results reported for severe wildfires (Saá et al. 1993; Hernández et al. 1997) and experimental soil heating (Serrasolsas and Khanna 1995), and which were attributed to thermal denaturalization, SOM alterations, microbial biomass losses and increased inorganic P (Saá et al. 1993; Hernández et al. 1997). Conversely, after low-severity prescribed fire in shrubland, the enzyme activity was only slightly reduced or not affected, which was attributed to a low level of soil heating (Saá et al. 1993; Boerner et al. 2000).

Mineral N and N-transformations

The increase in NH_4^+ with soil burn severity is consistent with that found immediately after severe fire (e.g. Andreu et al. 1996; Romanyà et al. 2001; Notario del Pino et al. 2008), and with the minor changes observed after low intensity fires in shrubland (Díaz-Fierros et al. 1990; Carreira and Niell 1995).

The lack of any immediate post-fire response in NO_3^- concentration to burn severity agrees with the findings of other field studies (e.g. Weston and Attiwill 1990; Knoepp and Swank 1993). Although other authors have reported increases in nitrate in relation to fire severity (Romanyà et al. 2001), such changes were more dependent on the type of vegetation than on fire severity.

The observed decrease in ammonification and N-mineralization rates with fire severity is consistent with that observed by Romanyà et al. (2001) in experimentally burned grasslands. Fernández et al. (2009) observed that fire severity had a negative effect on net N-mineralization after slash burning in similar types of soils. However, increases in N-mineralization have also been reported after severe fires in shrubland (Romanyà et al. 2001). The low but highly variable levels of nitrification measured in this study probably made it impossible to distinguish between levels of fire severity. Knoepp and Swank (1993) also did not find any response of nitrification to fire severity in field experiments.

The increase in anaerobic mineralization in relation to the highest levels of burn severity is consistent with that observed by Weston and Attiwill (1990), Choromanska and DeLuca (2001).

Statistical evaluation of soil burn severity classes

In the previous ANOVA, the three variables selected by the first (including 5 levels of SBS) and third (including 3 levels of SBS) discriminant models had already shown a response to soil burn severity, suggesting that these were more suitable than the other parameters as regards reflecting different levels of perturbation in soil, compared with the rest of parameters explored. The percentages of correctly classified samples obtained with these models are similar to those reported by Brais et al. (2000), who found that use of thickness of the L horizon and the pH of the forest floor correct classification of 87 % of cases. Note that these authors only considered two levels of burn severity (slight/moderate and severe), and for the highest level of burn severity, the forest floor

was still partially present. This was different from the present study, in which bare soil was present in 52 % of samples. Lewis et al. (2006), who considered three levels of burn severity and used percentage of litter cover and exposed mineral soil for classifying variables, obtained an overall agreement of 56 %. The above findings suggest a tendency for the percentage of correctly classified soil samples to increase when the number of soil burn severity levels decreases. However, in the present study, although the overall agreement with the field classes was apparently higher when three levels of burn severity were considered, detailed scrutiny of the data revealed that 26 % of the most severely burned samples were classified by the discriminant analysis as moderately burned samples. This partly limits the applicability of this approach. In contrast, when five levels were considered, the percentage of misclassified samples, which changed from the highest (4 and 5) to moderate severity levels (2 and 3), was relatively low (19 %). Moreover, misclassifications between severity levels 4 and 5 are not problematic from a practical point of view, as this would not appreciably affect the selection of high priority areas for rehabilitation.

Another approach to fire severity evaluation, based only on the degree of consumption of plants (Notario del Pino et al. 2008), failed to classify moderately burned soil samples, characterized by the concentration of water-soluble nutrients, whereas very severe fires were consistent with high levels of changes in those chemical variables.

Usefulness of visual indicators of soil burn severity for management of burned areas

The availability of a relatively simple and rapid field tool for evaluating the degree of soil burn severity is critical for post-fire management decision making processes. Such information is particularly necessary in fire-prone environments under rainy climate and steep terrain, where the hydrological and erosive impact following fire is more pronounced and also where post-fire salvage logging effects may be magnified by soil burn severity.

The proposed visual classification system appears applicable to temperate climate areas in both forests and shrublands. While the system based on three levels of severity is apparently more practical, it may result in more samples being misclassified (as regards the highest levels of burn severity) than with the system based on five levels. The latter system is currently used in Galicia,

after by trained staff, as an operational tool for the assessment of the impact caused by wildfires and the selection of the priority areas for rehabilitation treatments.

Conclusions

The study demonstrated that the proposed soil burn severity categories, based on visual signs, are useful for inferring the degree of degradation of important soil chemical and microbiological properties, reflecting the changes in soil quality in burned soils. Furthermore, the results showed reasonably good agreement between those levels, based on visual signs, and those indicated by changes in relevant chemical and microbial properties. These findings may also help in the development of future better tools based on more refined indicators for evaluating soil burn severity. Further research should be addressed to test the suitability of soil burn severity indicators to reflect gradual changes in physical soil variables, given the critical role played by these variables in post-fire soil erosion susceptibility and in the selection of appropriate rehabilitation treatments.

The present study focused on soils in a humid temperate climate and in Atlantic-Mediterranean climate transitional zones. Although the relation between burn severity and soil properties found in the present study may be similar in other climates, specific characterization of the soil properties associated with visually recognizable soil burn severity classes should be carried out for different ecosystems.

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