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Effects of deforestation on phosphorus pools in mountain soils of the Alay Range, Khyrgyzia

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Abstract The amount, quality and turnover of soil P is heavily influenced by changes in soil management. The objective of this study was to investigate the effects of deforestation and pasture establishment on the concentrations, forms and turnover rate of soil P in mountain soils of the Alay Range, Khyrgyzia. A sequential extraction was applied to distinguish soil P pools. We used particle-size fractionation to follow the dynamics of different P pools in soils under forest and pasture and ³¹P-NMR spectroscopy to investigate the structure of alkali-soluble P forms. In the A horizons of the forest soils, total soil P concentration was 1093 mg kg⁻¹, organic P (P_0) representing 46% of the total P. Deforestation followed by pasture establishment not only increased significantly (P < 0.01) the total P concentration $(1560 \text{ mg kg}^{-1})$ but also the contribution of P_o to total P was increased by 17%. Pasture soils had significantly higher P pools than forest soils except highly labile inorganic P (P_i NaHCO₃) and primary P_i (P_i HCl_{dil}). Both in forest and pasture soils stable P increased with decreasing particle size (coarse sand 50%, clay 80% of total P) and primary P decreased with decreasing particle size. Phosphate monoesters and diesters represented 80% of P identified by ³¹P NMR. Low monoester to diester ratios in the alkali extracts of forest and pasture soils indicate low microbial activity. This is consistent with high C/P_o ratios and high stable P_o concentrations in the fine earth of forest and pasture.

Key words Effects of deforestation · Mountain soil · Particle-size fractionation · Phosphorus fractionation · Phosphorus pools

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Introduction

In natural ecosystems, the concentrations and chemical nature of soil organic P (P_o) are mainly determined by a combination of the major soil-forming factors: time, parent material, climate, topography and organisms (Smeck 1985). The distribution of P in different organic and inorganic forms reflects the history, present structure, and function of an ecosystem (Magid et al. 1996). The nature and dynamics of soil organic matter (SOM) and associated nutrients, including P, in the soil is different under different kinds of land use. The study of the dynamics of soil P deals with overall changes in the concentrations and chemical nature of P, which results from the cumulative effects of continued annual or seasonal nutrient cycling processes. The latter includes a combination of chemical and biological processes which control the balance between P immobilisation and P_o mineralisation. Even though Po undergoes extensive stabilisation in soils, there is also an active turnover of P_o fractions (Magid et al. 1996). The long-term dynamics of Po in the soil environment are closely related to the dynamics of organic C, N and S (Stewart and Tiessen 1987). Despite recent advances, a great deal remains to be understood about the nature and dynamics of soil P_{o} and principally the relationships between the cycling of P_o and other soil organic constituents and nutrients (Magid et al. 1996; Turrión et al. in press).

A sequential fractionation has been used to separate plant-available or labile forms of P from various refractory P pools in soils (Tiessen and Moir 1993). In this manner, the fractions chemically less resistant to hydrolysis, which are thought to have greater bioavailability and turnover in the soil system, are separated from stable inorganic (P_i) and P_o fractions. The advantage of this fractionation is that information can be obtained about short- and long-term P availability by quantifying P_o and P_i fractions of varying degrees of availability to plants (Schmidt et al. 1997), although ecological interpretations of these chemically defined fractions are

Table 1 Interpretation of different forms of phosphorus following the sequential extraction procedure proposed by Tiessen and Moir(1993)

P form	Extracts	Interpretation
Highly labile P_i Highly labile P_o Moderately labile P_i	P _i (NaHCO ₃) P _o (NaHCO ₃) P _i (NaOH)	Readily plant-available P (Wager et al. 1986) Labile P _o , easily mineralisable (Bowman and Cole 1978) Minus plant-available P, associated with amorphous and some crystalline
Primary P _i Stable P _i	$\begin{array}{l} P (HCl_{dil}) \\ P (HCl_{conc}) + P residual \end{array}$	Ca-associated P P derived from not alkali-extractable organic debris (Tiessen and Moir 1993; Magid et al. 1996); highly recalcitrant P (Cross and Schlesinger
Stable P _o	P_{o} (NaOH) + P_{o} (HCl)	More stable form of P_{o} , involved in long-term transformations (Bowman and Cole 1978; Tiessen and Moir 1993)

controversial (Cross and Schlesinger 1995). Our terminology (Table 1) was based on the work of Tiessen and Moir (1993) and the literature review of Cross and Schlesinger (1995). On the other hand, the procedure suggested by Tiessen and Moir (1993) does not provide information on the structural composition of the various forms of P in soil (Guggenberger et al. 1996a). Since the work of Newman and Tate (1980), ³¹P NMR analysis has been used in studies to examine the structural composition of alkali-soluble P (Hawkes et al. 1984; Condron et al. 1985).

Physical fractionation of soil according to particle size combined with degradative chemical techniques has shown to be a potent tool for evaluating land-useinduced changes in SOM (Guggenberger et al. 1994). This fractionation is based on the concept that SOM fractions associated with particles of various size classes and mineralogical composition differ in structure and function and, therefore, play different roles in SOM turnover (Tiessen and Stewart 1983; Anderson and Paul 1984; Christensen 1992). Particulate organic matter (POM) is assumed to be associated with the sand fraction, SOM with medium-term turnover with the clay fraction, and SOM with long-term turnover with the silt fraction (Guggenberger et al. 1995; Zech and Guggenberger 1996; Glaser et al., in press).

The objective of this study was to investigate effects of deforestation followed by pasture establishment on concentration, forms, and turnover of soil P in mountain soils of the Alay Range, Khyrgyzia.

Materials and methods

The study site is located in the Alay Range, Khyrgyzia (40°02'N; 72°39'E) at about 3000 m above sea level; the climate is semiarid with mean annual precipitation of 900 mm and mean annual temperature of -0.1 °C. The parent material consists of granitic and granodioritic rocks. Soils can be classified as Borolls. They are, generally, stratified with silty surface horizons and sandy loamy subsurface layers, with high stone content, especially on steep slopes. The natural forest is dominated by *Juniperus turkestanica*. Most of the stands were cleared but recently the remaining relicts have been heavily disturbed by grazing and uncontrolled logging, despite being protected.

To investigate the effects of deforestation on different P pools, we selected according to a radial sampling scheme (Wilding 1985) undisturbed samples of humus layers of the forest stands and five mineral undisturbed soil samples from the A horizon (0–10 cm). Samples were collected after removal of the organic forest floor below the canopy of dense Juniper microstands. For comparison, five mixed pasture soil samples (0–10 cm) were selected from about 150–200 m spacing from forest stands having the same inclination, aspect, and parent material. Soil samples were taken from the A horizon because P changes due to deforestation were expected in this superficial horizon.

Particle-size separation

From each sample, the fine earth (<2 mm) and the following particle-size fractions were analysed separately: coarse sand (250–2000 μ m), fine sand (20–250 μ m), silt (2–20 μ m) and clay (<2 μ m). The procedure was carried out as described by Glaser et al. (in press).

Sequential extraction and P analyses

A sequential extraction similar to the procedure of Tiessen and Moir (1993) was done to distinguish between different soil P pools extracted from A horizons of forest and pasture soils and their particle-size fractions. Briefly, 0.25 g of soil was extracted sequentially by adding 15 ml of 0.5 M NaHCO₃, 0.1 M NaOH, 1 M HCl and shaking for 16 h. The supernatant of each extract was filtered through an ashless filter after centrifugation at 8000 rpm for 10 min. Then 15 ml of 10 M HCl was added and the samples were heated for 10 min at 90 °C and incubated at room temperature for 1 h. Then suspensions were filtered through an ashless filter and the bottles rinsed with 20 ml of deionised water. The soil residue was combusted for 16 h at 560 °C and subsequently shaken for 16 h with 15 ml of 0.5 M H₂SO₄. From each extract, a 1-2 ml aliquot was used for P_i determination according to a modified molybdenum-blue method of Murphy and Riley (1962). In each extract total P was determined using ICP-OES and P_o was calculated by difference.

Total P, total P_o and total P_i in the soil samples and humus layers were determined according to Saunders and Williams (1955).

³¹P-NMR spectroscopy

 31 P NMR analysis was used to obtain information on the structural composition of alkali-soluble P. Extracts for 31 P-NMR analysis were obtained using the method of Newman and Tate (1980). For this purpose, 6.7 g of finely ground samples (<2 mm) were dispersed ultrasonically with 90 ml of 0.5 M NaOH and the suspension was centrifuged at 10,000 rpm for 120 min at 0 °C. The resulting supernatant was concentrated to about 2 ml at 40 °C in a rotary evaporator, then 1 ml of D₂O was added. ³¹P-NMR spectra were recorded on a Bruker AM 500 NMR spectrometer (11.7 T; 202.5 MHz) without proton decoupling at a temperature of 280 K. An acquisition time of 0.1 s, a 90° pulse and a relaxation delay of 0.2 s were used. The spectra were recorded with a line-broadening factor of 20 Hz. Chemical shifts were measured relative to 85% H₃PO₄ in a 5 mm tube inserted into a 10 mm sample tube before the measurement of each sample. Peak assignments were according to Newman and Tate (1980) and Condron et al. (1990). Intensities of signals were determined by integration. The mean signal to noise ratio was 66 for the most intensive peak and 10–14 for the less intensive peaks.

Total P in the 0.5 M NaOH extract was determined after ignition (550 °C, 16 h) and dissolution of the residues in 0.1 M H_2SO_4 , P_i was measured directly in the extracts, and P_o in these fractions was calculated as the difference (Saunders and Williams 1955). In all cases, P was analysed by a modified molybdenum-blue method of Murphy and Riley (1962).

Statistical analyses

All data were statistically analysed using Excel 8.0 or Statistica 5.1 for WinNT 4.0. Data were tested for normality using the David test. The homogeneity of the variances of the normally distributed data was tested with an *F*-test. Significant differences between the mean measurements among forest and pasture were tested subsequently with an adequate *t*-test (Hartung et al. 1993; Sokal and Rohlf 1995). The non-parametric *U*-test (Mann-Whitney) was applied for these samples unless the prerequisites for the *t*-test were accomplished (Sokal and Rohlf 1995). Differences between size fractions within one land use system were tested with MANOVA followed by a Scheffé test. Logarithmic transformation was applied if data were not normally distributed or the variances were heterogeneous.

Results and discussion

Effects of deforestation on concentration and forms of P

Total P concentrations in the fine earth of A horizons of forest and pasture soils were 1093 mg kg⁻¹ and 1566 mg kg⁻¹, respectively (Table 2). P_o represented 46% of total P in forest soils and 63% in pasture soils. Deforestation followed by pasture establishment not only increased significantly (P < 0.01) the total P concentration but also the contribution of Po to total P was increased by 17%. Our experimental sites in the Alay Range of Khyrgyzia may have been enriched with P due to the accumulation of animal excrement. Despite the fact that forest grazing plays an important role, the animals spend most of their time on pasture land depositing there high amounts of excrement. Similar total P concentrations were reported by Guggenberger et al. (1996a) in spruce and mixed deciduous forest soils in the prealpine region of Bavaria, P_o comprising 70% of total P, whereas Magid (1993) reported Po representing 15% of total P in beech forest soils in Denmark. Condron et al. (1996) found a significant decrease in soil P_{0} concentration in New Zealand soils under Pinus radiata compared with soils under grass, suggesting that the presence of P. radiata stimulates net mineralisation of

Table 2 Concentrations and standard deviations (n=5) of different P_o and P_i pools in fine earth from forest and pasture soils in [mg P kg⁻¹]. Relative contribution in [%] of each P form to the total P. Significant differences between forest and pasture are indicated by * P < 0.05, ** P < 0.01, *** P < 0.001, *ns* not significant cant

	Forest	Pasture	
P _i (NaHCO ₃)	33 ± 11	40 ± 9	ns
P _o (NaHCO ₃)	57 ± 9	376 242 ± 30 159/	***
Pt (NaHCO ₃)	90 ± 10	13.76 282 ± 20 18%	***
P _i (NaOH)	30 ± 3	61 ± 5	**
P _o (NaOH)	275 ± 25	477 ± 38	**
P _t (NaOH)	305 ± 14	50% 538 ± 21 34%	***
P (HCl _{dil})	340 ± 85 31%	153 ± 24	***
P _i (HCl _{conc})	127 ± 58 12%	1078 222 ± 27 14%	**
Po (HClconc)	12.76 171 ± 45 16%	1470 285 ± 89 18%	**
P _t (HCl _{conc})	298 ± 52	507 ± 58	***
Presidual	60 ± 3	32.76 86 ± 11	***
P _{total}	1093 ± 111	1566 ± 157	**

soil P_o which may be attributed to elevated levels of phosphatase enzymes from mycorrhizal fungi (particularly ectomycorrhiza) associated with tree roots.

Total P amounts were 1.3 ± 0.1 Mg P ha⁻¹ dm⁻¹ in forest soils compared to $2.1 \pm 0.4 \text{ Mg}^{-1} \text{ P} \text{ ha}^{-1} \text{ dm}^{-1}$ in pasture soils, indicating a P accumulation of about 44% after deforestation. It is of interest to note that this accumulation corresponds principally to Po, whose content in forest soils was 0.5 ± 0.1 Mg P ha⁻¹ dm⁻¹ and in pasture soil 1.2 ± 0.3 Mg P ha⁻¹ dm⁻¹, but not to P_i $(0.8 \pm 0.2 \text{ Mg P ha}^{-1} \text{ dm}^{-1} \text{ in forest soil and } 0.9 \pm 0.2 \text{ Mg})$ P ha⁻¹ dm⁻¹ in pasture soil). Considering the incorporation of organic matter of the litter and humus layers into the mineral A horizon of the deforested soil when pasture was established, the accumulation of P in the pasture soil is 35%. On the other hand, pasture installation led to a loss of about 30% total organic carbon (TOC) and to an accumulation of about 20% of N compared to the native Juniperus turkestanica forest stands (Glaser et al. in press). The different pattern of soil P after deforestation in comparison to TOC and N is possibly due to the preferential stabilisation of reactive P groups with soil components or due to the fact that P is recycled more conservatively than C and N, which are more easily lost by leaching and volatilisation.

Interpretation and concentrations of different organic and inorganic forms of P in the fine earth of the investigated soils are shown in Tables 1 and 2, respectively. The differences in the concentrations of highly labile P (P_t NaHCO₃) between forest and pasture soils

the particle-size groups showed the same tendency in soils under forest and pasture (Table 4). All P pools ex-

cause we observed no significant differences in the concept the primary P were enriched in the clay fraction. centrations of highly labile P_i (P_i NaHCO₃) between P assumed to be chemiabsorbed to amorphous and forest and pasture soils (Table 2). This is probably due crystalline Al and Fe oxides (P_i NaOH) was about to the incorporation of P_0 from animal excrement into three times higher in the clay fraction compared to the the topsoil horizon under pasture, and also may explain silt fraction and to the fine earth, and seven times the higher contribution of highly labile P (P_t NaHCO₃) greater compared to the coarse sand and fine sand fracto total P of pasture (18%) in comparison to forest soils tion (Table 4). These results corroborate the common interpretation of this P_i pool of lesser plant availability The concentration of Ca-associated P (Pi HCldil) was and stabilised by oxides (Cross and Schlesinger 1995) significantly (P < 0.001) higher in the topsoil horizon of and consisting mainly of surface adsorbed P_i. The highest amounts of this P_i pool are therefore found in the forest than in the pasture soil, representing 31% of total P in forest and only 10% in pasture soils (Table 2). finest particle-size fractions which have a high specific This indicates a higher contribution of P_i from primary surface area (Tiessen et al. 1983). These trends are the minerals in the forest soil. A lower pH of 5.6 in the pasopposite of those observed with primary P (P HCl_{dil}), ture soil caused a progressive weathering of Ca-bound which was depleted in the clay fraction, indicating

> chemical weathering. Stable P_i (P HCl_{conc} + P residual) was enriched in the small particle-size fractions containing stable SOM (Table 4). This P pool is considered to be highly recalcitrant (Cross and Schlesinger 1995). The concentration of P extracted with hot concentrated HCl (P HCl_{conc}) was significantly (P < 0.05) higher in the clay fraction of forest and pasture soils than in all other fractions (Table 3). This fraction was interpreted by Tiessen and Moir (1993) as being derived from particulate organic debris, which is not alkali extractable but the hot acid would break up cellulose in the residual fraction and release P (Magid et al. 1996). Consequently an enrichment of P HCl_{conc} was expected in the coarse sand fraction, since there is a high fine root and litter debris input as a source of POM. Therefore we can conclude that this interpretation for P HCl_{conc} is not adequate and more studies are necessary to interpret it correctly.

> As can be seen in Fig. 1, about 80% of total P in the clay fraction was represented by stable P both in forest and pasture, decreasing with increasing particle size, reaching about 50% in the coarse sand fraction. The percentage contribution of primary P to total P decreased with decreasing particle size both in forest and pasture.

> The ratio of total organic C to $P_o(C/P_o)$ was used to estimate the mineralisation potential of P_o (Dalal 1977; Guggenberger et al. 1996b). As can be seen in Table 5, the C/P_0 ratio of forest soil is almost three times greater than that of the pasture soil. The C/P_0 ratio tended to



NaOH + Po HCl



In order to follow the dynamics of P within the soil, P pools were determined in particle-size fractions (Table 3).

were mainly due to P_o (P_o NaHCO₃) representing 72%

of this pool in forest soil and 90% in pasture soil, be-

P from primary P minerals. Tiessen et al. (1984) and

Sanyal and Datta (1991) found that soils with high pH

values tend to have lower proportions of P in easily ex-

tractable organic and inorganic forms, and relatively

higher acid P contents due to the higher P solubility at

lower pH. In addition, input of Ca-phosphates by dry

deposition in the forest ecosystem may play an important role in this semiarid environment with pronounced

The pasture soils had significantly (P < 0.01) higher

concentrations of stable P_i (P_i HCl_{conc} + P residual)

compared with the forest soils (Table 2). The relative

contribution to total P, however, was about 20% in

HCl) was significantly (P < 0.01) higher in pasture than

in forest (Table 2), representing almost 50% of total P

The concentration of stable P_o (P_o NaOH + P_o

deflation and significant dust emissions.

both soils (Fig. 1).

in both soils (Fig. 1).

P pools related to SOM turnover

(8%).

To eliminate the effects of different total P levels in fine earth, the enrichment ratios for the different P forms, $E_{P-form} = (mg P-form kg^{-1} separate)/(g P-form)$ kg⁻¹ fine earth) were calculated for each particle size separately. In general, the repartition of P pools within

Table 3 Concentrations and standard deviations (n=5) of different P pools in particle-size fractions from forest and pasture [mg P kg⁻¹]. *Cs* Coarse sand (250–2000 µm); *Fs* fine sand (20–250 µm); silt (2–20 µm); clay (<2 µm). Significant differ-

ences between forest and pasture are indicated by * P < 0.05, ** P < 0.01, *** P < 0.001, ns not significant. Different letters indicate significant differences (P < 0.05) between different size fractions within one land use system

	Land use	Cs	Fs	Silt	Clay
P _i (NaHCO ₃)	Forest Pasture	36±8 a 62±14 a	$23 \pm 2 b$ 27 ± 3 b	33 ± 8 ab 33 ± 4 b	$57 \pm 15 \text{ a}$ $64 \pm 17 \text{ a}$
P _o (NaHCO ₃)	Forest Pasture	25±4 a 227±53 a **	$16 \pm 2 \text{ ab}$ 71 ± 11 b ***	12±3 b 149±13 c ***	$66 \pm 18 \text{ c}$ $355 \pm 57 \text{ d}$ ***
P _i (NaOH)	Forest Pasture	18±4 a 45±14 ab *	$17 \pm 4 a$ $40 \pm 14 a$ *	32±9 b 58±7 b	$104 \pm 27 c$ $176 \pm 25 c$ *
P _o (NaOH)	Forest Pasture	131±46 a 341±39 a **	118±29 a 250±55 a *	151±37 a 262±32 a *	501±171 b 1225±97 b **
P _i (HCl _{dil})	Forest Pasture	376±53 b 194±37 b **	297±97 ab 160±22 b ns	480±23 c 154±23 b ***	162±20 a 98±4 a ***
P _i (HCl _{conc})	Forest Pasture	165±11 a 69±11 a **	$98 \pm 28 \text{ b}$ $86 \pm 8 \text{ b}$	130 ± 34 ab 133 ± 39 b	$243 \pm 37 c$ $306 \pm 18 c$ *
$P_o (HCl_{conc})$	Forest Pasture	12±2 a 198±143 a *	$45 \pm 12 \text{ b}$ 101 ± 32 a *	$110 \pm 51 \text{ ab}$ 86 ± 42 a	$443 \pm 32 c$ $527 \pm 35 b$ *
P residual	Forest Pasture	44±16 a 69±11 a	53 ± 28 a 71 \pm 3 a	$141 \pm 2 a$ 230 ± 130 b	$244 \pm 53 \text{ b}$ $404 \pm 115 \text{ b}$
P total	Forest Pasture	807±44 a 1205±225 a **	667±147 a 806±195 b ns	1089±73 b 1105±69 b ns	$1820 \pm 396 c$ $3155 \pm 125 c$

Table 4 Enrichment factors for different P forms in particle-size fractions in A horizons of forest and pasture. *Cs* Coarse sand (250–2000 μ m); *Fs* fine sand (20–250 μ m); silt (2–20 μ m); clay (<2 μ m)

	Land use	Cs	Fs	Silt	Clay
P _i labile	Forest	1.1	0.7	1.0	1.7
	Pasture	1.6	0.7	0.8	1.6
P _i moderately labile	Forest	0.6	0.6	1.1	3.5
1	Pasture	0.7	0.7	1.0	2.9
P _o labile	Forest	0.4	0.3	0.2	1.2
C	Pasture	0.9	0.3	0.6	1.5
P _i stable	Forest	1.1	0.8	1.4	2.6
	Pasture	0.4	0.5	1.2	2.3
P _o stable	Forest	0.3	0.4	0.6	2.1
C	Pasture	0.7	0.5	0.5	2.3
P _i primary	Forest	1.1	0.9	1.4	0.5
	Pasture	1.3	1.0	1.0	0.6

decrease with decreasing particle size, being much higher in the forest soil. According to Dalal (1977), P_o mineralisation occurs at C/P_o ratios of <200, and P immobilisation occurs when the ratio rises up to >300. Both fine earth and all size separates of pasture showed C/P_o ratios <200, indicating P mineralisation and those of forest had C/P_o ratios >250 (except clay), indicating P immobilisation. Low C/P_o ratios were observed for the clay fractions (Table 5), indicating P mineralisation. This is in accordance with a lower C/N ratio and higher concentrations of amino sugars found by Glaser et al.

Table 5 Carbon to phosphorus ratios (C/P_o) in fine earth and particle-size fractions of soils under forest and pasture

	C/P _o		
	Forest	Pasture	
Fine earth	263	93	
Coarse sand	721	134	
Fine sand	669	211	
Silt	375	145	
Clay	172	65	

(in press) in clay than in all other fractions for the same mountain soils, indicating a higher microbial impact in clay fraction.

³¹P-NMR analysis of alkali extracts

³¹P-NMR analysis was applied to investigate the structure of alkali soluble P forms. Figure 2 shows representative NMR spectrum of the alkali extracts of forest and pasture soils and their particle-size fractions. To facilitate comparisons between soils, signal intensities of NMR spectra were converted to amounts of alkali-extractable P on the basis of total P contents of the extracts as measured by chemical analysis. Different P compounds were probably extracted by alkali to a dif**Fig. 2** Representative ³¹P-NMR spectrum of the alkali extracts of forest and pasture soils and their particle-size fractions



ferent extent, so the results cannot be used to calculate the amounts in the soil (Newman and Tate 1980).

Signals at $\delta = 3.0-6.2$ ppm were due to orthophosphate monoester, a group comprising inositol phosphates, sugar phosphates and mononucleotides. Diester signals at $\delta = 1.0-2.0$ ppm may arise from teichoic acid, an orthophosphate diester which consists of sugar units linked by phosphate groups (Condron et al. 1990). Orthophosphate diesters, e.g. phospholipids and DNA (Newman and Tate 1980), resonated at $\delta = 0.0-0.2$ ppm. Signals accounting for P_i peaked at $\delta = 6.5$ ppm (orthophosphate) and $\delta = -4.4$ ppm (pyrophosphates).

The relative proportions of P_i (sum of orthophosphate and pyrophosphate) and P_o determined by ³¹P-NMR and chemical analysis were similar both for fine earth and all particle-size fractions of forest and pasture (Table 6). The relative contribution of P_i (about 16%) and P_o (about 84%) were comparable in all particle-size fractions of forest and pasture (Table 6).

Table 6 Relative proportions [%] of P_i and P_o in 0.5 M NaOH extracts determined by chemical analysis and ³¹P NMR spectroscopy

	P _i		Po		
	Chem.	NMR	Chem.	NMR	
Forest					
Fine earth	11	8	89	92	
Coarse sand	12	6	88	94	
Fine sand	13	18	87	82	
Silt	18	16	82	84	
Clay	20	23	80	77	
Pasture					
Fine earth	12	16	88	84	
Coarse sand	18	15	82	85	
Fine sand	15	21	85	79	
Silt	20	25	80	75	
Clay	21	17	79	83	

Table 7 Concentrations and standard deviations (n=2) of different P forms measured as ³¹P NMR in fine earth and particle-size fractions of forest and pasture [mg P kg⁻¹]. Relative contribution

[%] of each P species to the total NaOH extractable P in brackets. *tr* Trace

	Land use	Fine earth	Coarse sand	Fine sand	Silt	Clay
Ortho phosphate	Forest	$22 \pm 2(8)$	$12 \pm 1(6)$	$30 \pm 3(18)$	$32 \pm 9(16)$	$211 \pm 17(21)$
	Pasture	$107 \pm 17(15)$	$67 \pm 4(14)$	$88 \pm 2(20)$	$111 \pm 19(24)$	$256 \pm 44(15)$
Monoester	Forest	$168 \pm 1(63)$	$115 \pm 7(62)$	$105 \pm 7(63)$	$132 \pm 4(65)$	$625 \pm 57(62)$
	Pasture	$481 \pm 46(66)$	$300 \pm 14(65)$	$277 \pm 12(66)$	$285 \pm 11(62)$	$1149 \pm 3(67)$
Teichoic acid	Forest	$31 \pm 1(12)$	$26 \pm (14)$	$15 \pm 1(9)$	$23 \pm 5(11)$	$98 \pm 12(10)$
	Pasture	$64 \pm 2(9)^{2}$	$47 \pm 1(10)$	$39 \pm 3(9)$	$36 \pm 2(8)$	$149 \pm 15(9)$
Diester §	Forest	$41 \pm 2(15)$	$32 \pm 5(17)$	$9 \pm 1(5)$	$13 \pm 5(6)$	$27 \pm 3(3)^{2}$
0	Pasture	$47 \pm 3(7)^{2}$	$38 \pm 3(8)$	$23 \pm 2(5)$	$17 \pm 1(4)$	$90 \pm 17(5)$
Pyrophosphate	Forest	tr (0)	tr (0)	tr (0)	tr (0)	$20 \pm 9(2)$
	Pasture	$6 \pm 1(1)$	$7 \pm 1(1)$	$5 \pm 1(1)$	$6 \pm 2(1)$	$30 \pm 4(2)$
Unknown	Forest	$5 \pm 1(2)$	$3 \pm 1(1)$	$2 \pm 1(1)$	$3 \pm 1(2)$	$24 \pm 3(2)$
	Pasture	$14 \pm 1(2)$	$6 \pm 1(1)$	$4 \pm 1(1)$	$6 \pm 2(1)$	$45 \pm 11(3)$
Monoester/diester	Forest	2.3	2.0	4.5	3.7	5.0
	Pasture	4.3	3.6	4.5	5.4	4.8

§ Without teichoic acid

The ³¹P-NMR spectra revealed the same forms of P in the forest and pasture soils. As can be seen in Table 7, the concentrations of different P forms in the fine earth and in all particle-size fractions of pasture were always higher than in forest soils.

Pyrophosphate was found only in small concentrations in all investigated samples comprising a maximum of 2% of NaOH-extractable P in the clay fraction. According to Condron et al. (1985), pyrophosphate can originate from hydrolysed organic esters. Therefore, we conclude that hydrolysis due to extraction and sample preparation was negligible.

Both in the fine earth and in all particle-size fractions of forest and pasture soils, monoester P was the dominant P species, representing about 65% of NaOHextractable P in the fine earth and in all particle-size fractions of forest and pasture. The concentrations of monoester P, however, were two to three times higher in fine earth and particle-size fractions of pasture than in forest soil. The highest concentrations of monoester P were observed in the clay fraction. The high charge density of monoesters (e.g. inositol phosphates) allows rapid adsorption on soil minerals, and extensive interaction with sesquioxides that protect free inositols from degradation (Tate 1984).

Phosphodiesters comprising teichoic acid, phospholipids, and DNA represented 27% of NaOH-extractable P in the fine earth of forest and 16% in pasture. Phosphodiesters have low charge densities and their phosphate groups are shielded from ionic interactions. This leaves them accessible to microbial or enzymatic attack in the soil environment (Tate 1984) and explains the small proportions present in the investigated soils. Guggenberger et al. (1996a) showed that alkali-extractable phosphodiesters represent a pool of P_o that is readily available for microbial mineralisation. Phosphodiesterase catalyses the reaction of degradation of nucleic acids, and this soil enzyme has its optimum activity at buffer pH 8.0 (Browman and Tabatabai 1978). Persistence and accumulation of phosphodiesters has been shown to occur in soils where microbial activity is restrained due to acidity, waterlogging or low temperature (Makarov et al. 1995). Thus, in acid or wet soils phosphodiesters represent between 10% and 36% of alkali-extractable P (Makarov et al. 1995), while in neutral, well-drained soils the percentage of phosphodiesters is frequently <10% (Condron et al. 1985). The percentages of alkali-extractable phosphodiester obtained in the present study reflect relatively low microbial activity probably due to the low mean annual temperature in these mountain soils.

The concentration of teichoic acid is about two times higher in the fine earth and in all particle-size fractions of the pasture soils compared with the forest soils. Its relative contribution to the total NaOH-extractable P, at about 10%, is comparable in both soils. Teichoic acid is found only in the cell walls of gram-positive bacteria, which make up from 20% to 40% of the dry weight of the cell walls (Zelles and Alef 1995) and can account for 85% of the total P (Anderson et al. 1977). Gehorn et al. (1984) used teichoic acid as a biomarker to estimate the biomass of gram-positive bacteria in soils and sediments. Therefore, teichoic acid belongs to the active P pool in soils.

The different P species identified by ³¹P-NMR spectroscopy can be characterised with regard to microbial degradability. Hinedi et al. (1988) showed that the diester P fraction (including teichoic acid) may be converted relatively quickly to P_i in favourable soil environments, while monoester P is much more stable. The ratio of monoester to diester P was 2.3 for forest soils and 4.3 for pasture soils (Table 7). Ratios cited in the literature vary between 1 and 20 (Hawkes et al. 1984; Condron et al. 1990; Guggenberger et al. 1996b). The increase of the ratio of monoester to diester P in the pasture soil suggests that levels of labile P_o species decrease after deforestation and subsequent establishment of pasture. This result was consistent with the higher C/P_o ratios measured in pasture soils (Table 6).

The ratio of monoester to diester increased with decreasing particle-size fraction (Table 7). Stabilisation of microbial metabolites by association with clay minerals and oxides and hydroxides (Sanyal and de Datta 1991) may protect the diester P in the clay fraction from mineralisation and explain the higher monoester to diester ratios observed in this fraction compared with other size fractions.

Conclusions

On the basis of our results it may be concluded that intensive pasture affects soil P pools, and thus soil fertility. P introduced into the pasture soil via animal excrement was distributed between all P pools except highly labile P_i (P_i NaHCO₃) and primary P_i (P_i HCl_{dil}). Stable P was mainly stabilised in the clay fraction. ³¹P NMR spectroscopy reflects low microbial activity, which is probably due to the low mean annual temperature in these mountain soils. An ecological interpretation of chemically defined P pools was possible in spite the fact that different interpretations exist in the literature. However, the interpretation for P HCl_{conc}, as derived from particulate organic debris, which is not alkali extractable but where the hot acid would break up cellulose in the residual fraction and release P, is not adequate.

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