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STUDIES ON PRIMARY PRODUCTION, NUTRIENTS AND DECOMPOSITION IN A MOWN GRASSLAND ECOSYSTEM

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ABSTRACT

The effects of mowing intensity and cessation of mowing on ecosystem structure and function in a semi-permanent grassland are studied, with particular application to amenity grasslands. Intensive mowing leads to increased investment in below-ground plant components in the second year after commencement of mowing. Large production following cessation of mowing leads to large surface accumulations of litter which limit grasses but favour the proliferation of forbs. Litter decomposition rates are strongly influenced by a combination of repeated wetting and drying and faunal activity.

Seasonal biomass dynamics of vegetation components are examined. Fluctuations of N, P, K, Ca, Mg, Na, Mn and Zn concentrations vary between plant components and according to mowing regime and are related to dry matter fluctuations. Nutrients are poorly conserved by grass communities and less than 5% of total ecosystem nutrients are contained within the vegetation, and less than 1% per annum are removed by mowing.

Below-ground components are studied in detail, as roots, rhizomes and a detached root fraction. The root system is categorized and its turnover and contribution to the detritus is considered. Earthworm studies indicate that populations are not enhanced by surface litter accumulations, although their activities can decrease root production without impeding aerial production and affect breakdown of below-ground components.

KEYWORDS: Amenity Grasslands, Mowing, Roots, Nutrients, Litter, Earthworms.

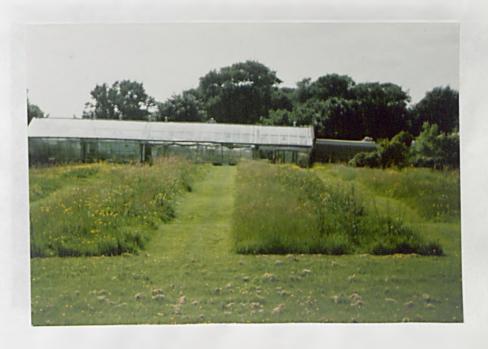
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PLATES 1 & 2: Botanic Garden site, showing strip-mowing regime (SG, MG and LG). The flattest section of the site, nearest to the glass-houses, was used for the main sampling programme.





PLATES 3 & 4 : Adjoining paddock site (PAD) (above). Surface accumulations of litter lead to the development of tussock vegetation (below).



PLATE 5: Adjoining paddock (PAD) in June 1979, showing large above-ground proliferation of tall grasses (particularly Alopecurus pratensis) and forbs (particularly Rumex acetosa).



PLATE 6: 7 mm mesh litter bags (15 cm x 15 cm) positioned above the vegetation (air zone). Bags were positioned at different levels in the vegetation.

DEFINITIONS OF TERMS

Ash-free dry weight

Oven-dry weight excluding the residue left after combustion of the oven-dry sample at 500°C.

Biomass

Total dry weight or ash-free dry weight of a living plant component at a given time.

Standing crop

Total dry weight or ash-free dry weight of a given living and/or dead plant component at given time.

Nutrient pool

The amount of a given nutrient, expressed as g.m.⁻², of a given plant components or of soil. Soil pools are calculated to 10 cm. depth.

Capital Turnover Mean biomass on an annual basis. The ratio of nett primary production to mean biomass (P/B).

Plant Components

Grass(es)

Above-ground living portions of grasses including leaf sheaths, blades, stolons and flowering parts.

Litter

Dead plant remains attached to or detached from the living plant.

Roots

All visible below-ground parts of plants separated after washing, but before flotation, and excluding rhizomes.

Rhizomes

Underground stems separated after washing including a small proportion of stem bases.

Detached roots

The fraction of plant material which can be separated by flotation after all visible roots and rhizomes have been removed.

Root system

Taken to include roots, rhizomes and detached roots.

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Grasslands form a dominant feature of the British landscape, representing a plagioclimax vegetation dependent upon grazing or mowing for their continued existence. Species structure, management and utilization vary considerably, together with substratum, topography and climate. Temporary and permanent grasslands account for 62% of the agricultural acreage in England and Wales, and receive 32% of the fertilizers applied to land (Coppock, 1976). They are often characterized by pure swards or low diversity mixed swards, but include large areas of upland pasture. Permanent pasture and rough grazing cover well over half of the total land surface in Britain (Duffey et al., 1974).

The remaining grassland areas of recreational, functional and aesthetic value, and of which agricultural productivity is not the primary aim, have been classified as amenity grasslands (NERC., 1977). They have been identified as a major natural resource with considerable potential for exploitation (Rorison and Hunt, 1980). Amenity grasslands are widely scattered over 4% of the British Isles, mainly in lowland regions, and range from intensively managed areas, such as sports turves, to road verges and semi-natural grasslands in country parks and nature reserves (Rorison, 1980). Extensively managed areas account for 75% of amenity grasslands, many of which were created and once maintained as part of the agricultural economy (Green, 1980).

Spedding (1971) described the ecology of agricultural grasslands and Duffey $et\ al.$ (1974) discussed the history, classification, biological characteristics and management of semi-natural grasslands in the lowland areas of England. Hutchinson and King (1980) considered management

impacts on the structure and function of sown grasslands, and Harper (1971), Morris (1971), Rorison (1971) and Duffey $et\ al.$ (1974) investigated the management of grasslands for conservation.

1.1 Above-Ground Studies

A review and assessment of the various techniques of estimating primary production from harvest data were presented by Kelly $et\ al$. (1974) and Singh $et\ al$. (1975) and methodology has been described by Milner and Hughes (1970). Singh $et\ al$. (1980) discussed productivity processes in detail. In Britain, primary production studies have been carried out in Pennine grasslands (Welches and Rawes, 1965), Sussex lowland grasslands (Williamson, 1976) and Snowdonia montane grasslands (Perkins $et\ al$., 1978).

There is much published information concerning the agricultural aspects of herbivore-pasture interaction (e.g. see HFRO., 1979) including the effects of defoliation (clipping) on subsequent regrowth (Bokhari, 1977; Detling et al., 1979) and the effects of grazing on grassland productivity (Sims and Singh, 1971; Vickery, 1972; Caldwell, 1975). Harper (1977) discussed predator-plant interactions and reviewed the effects of grazing animals.

Forbes et al. (1977) endeavoured to identify factors limiting output from permanent agricultural pastures, in an attempt to establish priorities for research and development.

1.2 Below-Ground Studies

The importance of below-ground components of grasses as structural, storage and physiologically active organs has been realized (Troughton, 1957; Weaver, 1968; Whittington, 1969; Carson, 1974; Torrey and Clarkson,

1974; Russell, 1977), but for the most part root production has hardly been seriously attempted in ecosystem studies, due to difficulties surrounding its study. Methods of studying root systems are reviewed by Ghilarov $et\ al.\ (1968)$, Milner and Hughes (1970), Schuurman and Goedewaagen (1971) and Böhm (1979).

The dynamics of root biomass have been studied in various natural grassland ecosystems (Coupland and Johnson, 1965; Dahlman and Kucera, 1965; Bartos, 1971; Ares and Singh, 1974; Kotanska, 1976), in an old field ecosystem (Kelly, 1975) and in a Swedish hay meadow (Nilson, 1970). There have been a few studies in British grasslands (Troughton, 1957; Garwood, 1967; Perkins et al., 1978), but none directly related to amenity grasslands. Perkins et al. (1978) recorded minimum root biomass during winter and spring, with maximum during summer in a Snowdonia montane grassland. Troughton (1957) stated that most root growth takes place during spring, with maximum growth reached before that of the herbage, and ceasing altogether by the time of flowering, with further growth in autumn. This seasonal cycle may be altered by severe defoliation, and old roots start to decay about the time of flowering.

Temperate zone grasslands are characterized by a shallow but large root biomass, often exceeding above-ground biomass (Coupland, 1979; Swift et al., 1979). 20-30% of below-ground standing crop may be detrital roots (Clark, as cited by Coleman, 1976) and a considerable deposition of organic debris in soil during growth has been reported (Shamoot et al., 1968; Sauerbeck and Johnen, 1976, 1977). Chapman (1976) considered that studies of relative productivity or nutrient budgets that are based solely on above-ground data are so incomplete that their conclusions are of doubtful validity.

1.3 Decomposition Studies

The integrity of terrestrial ecosystems is maintained by transfers of matter and energy between plant, herbivore and decomposer subsystems (Odum, 1971). In intensively grazed grasslands, herbivores rarely consume more than 25% of nett primary production, although more than half of above-ground production may be removed (Wiegert et al., 1970; Swift et al., 1979). Thus, there is a preponderance of energy flow along decomposer pathways, although energy flow studies have been characterized by emphasis on grazing pathways (Coleman et al., 1976).

The majority of organic matter input into the soil is through root biomass (Schlesinger, 1977; Singh and Gupta, 1977), and the large belowground component of nett primary production emphasizes the importance of below-ground decomposition studies. A few studies of root decomposition have been carried out (Stenina, 1964; Malone and Reichle, 1973; Wildung et al., 1975; Herman et al., 1977) and Waid (1974) reviewed root decomposition processes. The assessment of underground production, activity and loss rates emerged as a major focal point of research in the post-IBP era (see below) (Coleman, 1976), and Olson (1964) considered this to be one of the most challenging ecological problems in the next half century.

1.4 Nutrient Studies

Seasonal changes in nutrient concentrations result from the movement of nutrients during growth and senescence, although individual elements differ in their mobilities (Pritchard et al., 1964; Allen et al., 1974). Some are retained or translocated, whilst others are rapidly leached from plant tissues (Tukey, 1970; Clement et al., 1972; Taylor, 1979). Koelling and Kucera (1965) found that considerable leaching takes place

from plant materials before deposition in the litter. Amounts of nutrients entering and leaving vegetation are particularly large in grasslands, compared to other ecosystems, because a large proportion of vegetation dies at the end of each growing season (Allen et al., 1974; Jones and Woodmansee, 1979).

Nutrient cycling studies in grassland have been presented by Rodin and Bazilevich (1967), Floate (1970a-d), Butler and Bailey (1973), Frissel (1977) and Clark et al. (1980). Nitrogen has received particular attention (Delwiche, 1970), and nitrogen budgets (Bokhari and Singh, 1975; Woodmansee et al., 1978) and simulation models (Reuss and Innis, 1977) have been formulated. Jones and Woodmansee (1979) discussed factors controlling the cycling of nitrogen, phosphorus and sulphur in annual grassland ecosystems and Perkins et al. (1978) investigated the dynamics of some major mineral nutrients in montane grasslands of Snowdonia.

1.5 Ecosystem Studies

Studies on the ecosystem scale were carried out under the aegis of the International Biological Programme (IBP) Grassland Biome studies, whose objectives were to obtain an integrated study of the basic processes of productivity, energetics and nutrient cycling in grassland, with particular emphasis on natural grasslands (Coupland, 1979). In Britain these studies were restricted to high moorland and montane grasslands, but provided a broad description of ecosystem structure and function (Heal and Perkins, 1978). In the United States a pioneering ecological modelling effort was attempted, to simulate biomass dynamics and responses to grazing, irrigation and fertilization (Innis, 1978; Breymeyer and Van Dyne, 1980). The studies changed the emphasis of many aspects of ecology from qualitative to quantitative phases (Van Dyne, 1978) and

provided models with some predictive capabilities to aid management decisions (Woodmansee, 1978). Other systems models of grasslands have also been published in recent years (Gilmanov, 1977; Parton et al., 1978) and Seligman and Arnold (1980) examined simulation models of intensively managed grazing systems.

In a discussion of the US/IBP decomposition sub-model, Hunt (1977) acknowledged that there may be a problem of formulating a model too far ahead of its data base, but considered the model had not yet reached that stage of development. These programmes have involved large interdisciplinary research efforts.

1.6 The Study in Perspective

Duffey et al. (1974) pointed out that most scientific studies on grasslands have been concerned with artificial swards, with most emphasis on yield and nutritive studies rather than on ecosystem dynamics.

They discussed the wide difference of objectives between agriculturalists and wildlife conservationists. Snaydon (1980) accused ecologists and agronomists of separately providing a wealth of information, whilst each group has tended to disregard the work of the other. He asserted that generally ecologists disregard managed ecosystems, and agronomists often consider ecological principles invalid. Amenity grasslands, to a large extent, have been ignored by both. Forbes et al. (1977) noted that, with a few exceptions, no major research effort was being made to investigate the special problems of permanent grassland.

Malone (1970) considered that knowledge of the ecological consequences of vegetation management is becoming increasingly important, and that little attention has been given to the influence of cover manipulation on the fundamental processes of ecosystems. Harper (1971) suggested that the most sensitive management is likely to be achieved by an

understanding and manipulation of natural regulation, in order that ecology can become a predictive science. Bradshaw (1980) and Rorison (1980) stressed the lack of nutrient cycling data concerned with amenity grasslands, and considered that the ecosystem approach is most appropriate to research investigations. Grime (1980) stated that research objectives for amenity grasslands should be aimed towards understanding the major ecological processes and their implications for management.

1.7 Objectives

The research programme was planned as an individual study on the ecosystem scale based on limited resources, but which would help to bridge the gulf between ecological and agricultural studies by providing information concerning the natural regulation of grassland ecosystems. A comprehensive ecosystem study was clearly inappropriate, and the principal objectives were to investigate specific areas of grassland ecology which have been considered to be of particular ecological significance but which are poorly described in the literature or otherwise inapplicable to amenity grasslands.

Particular emphasis was directed towards study of the turnover of below-ground components of the vegetation in favour of detailed above-ground productivity studies for which accurate annual productivity estimates were not sought. A large part of the programme was devoted to attempts to elucidate methods which may help to overcome the numerous problems of root system investigations. The probable influence of cover manipulation on below-ground processes is particularly relevant in a management context and was incorporated into the study.

The more important functional significance of the decomposer sub-system, compared to the herbivore sub-system, led to the main emphasis

of the research on the former and particularly to measurements of organic matter input into the soil and breakdown rates. Extensive management of grasslands often leads to large surface accumulations of litter, the breakdown of which is poorly described and therefore was studied in detail. The effects of these surface litter accumulations were compared to a situation of two frequencies of mowing and removal of cuttings. Also the effects of large scale removal of biomass, as cuttings, were investigated.

In view of the significance of nutrients in the dynamic processes of ecosystems and their relevance to management practices, nutrient status and fluxes were investigated, particularly with respect to the implications of mowing or cessation of mowing. Fertilizers were not incorporated into the study.

Annual estimates of productivity and nutrient requirements are most easily obtained in steady-state ecosystems, but it was hoped that manipulation by mowing may provide a better insight into the dynamics of amenity grasslands and lowland pasture.

CHAPTER 2

SITES & METHODS

An area of semi-natural (or semi-permanent) grassland was selected as representative of a typical amenity grassland under conditions of extensive management, with no recent history of re-seeding or fertilization. At the onset of the research project in early 1977 the initial aims were to select management criteria broadly based on those of traditional hay meadow or rough pasture (Duffey et al., 1974), typified by grassland management on many nature reserves and much marginal land. However, in 1978 the study was extended to incorporate a wider range of management practices and land usage encountered in amenity grasslands by introducing conditions of more intensive mowing and also sites removed from mowing or grazing pressures.

Ideally these sites would have been established prior to the study, but for statistical validity of comparison a satisfactory experimental design could not easily be achieved from sites of differing locations. The experimental area described below was considered to be the most appropriate basis for experimentation.

Limitations of this experimental design are those of the time taken for establishment of stable conditions following the alteration of management regime, which was restricted to less than two complete growing seasons. Longer term effects of these management practices cannot be inferred with certainty from the present study.

2.1 Sites

2.1.1 Background

The principal study area is located inside the University of Keele botanic gardens (0.S. 118/812449), 183 metres above sea level and overlying upper carboniferous sandstone (Keele beds), with soil classified as a sandy loam at pH 5 to 5.2. Physical and chemical properties of the soil are tabulated in APP. 1.

The area of grassland was probably last ploughed in approximately 1745, with evidence of a ridge and furrow system remaining, and was enclosed as a paddock between 1880-90 (K. Goodway, pers.comm.). The field remained as pasture until 1966 when the site was adopted by the Biology Department and managed, for the most part, by regular mowing and removal of cuttings to maintain lawn conditions.

Additionally, an adjoining paddock was included in the study.

Historically similar to the previous site, this field was not adopted

by the Biology Department in 1966, and grazing was continued until 1976.

2.1.2 Experimental design

The research project was initiated in early 1977, and during that year the central section of the Botanic Garden site, approximately 40 m x 25 m allowing a minimum 10 m border, was mown twice and cuttings were removed. In May 1978 the study area was divided into 15 strips, representing 5 replicates of 3 mowing treatments which provided a compromise between validity of experimental design and ease of management. Each strip was 1.6 m wide, with the central metre used for experimental work, and further sub-divided into two 0.5 m wide strips, allowing ten

replicates of each mowing treatment (see FIG. 1). The flattest section of the site was used for the main part of the study.

In the adjoining paddock, a 15 m x 15 m area was fenced off to exclude rabbits, and the central 10 m x 10 m used as the experimental site. The site was divided into seven 1 m wide strips, 10 m in length, with 0.5 m wide pathways between each strip. Each strip was sub-divided into two 0.5 m wide lengths (see FIG. 2).

Sampling procedures at both sites are described below.

2.1.3 Mowing treatments

The mowing treatments at each site are shown in TABLE 1.

SITE	ABBREVIATION	MOWING TREATMENT				
	LG	Unmown from beginning of 1978.				
BOTANIC GARDENS	MG	Mown once per year in 1978 and 1979 Cuttings removed.				
	SG	Mown regularly (approx. x 6 per year) in 1978 and 1979, to maintain short grass conditions. Cuttings removed				
ADJOINING PADDOCK	PAD	Mown once in early 1977. Then unmown				

TABLE 1: Mowing treatments

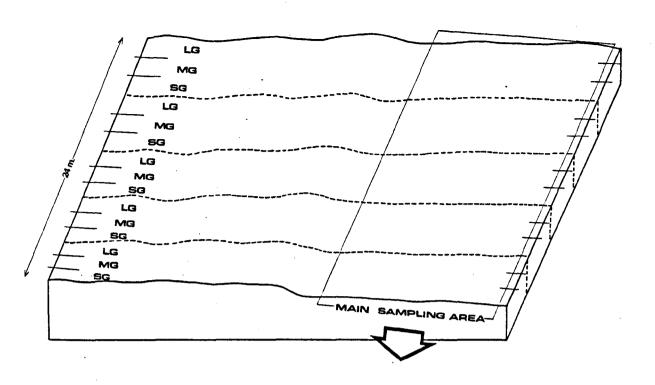
2.2 Methods

2.2.1 Sampling Programme

Sampling procedures at both sites are outlined in FIGS 1 and 2.

Strips in each zone (A, B, C) at the Botanic Garden site, and sampling quadrats in PAD, were randomly selected using random number tables.

At the Botanic Garden site samples were grouped into 3 rows of 4 quadrats, to allow easy and rapid location of sampling points. Placement of quadrats in equivalent positions along rows of each treatment was an attempt to help to account for the high variability of below-ground



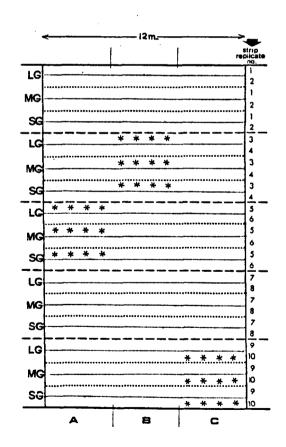


FIG 1: Botanic Gardens site. Surface contours (above) and strip-mowing regime and main sampling programme (below). Four quadrats were positioned in randomly pre-selected strips in each zone (A,B,C) of each mowing treatment. For example, asterisks indicate positions of quadrats on one sampling occasion (see text).

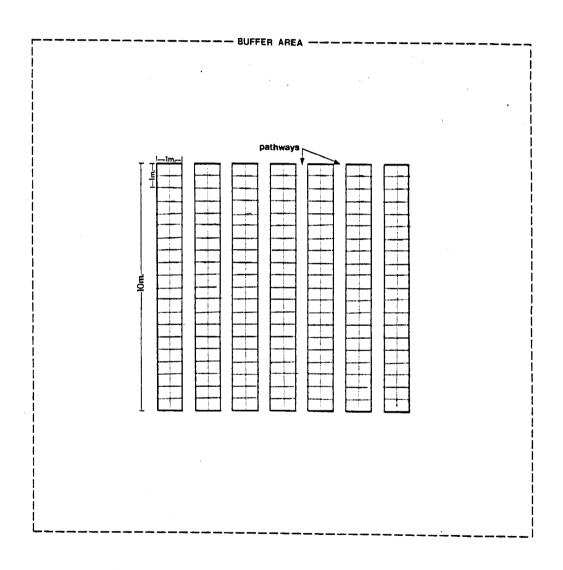


FIG 2 : Site layout in adjoining paddock (PAD). 0-25 m. 2 quadrats were selected randomly in all experiments.

components by allowing for tests of paired comparisons. However, these techniques provided no advantages over comparisons of means (also see 7.3).

The large amounts of replication restricted sampling frequency to six weeks or more. Samples were collected less often in winter.

2.2.2 Above-ground standing crop

At each sampling date, above ground standing crop was cut to ground level inside 0.25 m x 0.25 m quadrats. Twelve replicates were taken in LG and PAD, and six in MG and SG which were sampled less frequently. As above-ground biomass became larger in LG and PAD, quadrat size was increased to 0.25 m 2 with six replicates.

Samples were sorted, often by sub-sampling, into individual species and litter components. They were then dried overnight at 105°C, weighed, finely ground and stored in sealed jars prior to chemical analysis.

2.2.3 Below-ground standing crop

Soil cores of 6.7 cm diameter were taken to approximately 15 cm depth, using a soil corer (APP. 2), then cut into 5 cm depth increments and stored at -18° C prior to washing.

A) Root Separation

Cores were thawed in water and washed over 250 µm brass sieves. The sandy loam separated easily from the root systems, aided by the freezing and thawing, and use of a dispersant (Schuurman and Goedewaagen, 1971) provided no advantages. All visible plant material was removed, re-washed and separated as accurately as possible into root and rhizome fractions. Any lignified (forb) roots were also separated.

The soil remaining in the sieves was transferred to a root washing apparatus (FIG. 3). The apparatus is similar to that used for extracting roots by Cahoon and Morton (1961) and Kummerow et al (1978). Considerable amounts of fibrous root material collected in the sieves

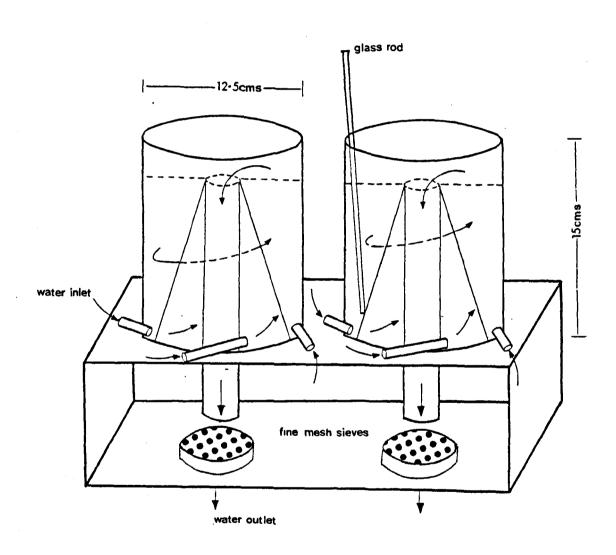


FIG 3: Flotation apparatus for separation of detached roots from soil. The flotation vessels are made of brass, and separation is assisted by occasional stirring. Detached roots collect in fine mesh sieves (tea strainers).

of the apparatus and washing was continued until no more was removed. Microscopic examination revealed this fraction to consist of varying amounts of small pieces of fine roots with attached root hairs and root tips, an abundance of decaying roots and small pieces of rhizomes. The fraction represented 16-41% ($\bar{x} = 28.4\%$) of the total dry weight of below-ground plant components, and is described separately as detached roots. They are considered in more detail in the following chapters.

All below-ground fractions were dried overnight at 105°C, weighed, finely ground and stored in sealed jars prior to chemical analysis.

Duplicate sub-samples from each set of samples were ashed at 500°C, to obtain a correction for soil contamination.

B) Vertical Distribution

Most below-ground plant components are near to the surface of the soil. More than 80% of root biomass (FIG. 4) and the entire standing crop of rhizomes are in the surface 10 cms. Standing crop of detached roots below this depth is negligible.

All data concerning below-ground components are represented for the surface 10 cms.

C) Horizontal Distribution

Dry weight distribution of below-ground components is extremely variable in a horizontal plane. The number of replicates (N) required for varying degrees of precision (D) was calculated using the following formula, given by Milner and Hughes (1971):

$$N = \left(\frac{t \cdot s}{D \cdot \overline{x}}\right)^2$$

where

s = standard error of trial samples. Values of N for soil cores taken in September in SG and LG are shown in

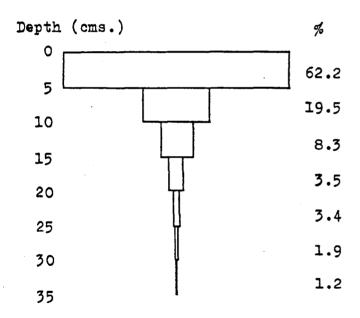


FIG 4: Percentage of roots (dry weight) at varying depths.

TABLE 2. Clearly, obtaining precision within error limits much less than 5% would be impractical, and 12 replicates were selected as a suitable compromise and used throughout the main sampling programme. Canode et al. (1977) similarly found that a 5% error of the mean, with 12 cores, appeared most practicable in root production studies of Poa pratensis.

Frequency distributions and spatial distributions of below-ground components are discussed in more detail in APP. 3. Statistics are computed on dry weight data assuming a normal frequency distribution.

Methodology is described further under the relevant section headings. Statistical tests were computed mainly using the *BLIB*. statistical package on the *GEC 4080* at Keele Computer Centre. More detailed statistical analyses are described in the relevant sections.

REQUIRED	BELOW-GROUND COMPONENTS				ABOVE-GROUND COMPONENTS			
ACCURACY (ERROR)	Roots (0-10)	Roots (0-10) Rhizomes		TOTAL	Grasses	Litter	TOTAL	
(10%)	2.2, 1.5	4.2, 3.3	0.7, 1.4	2.5, 1.4	2.2, 2.3	5.5, 1.1	1.5, 0.6	
(5%)	13.1, 9.2	25.1, 19.9	4.3, 8.2	14.7, 8.3	13.2, 13.7	33.0, 6.4	9.2, 3.8	
(1%)	645, 452	1235, 980	211, 401	721, 407	649, 672	1623, 316	454, 188	

TABLE 2: Number of samples required for varying degrees of precision (from 6.7 cm diameter soil cores and 0.25 m x 0.25 m quadrats). Calculations represented are from September data. In each case the first figure refers to SG, and the second to LG.

CHAPTER 3

SEASONAL VARIATIONS IN STANDING CROP

The standing crop of above- and below-ground components of the vegetation were monitored during the study period from April 1977 until June 1979 by sampling throughout the year, but more regularly The aims of this part of the work were during the growing season. to examine the structural alterations within the ecosystem according to season and as affected by management regime. The intentions were to develop a monitoring programme against the framework of which additional experimentation could be developed. Thus. for example, periods of maximal changes within the vegetation could be identified which would indicate the optimal times of the year for study of the breakdown of above- and below-ground components. The distribution and investment of plant production in different components of the vegetation are essential to an understanding of the dynamics of the ecosystem.

Alterations of management regimes resulted in grassland ecosystems which were not in a steady state on an annual basis thus rendering productivity estimates less meaningful. Furthermore, accurate annual productivity estimates would entail more regular sampling in order that precise times and levels of peak biomass of different species could be measured together with some estimate of turnover (Singh et al., 1975, 1980). For these reasons inferences concerning nett primary productivity are deferred in the present chapter, but are considered in more detail in Chapter 8 in comparison with other similar studies.

Methodology follows that described in the previous chapter.

Results are considered in broad terms for both sites, followed by more detailed specification. Data are presented graphically in most instances, but where necessary are tabulated fully in the appendices together with appropriate tables or statistical analyses not included in the main text.

3.1 Standing Crop: Botanic Garden Site

Above and below-ground variation of standing crop from April 1977 to June 1979 is illustrated in <u>FIG. 5</u>, together with a summary of management variables (detailed in section 2.1.3).

During 1977, the entire site was mown twice; less frequently than in previous years. Peak above-ground standing crop between June and September was accompanied by a considerable depletion below ground.

During 1978, when the strip-mowing regime was introduced, peak below-ground standing crop was lower than in 1977 for LG and MG. No increase was evident in SG. Above-ground standing crop in MG was similar to the previous year.

Below-ground levels in LG continued to diminish during 1979, with above-ground standing crop remaining high over winter. Below-ground standing crop in MG remained at a similar level to the previous year, but in SG had increased significantly.

Thus a broad pattern emerges whereby increased above-ground standing crop, resulting from reduced mowing intensity is coupled with diminished below-ground reserves. Conversely, heavy mowing favours below-ground investment whereas medium mowing pressure produces

g.m²

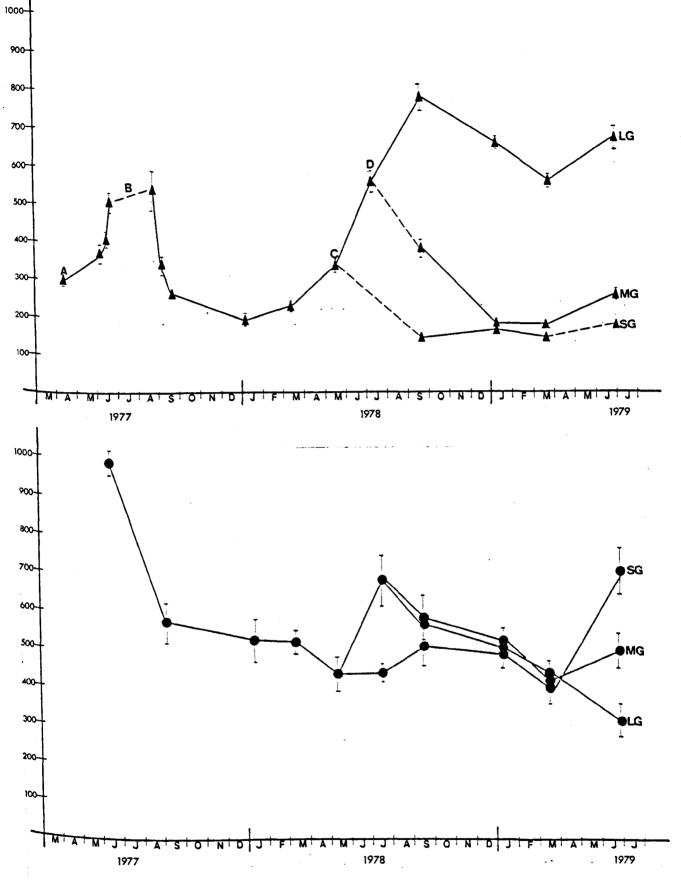


FIG 5: Variation of above-ground standing crop [dry wt.] including litter (ABOVE), and below-ground standing crop [roots + rhizomes; ash-free dry wt] (BELOW), for i.G., MG. and SG.

Letters indicate treatment variables:

A = field heavily mown previous to this date.

B = field mown twice during 1977.

C = SG treatment started.

D = MG treatment started.

Hatched lines indicate mowing between sampling dates.

Values are means ± standard errors.

intermediate underground reserves. Recovery of below-ground reserves when heavy mowing is resumed (SG) does not take place in the first year.

3.2 Above-Ground Standing Crop in LG and PAD

Above-ground standing crop components in LG and PAD during 1978-9 are shown in <u>TABLES 3 and 4</u> respectively. Total standing crop was initially higher in PAD owing to a large proportion of litter.

Dominant grasses at both sites were Agrostis tenuis and Holcus lanatus, although the former is probably over-estimated due to certain vegetative resemblances with Alopecurus pratensis and Anthoxanthum odoratum.

Dactulis glomerata and Alopecurus pratensis were common in PAD.

Forb biomass levels were low in LG, Ranunculus repens being the most abundant. In PAD, forb biomass was higher with an enormous production of Rumex acetosa during June 1979 (see PLATES).

These changes are illustrated in <u>FIG. 6</u>. A large above-ground biomass of grasses in LG during summer 1978 produced a large accumulation of litter that remained high until the next growing season when primary production was suppressed. In PAD, which had not been mown for almost an entire season prior to 1978, peak biomass was suppressed through 1978 as litter decomposed, resulting in a large production of forbs in 1979. Rumex acetosa appeared to be similarly abundant the following year.

3.3 Above-Ground Versus Below-Ground Standing Crop in LG and PAD

Data for above- and below-ground standing crop are shown on the same axis in FIG. 7, for LG and PAD, illustrating the preponderance of below-ground over above-ground standing crop throughout the year.

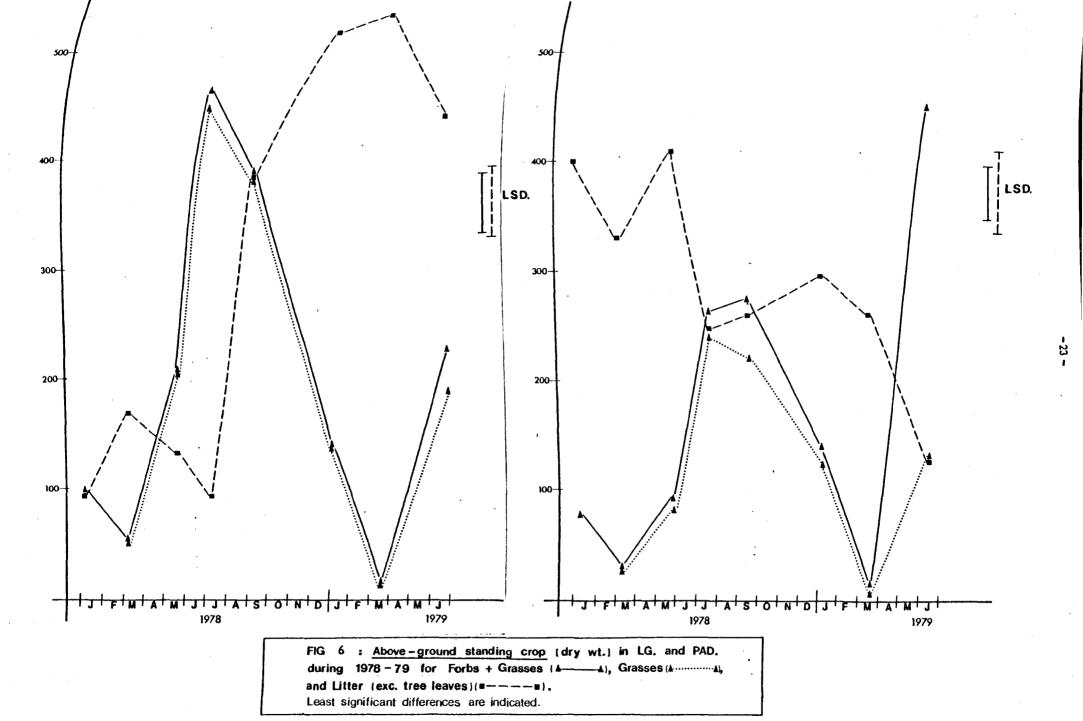
Below-ground biomass reached a peak at the same time as above-ground biomass in 1978, but the following year seasonal increases were not evident during June. Highest biomass levels were reached around July 1978 in LG and September in PAD. Different species of grasses showed peak biomass levels at different sampling dates (TABLES 3 and 4).

	1978				1979			
	9 Jan	13 Mar	23 May	10 Jul	20 Sep	8 Jan	22 Mar	29 Jun
Agrostis tenuis a	_	-	122.4	207.8	253.4	71.5	12.4	173.2
Holcus lanatus	-	-	50.4	206.0	99.4	62.2	1.8	12.7
Festuca rubra subsp.rubra	-	_	11.2	13.3	4.7	4.5	1.5	2.3
Anthoxanthum odoratum	-	-	15.7	3.5	16.0			0.9
Lolium perenne	-	-	1.4	14.5	4.3			
Dactylis glomerata	-	-		,	0.4			
Other grasses bcde	-	-	4.5	•	1.3	0.2		
TOTAL GRASSES	-	51.3	205.5	445.2	379.3	138.4	15.6	189.0
Forbs $fgjk$	-	2.2	3.5	17.0	10.4	1.8	1.4	40.8
TOTAL LIVE BIOMASS	98.0	53.5	209.0	462.2	389.7	140.2	17.0	229.8
Litter	95.0	170.1	135.5	96.0	389.4	520.5	537.0	440.6
Forb litter				***		0.1	0.1	:
Tree leaves						0.1	0.3	•
TOTAL	193.0	230.2	333.9	558.2	779.3	661.5	554.7	670.5

TABLE 3: Above-Ground Components of Standing Crop in LG during 1978-79. Data shown as dry weight (g.m.⁻²). a, includes a small proportion of Agrostis stolonifera; b, Poa pratensis; c, Poa trivialis; d, Poa annua; e, Cynosurus cristatus; f, Rumex acetosa; g, Ranunculus repens; h, Heracleum sphondylium; i, Achillea millefolium; j, Taraxacum officinale; k, Cardamine pratensis.

	1978						1979			
	9 Jan	13 Mar	1 Jun	24 Ju1	21 Sep	9 Jan	21 Mar	17 Jun		
Agrostis tenuis a	_	_	25.0	121.5	56.0	16.5	2.5	5.9		
Holcus lanatus	-	· -	22.2	74.7	107.6	90.1	1.6	27.6		
Festuca rubra subsp. rubra	-	-	23.3	20.1	32.9	14.1	0.8	25.1		
Anthoxanthum odoratum	-	-	0.8	0.2	1.7	1.2		0.1		
Lolium perenne	-	-	1.0	0.6						
Dactylis glomerata	-		7.6	21.1	21.9	0.1		29.3		
Alopecurus pratensis	-	-						41.1		
Other grasses bc	-		0.8					1.0		
TOTAL GRASSES	-	28.4	80.7	237.7	219.8	122.1	4.9	130.0		
Forbs $fhij$	<u> </u>	2.2	10.8	25.2	54.5	16.2	9.7	317.5		
TOTAL LIVE BIOMASS	76.0	30.6	91.5	262.9	274.3	138.3	14.5	447.6		
Litter	399.5	330.9	409.9	246.6	258.6	296.1	260.8	124.2		
Forb litter					28.9	0.4	3.3	12.8		
Tree leaves		19.3	14.0		0.8	14.3	19.1	2.4		
TOTAL	512.0	380.8	515.4	509.5	562.6	451.1	297.4	587.0		

TABLE 4: Above-Ground Components of Standing Crop in PAD during 1978-79. Data shown as dry weight (g.m.-2). For legend see table 3.



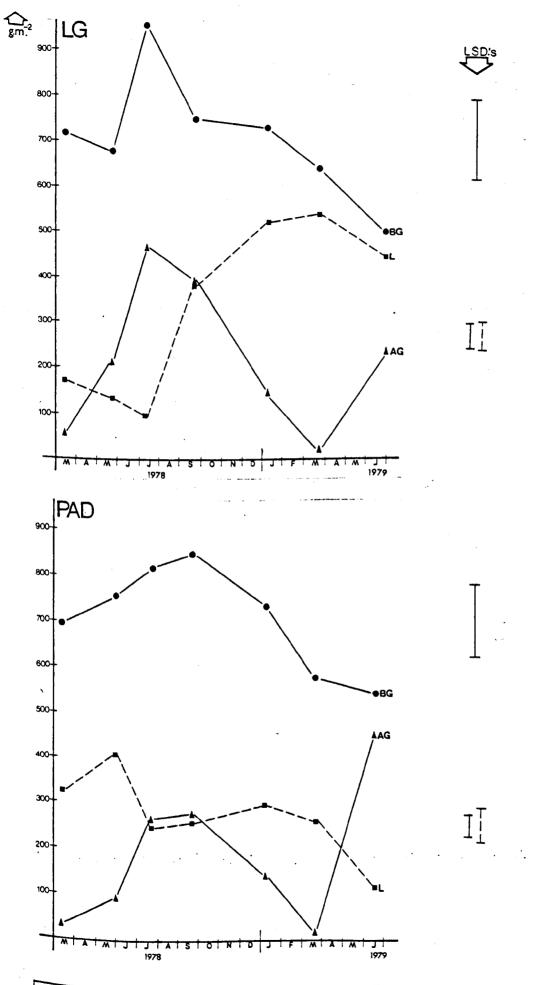


FIG 7: Ash-free dry weight of <u>TOTAL BELOW-GROUND ORGANS</u> (BG) and dry weight of above-ground <u>GRASSES + FORBS</u> (AAG) and <u>LITTER</u> (L) in LG. and PAD. during 1978-79.

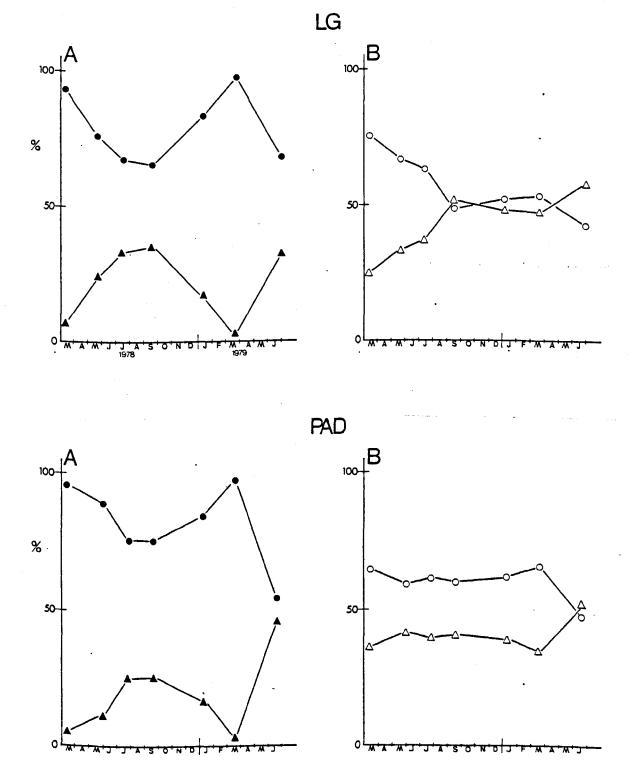


FIG 8: Proportionate distribution of dry weight in LG (above) & PAD (below) between A) grasses (A——A) and total below-ground organs [afdw] (•——•) as a % of total biomass, & B) grasses + litter(A——A) and total below-ground organs (O——O) as a % of total biomass + litter.

Seasonal variation in the proportionate distribution of biomass above—and below—ground is shown in <u>FIG. 8</u>, excluding (A) and including (B) litter. Proportionate contribution of below—ground dry weight was lowest during the growing season, and most significant during March when above—ground standing crop was minimal (A). Considering the inclusion of litter with above—ground biomass (B), dry weight was approximately equally distributed above—and below—ground during winter in LG. In PAD, roughly 40% of dry weight was consistently above—ground until June 1979.

A range of 54 to 98% of biomass was recorded below-ground (TABLE 5).

TREATMENT	RANGE	MEAN	DATA FROM n SAMPLING DATES
SG	82.5 - 92.4	88.1	n = 3
MG	73.1 - 93.0	82.9	n = 4
LG	65.7 - 97.4	78.9	n = 7
PAD	54.7 - 97.5	81.8	n = 7

TABLE 5: Below-ground ash-free dry weight as a % of total biomass (excluding litter).

3.4 Removal of Cuttings from SG and MG

Cuttings removed from SG after mowing were collected and weighed from five out of the six mowings during 1979. 168.8 g.m.⁻² dry weight were removed, representing an annual removal of approximately 200 g.m.⁻² from SG.

Similarly, cuttings were removed and weighed from the single mowing of MG. 132.2 g.m.^{-2} dry weight were removed, representing the annual loss from this treatment.

These losses in terms of nutrient removal are considered in Chapter 5.

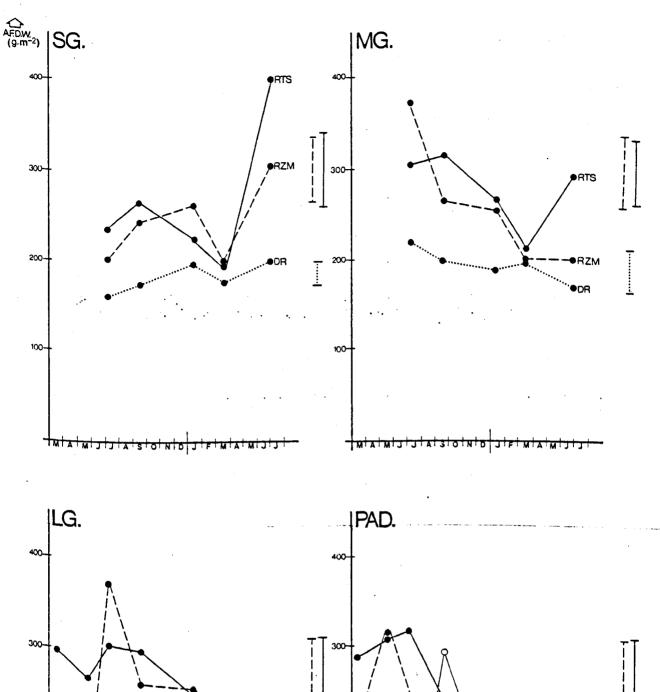
3.5 Below-Ground Components

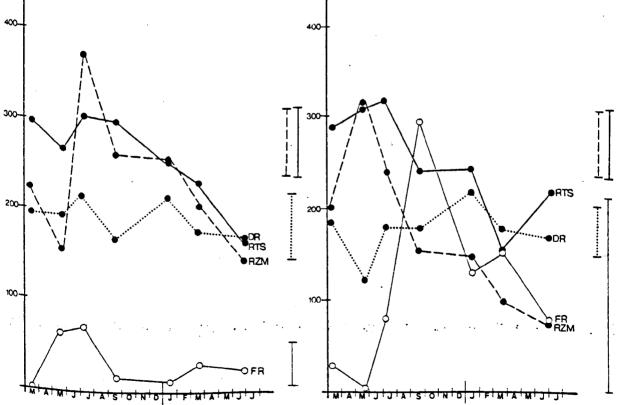
Heavy mowing in SG resulted in increased levels of roots, rhizomes and detached roots in June 1979 (FIG. 9). Recovery was delayed over the 1978 season, as previously described. Peak biomass of roots in 1978 was in September whereas late season growth produced the highest 1978 rhizome levels over winter. The seasonal pattern of detached roots was most similar to that of the roots.

In MG, with the same mowing regime from 1977 to 1979, seasonal pattern of roots followed that in SG but with a lower peak in June 1979. Standing crop in June was similar in both years. Detached roots diminished by about 50 g.m. ⁻² over the sampling period. Rhizome biomass in 1979 did not increase to 1978 levels although a late spring in 1979 may have retarded the onset of growth. In overall terms, a slight downward trend was evident in MG.

In LG, roots and rhizomes decreased over the sampling period with peak biomass in early July 1978. Standing crop in late June 1979 was 46% and 61% lower than this respectively for roots and rhizomes. Highest peaks of detached roots were in July 1978, corresponding with root and rhizome peaks, and in January 1979.

In PAD, a similar decrease in root biomass and larger decrease in rhizomes was evident. Lignified (forb) roots have been added to the graphs for LG and PAD. Levels are quite low in LG but in PAD peak forb root biomass exceeds that of other components in September 1978. Root and detached root categories include an inseparable proportion of young forb roots, which may account for the maintenance of detached root standing crop through to 1979. A peak level is reached in January 1979, as in LG, and lowest standing crop in early June 1978 corresponds to the largest accumulation of litter (and restricted above-ground growth).





Dry weight data for all components, above—and below—ground, were used in a multiple linear regression analysis* in an attempt to describe detached root fluctuations in terms of combinations of other dry weight variables within each treatment. However, statistically valid models could not be computed; values of r and multiple r were insignificant in all cases.

Instead, paired correlations between detached roots and roots, rhizomes and forb roots were calculated with data from original cores (12 per sampling date), rather than using mean values. Scatter diagrams are shown in <u>FIG. 11</u> together with product-moment correlation coefficients and regression equations. In all treatments, detached root biomass is positively correlated with root biomass. In LG, roots, rhizomes and detached roots are all significantly (p < 0.01) correlated with each other.

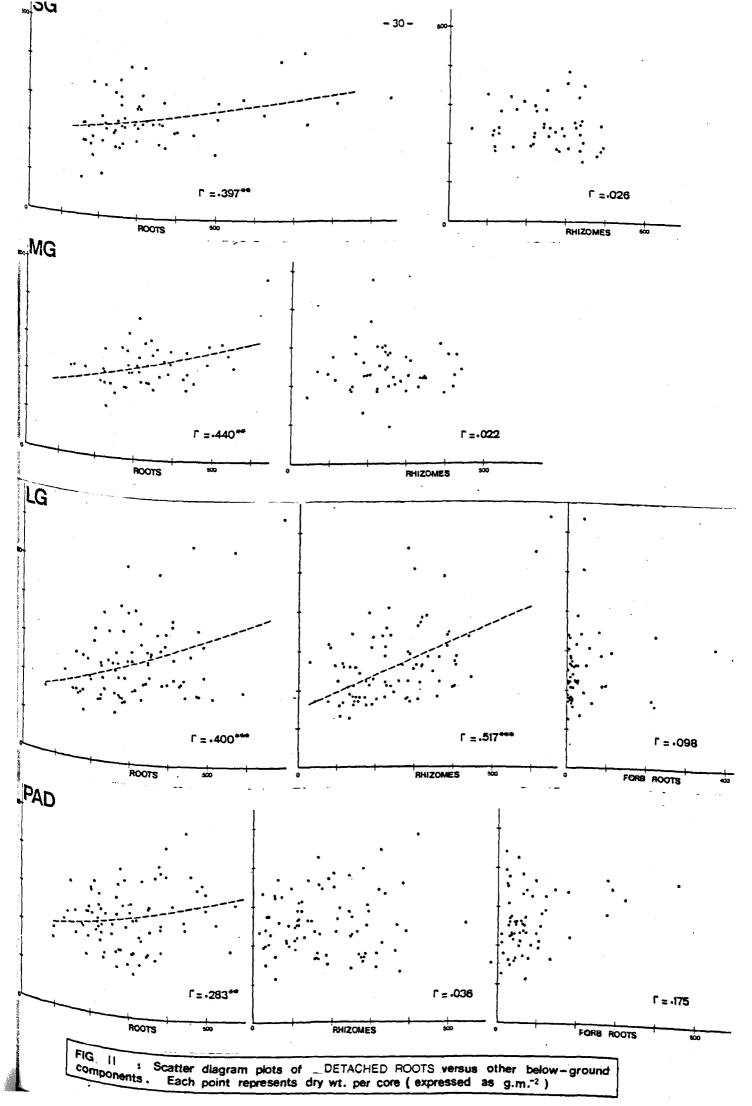
3.6 Conclusions

The greater proportion of standing crop in semi-permanent grassland is held below-ground, providing a certain resilience to the cutting and/or grazing on which its continued existence depends (Spedding, 1971).

With less regular mowing, increased above-ground standing crop corresponds with reduced below-ground reserves which return to higher levels in the second year following the reintroduction of heavy mowing. If mowing is discontinued, the litter compartment increases enormously with approximately 40% of standing crop above-ground, resulting in reduced above-ground productivity the following season. Ensuing habitat conditions lead to plant-induced stress (Grime, 1978) and prevent continued community dominance by grasses. Chemical limitations are considered in Chapter 5. With mowing, 132 to 200 g.m.⁻² annum.⁻¹ dry weight was removed from the ecosystems.

Heavy mowing increased root and rhizome components. Roots

^{*} SPSS Version 7: Forward stepwise method (see App. 4).



achieved highest biomass in June and rhizomes in late season, with highest detached root biomass also at those times. With reduced frequency of mowing, roots and rhizomes progressively diminished although detached root levels were slightly increased. Forb roots proliferated with increased above-ground forb production.

Fluctuations of detached root biomass were clearly influenced by root and rhizome biomass, but most closely associated with roots.

This supports microscopical observations (Section 2.2.2). The detached root fraction is examined in more detail in the following chapters.

Thus a model experimental system was established, pertinent to the aims of the project.

CHAPTER 4

SEASONAL VARIATIONS OF NUTRIENT CONCENTRATIONS

There are very few grasslands in which soil nutrients are not limiting and the elucidation of nutrient cycles within ecosystems are a major goal of ecological research. An understanding of the nutritional equilibrium of the ecosystem is essential for effective management, particularly with respect to the manipulation of species composition and performance and the effective use of fertilizers (see Bradshaw, 1969, 1980). A comprehensive description of the circulation of nutrients is well beyond the bounds of the present study, but a study of variations of nutrient concentrations between plant components, seasonally and according to mowing regime may provide valuable information.

Plant materials collected during sampling were analysed for N, P, K, Ca, Mg, Na, Mn and Zn, which are listed roughly in order of the importance they have been afforded in the literature. The importance of nitrogen, phosphate and potassium as nutrients are well known, and the analyses were extended to examine whether significant alterations of other nutrients may also take place. Reduced concentrations of particular nutrients at certain periods may provide an indication of the times of limited supply from available soil pools.

4.1 Methods

Materials collected during sampling were sorted into component fractions, dried and weighed. Replicates were bulked, finely ground and stored in glass screw-top jars in preparation for chemical analysis on completion of field work. Methods follow those given by Allen et al. (1974), except where otherwise stated.

Duplicate subsamples (re-dried at 105°C) of 0.35 g were digested in a 1 ml perchloric/5 ml nitric/0.5 ml sulphuric acid mixture, then diluted to 50 ml prior to analysis. A separate digestion is described for the determination of nitrogen.

Glassware was cleaned in chromic acid, with an additional rinse in HCl prior to phosphorus determination. Double glass distilled water was used at all stages.

Nitrogen

Total nitrogen was determined using a semi-micro Kjeldahl method with Markham distillation apparatus followed by titration against HCl Prior digestion of sample (0.1 g) was in 3 ml sulphuric acid, heated with 2 g potassium sulphate-mercuric oxide catalyst. Accuracy of the apparatus was extremely high (within 1% error of the mean) and precision and replicability of samples were regularly checked.

Phosphorus

Phosphorus was determined as phosphate using the Molybdenum Blue method, with stannous chloride as the reducing agent. Adjustment of sample dilution to work within the ranges of the acid-stability plateau (Hess, 1971) was found to be particularly critical. Optical density was

measured with a Bausch and Lomb Spectronic 20 spectrophotometer.

K, Ca, Mg, Na, Mn, Zn

These elements were determined using atomic absorption spectrophotometry ($EEL\ 240$) with an air/acetylene flame. Stability was high
over the concentration ranges encountered, although it was necessary to
integrate Ca readings. Lanthanum chloride was added as a releasing
agent before determination of Ca and Mg.

In all cases, errors are within the expected ranges of accuracy given by Allen $et\ al.$ (1974). Analyses were repeated for subsamples lying outside these limits. All data for nutrient concentrations of below-ground components have been corrected for soil contamination using the following formula:

Nutrient Concentration (%) = $\frac{\text{corrected nutrient pool (B - C*)}}{\text{ash-free dry weight}} \times 100$ (* see Section 5.1).

4.2 Results and Analysis

Seasonal concentrations of each nutrient are shown together with dry weight fluctuations in LG (FIG. 12) and PAD (FIG. 13). Considerable seasonal differences are evident between nutrients, compartments and treatments. In many instances nutrient concentrations are clearly related, positively or negatively, to standing crop in that or other compartments. Also, certain nutrients show markedly similar seasonal patterns.

Initially, cluster analysis techniques were implemented to investigate the feasibility of grouping data into a more manageable form. Essentially these are methods of classification which group variables (nutrients) that are highly correlated into clusters, and exclude from clusters those variables that are unlike (see APP. 4). Graphical illustrations of these analyses, using each of the 8 mutrients in 5 compartments (40)

cases) on 6 sampling dates (variables), are shown for LG and PAD in FIGS. 14 and 15 respectively. Ten clusters have been selected as most appropriate.

Both analyses produce very similar cluster formations with virtually identical outliers. N and $C\alpha$ are outliers for all components, with P and K in above-ground compartments (although litter P joins a large cluster). The two large clusters separate Mg (all components) and P (below-ground and litter) from $N\alpha$, K (below-ground), Mn and Zn (all components). The latter cluster is distinguished by elements at very low concentrations.

The next stage of data analysis (with reference to FIGS. 12 and 13) was to examine the extent to which these seasonal patterns could be described in terms of dry weight fluctuations. Multiple linear regression analysis (APP. 4) was used to correlate each nutrient from each component (dependent variable) against grass, litter, root, rhizome and detached root dry weight parameters (independent variables). Results are summarized in TABLES 6 (LG) and 7 (PAD) with regression analyses and equations tabulated in detail in APPS. 5 and 6. In cases where satisfactory regression equations could not be computed, other nutrients were added to the list of independent variables in an attempt to obtain suitable regression equations (TABLE 8); detailed in APP. 7. Cause/effect relationships should not be inferred unless specifically stated.

To provide a perspective for the limited data available in MG and SG, nutrient concentrations from all four treatments (LG, MG, SG and PAD) have been shown on the same axes for grasses (FIG. 16), litter (FIG. 17), roots (FIG. 18), rhizomes (FIG. 19) and detached roots (FIG 20). One-way analysis of variance tests of difference were carried out on arcsin transformed data from each graph (APP. 8) and Spearman Correlation coefficients calculated between pairs of treatments (APP. 9).

A detailed account of these results (sections 4.3 to 4.10) is followed by the main conclusions (section 4.11).

4.3 Nitrogen (%)

In LG, peak biomass of grasses and rhizomes in July 1978 corresponded with lowest N concentrations in grasses, rhizomes and detached roots, but peak concentrations in roots (FIG. 12). Similarly in PAD, peak grass biomass corresponded with lowest grass but highest root concentrations (FIG. 13). Litter N concentrations in LG followed grass N concentrations with some time delay, but in PAD increased gradually through the sampling period.

Nitrogen concentrations in components were represented by 5 different outlying clusters in LG and PAD (FIGS. 14 and 15) suggesting individual seasonal patterns, each of which could be described in terms of dry weight parameters (TABLES 6 and 7) except litter concentrations in PAD. Peak standing crop of rhizomes in PAD was earlier than in LG (FIGS. 12 and 13) and a progressive decline through the sampling period was negatively correlated with root and rhizome N concentrations (TABLE 7).

Concentrations in grasses in MG and SG followed a broadly similar pattern to other treatments, although overwintering concentrations were higher than in LG and PAD (FIG. 16). Root and rhizome N concentrations were also similar to LG (FIGS. 18 and 19) but slightly lower, most notably in June 1979. Detached root concentrations (FIG. 20) were substantially higher in LG than in other treatments. Fluctuations of N concentrations are strongly correlated in MG and SG for all below-ground components (APP. 9).

4.4 Phosphorus (%)

Grass P concentrations in LG and PAD were lowest in June/July, and

below-ground P concentrations in LG were lowest in September (FIGS. 12 and 13).

Grass concentrations provided the only outlying cluster for this nutrient, and other components were grouped into cluster 5 (FIGS. 14 and 15).

In LG, only litter and rhizome P concentrations could be described by computed regression equations (TABLE 6), and in PAD only litter and grass P concentrations could be described (TABLE 7). LG grass, root and detached root P concentrations were inter-related: detached root P could be described by detached root N and K concentrations, and then used to predict root P, which could be used to predict grass P (TABLE 8). PAD root, rhizome and detached root P concentrations could be predicted in a similar way, after describing detached root P (TABLE 8). However, extrapolation of data in this manner may be unwise.

Phosphorus concentrations during winter in above-ground grasses and litter were lower in LG than in other treatments (FIGS. 16 and 17), whereas summer concentrations in detached roots were higher (FIG. 20). Inter-seasonal variations of root P concentration were more pronounced in LG and PAD than in other treatments (FIG. 18). Root and rhizome concentrations in MG and SG increased through the sampling period (FIGS. 18 and 19) although neither corresponded to below-ground dry weight parameters (cf. FIG. 9). Peak detached root concentrations in MG, SG and PAD were in March, and in LG in June (FIG. 20).

4.5 Potassium (%)

Grass K concentrations in LG were low during June 1978, but high in June 1979 (FIG. 12). Root and rhizome K concentrations in LG gradually increased through the sampling period, whereas root dry weight gradually declined. In PAD, seasonal fluctuations of K were notably different to LG in all compartments (FIG. 13), although in both treatments litter

concentrations were high in September. Below-ground concentrations were low in all cases, and may have been under-estimated through losses during washing (see 4.10).

Grass and litter K concentrations formed outlying clusters in both LG and PAD (FIGS. 14 and 15). In LG, significant regression equations could be computed to describe K concentrations in all components, using dry weight parameters (TABLE 6). Grass K concentrations were negatively correlated with rhizome dry weight, and below-ground component concentrations were negatively correlated with below-ground dry weight parameters. In PAD, only rhizome and detached root concentrations could be described by dry weight parameters (TABLE 7). Rhizome K concentrations were negatively correlated with litter dry weight, and detached root K concentrations were negatively correlated with root dry weight.

Grass K concentrations in PAD were significantly higher than in other treatments (FIG. 16) and litter K concentrations were higher in PAD than in LG (FIG. 17). In roots and rhizomes seasonal fluctuations in K concentrations were similar in LG, MG and SG, although LG concentrations were significantly lower in all below-ground components (FIGS. 18-20).

4.6 Calcium (%)

Peak biomass of grasses and rhizomes in LG in July 1978 corresponded with high Ca concentrations in roots and litter (FIG. 12). Seasonal Ca concentrations in litter varied considerably in LG. Peak Ca concentrations in grasses was in autumn, and seasonal pattern followed standing crop with some time delay. Detached root Ca concentrations were lowest in May/June in both years. In PAD, seasonal Ca fluctuations were similar to LG in grasses and below-ground components (FIG. 13). Peak litter Ca concentrations preceded peak grass Ca concentrations in both treatments.

As with nitrogen, Ca concentrations in all components were outliers in the cluster analyses (FIGS. 14 and 15). In LG, regression equations

provided a satisfactory description of Ca fluctuations for all components in terms of dry weight, with grass and rhizome dry weight parameters particularly important (TABLE 6). In PAD, grass and rhizome Ca concentrations could not be described by dry weight parameters (TABLE 7), unless other nutrient concentrations were included with the independent variables (TABLE 8).

Calcium concentrations and seasonal fluctuations of Ca concentrations in grasses and litter were similar in all treatments, with a high coefficient of variation (FIGS. 16 and 17). Root and detached root Ca concentrations (FIGS. 18 and 20) were higher in LG than in MG and SG in which root Ca concentrations declined through the sampling period, whereas root Ca concentrations in PAD increased slightly. Detrital root Ca fluctuations were correlated in LG, MG and SG (APP. 9), and similar in PAD. Rhizome concentrations were similar in all treatments (FIG. 19).

4.7 Magnesium (%)

In LG, grass Mg concentrations reached highest levels during the growing season (FIG. 12) and in PAD peak grass Mg concentration as with Ca, was reached in September (FIG. 13). Rhizome Mg concentrations were season highest during the growing/in LG and PAD, although variations were not pronounced. The seasonal pattern of litter Mg concentrations followed grass Mg concentrations in both treatments, but in LG peak concentration was reached before that of grasses. Root and detached root concentrations in LG were lowest during the growing season. Detached root concentrations were higher than concentrations in the other below-ground components, in LG and PAD and increased through the sampling period in PAD.

Magnesium concentrations for all components were grouped into a large cluster with P concentrations, but excluding grass P (FIGS. 14 and 15). Regression equations provided a satisfactory fit with dry weight

parameters in most cases, except for grass Mg in PAD and rhizome Mg in both treatments (TABLES 6 and 7). Root Mg concentrations in LG and PAD were negatively correlated with rhizome dry weight. Ca and Mg concentrations in grasses in PAD are strongly correlated, and rhizome concentrations of both can be predicted from rhizome P concentrations (TABLE 8).

Seasonal patterns of grass Mg concentrations were similar in LG, MG and SG, but concentrations were much higher in the mown treatments (FIG. 16). Litter concentrations were also higher (FIG. 17). As with K, root and rhizome Mg concentrations were significantly lower in LG than in other treatments (FIGS. 18 and 19). Root Mg concentrations in MG and SG increased considerably in June, 1979. Detached root Mg fluctuations (FIG. 20) were most similar to root Mg fluctuations, in LG, MG and SG.

4.8 Sodium (%)

Grass and litter $N\alpha$ concentrations in LG followed variations in grass biomass (FIG. 12). Peak grass and litter concentrations of $N\alpha$ in PAD were in September, as with peak grass concentration of $C\alpha$ and Mg (FIG. 13). As with K, low $N\alpha$ concentrations in below-ground components may have been under-estimated through losses during washing (see 4.10).

Sodium concentrations were grouped into the two large clusters, although grass $N\alpha$ in LG lay just outside (FIGS. 14 and 15). $N\alpha$ concentrations could be described by dry weight parameters for all components, in LG and PAD, except for PAD grasses (TABLES 6 and 7). This could be described using grass $C\alpha$ concentration together with rhizome dry weight (TABLE 8). In LG and PAD, root and detached root $N\alpha$ concentrations were negatively correlated with root or detached root dry weight.

Grass and litter concentrations of ${\it Na}$ were higher in MG and SG than

in unmown treatments (FIGS. 16 and 17). Detached root Na concentrations were lower in MG and SG than in LG, but otherwise Na concentrations and seasonal fluctuations were similar in all below-ground components (FIGS. 18-20).

4.9 Manganese and Zinc (%)

Seasonal patterns of variation in LG and PAD were very variable and trends difficult to discern (FIGS. 12 and 13). Grass concentrations of Mn increased towards autumn in LG and PAD, and interestingly litter Mn concentrations were substantially higher than grass concentrations in both treatments. Similarly, Mn concentrations were higher in detached roots than in roots and rhizomes in both treatments. Zn concentrations in grasses were low during the 1978 growing season in both treatments, but increased in June 1979. Detached root concentrations of Zn were highest in September.

Mn and Zn component concentrations were mostly grouped within a single large cluster (6) although in a few instances Mn joined cluster 5 in LG (FIGS. 14 and 15). In LG, seasonal variations in concentrations are poorly described by computed regression equations (TABLE 6) unless other nutrients are introduced to the list of independent variables (TABLE 8). In PAD, dry weight parameters can be used to describe both nutrients in all components, except for Mn concentrations in grasses (TABLES 7 and 8).

Certain differences were evident between mown and unmown treatments (FIGS. 16-20). Mn concentrations in grasses, roots and rhizomes tended to be higher in mown treatments, and Zn concentrations in detached roots were higher in LG than other treatments.

4.10 Summation

Nutrient concentrations and their seasonal fluctuations are drawn

together, and the similarities and differences between components and treatments are discussed.

In LG, cessation of mowing led to large increases in biomass of grasses and below-ground components (particularly rhizomes) in the first season, after which the resultant accumulation of litter limited above-and below-ground production. Initial increases of grass biomass corresponded to lowest concentrations of N in grasses, rhizomes and detached roots and lowest P in grasses. Conversely, peak Mg and Na concentrations in grasses and rhizomes were reached with peak biomass. Rhizome biomass was negatively related to K concentrations in grasses whereas Ca and Mn grass and rhizome concentrations increased through the season to reach a peak in autumn.

Litter concentrations were correlated either to grass biomass (Ca, Na) or else followed grass concentrations with some time delay (N, K, Mg, Na). P concentrations were lowest over winter and negatively correlated with grass and litter standing crop, whereas Zn concentrations varied only marginally. Ca and Mn concentrations in litter were notably higher than in grasses.

Concentrations were generally lower in below-ground components than above-ground biomass, Ca and Zn providing the only exceptions. Extremely low below-ground concentrations of K and Na in all cases may have been under-estimated due to leaching during washing. These elements are rapidly leached from above-ground tissues (Tukey, 1970; Taylor, 1979), but removal of the major proportion of either is perhaps unlikely.

Root biomass reached a peak in June/July 1978, then declined through the sampling period. Peak root biomass corresponded to highest N, Ca and Zn concentrations in roots, and lowest Mg. K in roots and

rhizomes and Na in roots and detached roots increased through the sampling period, whereas Zn concentrations in rhizomes declined. P was lowest in September in all below-ground components.

Detached root concentrations of all nutrients except $N\alpha$ and Zn were higher than in other below-ground components. $C\alpha$ in detached roots was lowest in May/June both years and K and Mg concentrations were negatively correlated with rhizome biomass.

An abstraction of the seasonal events most closely associated with these variations is given in <u>TABLE 9</u>; previous sections should be consulted for detailed information.

In PAD, the sampling programme began with a large accumulation of litter already evident. Primary production was limited during the first year. Rhizome biomass reached a peak in May/June then progressively declined, whereas detached root biomass was lowest in May/June with high levels over winter. Peak root biomass was in July.

N, P, K and Zn concentrations in grasses were lowest at the time of peak biomass, and Ca, Mg, Na and Mn concentrations were highest later, in September.

Litter concentrations of N and P increased gradually through the sampling period, and peak $C\alpha$ and Mn% preceded peak grass concentrations. Other nutrients followed grass concentrations $(C\alpha, N\alpha)$ or grass biomass (K, Zn).

As with LG, concentrations in below-ground organs were lower than above-ground biomass except for Ca and Zn. A notable difference to LG is that most below-ground nutrients in PAD increased in concentration through the sampling period, although N and Ca fluctuations were very similar to LG.

Peak root biomass was correlated with lowest Na and Mn concentrations in roots while root K and Mg concentrations

were lowest in winter. Peak rhizome Mg, Na, Mn and Zn and lowest N concentrations corresponded to peaks in biomass, and peak detached root concentrations of P, K, Mg and Na corresponded to low root biomass. An abstraction of these results is given in TABLE 8.

MG and SG variations should primarily be compared to LG to obtain most valid inferences. Grass concentrations showed essentially similar fluctuations in LG, MG and SG, but concentrations were higher for N, Ca, Mg, Na and Mn in mown treatments (P concentrations over winter were also higher). K concentrations in grasses were notably different between treatments, especially in PAD which was consistently higher and led to higher litter concentrations in September. Litter concentrations were generally higher in mown treatments with SG levels higher than MG.

Below-ground concentrations of N and Ca were significantly lower in mown treatments, as were Na and Zn concentrations in roots and detached roots. Inter-seasonal variations in below-ground concentrations of P in MG and SG were less pronounced and concentrations increased through the sampling period whilst Ca concentrations declined. Below-ground fluctuations of K and Mg were similar to LG, but concentrations were much higher especially during the growing season. Mn concentrations in roots and rhizomes increased with mowing frequency.

Discontinued mowing resulted in reduced concentrations of K in all components. Higher concentrations in PAD suggests either a site difference or a return to higher levels at later successional stages.

Nutrient concentrations in above- and below-ground fractions of forbs are shown in <u>APP. 10</u>, and compared to concentrations in other components. They are considered in more detail in terms of nutrient pools in the following chapter.

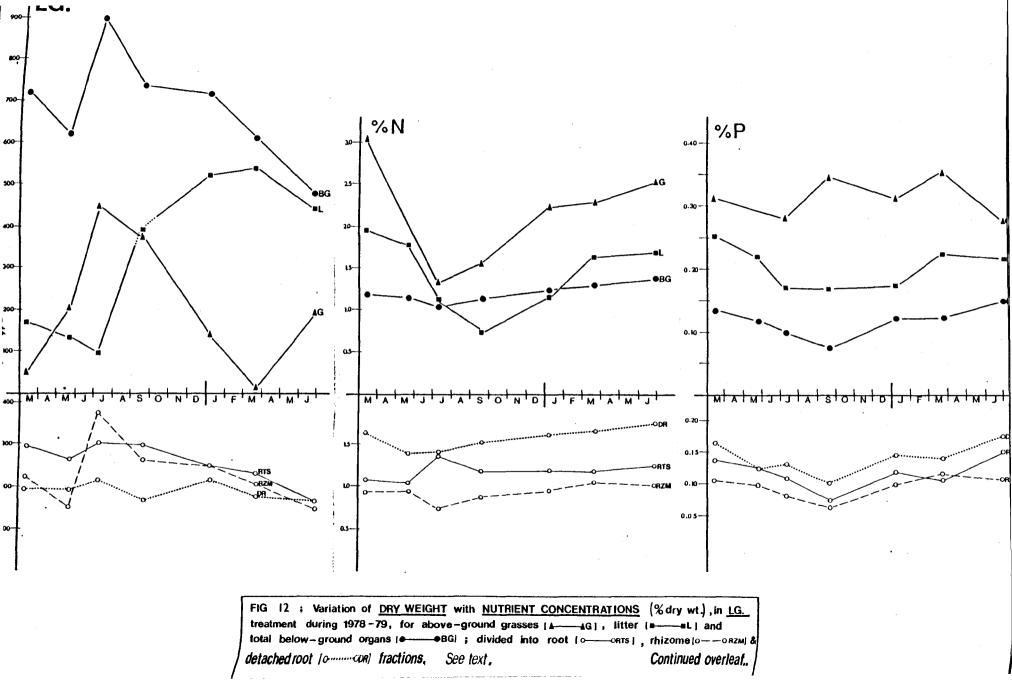
4.11 Conclusions

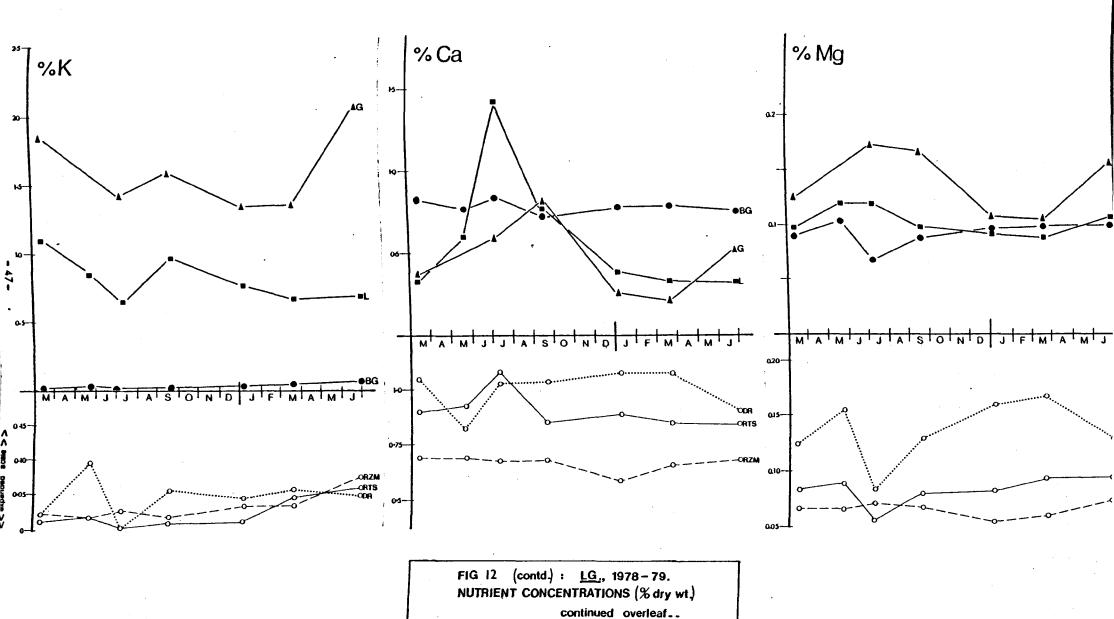
- Seasonal changes in nutrient concentrations between above- and below-ground components of the vegetation are varied, but often inter-related and correlated with fluctuations in biomass of one or more of these components.
- 2. Seasonal variations of N and $C\alpha$ in all components and P and K in above-ground components demonstrate a marked degree of independence from each other, and from other component concentrations.
- 3. Increased biomass of above-ground grasses during the growing season is correlated with lowest N and P concentrations in grasses, but highest Mg and Na concentrations. Ca and Mn concentrations increase through the season to reach a peak in autumn, whereas K and Zn fluctuations are variable but tend to be lowest during the growing season.
- 4. Litter concentrations are primarily influenced by grass biomass and nutrient concentrations, although to a lesser extent for N and P (see <u>Chapter 6</u>). Concentrations in litter are higher in mown grasslands.
- 5. Ca and Mn concentrations are higher in litter than in grasses, and peak concentrations precede those of grasses.
- 6. Below-ground nutrients, with the exception of Ca and Zn, are in lesser concentrations than above-ground nutrients. K and Na concentrations are particularly low.
- 7. N and Ca concentrations are lowest in rhizomes and detached roots, and

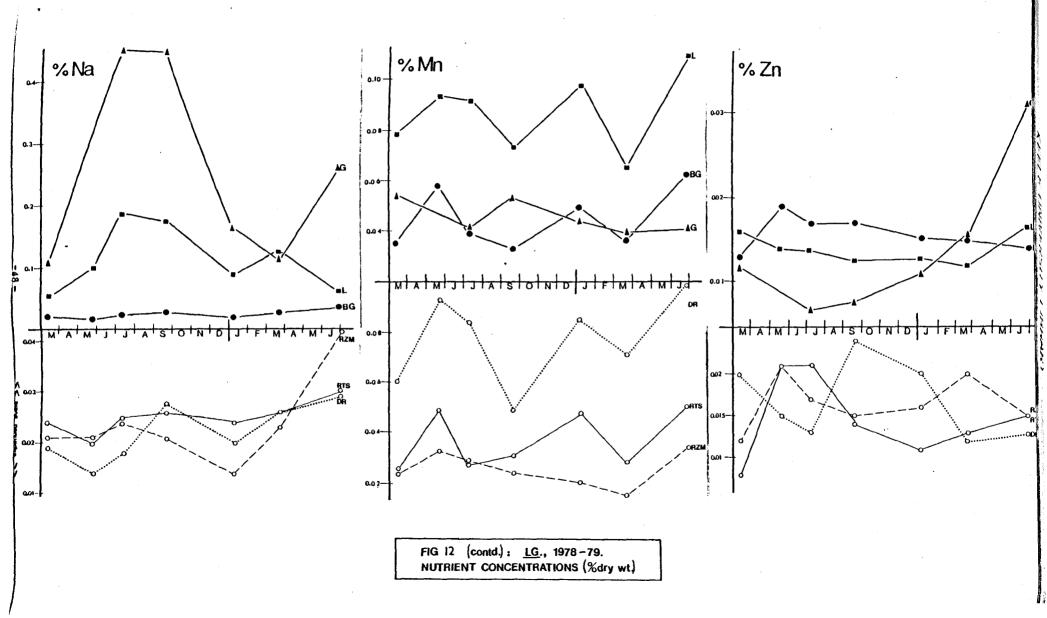
highest in roots, during their peaks of biomass. Together with Na and Zn in roots and rhizomes, they are less concentrated in mown grassland.

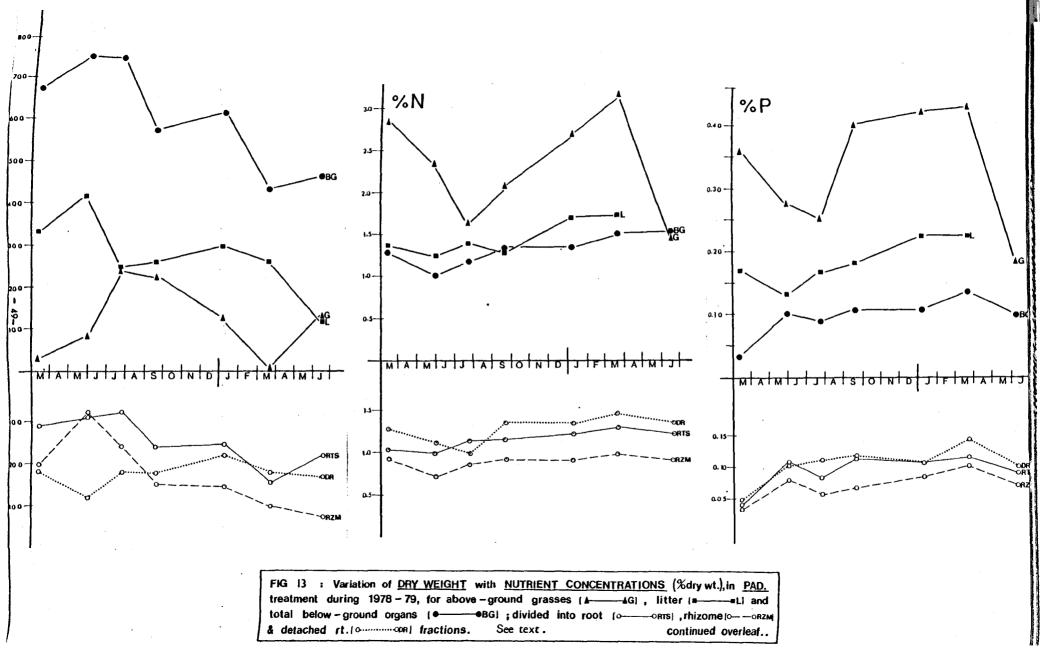
- 8. Inter-seasonal variations of below-ground P concentrations are less pronounced in mown treatments, whereas K, Mg and Mn concentrations increased with mowing frequency.
- 9. Detached root concentrations, in all except Na and Zn, are higher than for other below-ground components. Seasonal patterns are distinctive although often negatively correlated with root or rhizome biomass.
- 10. Regression equations can be used to describe most component concentrations in terms of dry weight parameters. Otherwise, they can often be described in terms of other nutrient concentrations combined with dry weight parameters.

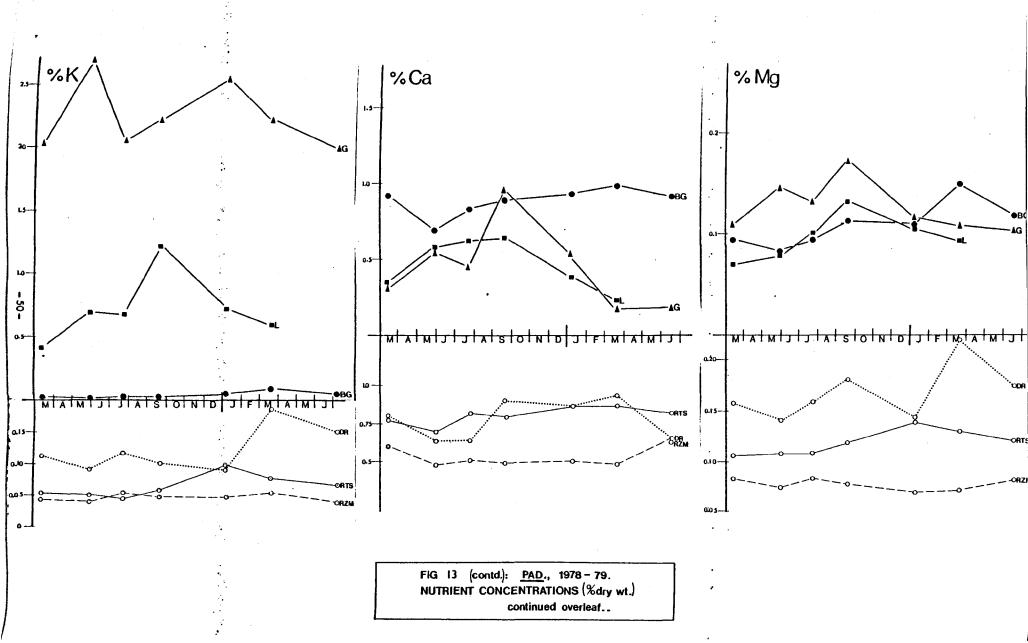
Dry weight and nutrient concentration data are combined in the following chapter to provide an examination of seasonal changes in compartmental pools. The conclusions of the present chapter are considered in a broader perspective in Chapter 8, and discussed in relation to available published information.

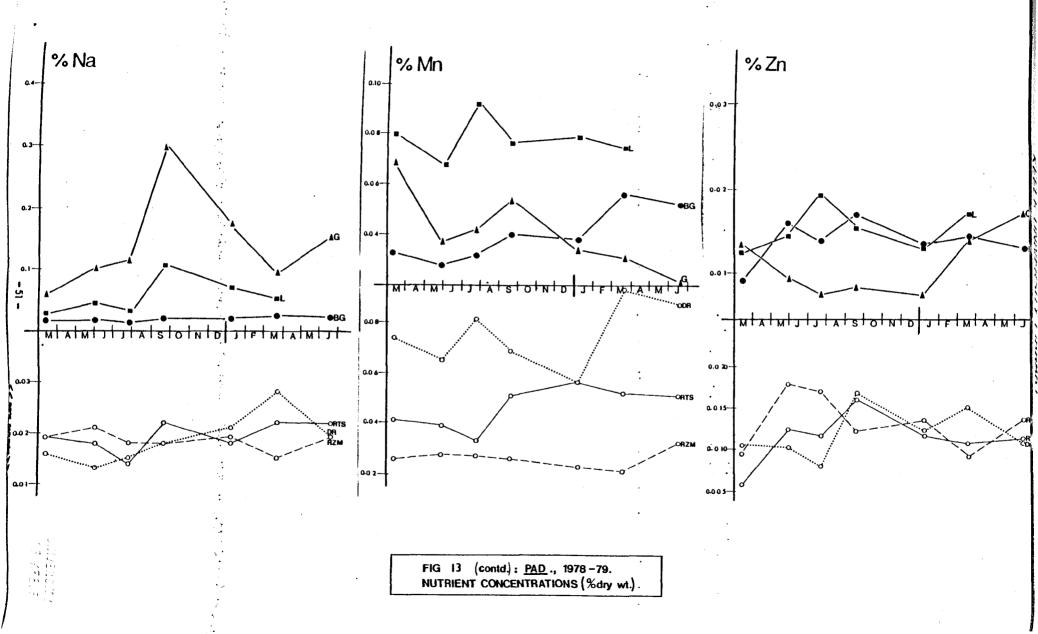












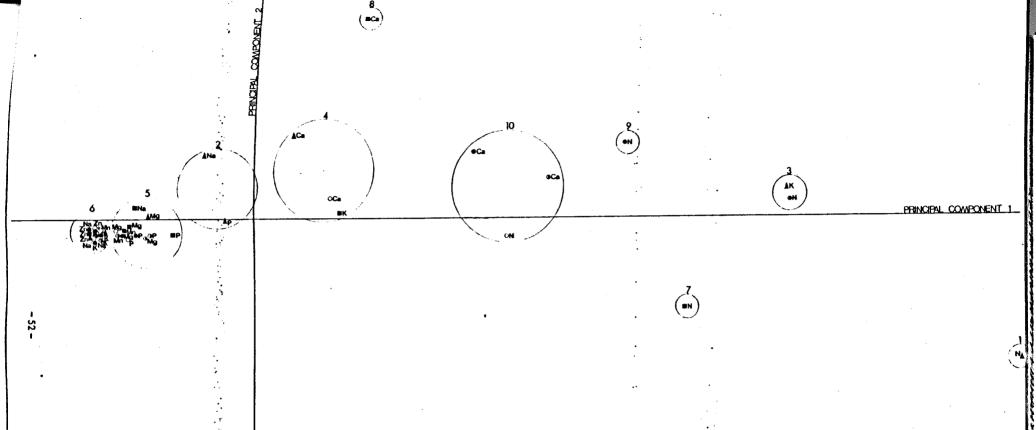


FIG 14: Cluster analysis - LG.

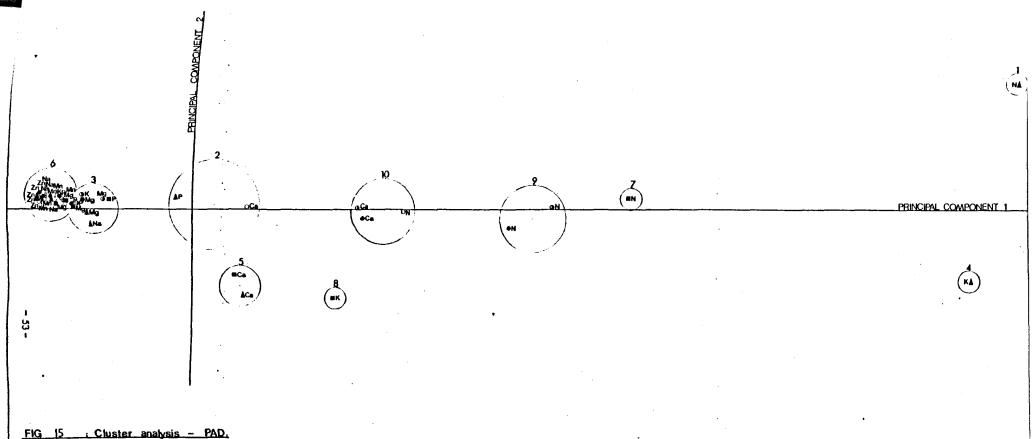
mach point represents a case measured on each of six variables (sampling dates). Cases are nutrient concentrations (% dry weight) in Grasses (4), Litter (1), Roots (1), Rhizomes (1), and Detached Rts(1).

Ten clusters, indicated by circles, have been selected. Cluster diagnostics are shown. See text.

SUMMARY OF CLUSTER DIAGNOSTICS (Wards method)

:	NUMBER OF CLUSTER										
	·	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1	7 7 7 7 7 7										
1	F-RATIO (INTRA-CLUSTER VARIATION)	0.00	0.02	0.04	0.04	0.01	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.06
;	· i			••••		0.02	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
	(INTER-CLUSTER VARIATION)	3 16	A 10	2 20	0.20	0.50	3 01	1 75	0.46	1 62	3 OF
	(INITER-OFFICER AWITHITON)	7.10	0.13	2.20	0.20	0.50	ノ・ラエ	1.17	0.40	エ・フノ	エ・リン

Small F-ratios indicate relatively low variation within the cluster. Large deviations from zero for the T-values indicate cluster values differ from the population mean. Each value is the mean for six variables.



Each point represents a case measured on each of six variables (sampling dates). Cases are nutrient concentrations (% dry weight) in Grasses (A), Litter (B), Roots (B), Rhizomes (C), and Detached Rts(C).

Ten clusters, indicated by circles, have been selected. Cluster diagnostics are shown. See text.

SUMMARY OF CLUSTER DIAGNOSTICS (Wards method)

NUMBER OF CLUSTER

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

(INTRA-CLUSTER VARIATION) 0.00 0.03 0.00 0.00 0.02 0.00 0.00 0.02 0.01

T-VALUE
(INTER-CLUSTER VARIATION) 3.40 0.08 0.44 3.19 0.23 0.59 1.78 0.58 1.38 0.75

Each value is the mean for six variables.

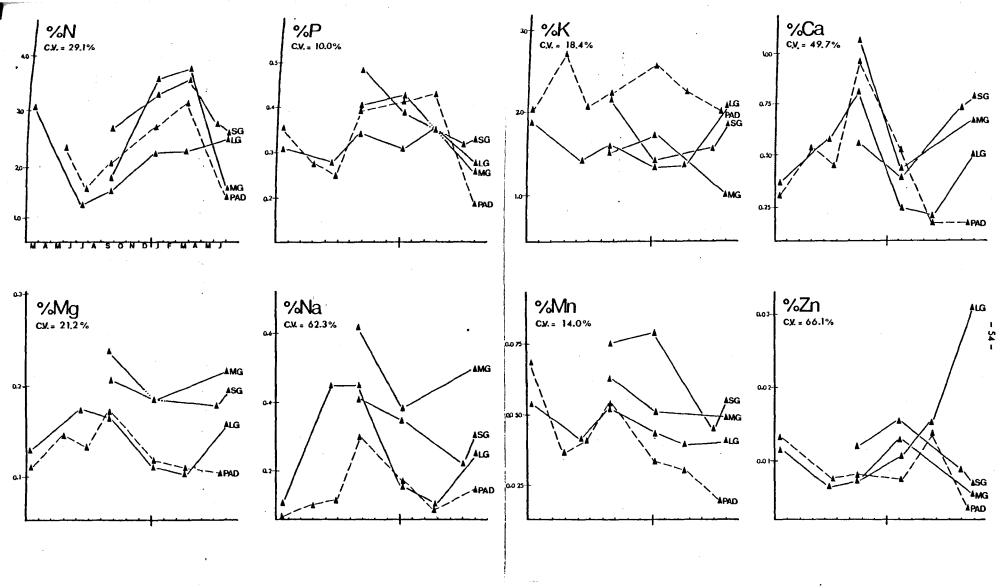


FIG 16; Percentage nutrients in above-ground <u>GRASSES</u> (dry wt. basis) from each cutting treatment during 1978 - 79. C.V. = coefficient of variation (for LG only).

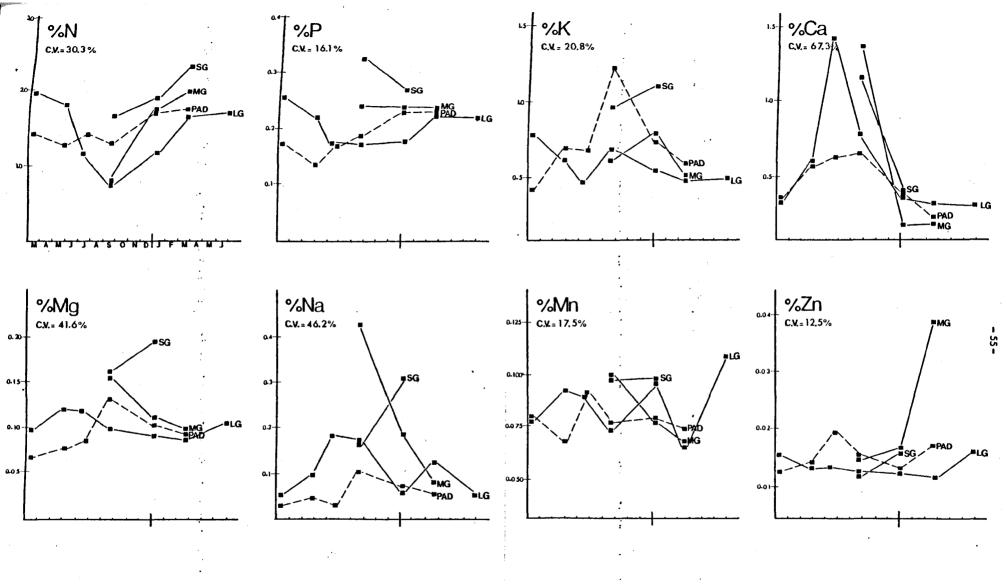


FIG 17; Percentage nutrients in <u>LITTER</u> (dry wt. basis) from each cutting treatment during 1978 - 79. C.V. = coefficient of variation (for LG only).

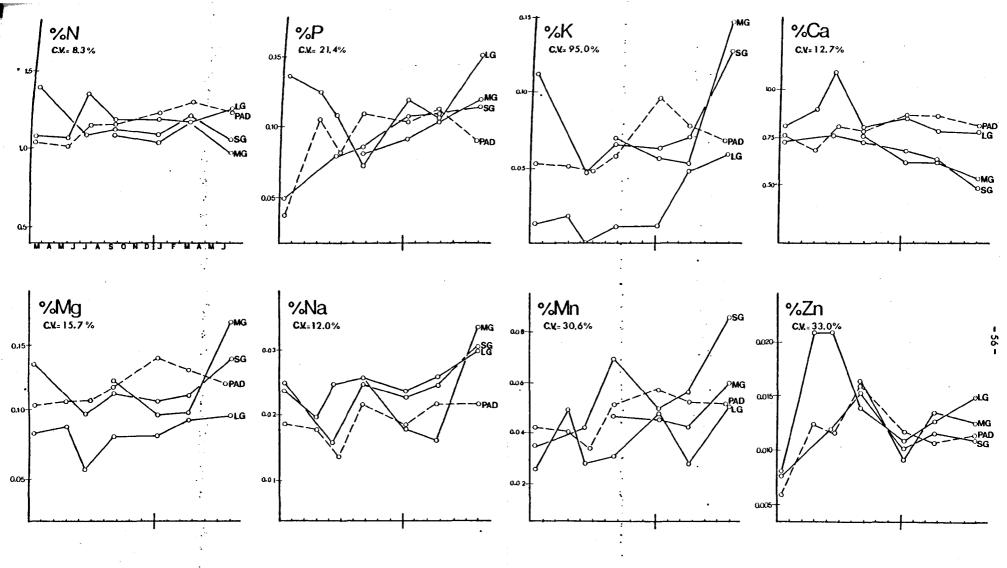


FIG 18; Percentage nutrients in ROOT fraction (dry wt. basis) from each cutting treatment during 1978 - 79. CV. = coefficient of variation (for LG only).

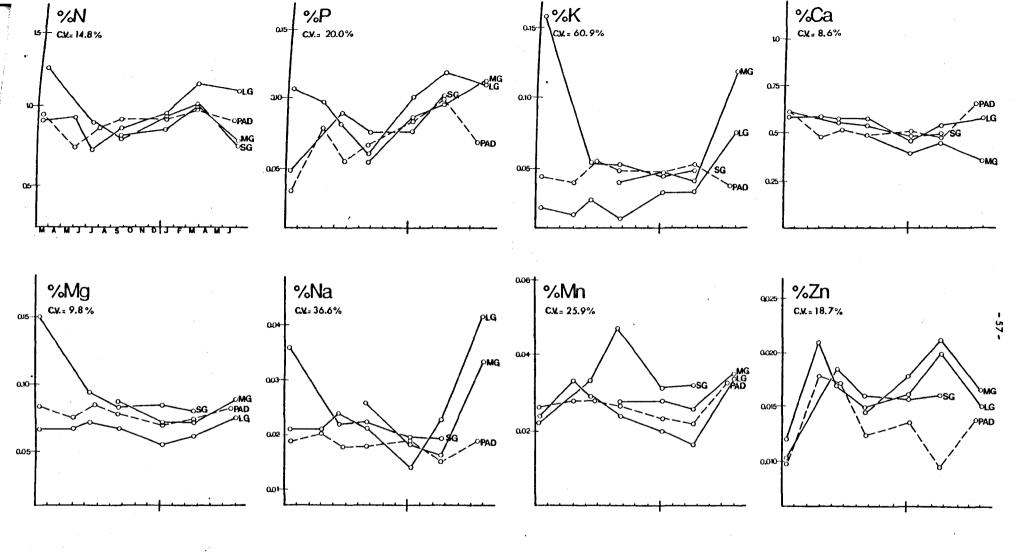


FIG 19; Percentage nutrients in <u>RHIZOME</u> fraction (dry wt. basis) from each cutting treatment during 1978 – 79. C.V. = coefficient of variation (LG only).

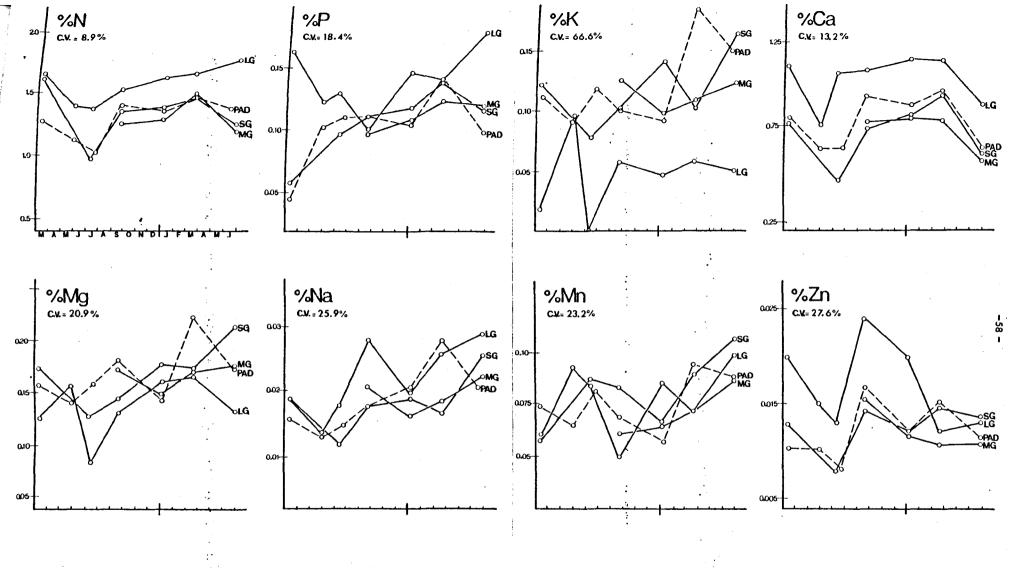


FIG 20; Percentage nutrients in <u>DETACHED RT.</u> fraction (dry wt. basis) from each cutting treatment during 1978 - 79. C.V. = coefficient of variation (LG only).

(LG)	GRASS CONCENTRATIONS	LITTER CONCENTRATIONS	ROOT CONCENTRATIONS	RHIZOME CONCENTRATIONS	DETACHED ROOT CONCENTRATIONS
%N	G(−)*	G(-), L(-), RTS(-)*	G, RTS(-), RZM*	RZM(-)*	RZM(-)***
% P		G(-), L(-), DR(-)*, RTS(-)**		G(~)*	
% K	RZM(-), L(-), G(-)*	RTS, RZM(-)*	RTS(-)**	RTS(-)**, L**	L**, DR(-)**
%Ca	G*	RZM*, G*	RZM*	L(-), DR(-)***	RTS, L, G(-), RZM*
%Mg	G*	G, L(-), RTS*, RZM**	RZM(-)***		L*, G(-)**, RTS(-)***
%Na	G***	RZM, DR*, L(-)**	RTS(-)*	RTS(-), L(-), DR(-), G*	DR(-)**
7.Mn	RTS, RZM		RTS(-)		RTS(-), DR*
%Zn	RTS(-)**	L(-), RZM(-)*	G		

TABLE 6: Multiple Regression Analysis (LG). Table shows order of independent variables (dry weights) brought into equations and levels of significance at each step (* 5%, ** 1%, *** 0.1%). Negative correlations are indicated and missing values mean no significance within 10%. Full results in Appendix 5.

(<u>PÀD</u>)	GRASS CONCENTRATIONS	LITTER CONCENTRATIONS	ROOT CONCENTRATIONS	RHIZOME CONCNS.	DETACHED ROOT CONCENTRATIONS
7.N	G(-)**, RZM(-)**		RZM(-)*	RZM(-)**	RTS(-)*
% P	RZM*(-), L**(-), G***(-)	RZM**(-)			
%K				L**(-)	RTS(-)
%Ca		G*, DR**(-)	RZM*(-)		RZM(-)**
7Mg		G, RTS*(-)	RZM(-)		RTS(-)*
%Na		RZM(-), G, L(-), DR**	RTS*(-)	L*	RTS**(-)
7Mn		L(-), RTS*	RZM(-)	RTS**	L(-), DR(-), G(-), RZM(-)*
%Zn	G(-)	L(-), DR(-)*	G, RTS(-), L(-)	RZM*	RTS(-)

TABLE 7: Multiple Regression Analysis (PAD). Table shows order of independent variables (dry weights) brought into equations and levels of significance at each step (* 5%, ** 1%, *** 0.1%). Negative correlations are indicated and missing values mean no significance within 10%. Full results in Appendix 6.

GRASS CONCENTRATIONS	LITTER CONCENTRATIONS	ROOT CONCENTRATIONS	RHIZOME CONCENTRATIONS	DETACHED ROOT CONCENTRATIONS
P%=P%rts(-), G(-)**	P%=N%1**	<i>P</i> %= <i>P</i> %dr***	Mg%=Mn%rzm*	<i>P%=N%</i> dr, <i>K</i> %dr(-)*
	Mn%=Mg%1, Na%1(-), Zn%1*	P%=N%1, P%g(-)*	<i>Na</i> %=K%rzm*, <i>Mg</i> %rzm**	$\it Ca$ %=RTS, $\it Mg$ %dr*
		Mn%=RTS(-), K%rts*	Mn%=Mg%rzm*	

PAD

GRASS CONCENTRATIONS	LITTER CONCENTRATIONS	ROOT CONCENTRATIONS	RHIZOME CONCENTRATIONS	DETACHED ROOT CONCENTRATIONS
K%=L, P%rts*	N%=P%1*	<i>P%=P%</i> dr*	P%=P%rts*	P%=N%rts, DR(-)*
Ca%=Mg%g**	K%=Mg%1*, L(-)**	P%=Zn%rts*, G*	P%=RTS(-), N%rzm(-)*	K%=Mn%dr**
Ca%=Na%g*, RZM**	Na%=K%1*, Ca%1**	K%=Mg%rts***	Ca%=P%rzm(-)*	
Mg%=Ca%g**	e e	K%=N%1*	Mg%=P%rzm(-)*	
Mg%=Na%g, DR(-)*		Mg%=K%rts***		
Na%=Ca%g*, RZM(-)**		Mn%=Mg%rts*		
Mn%=K%g(-), L, Na%g(-), DR*		Zn%=P%rts*		

TABLE 8: Additional Regression Analyses for LG (above) and PAD (below) in which nutrient concentrations are added to the independent variables (dry weights) in the equations. Negative correlations are indicated with levels of significance at each step (* 5%, ** 1%, *** 0.1%). Full results in Appendix 7.

(LG)		HIGHEST CONCENTRATIONS	LOWEST CONCENTRATIONS			HIGHEST CONCENTRATIONS	LOWEST CONCENTRATIONS
NZ	Grasses Roots Rhizomes Detached roots	peak grass & root b	eak grass biomass iomass eak grass biomass eak grass biomass	Mg%	Grass Roots Rhizomes* Detached roots	peak grass biomass	peak root biomass
P%	Grass* Roots* Rhizomes Detached roots*	a a	eak grass biomass utumn utumn utumn	Na%	Grass Roots Rhizomes Detached roots	peak grass biomas	n sampling period- s n sampling period-
K%	Grass Roots Rhizomes Detached roots	-increased through	eak rhizome biomass a sampling period- eak rhizome biomass	Мп%	Grass Roots Rhizomes* Detached roots	autumn autumn	peak root biomass autumn/winter
Ca %	Grass Roots Rhizomes Detached roots	autumn peak root biomass autumn winter		Zn %	Grass Roots Rhizomes* Detached roots*	peak root biomass -decreased through	n sampling period-

Table 9: Summary of main seasonal events associated with highest and lowest concentrations of each nutrient in components of standing crop in <u>LG</u>. Litter is omitted (see Chapter 6). Asterisks denote component concentration is poorly correlated with dry weight parameters.

(PAD)		HIGHEST CONCENTRATIONS	LOWEST CONCENTRATIONS				WEST TRATIONS
NZ	Grass Roots Rhizomes Detached roots	peak grass biomass	peak grass biomass peak rhizome biomass peak grass biomass	Mg%	Grass* Roots Rhizomes* Detached roots	autumn peak root peak grass biomass low root biomass	biomass
P%	Grass Roots* Rhizomes* Detached roots*	spring	peak grass biomass	Na%	Grass* Roots Rhizomes Detached roots	autumn peak root peak rhizome biomass peak root	ł
K%	Grass* Roots* Rhizomes* Detached roots	winter-low variati	peak grass biomass on peak rhizome biomass	Mn%	Grass* Roots Rhizomes Detached roots	autumn peak root peak rhizome biomass winter	biomass
Ca%	Grass* Roots Rhizomes* Detached roots	autumn winter	early summer	Zn%	Grass Roots Rhizomes Detached roots	peak gras autumn peak rhizome biomass autumn	s biomass

Table 10: Summary of main seasonal events associated with highest and lowest concentrations of each nutrient in components of standing crop in <u>PAD</u>. Litter is omitted (see Chapter 6). Asterisks denote components concentration is poorly correlated with dry weight parameters.

CHAPTER 5

NUTRIENT POOLS

Data are combined from <u>Chapters 3</u> and <u>4</u>, which should be read in conjunction with the present chapter. The aims were to provide further study of the significance of nutrient changes by examining variations of the total standing crop of nutrients in each vegetation component (or *nutrient pool*) according to season and management regime. These are considered in perspective with total soil nutrients.

Further information may be provided in this way which could not be ascertained from nutrient concentration data. For example. large accumulations of litter in LG and PAD may limit the availability of certain nutrients which would not be indicated from nutrient In the previous chapter it was noted that certain concentration data. nutrients, for example N in grasses, were in minimum concentrations The present chapter should indicate at times of peak biomass. whether differing amounts of nutrients were involved, or whether large pools were bound in other components. Also the present chapter should provide information concerning the overall changes in all vegetation components combined, to indicate whether nett gains or losses to the soil take place, and furthermore the proportion of nutrients removed as cuttings.

Finally it may be possible to provide estimates of the annual requirements of each nutrient and help to provide an understanding of the nutrition of amenity grassland.

5.1 Methods

Soil samples for nutrient determinations were taken randomly from the treatment plots on two occasions; in November 1978 and April 1979. At least 15 samples were collected on each occasion, using a 2.5 cm auger to 10 cm depth. Samples were dried at 105° C and digested in a perchloric-nitric-sulphuric acid mixture prior to analysis. Allen et al. (1974) discuss the effectiveness of this digestion method, which may be unreliable for Ca and Mg. Analyses follow those described previously, except for C and N which were determined using a Perkin-Elmer 240 CHN microanalyser. No attempts were made to measure 'available' nutrients.

Soil nutrient concentrations are given in APP. 1. Pools of each nutrient in soil and vegetation components were calculated using the following formulae:

CORRECTION FACTOR
FOR
(C) = total soil nutrient (%) x ash wt. of sample
100

5.2 Total Nutrients in LG

Total nutrients in each component of the vegetation in LG are shown in <u>FIG. 21</u>. Peak amounts of all nutrients in above-ground grasses, during the growing season, corresponded to largest amounts in rhizomes. Above-ground losses from grasses during winter resulted in large litter accumulations of N, P, Mg and Mn through the sampling period. K, Ca and Na reached highest levels in litter during autumn and winter, with large losses before the following growing season.

The amounts of nutrients below ground were consistently higher than in above-ground grasses for N, Ca, Mn and Zn. Above-ground reserves of P and Mg were higher during the growing season and K and Na were always in small amounts below ground. Nutrient reserves were of similar proportions in all below-ground components.

Root reserves of N, Ca, Na and Zn were highest during June/July 1978, followed by a progressive decline. Conversely, root K, Mg and Mn were lowest in June/July 1978. Root P was lowest in September, but levels were very variable.

Maximum reserves of N, P, $C\alpha$, Mg, Mn and Zn in detached roots were during winter. Detached root K and Mg were high in May/June, but low in June/July 1978.

Annual changes in the sizes of nutrient pools are shown in <u>TABLE 11</u>.

Gains or losses of component pools are calculated by subtracting 1978

from 1979 values. Between March of these years, large increases in

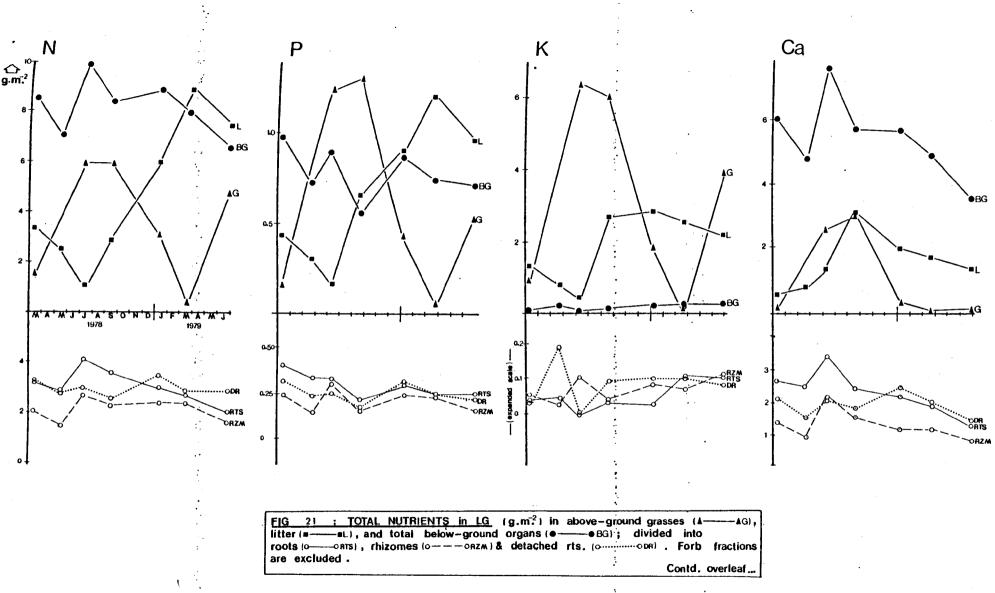
total plant component pools were caused by large accumulations of

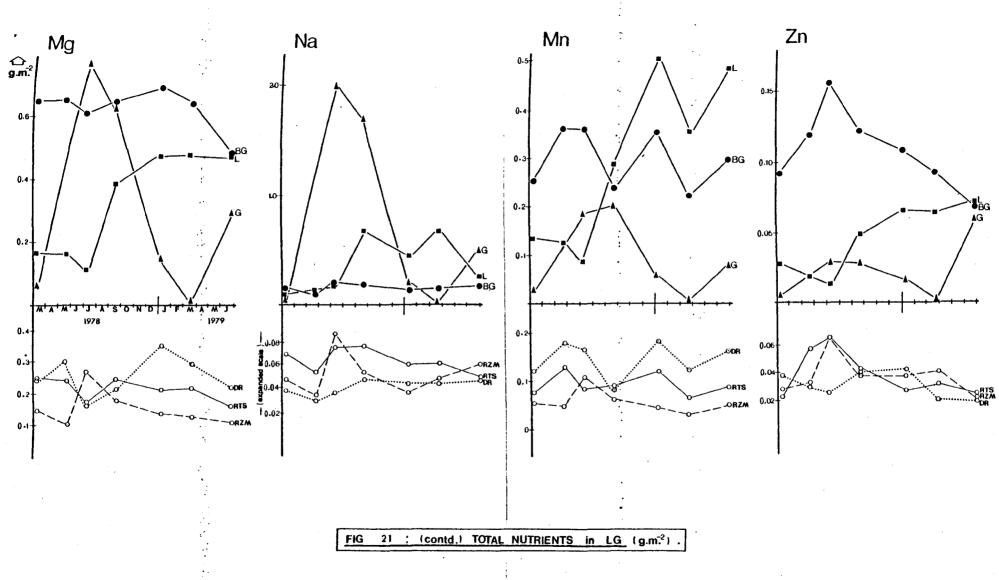
nutrients in litter. This represents nett uptake from the soil. Nett

losses from vegetation components to the soil were evident between

June 1978 and June 1979, corresponding to reduced production of grasses,

roots and rhizomes. 11.7% increase of total vegetation N reflects





															· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	
		N		P		K	(Ca .	I	1g	No	ζ	Λ	<i>î</i> n	2	Zn
COMPONENT	м-м	J-J	м-м	J - J	м-м	J-J	M-M	J-J	м-м	J-J	M-M	J-J	м-м	J-J	M-M	J - J
Grasses	-1.212	1.143	-0.105	-0.719	-0.736	-2.425	-0.156	-1.627	-0.049	-0.473	-0.038	-1.511	-0.022	-0.109	-0.004	+0.030
Litter	+5.493	+6.396	+0.773	+0.792	+1.225	+1.735	+1.198	+0.044	+0.311	+0.357	+0.573	+0.086	+0.219	+0.393	+0.036	+0.058
Roots	-0.448	-2.065	-0.162	-0.083	+0.071	+0.099	-0.755	-2.083	-0.034	-0.016	-0.010	-0.027	-0.012	-0.001	+0.006	-0.041
Rhizomes	+0.291	-1.127	+0.002	-0.148	+0.016	+0.006	-0.218	-1.307	-0.022	-0.161	-0.001	-0.028	-0.022	-0.060	+0.013	-0.043
Detached Roots	-0.343	-0.084	-0.075	+0.042	+0.066	+0.083	-0.180	-0.603	+0.045	+0.053	+0.007	+0.013	+0.004	-0.002	-0.018	-0.005
TOTAL GAIN OR LOSS	+3.781	+1.977	+0.433	-0.116	+0.642	-0.502	-0.111	-5.576	+0.251	-0.240	+0.531	-1.467	+0.167	+0.221	+0.033	-0.001
% gain or loss	+28.2%	+11.7%	+27.7%	-5.0%	+26.6%	-7.3%	-1.6%	-48.4%	+28.5%	-16.1%	+173.8%	-61.7%	+40.5%	+34.9%	+26.4%	-0.5%
					 											

TABLE 11: Annual changes of nutrient pools (g.m. -2) in LG between 13 March 1978 to 22 March 1979 (M-M) and 10 July 1978 to 10 June 1979 (J-J).

larger accumulations in litter.

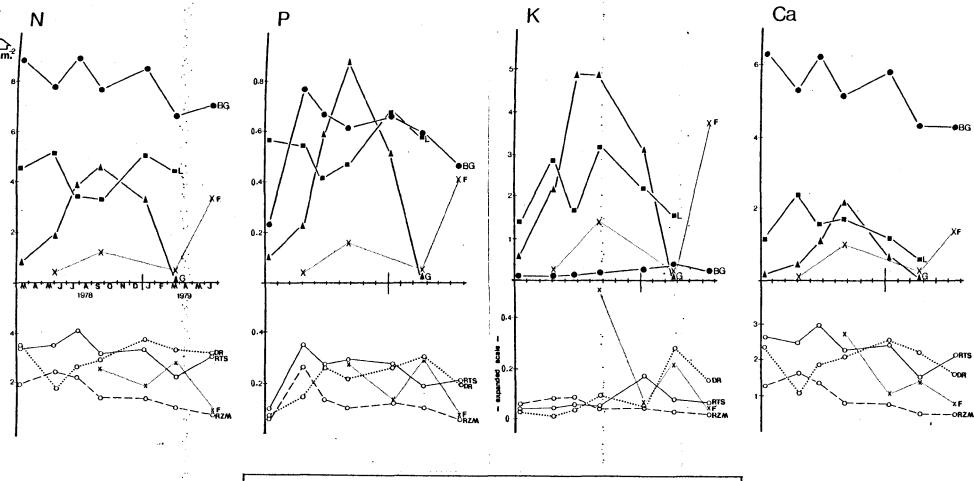
5.3 Total Nutrients in PAD

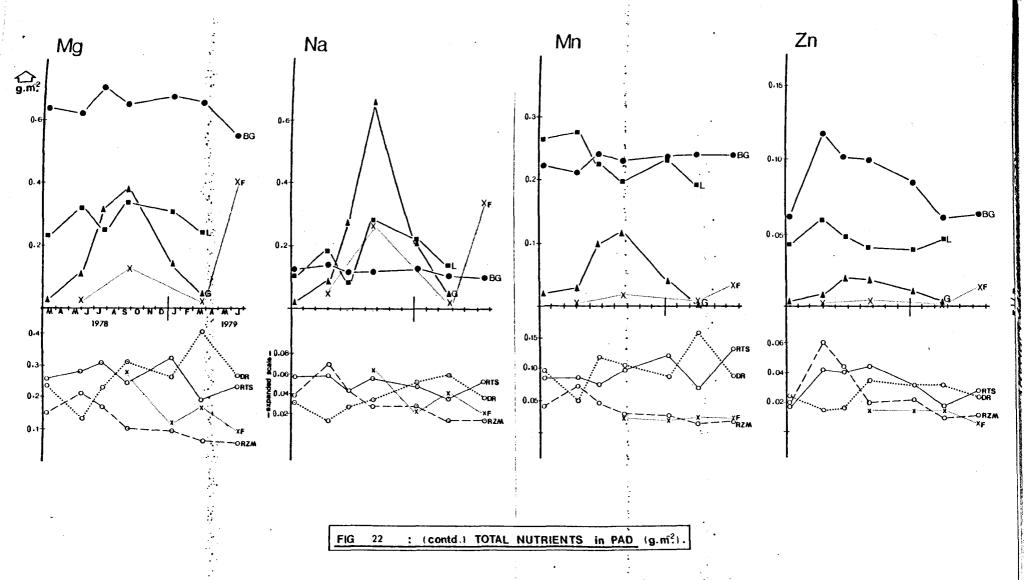
Total nutrients in each component of the vegetation in PAD are shown in <u>FIG. 22</u>. Peak amounts of nutrients in above-ground grasses were reached in September, except for *K* and *Zn* which were in largest amounts in July. Rhizome nutrients reached a peak early in the growing season, followed by a progressive decline. Substantial amounts of nutrients were bound in above- and below-ground forb fractions.

Litter nutrient dynamics were directly influenced by the current seasons biomass to a lesser extent than in LG. N, P, K, Mg and Na were lowest during the growing season, whereas Ca, Mn and Zn were highest in June 1978 followed by a decline.

Amounts of nutrients in above- and below-ground compartments were essentially the same as LG, excepting Mg which was lower in above-ground grasses in PAD. Root reserves of N and Ca reached peak levels in July, and P in June, followed by a decline until the next growing season. K, Mg, Mn and Zn tended to increase through 1978 with highest levels in winter. In detached roots, all nutrients were in largest amounts over winter, mostly with peak levels in June 1978, although P and K varied slightly.

Annual changes in the sizes of nutrient pools between March 1978 and March 1979 are shown in <u>TABLE 12</u>. Most nutrient pools decreased over the year (cf. <u>TABLE 11</u>), except for P which increased in all components except grasses. Otherwise, the main differences to LG were due to reduced litter pools. Changes in forb nutrient pools are not included, because annual data are not available, but standing crop in March 1979 is shown in the table. Forb biomass proliferated through the year, from low levels, and much of the nutrients lost from grass





COMPONENT	N	P	K	Ca	Mg	Na	Mn	Zn
Grasses	- 0.651	- 0.081	- 0.470	- 0.080	-0.026	-0.012	- 0.018	-0.003
Litter	- 0.056	+ 0.020	- 0.152	- 0.545	+0.011	+0.04	- 0.071	+0.003
Roots	- 1.162	+ 0.087	+ 0.031	- 1.091	-0.070	-0.021	- 0.018	+0.001
Rhizomes	- 0.93	+ 0.036	- 0.024	- 0.760	-0.088	-0.023	- 0.027	-0.010
Detached Roots	- 0.11	+ 0.232	+ 0.257	- 0.119	+0.170	+0.027	+ 0.061	+0.008
TOTAL GAIN OR LOSS	- 2.909	+ 0.294	- 0.358	- 2.595	-0.003	+0.011	- 0.073	-0.001
% gain or loss	-20.5%	+32.5%	-17.0%	-34.6%	-0.3%	+4.5%	-14.3%	-0.9%
FORB STANDING CROP (March 1979)	3.294	0.342	0.495	1.432	0.193	0.060	0.027	0.015

TABLE 12: Annual changes of nutrient pools (g.m. -2) in PAD between 13 March 1978 and 21 March 1979, excluding forbs. Forb standing crop (above-ground + below-ground) in March 1979 is shown.

components must become bound in forb fractions.

5.4 Effects of Mowing on Total Nutrients in Roots

In roots (FIG. 23) total nutrients maintained broadly similar levels in all treatments although certain seasonal differences were apparent, particularly in July 1979. Contrary to LG and PAD, SG levels of N, P and Ca did not increase in May/June 1978 but together with MG levels they increased substantially in June 1979.

Seasonal pattern also differed between treatments for K and Mg. Reserves in LG were comparatively low in July 1978 but, together with PAD, increased over winter. Levels in MG were particularly high in June 1979, in both cases. Na levels were less variable in LG and PAD, and Mn and Zn in SG reached high levels in September.

5.5 Effects of Mowing on Total Nutrients in Rhizomes

In rhizomes (FIG. 24) total nutrients declined more rapidly through the sampling period in PAD than in LG. In most cases, as with roots, nutrient levels in SG did not increase during the 1978 growing season, but levels of all nutrients except $C\alpha$ and Mn were higher in mown treatments in June 1979. K levels were notably high in SG in March 1978 and, as with roots, Mn reached highest levels in September 1978.

5.6 Effects of Mowing on Total Nutrients in Detached Roots

In detached roots (FIG. 25) all nutrients in SG, except K and Mn, were in lesser amounts than in LG during the 1978 growing season, but otherwise fluctuations were similar. Seasonal changes in K, Mg and Mn were extremely variable between treatments, and tangible differences are difficult to discern. K levels in all treatments were low during

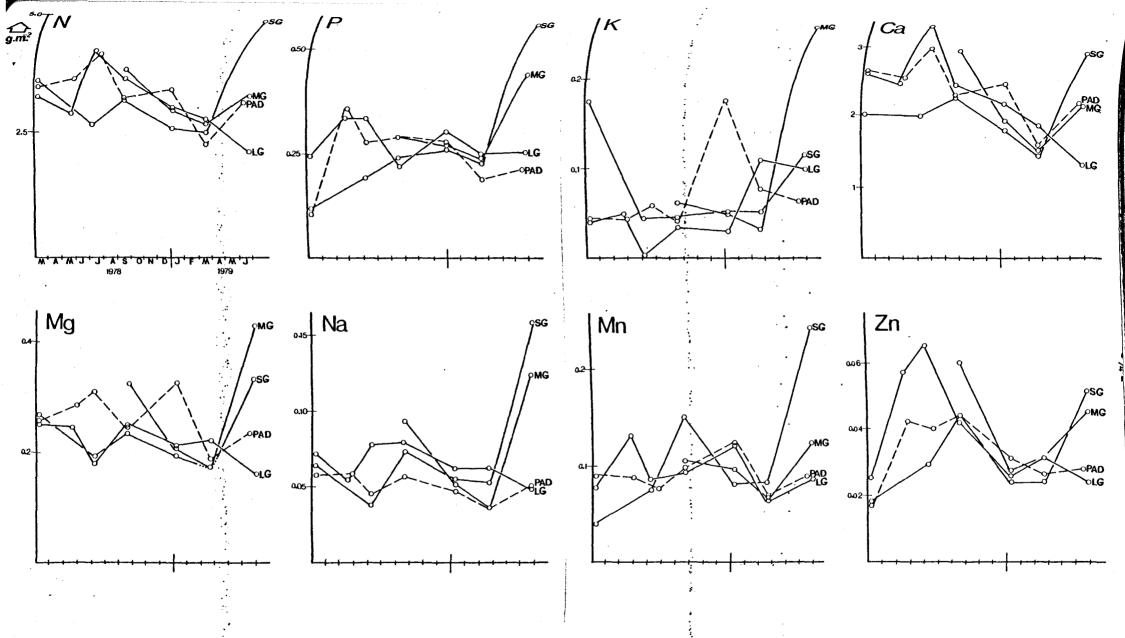


FIG 23 : TOTAL NUTRIENTS in ROOTS (g.m.2) from each cutting treatment.

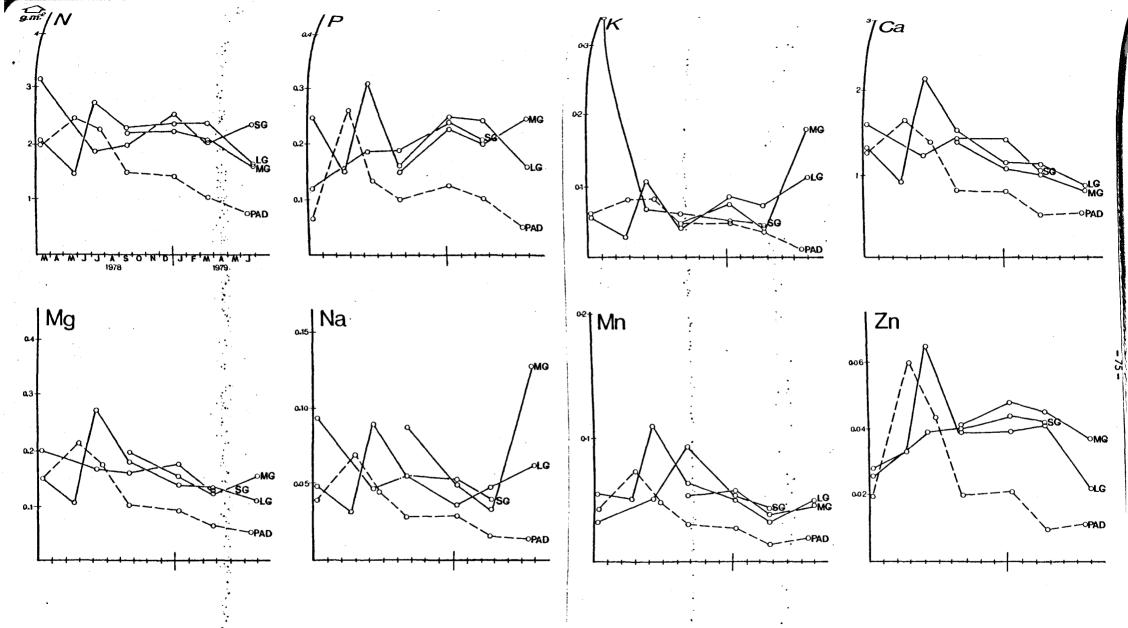


FIG 24 : TOTAL NUTRIENTS in RHIZOMES (g.m.2) from each cutting treatment.

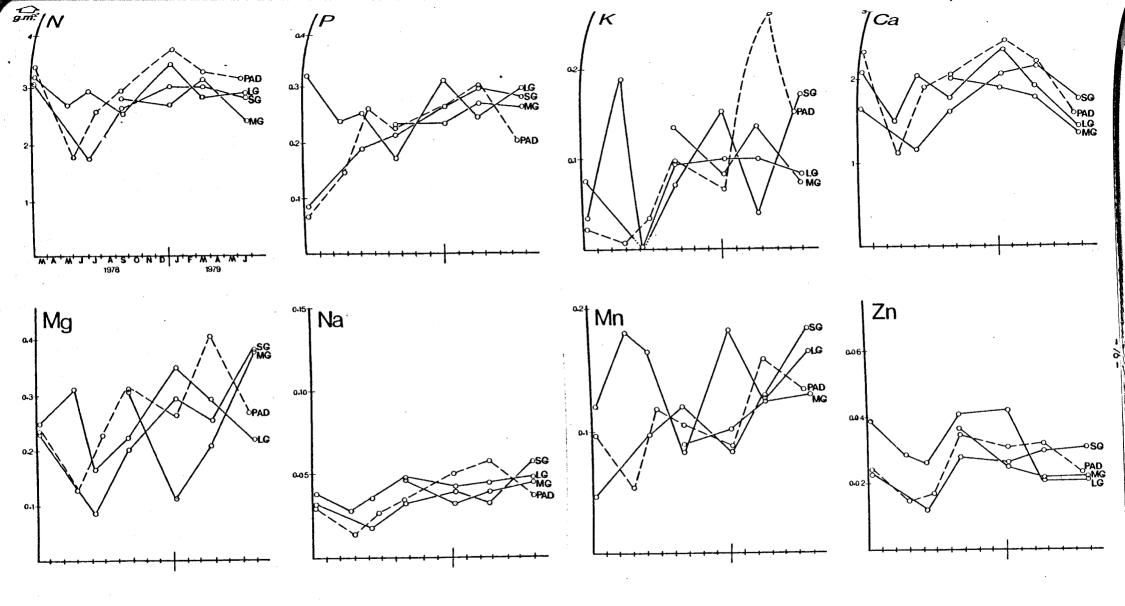


FIG 25 : TOTAL NUTRIENTS in DETACHED RTS(g.m.,2) from each cutting treatment.

July 1978 with a winter increase, and June 1979 levels in SG were high whilst other treatments were low. Similarly Mg levels were high in SG and MG in June 1979, but over-wintering levels in MG were extremely low. Low winter levels of Mn in SG contrasted with high winter levels in LG.

5.7 Distribution of Nutrient Pools

Maximum and minimum proportions of nutrients in each vegetation component in LG are illustrated in <u>FIG. 26</u>, to provide a summary of variations described. Below-ground reserves of all nutrients, except K and $N\alpha$, were always substantial and in overall terms roughly equally distributed between roots, rhizomes and detached roots. Levels in above-ground components were variable over a wide range, resulting in large scale cycling of nutrients between vegetation and soil. The illustrations should be compared with FIG. 21 for details of seasonal variations.

The proportions of total ecosystem nutrients in the vegetation are shown in <u>TABLE 13</u>. Less than 5% of total nutrients in the ecosystem enter the plant sub-system, in all cases except Ca and Na. Thus, most nutrients in this grassland ecosystem are either unavailable to the vegetation, or else unexploited.

5.8 Nutrient Removal from Mown Treatments

Dry matter removed after mowing was described in <u>Chapter 3</u>, and a consideration of the amounts of nutrients removed as cuttings is appropriate. Cuttings were chemically analysed from 4 of the 6 mowings in SG during 1979. The percentage of total vegetation and ecosystem nutrients removed are shown in <u>TABLE 14</u>. Percentages have been calculated from mean values.

Large proportions of vegetation nutrients are removed as cuttings.

FIG 26: Distribution of nutrients between components of vegetation in LG. Segments indicate maximum proportions in component, and dotted sub-divisions indicate minimum proportions. See text.

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	N	Р	K	Ca	Mg	Na	Mn	Zn
Maximum % in vegetation (date)	4.45 (Jun.79)	4.76 (Jul.78)	3.17 (Sep.78)	27.56 (Jul.78)	0.76 (Sep.78)	22.43 (Sep.78)	1.08 (Jan.79)	2.94 (Jul.78)
Minimum % in vegetation (date)	3.22 (Mar.78)	3.05 (Mar.78)	0.89 (Mar.78)	14.78 (Jun.79)	0.40 (Mar.78)	3.32 (Mar.78)	0.49 (Mar.78)	1.34 (Mar.78)

TABLE 13: Maximum and minimum percentages of total ecosystem nutrients in vegetation (grasses + litter + roots + rhizomes + detached roots) in LG.

	N	P	K	Ca	Mg	Na	Mn	Zn
Total Nutrients Removed per Mowing (g.m. ⁻²)	0.768	0.104	0.521	0.284	0.064	0.095	0.023	0.002
% of Total Nutrients in Vegetation Removed per Mowing	6.38	8.30	17.08	4.72	6.59	14.09	5.64	1.72
% of Total Ecosystem Nutrients Removed per Mowing	0.11	0.18	0.17	0.56	0.03	0.71	0.02	0.02

TABLE 14: Nutrients removed from SG as cuttings. Values are means of 4 mowings as a percentage of total vegetation and ecosystem nutrients (mean values).

On an annual basis (i.e.: six cuts per year), for example, approximately 38% and 50% of mean standing crop of N and P respectively are removed. $N\alpha$ and K removal are particularly large, with over 100% of mean standing crop of K removed per year.

However, extremely small proportions of total ecosystem nutrients are removed as cuttings; in most cases 1% or less per annum. Proportions of Ca removed are larger, but estimates should be treated with caution since extremely low concentrations in soil may have been under-estimated. Larger losses of Na are probably insubstantial, for an element so ubiquitous.

5.9 Conclusions

Nutrient investment in plant components differs according to management regime. In the first season following cessation of mowing a large nutrient investment in grasses, roots and rhizomes is followed by a decline, and accumulation of nutrients in litter. Increased biomass is suppressed after a further season of discontinued mowing and rhizome reserves decline, although forb fractions proliferate. Most litter nutrient pools are large in the first year following cessation of mowing but small during the second growing season, except for Ca, Mn and En which are retained in the litter. Large accumulations of nutrients in litter result in a nett increase in the amounts of most nutrients in the vegetation, but as nutrients are released from litter nett nutrient losses from grass components become bound in forb fractions.

Below-ground reserves of N, Ca, Mn and Zn are consistently larger than above-ground reserves, P and Mg vary seasonally, and K and Na are always in small amounts below ground. Root reserves of nutrients vary although N and Ca pools are largest during the growing season, and K, Mg and Na largest during winter. Nutrient reserves in detached

roots are generally largest in winter.

Mowing suppresses increases of grasses, roots and rhizomes and limits detached root pools during the first growing season. After this initial period, mowing encourages substantial investments in root and rhizome nutrient pools. Seasonal fluctuations of K, Mg, Na and Mn pools in roots, rhizomes and detached roots are particularly affected by mowing regime. Nutrient pools in detached roots were smaller in SG than in LG, during the growing season.

Less than 5% of most nutrients in these ecosystems are contained within the plant sub-system and usually 1% or less of nutrients are removed per annum by mowing, although this represents a large proportion of the nutrients in vegetation. These values are generally higher for Ca and Na.

The significance of these results in relation to published information is considered in <u>Chapter 8</u>.

CHAPTER 6

ABOVE-GROUND LITTER

Seasonal fluctuations of standing crop of litter and the effects of mowing regime have been considered in previous chapters, together with variations in nutrient concentrations and pools. In particular, surface accumulation of litter has been shown to influence the annual cycle of production, in the absence of mowing. In this chapter, an attempt is made to clarify certain aspects of surface litter decomposition, and particularly of those factors which govern accumulation and breakdown.

6.1 Introduction

Reviews of decomposition studies and methodology have recently been presented (Dickinson and Pugh, 1974ab; Schlesinger, 1977; Singh and Gupta, 1977; Swift et al., 1979). One technique which has proved particularly useful is the litter bag method (Shanks and Olson, 1961; Edwards and Heath, 1963), in which litter is enclosed in nylon or wire bags of various size mesh. The technique has been most valuable in studies of the colonization and role of soil animals and micro-organisms during breakdown and the chemical changes brought about, although a number of associated problems and inaccuracies have been identified (Anderson, 1973; Howard and Howard, 1974; Suffling and Smith, 1974). The method has been extensively used in woodland studies, but most investigations in grasslands have utilized the paired-plots method of Wiegert and Evans (1964), or its modification (Lomnicki et al., 1968). Nevertheless, litter bags have been used in grassland studies (Curry, 1969; Bleak, 1970; Malone, 1970; Williams et al., 1977; Hunt, 1978, 1979), and were considered most appropriate in the present investigations.

Environmental factors which affect decomposition are described by

Williams and Gray (1974) and Swift et al. (1979). Grassland litter is generally less resistant to decay than woodland litter, lacking toughness and accumulations of polyphenols, but resource quality can be a particularly important factor. Although physico-chemical properties of litter determine breakdown, temperature and moisture are the variables of predominant importance (Schlesinger, 1977). Perkins et al. (1978) found that rates of litter loss in Snowdonia montane grasslands were positively correlated with rainfall and soil moisture, when air temperature was above 9°C and soil temperature above 7°C. Floate (1970, bc) found that moisture content, within the range of 25-100% moisture-holding capacity, has less influence than temperature in controlling the mineralization of C, N and P from decomposing plant materials of Scottish hill pastures.

Experiments were devised to examine the breakdown of the large surface accumulations of litter described. Three litter bag experiments were carried out in the unmown treatments (LG and PAD) during periods when the standing crop of litter was large. The aims were to measure the rates of disappearance, nutrient mineralization and the biotic and abiotic factors which are the most important determinants of breakdown. An elucidation of these processes should provide a further insight into the significance of these surface accumulations, their persistence and importance in the changes of ecosystem structure brought about by cessation of mowing.

6.2 Methods

Litter bag experiments were carried out in LG and PAD at various times between May and December in 1978 and 1979. 15 x 15 cm litter bags were made from 45 μ m and 950 μ m nylon mesh and 7 mm polyethylene fabric mesh, assuming 45 m mesh excludes all soil animals, 950 μ m excludes earthworms and 7 mm allows entry to all soil animals (based on Edwards and Heath, 1963). Each bag was loosely filled with 2-3 g litter, previously collected from the site and oven-dried. Litter was re-wetted before returning to the field, and spillage inaccuracies were carefully avoided.

^{1.}St Martin's Nylon Mesh; Henry Simon Ltd., Cheadle Heath, Stockport. 2.Grant's Cropguard Shade Fabric; Low Bros. & Co., Dundee.

In Experiment A 7 mm litter bags were set out in LG and PAD on various occasions, and collected after periods of between 29-88 days. Litter bags were placed on the soil surface or in the centre of the litter zone, and at least 4 replicates were used in all cases. Each bag was positioned randomly or, where practicable, in the quadrats selected for biomass sampling. Fresh and dry weights were recorded and samples stored prior to chemical analysis.

Experiment B was initiated in early June 1978, in PAD, to examine breakdown from litter bags of varying mesh size. Twelve replicate litter bags of each mesh size were positioned on the soil surface beneath the vegetation, and a further 12 7 mm mesh bags placed in approximately the centre of the litter zone. Six of each set of bags were collected after 49 and 85 days. Fresh and dry weights were recorded and samples stored prior to chemical analysis.

Experiment C was initiated in May 1979, in LG, to examine breakdown in different zones of the litter layer in more detail. A 4 x 15 grid with points 0.3 m apart was marked out, and three 7 mm litter bags fastened at each point with skewers. One bag was positioned on the soil surface, another at the centre of the litter layer, and the third above the vegetation (see PLATE). Four sets of bags were removed after 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 9, 11 and 15 weeks, after which soil contamination prevented easy removal of litter. Fresh and dry weights were recorded and samples stored prior to chemical analysis.

6.3 Results and Discussion

Rates of breakdown from 7 mm litter bags in Experiment A are shown in TABLE 15. Rates were slightly lower in the litter zone than at the soil surface, and lower during the drier summer and cooler winter months.

TREATMENT	POSITION OF LITTER BAG	PERCENTAGE BREAKDOWN PER DAY (WITH DATES)									
LG	soil surface	0.878 (May → Jul) 1978	0.723 (Jul → Oct) 1978	0.696 (May → Jun) 1979	0.411 (Jun → Jul) 1979	0.770 (Jul → Aug) 1979					
	soil surface	0.720/0.784*	0.843/0.781*	0.818	1.089	0.553					
PAD	litter zone	0.527 (Jun → Jul) 1978	0.686 (Jul → Sep) 1978	0.815 (Aug → Oct) /1978	0.950 (Oct → Nov) 1978	0.594 (<i>Oct</i> → <i>Dec</i>) 1978					

TABLE 15: Percentage loss of dry wt. per day from 7 mm litter bags placed on soil surface and in litter zone in LG and PAD (*independent estimates).

Using similar methods, Curry (1969) recorded breakdown rates of 0.17 to 0.24% per day at an old grassland site in Co. Kildare, Ireland and Perkins et al. (1978) measured rates of 0.2 to 1% per day in a montane grassland in Llyn Llydaw, Snowdonia. Clearly, breakdown rates in the present study were high although few recordings were made during the winter months. Litter bag values can be compared to breakdown rates calculated from changes in standing crop of litter (Section 3.2) during periods of minimum input into the litter compartment, whilst grass biomass was rapidly increasing (TABLE 16).

LG	0.286 (Mar-May) 1978	0.620 (May-Jul) 1978		
PAD	0.582 (Mar-Jun) 1979	0.751 (Jun-Jul) 1978		

TABLE 16: Percentage breakdown of litter per day, from standing crop data.

Error will tend to under-estimate these values, thus corroborating the accuracy of litter bag data.

Curry (1969) used much larger weights and also used herbage, rather than litter, in his litter bags (20 g in 22.5 x 18.8 cm bags) which may have given lower breakdown rates. Keele breakdown rates are comparable to those of Perkins $et\ \alpha l$. (1978) in Snowdonia, where temperatures are slightly lower but rainfall much higher (TABLE 17).

	AIR TI MEAN MAX.	EMP(^O C) MEAN MIN.	SOIL TEMP(°C) 15 cms.	RAINFALL (mm annum ⁻¹)
KEELE (Dec.1978-Nov.1979)	10.9	4.4	8.4	795
LLYN LLYDAW* (1966-71)	9.2	5.1	7.9	2932

TABLE 17: Climatological data (*from Perkins, 1978)

Singh and Gupta (1977) listed breakdown rates of 0.003 and 0.3% per day for temperate ecosystems, although mostly woodland sites. Clearly, breakdown rates of large litter accumulations in LG and PAD were extremely rapid.

Results from Experiment B are shown in FIG. 27. Litter disappeared most quickly from 7 mm mesh bags positioned on the soil surface with a 65% reduction after 85 days, illustrating the importance of earthworms in the early stages of breakdown (see Edwards and Lofty, 1977).

Nevertheless, where earthworms were excluded 30-40% breakdown still occurred and 49% from 7 mm mesh bags in the litter zone, which would have been less accessible to earthworms. Breakdown was slightly slower in 950 µm mesh bags, which allowed access to microarthropods, than in the finest mesh bags. The contributions of these smaller animals to the early stages of decomposition are limited, although the activities of microbivores may be important (see Wallwork, 1970, 1976; Swift et al., 1979).

However, breakdown processes are less straightforward than these dry weight data may indicate. Nutrient changes in confined litter are shown in <u>FIG. 28</u> and <u>TABLE 18</u>. Nutrient concentrations increased in litter confined in 950 μ m and 45 μ m mesh bags, but tended to decrease or remain approximately level in litter confined in 7 mm mesh bags, particularly in the litter zone.

Decomposition of plant materials is typically accompanied by increases in the relative concentrations of certain nutrients (see Floate, 1970a-d), through carbon release in respiration and nutrient immobilization in decomposer tissues. These decomposition processes, together with leaching and some fragmentation, must account for litter disappearance and nett immobilization of nutrients in 45 μ m litter bags.

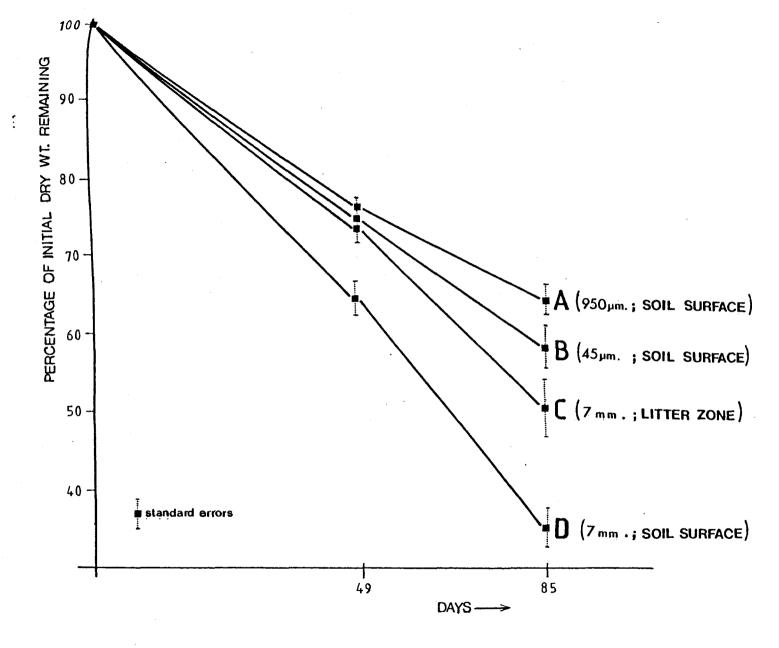


FIG. 27: Disappearance of litter from 45 μ m, 950 μ m, and 7 μ m, mesh bags (see text). Significant differences exist between treatments, at the 0.001% level, at t₁ and t₂.

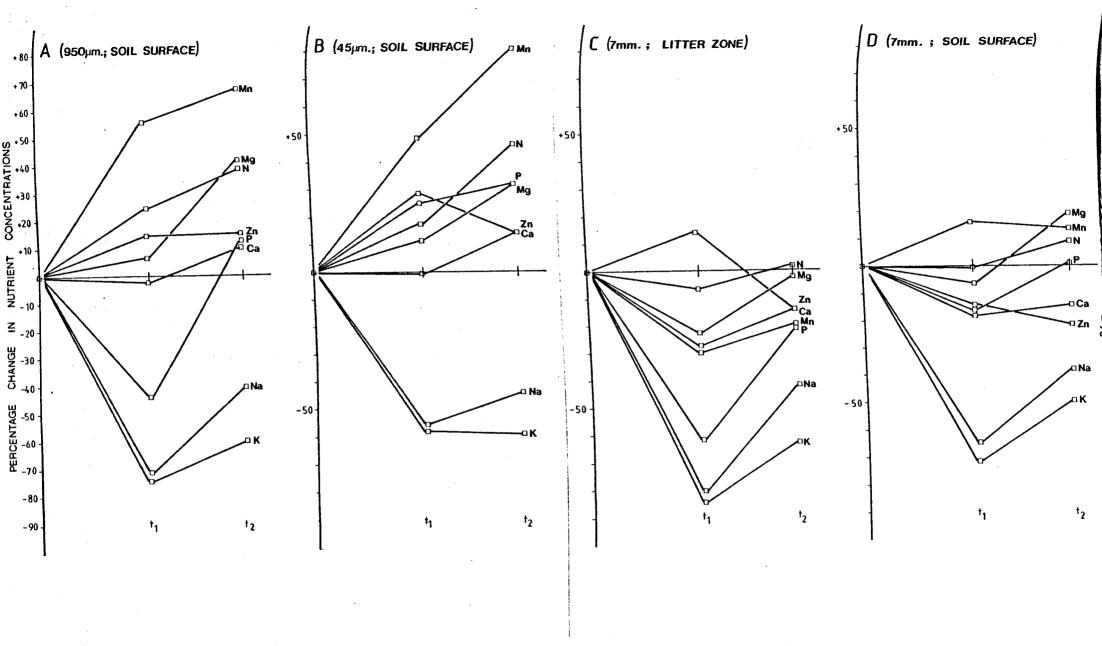


FIG 28 : Percentage change in nutrient concentrations of litter after 49 (†1) and 85 days (†2) in 45 μ m., 950 μ m. and 7mm. mesh bags.

	PERCENTAGE LOSS PER DAY								
	DRY WEIGHT	N	P	K	Ca	Mg	Na	Mn	Zn
A. 950 μm soil surface	0.428	0.134	0.333	0.892	0.347	0.109	0.733	-0.085	0.340
B. 45 μm soil surface	0.497	0.178	0.277	0.909	0.400	0.278	0.807	-0.062	0.397
C. 7 mm litter zone	0.607	0.599	0.728	0.971	0.693	0.615	0.850	0.721	0.676
D. 7 mm soil surface	0.782	0.748	0.779	0.984	0.839	0.707	0.938	0.729	0.869

TABLE 18: Percentage of dry weight and total nutrients remaining in litter from 950 μm , 45 μm and 7 mm mesh bags after 85 days (June-September).

Losses from 7 mm bags would include the effects of litter removal and comminution by earthworms, which probably accelerate nutrient mineralization. P and Ca were immobilized to a lesser extent in 950 μ m than in 45 μ m litter bags, which may be an indication of faunal activity (see Swift et al., 1979). Na and K are highly mobile and rapidly leached from plant tissues (Clement et al., 1972; Koelling and Kucera, 1965).

Possible moisture differences between litter in bags of different mesh sizes were examined, since high moisture content during summer months would favour microbial activity and also increase leaching. However, moisture recordings at time of collection were similar for each mesh size, although reduced moisture conditions in 7 mm mesh bags in the litter zone may have contributed to slower breakdown rates:

	PERCENTAGE MOISTURE		
	t ₁	^t 2	
A) 950 μm soil surface	66.7 <u>+</u> 3.2	79.0 <u>+</u> 1.9	
B) 45 µm soil surface	66.1 <u>+</u> 4.5	79.0 <u>+</u> 1.5	
C) 7 mm litter zone	35.7 <u>+</u> 7.7	70.7 <u>+</u> 3.2	
D) 7 mm soil surface	62.6 <u>+</u> 2.9	76.7 <u>+</u> 1.8	

TABLE 19: % moisture of litter at times of collection (\pm s.e.)

Thus, it may be inferred that 55-64% of normal litter breakdown rates can be achieved in the absence of earthworms, through microbial release of carbon. The main contribution of earthworms is probably in burying plant remains, although their activities accelerate nutrient mineralization. The effects of microarthropods in this respect are limited.

Results from Experiment C are shown in FIG. 29, with calculated breakdown rates in TABLE 20. Dry weight disappeared from all litter layers at similar rates, but often slower in the air zone.

	% BREAKDOWN PER DAY					
WEEK NOS	AIR ZONE	LITTER ZONE	SOIL SURFACE			
0-1	1.96	1.43	1.20			
1-2	0.03	0.24	0.36			
2-3	0.17	0.59	0.74			
3-4	0.43	0.98	0.52			
4-5	-0.69	-0.66	-0.37			
5-6	0.81	0.87	2.17			
6-7	0.14	0.62	-1.53			
7-9	0.50	0.02	0.89			
9-11	-0.35	-0.55	-0.31			
11-15	0.74	1.26	0.77			

TABLE 20: Percentage breakdown per day of litter from 7 mm mesh bags, positioned in air zone, litter zone and on soil surface.

Nutrient concentrations in litter from each set of litter bags are shown in <u>FIG. 30</u>. As with 7 mm mesh bags in the previous experiment, concentrations either remain approximately level or tend to decrease. In most cases, litter in bags positioned above the vegetation (air zone) maintained lower concentrations than in litter bags nearer the soil.

An interesting feature of the varying concentrations of most nutrients is the occurrence of peak levels at week 6. A comparison of these graphs with rainfall and litter moisture levels during the period $(c.f. \underline{FIG. 31})$ reveals distinct resemblances. Low rainfall for nearly two weeks corresponds with low nutrient concentrations at

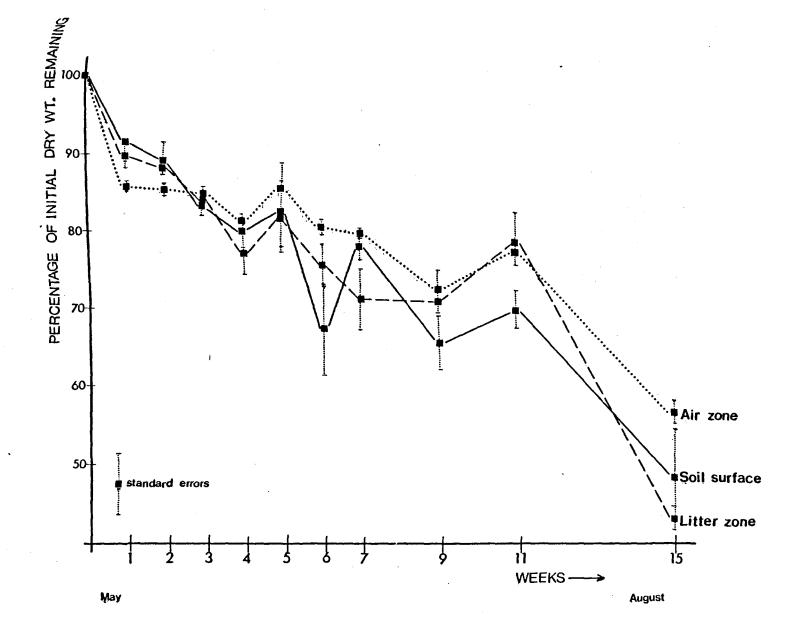
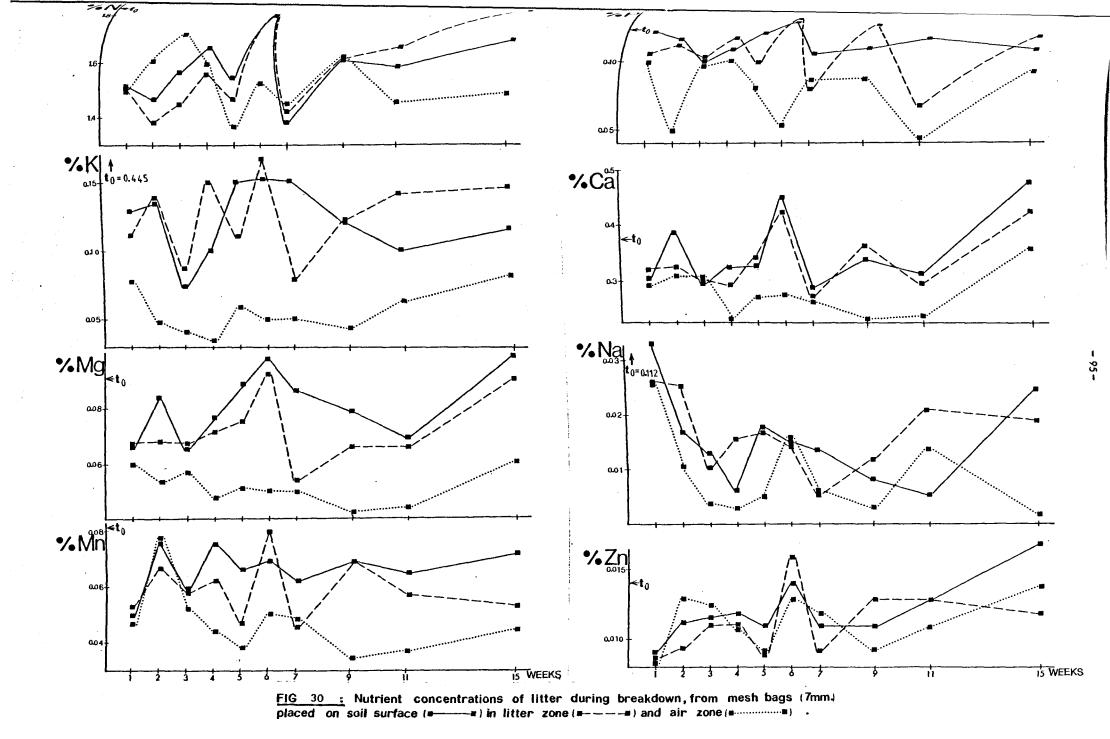
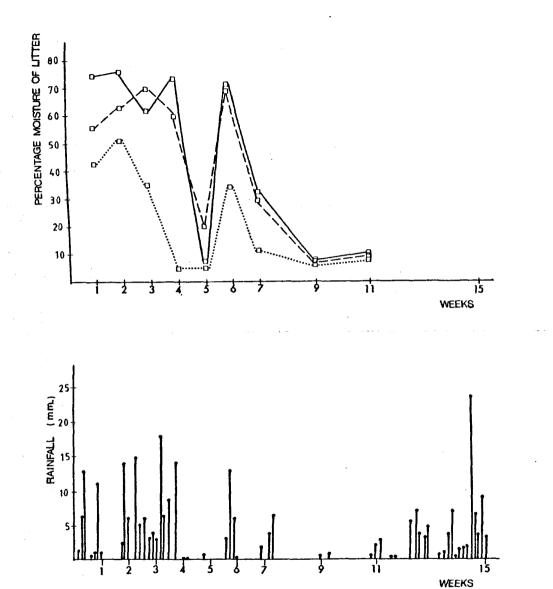


FIG 29: Disappearance of litter from 7mm, mesh bags placed at different levels in vegetation. No significant differences between zones (p = 0.2), except at week 1 where p = 0.05.





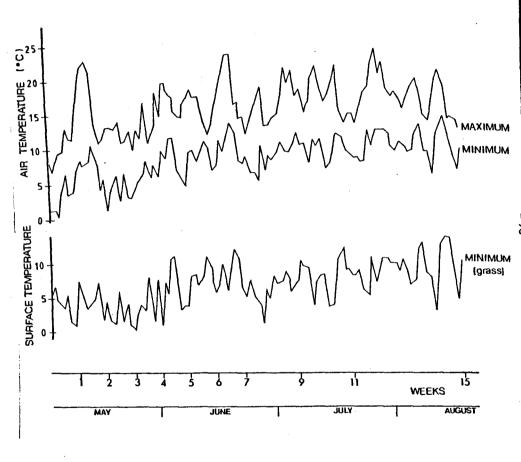


FIG 31; Moisture content of litter, and climatological data during 15 weeks of breakdown (see figs. 29 & 30).

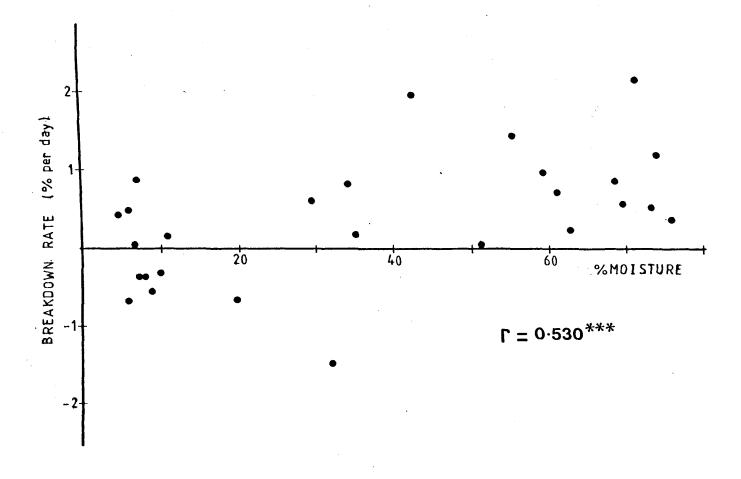


FIG 32: Breakdown rates versus moisture content of litter. Data from litter bags (7mm.) on soil surface, in litter zone and air zone. (Expmt. B)

week 5, and is followed by three days heavy rain and high nutrient concentrations at week 6. Litter in the air zone was subjected to longer periods of dryness and maintained lower nutrient concentrations. Breakdown rates can be correlated with moisture content of the litter (FIG. 32).

Thus, nutrient concentrations appear to be determined by a balance of immobilization and mineralization, according to prevailing moisture conditions. However, nett immobilization does not continue to increase during long periods of rainfall, so dry periods must be important. Obviously, repeated wetting and drying would increase fragmentation. Oven-drying of litter at the start of the experiment led to K and $N\alpha$ levels of less than 38% of original values a week later (FIG. 30). It may be speculated that fluctuating moisture conditions could help to maintain microbial populations in a metabolically active juvenile phase, thus enhancing rates of decomposition.

6.4 Conclusions

Breakdown rates of large surface accumulations of litter in LG and PAD were rapid, particularly during spring and autumn. Litter bag experiments indicated that earthworms accelerate breakdown rates, with 65% disappearance recorded after 85 days compared to 30-40% in their absence. The activities of earthworms are accompanied by increased mineralization of nutrients from litter, whereas their absence leads to nett immobilization. Microarthropods also limit immobilization, but do not accelerate the disappearance of dry weight during the early stages of breakdown.

Moisture content of litter is correlated with the disappearance of dry weight, but the principle effects of prevailing moisture conditions on decomposition appear to be more subtle. Besides increasing fragmentation and leaching, repeated wetting and drying must affect microbial populations on the litter surface, and apparently determine the pattern of mineralization and immobilization.

The combined influence of prevailing moisture conditions and faunal activity determine breakdown rates of litter. Their mutual effects on surface microbial populations are considered to be particularly important.

CHAPTER 7

BELOW-GROUND COMPONENTS

7.1 Introduction

The large below-ground component of primary production emphasizes the importance of a consideration of below-ground dynamics. The paucity of ecological studies concerned with below-ground productivity and associated processes has previously been stressed, together with many of the problems involved in such investigations.

Valid estimates of nett primary productivity (NPP) cannot accurately be derived from changes in biomass (ΔB) over a specified time period ($t_0 - t_1$), but must incorporate some measurement of losses due to breakdown (L) and grazing (G) during that period (Milner and Hughes, 1970; Perkins *et al.*, 1978):

$$NPP^{t_0-t_1} = \Delta B + L + G$$

Below-ground grazing losses may be considered to be quite small in most grassland situations, but breakdown losses cannot be ignored. The aims of this part of the project were to undertake an exploratory investigation of below-ground processes, particularly with respect to breakdown and turnover of root fractions, and to establish techniques appropriate to future research studies. The development of investigations is detailed chronologically.

Initially (Section 7.2) experiments were devised in an attempt to obtain estimates of above-ground and below-ground turnover over periods of one week, two weeks and one month. The study was developed by restricting efforts to a closer examination of the breakdown of root systems in isolated soil cores (Section 7.3). Limitations of this technique are the errors caused by the damaging effect of coring to the root system and the artificial isolation of soil cores with above-ground vegetation removed, both of which may tend to over-estimate breakdown rates. Experiments are described which compare the breakdown of living and dead root systems and examine the effects of earthworms on breakdown rates.

In Section 7.4 a categorization technique is devised for a more detailed investigation of the changes brought about during growth and breakdown, by measuring the size distribution and visual condition of roots. Finally, in Section 7.5, possible interactions between earthworms and the root system are investigated with respect to their influence on root growth and breakdown, together with a discussion of their probable significance in grasslands in relation to management regime.

The results are discussed in detail in Section 7.6, in perspective with published information.

7.2 Initial Studies on Turnover

7.2.1 Breakdown over one week

In the first experiment, to examine the feasibility of turnover studies, 16 x 1 m² plots were arranged in a randomized block design at the Botanic Garden site in June 1977 before the strip-mowing regime had been implemented. Each block was divided into four ¼ m x ¼ m sections. From one section, vegetation was clipped to ground level, and a second section was covered with 1 cm thick green absorbent felt to prevent photosynthesis. Remaining sections were control plots. Eight above-

and below-ground biomass samples were taken, as described previously, and then 8 samples were taken from each of the treatments and a control plot after 4 days, and again after 7 days. Results are illustrated in FIG. 33.

Errors, caused by high variation between replicates, were large and significance levels were outside acceptable limits. Nevertheless, mean values indicate that below-ground productivity estimates could be considerably underestimated if breakdown is excluded.

7.2.2 Breakdown over one month

In the second experiment in late August 1977, a similar randomized block design was used, again with 8 replicates, but with sampling times increased to 2 weeks (t_1) and 4 weeks (t_2) . Additionally, eight 6.7 cm diameter cores were removed and vegetation clipped from the surfaces. Each core was then placed in 1 cm mesh plastic cages and returned to its original borehole immediately, for incubation until t_1 and t_2 .

No significant differences could be detected between treatments, with controls or between sampling dates. Carbon and nitrogen concentration ratios in roots and rhizomes to 5 cm depth are shown in FIG. 34, and differ according to treatment. Clearly the experiment was carried out during a period of decreasing biomass of below-ground organs. Nitrogen levels decreased in clipped and dark treatments, with a resultant increase in C:N ratios. Results were similar for incubated and control cores, although large mesh cages would permit surrounding roots to grow into the cores.

Labour intensiveness of these experiments was excessive, and further replication impracticable. Therefore, further efforts were redirected towards incubation studies of isolated cores.

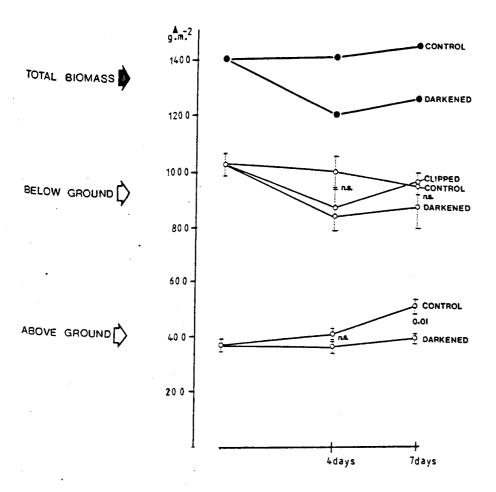


FIG. 33: Standing crop in clipped and darkened plots after 4 and 7 days. Below ground levels are sum of roots and rhizomes (A.F.D.W.). Levels of significance [n.s. = no signif. at 0-05] and standard errors are indicated.

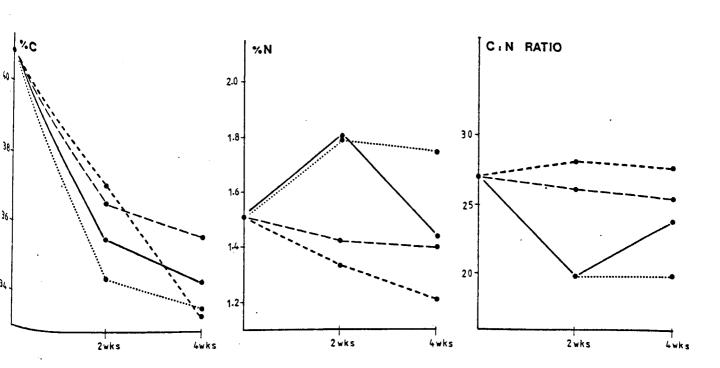


FIG 34: %C, %N and C:N ratio of below ground organs [roots + rhizomes; 0-5 cms depth] in clipped (e----e),darkened (e----) and control (e----) plots, and incubated cores (e------), after 2 and 4 weeks.

7.3 Field Incubation Studies of Isolated Cores

7.3.1 Introduction

Breakdown of below-ground fractions was examined by isolating soil cores in the field at various times of the year. Additional experiments were carried out to compare breakdown of living and dead root systems, and the effects of earthworms.

7.3.2 Methods

6.7 cm diameter soil cores to 10 cm depth were removed, and vegetation clipped from the surface. A 45 µm mesh nylon sleeve, open at both ends, was fitted around each core before replacement to its original borehole. A green felt disc (1 cm thickness) was then placed on top of each core to prevent regrowth and drying out (FIG. 35). Sleeves of larger mesh size were also tested but, besides allowing surrounding roots to grow into the cores, seemed to encourage earthworm activity.

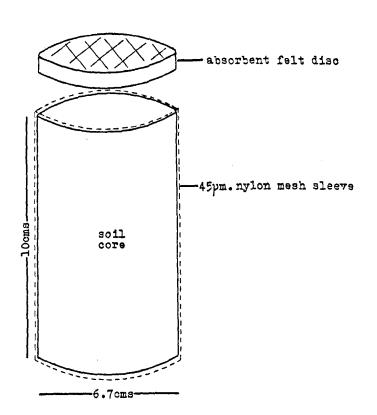


FIG. 35: Isolated soil core

Twelve replicates were positioned in quadrats selected for biomass sampling in LG, SG and PAD, and collected after periods of approximately two months.

Two additional experiments were carried out, with replication reduced to six but treatment cores positioned as close together as possible in an attempt to improve tests of paired comparison by reducing variability.

In the first experiment, from June to July 1978, six cores were incubated as described and compared with six cores previously frozen overnight at -18° C and thawed, and a further six cores previously frozen and thawed, and then sealed inside mesh sleeves.

In the second experiment, in September 1978, three sets of six cores were frozen at -18°C overnight, thawed and sealed inside mesh sleeves. To one set of cores 1 Lumbricus terrestris and 2 Allolobophora caliginosa of known weights were introduced, and to a second set 2 L. terrestris and 3 A. caliginosa were introduced. The third set were control cores, without earthworms. Incubation time was six weeks.

7.3.3 Results and Discussion

Breakdown rates from incubation of isolated cores are shown in TABLE 21. Root breakdown rates were much faster during May to July than in March to May in LG and PAD, and high breakdown rates corresponded to increased amounts of detached roots. Rhizomes have a more active role in primary production in SG than in unmown treatments (Chapter 3), and breakdown rates were faster in SG between March and May. Breakdown rates of roots in May to July were higher than those recorded for surface litter breakdown (cf. TABLE 15), but lower in autumn.

It would appear that below-ground breakdown accounts for a substantial proportion of organic matter turnover in grassland ecosystems.

	INCUBATION	PERCENTAGE RATE OF BREAKDOWN PER DAY				
TREATMENT	DATES	ROOTS	RHIZOMES	DETACHED ROOTS		
SG	14/3/78-16/5/78	0.301	0.741	0.449		
	14/3/78-23/5/78	0.434	0.283	0.378		
LG	31/5/78-17/7/78	0.967	0.287	-0.427		
	14/9/78-26/10/78	0.354 + 0.683	-0.812 → 0.479	-0.481 → 0.092		
	13/3/78-8/6/78	0.313	0.621	0.446		
PAD	1/6/78-25/7/78	1.015	1.207	-0.292		

TABLE 21: Percentage breakdown per day of below-ground components (dry weight), from field incubation of isolated cores.

Annual below-ground productivity measurements could easily be underestimated by 100% if breakdown were not taken into account. Although these results provide some insight into rates of breakdown, further numerical extrapolation may be inaccurate, but are considered in more detail in Section 7.4.3.

Data were disappointing from cores incubated with and without prior freezing, and sealed and unsealed in fine mesh (TABLE 22). Root breakdown was slower in sealed cores, which may indicate that earthworms accelerate breakdown. Interestingly, detached root levels increased in cores not previously frozen, but decreased in cores which had been previously frozen. This corresponds to June/July incubation for unfrozen cores in TABLE 21, and suggests that decomposition processes may differ between a living root system compared to one decomposing en masse.

Incubation experiments with earthworms (TABLE 23) were of little success. Only 54% of earthworms remained after the incubation period and most had lost weight, indicating unfavourable conditions. Nevertheless, data provides further evidence that earthworms accelerate root breakdown.

	t _O AFTER 6 WEEKS INCUBATION						
TREATMENT		No Prior Freezing Unsealed	Prior Freezing Unsealed	Prior Freezing Sealed			
Roots	1.259 <u>+</u> 0.141	0.687 <u>+ 0.071</u> (0.01)	0.699 + 0.051 (0.01)a	$0.817 + 0.021 $ $(0.\overline{0}2)a$			
Rhizomes	0.918 + 0.205	0.794 + 0.098 (n.s.)	0.923 <u>+</u> 0.081 (n.s.)	0.765 <u>+</u> 0.088 (n.s.)			
Detached Roots	0.753 <u>+</u> 0.045	0.904 + 0.089 (n.s.)b.c.	0.554 + 0.051 (0.02)b	0.630 <u>+</u> 0.050 (0.10)c			

TABLE 22: Dry weight (g. core $^{-1}$) + standard errors of below-ground plant components following field incubation in LG, with and without prior freezing, and sealed and unsealed in 45 μ m mesh. Levels of significant differences between treatments and t₀ values are indicated in brackets. Letters indicate significant differences between treatments specified (a = 0.10, b = 0.01, c = 0.05). n.s. means no significance at 0.10 level.

	t ₀	AFTER 6 WEEKS INCUBATION						
TREATMENT		Low Nos. Earthworms	High Nos. Earthworms	No Earthworms				
Roots	0.966 + 0.066	0.823 <u>+</u> 0.103 (n.s.)	0.689 + 0.058 (0.02)a	0.814 + 0.037 $(0.\overline{10})a$				
Rhizomes	0.673 <u>+</u> 0.131	0.903 <u>+</u> 0.134 (n.s.)	0.645 <u>+</u> 0.107 (n.s.)	0.538 + 0.055 (n.s.)				
Detached Roots	0.520 <u>+</u> 0.050	0.623 + 0.099 (n.s.)	0.555 <u>+</u> 0.049 (n.s.)	0.500 <u>+</u> 0.051 (n.s.)				

TABLE 23: Dry weight (g. core $^{-1}$) \pm standard errors of below-ground plant components, following field incubation in MG with and without earthworms. Levels of significance of differences between treatments and to values are indicated in brackets. α = significant difference (at 0.10 level) between treatments. n.s. means no significance at 0.10 level.

7.4 Root Categorization

7.4.1 Introduction

A more detailed examination and description of the root system is clearly necessary. Root data have been expressed in terms of dry weight, ash-free dry weight and nutrient contents, although numerous other investigators have measured other parameters such as root length, number, diameter, surface area or number of root tips. Techniques for the measurement of these parameters, and the value of such determinations, are reviewed by Böhm (1979).

Coleman (1976) stresses that different categories of roots should be distinguished, particularly with respect to the probable importance of finer parts of the root system which may be insignificant in terms of weight (also see Carlson, 1965; Head, 1970; Ares, 1976).

An attempt is made to develop a quantitative microscopical technique to describe the root fraction and its variations in more detail.

7.4.2 Methods

Small sub-samples of roots, after washing and separation from other below-ground fractions, were teased out on a counting frame marked with a 4 cm² grid with 1 mm² divisions. Roots were focused beneath 100x magnification and a randomly selected line, 2 cm long, was followed across the grid. Each segment of root touched by the line was measured for diameter on an arbitrary scale (1 unit = 0.00865 mm), using an eyepiece graticule. Visible condition and age of the section of root were recorded according to the scheme of classification in TABLE 24, which approximates to that of Ares (1976). Number of root hairs in the field of view were also counted.

CLASSIFICATION	VISIBLE CHARACTERISTICS						
Unsuberized	Translucent or pale white. Vascular stele easily visible.						
Suberized	More or less opaque. Vascular stele not easily visible.						
Friable	Cortex degenerate.						
Diameter	Arbitrary scale (1 unit = 0.00865 mm)						
Root hairs	No. in field of view (diam. approx. 0.5 arbitrary units)						

TABLE 24 : Classification of sections of root

The line or its perpendicular was followed until 100 recordings of diameter had been made. Five such sets of measurements were recorded, each from a replicated but separate root sample, providing a total of 500 recordings for each set of samples. Substantial amounts of time were saved by verbally recording on to a foot-operated tape recorder. All samples were taken from 0-5 cm depth soil cores, unless otherwise indicated.

The technique was tested by recording the same root samples on three separate occasions, and comparing the frequency at each diameter. Significance levels of correlation coefficients below the 0.1% level were computed, supporting the validity of the technique.

Root material was categorized using this method for numerous samples, including those from incubation experiments. Additionally small pieces of roots (10 replicates) were categorized before and after incubation at 10°C for one month in fresh soil solution in a 10 ml volumetric flask plugged with cotton wool.

7.4.3 Results

In <u>FIG. 36</u> categorization data from roots at varying depths are shown. Smaller root categories are most abundant, with most root hairs nearest to the soil surface.

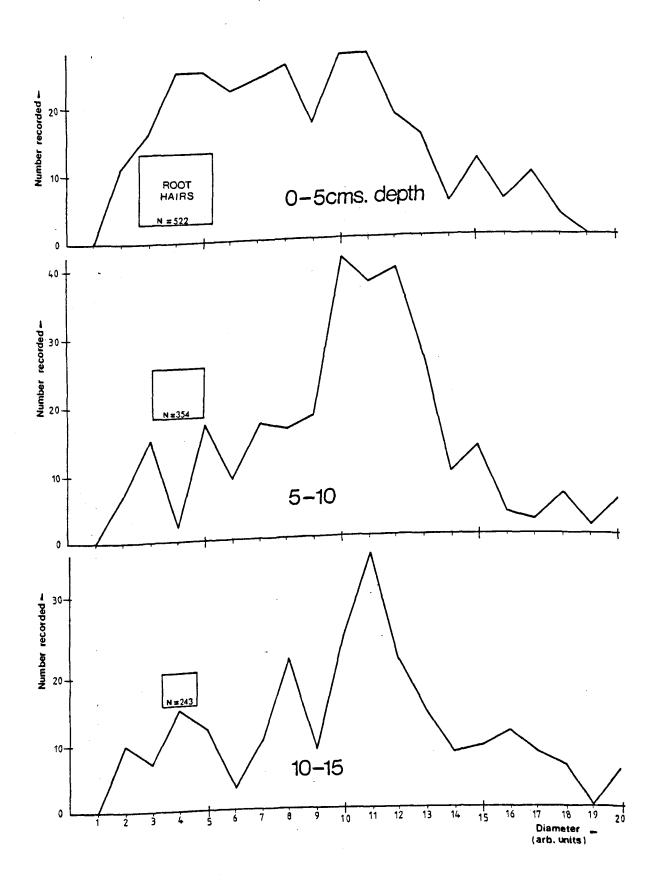


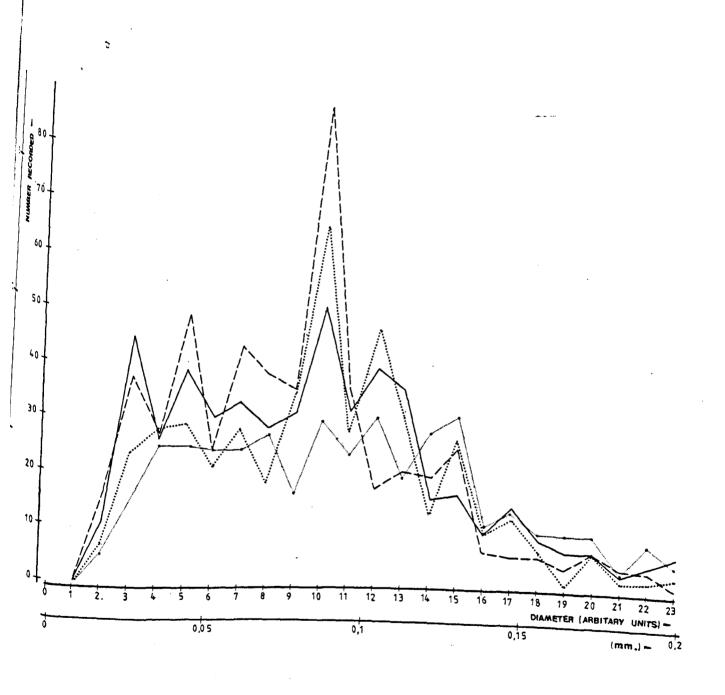
FIG 36: Distribution of root diameter with varying depth. Recordings (total 500) from Botanic Garden site data in August, 1977. Boxes indicate relative proportions of root hairs at each depth.

Roots from four grassland sites are compared in FIG. 37. Besides the sites previously described, samples were also taken from a field heavily grazed and poached by cattle, in a field adjoining PAD. In SG, the largest frequency of roots were recorded at 10 units diameter (less than 0.1 mm), with large frequencies at lesser diameters. In contrast, roots in the heavily grazed field were distributed in lower frequencies between 5 and 15 units diameter. Fine roots were less frequent in LG than in SG and less frequent in PAD than in LG. Root biomass decreased in the order: SG, LG, PAD (Section 3.5), and the heavily grazed site had a substantially lower root biomass than PAD.

Categorization data for roots incubated in soil solution at 10° C for one month are shown in <u>FIGS. 38</u> and <u>39</u>. <u>FIG. 38</u> shows data divided into unsuberized, suberized and friable fractions. Unsuberized roots were distributed around 10 units diameter, and quickly disappeared after incubation (<u>FIG. 39</u>). Smaller suberized roots accounted for most other breakdown. Increased frequencies of suberized roots around 10, 15 and 18 units indicate these fractions are most resistant to breakdown. The same number of root hairs (n = 520) were recorded before and after incubation.

Roots incubated under field conditions from March to May in SG are shown in FIG. 40. Once again, fractions which disappeared most quickly were small suberized roots and larger unsuberized roots. Root hairs decreased by 24%.

Nevertheless, these results must be considered in perspective with the relative weight losses from different categories. Separation of lengths of root of small diameter, large enough to weigh, was extremely difficult. Instead, approximately 1 cm lengths of roots of *Lolium perenne*, grown in nutrient solution, were measured and then dried and accurately weighed. All roots were at stages of early suberization,



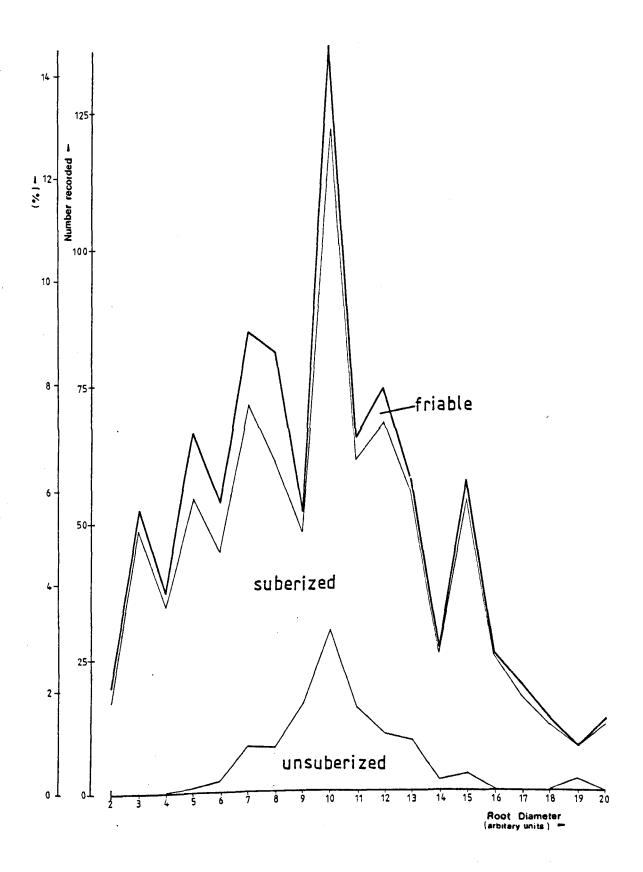


FIG 38: Distribution of root diameters in September 1978, before laboratory incubation. Thickened line (______) represents total roots, divided into unsuberized, suberized and friable fractions. [940 recordings]

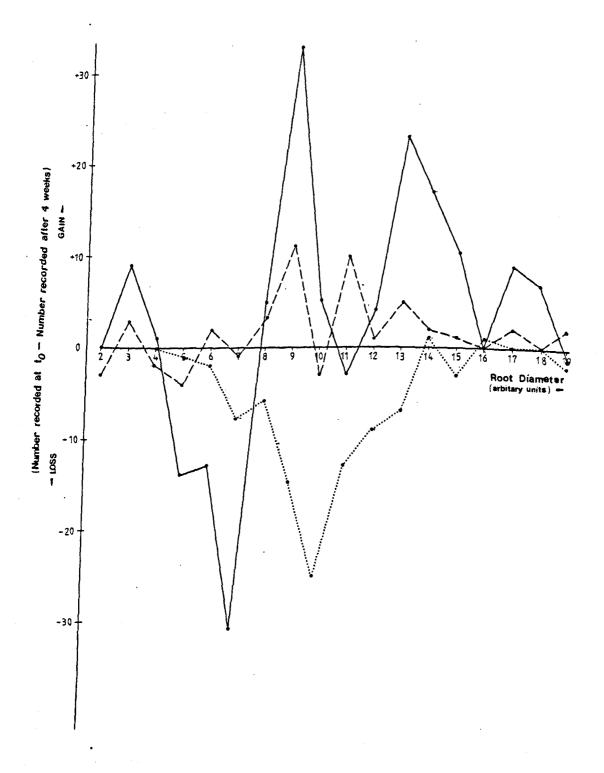
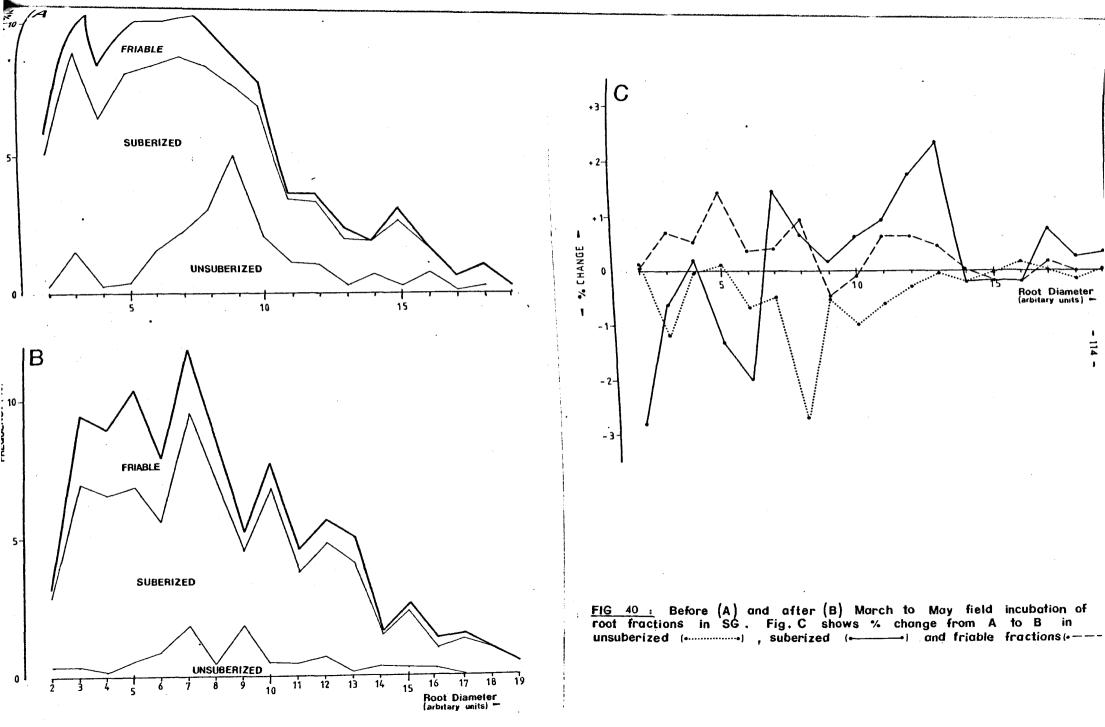


FIG 39: Change in diameter distribution of unsuberized (...............................), suberized (........................), and friable root fractions (..........................), after 4 weeks incubation in soil solution at 10°C [cf. Fig.].



and thus no account was taken of age. A regression of the square root of root weight on diameter provided a good fit (FIG. 41) and the computed regression equation was used to express categorization data in terms of weight. March to May incubation data from SG are thus shown in FIG. 42. Clearly, the breakdown losses of fine roots previously described are also substantial in terms of weight loss.

Finally, categorization data from March to June field incubation experiments in PAD, together with data from normal March and June samples are shown in terms of dry weight in <u>FIG. 43</u>. Unsuberized fractions increased most markedly during the early growing season, with a large proportion becoming suberized, whereas suberized fractions decreased considerably during incubation. Root hairs represent an extremely small proportion of the root system in terms of weight.

Root productivity estimates are calculated from these data in TABLE 25. Estimates which take breakdown into account are 3.6 times higher overall, than estimates based on differences between standing crop.

ROOT CATEGORY	PRODUCTIVITY (P) MARCH-JUNE	BREAKDOWN (B) MARCH-JUNE	P + B
Unsuberized	0.637	-0.031	0.606
Suberized	-0.343	0.753	0.410
Friable	0.014	0.083	0.097
TOTAL	0.308	0.805	1.113

TABLE 25: Root productivity estimates (g.m $^{-2}$.day $^{-1}$) in PAD, based on differences between standing crop of dry weight in March and June (P), and including breakdown during the period (P + B).

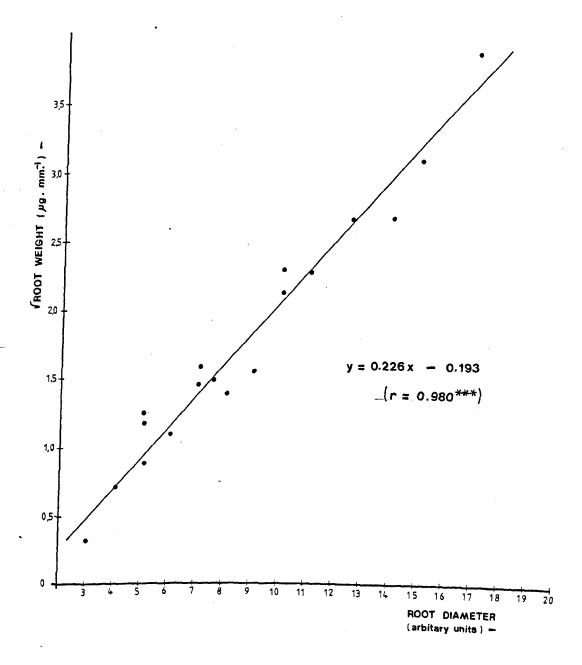


FIG 41 : ROOT WEIGHT | DIAMETER REGRESSION.

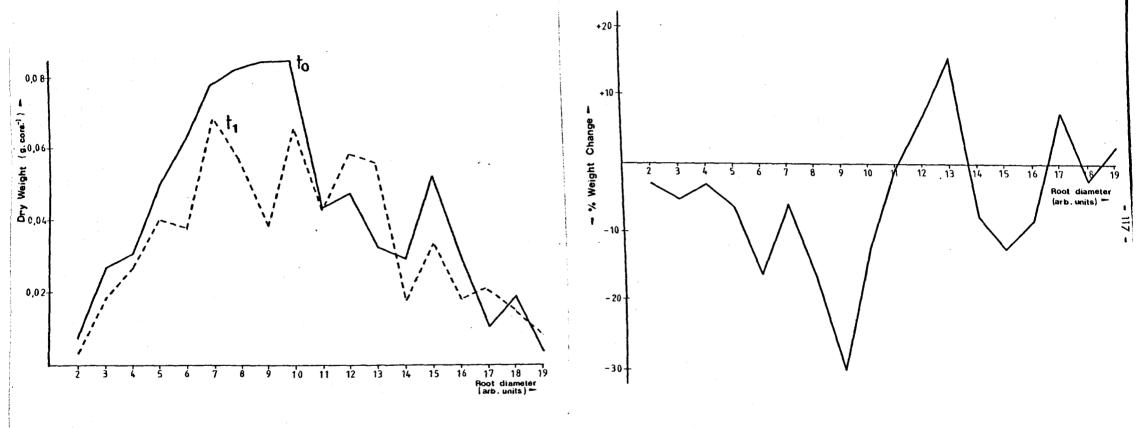


FIG 42: Weight change of roots at each diameter following March to May incubation (t_0-t_1) in SG, corresponding to Fig

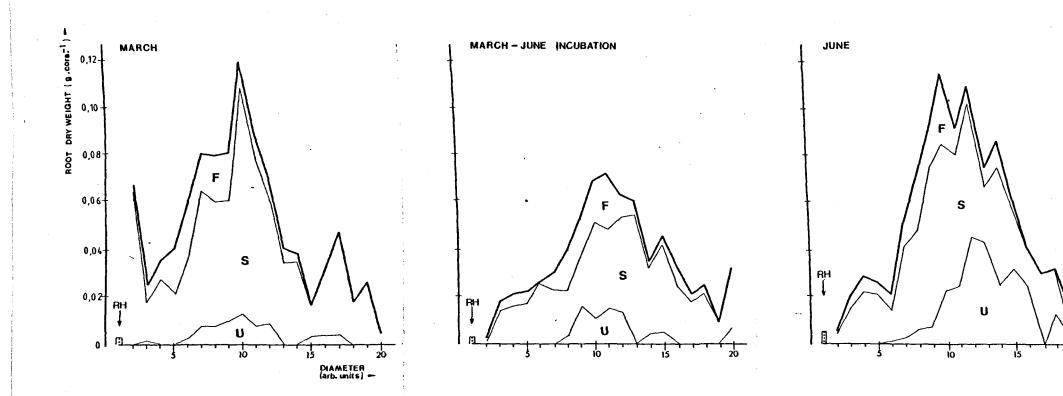


FIG 43; Dry weight distribution of unsuberized (U), suberized (S) and friable (F) root fractions in PAD in March and June 1978, and after field incubation from March to June (81 days). Approx. wts. of root hairs (RH) are indicated.

7.5 Earthworms

7.5.1 Introduction

The influences of earthworms on surface litter breakdown have been investigated (Chapter 6), and evidence has been presented to suggest that their activities accelerate root breakdown (Section 7.3). However, the associations between earthworms and plant root systems are poorly understood.

Results are presented of attempts to discover some of these associations. Their effects on root growth (7.5.2) and breakdown of below-ground components (7.5.3) are examined, together with a comparison of populations in different mowing treatments (7.5.4). The results are discussed in the light of published work in Section 7.6.

7.5.2 Earthworms and Root Growth

A) METHODS

Two pot experiments were set up to examine the effects of earthworm activities on root growth.

12.5 cm plastic plant pots were filled to within 2.5 cm of the top with approximately 700 g of steam sterilized soil, previously sieved through 1 cm mesh. A polythene sleeve was fitted to the top of the pots, and the drainage holes covered with fine mesh, to prevent earthworms escaping (FIG. 44).

Earthworms were introduced into the pots and left for one week before 5 young tillers of Lolium perenne were transplanted into each pot. In the first experiment 6 pots were set up with high numbers of earthworms, 6 pots with low numbers and 6 without earthworms. In the second experiment 4 pots were set up with each of 4 species of earthworms, and 4 without earthworms (TABLE 26). Approximate densities of earthworms were estimated from field samples and from those used by Phillipson and Bolton (1977).

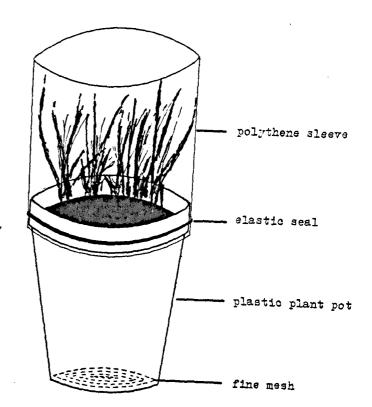


FIG. 44: Pots used for earthworm/
root growth experiments

SPECIES	EXPERIMENT HIGH NOS.	EXPERIMENT 2	
Allolobophora caliginosa	10	5	20
Lumbricus terrestris	2	1	5
Octolasion cyaneum	2	1	6
Allolobophora longa	2	1	5

TABLE 26: Earthworm numbers in root growth experiments

Pots for each experiment were randomly positioned in separate controlled environment cabinets at 10°C with 16/8 hours light/dark regime and regular watering. After 12 weeks they were removed and dry weight of plant components, tiller numbers and earthworm numbers were recorded.

B) RESULTS

Data from experiment 1 is presented in FIG. 45. Root dry weight

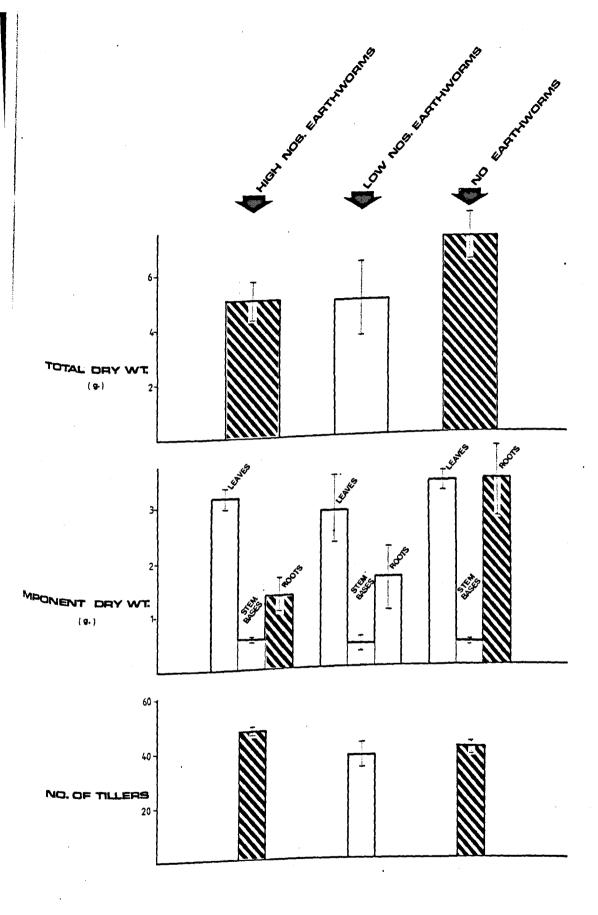


FIG 45: Growth of <u>Lollum perenne</u> at 10°C after 12 weeks with and without earthworms (see text). Standard errors are shown. Significant differences exist (p = 0.10) between shaded treatments.

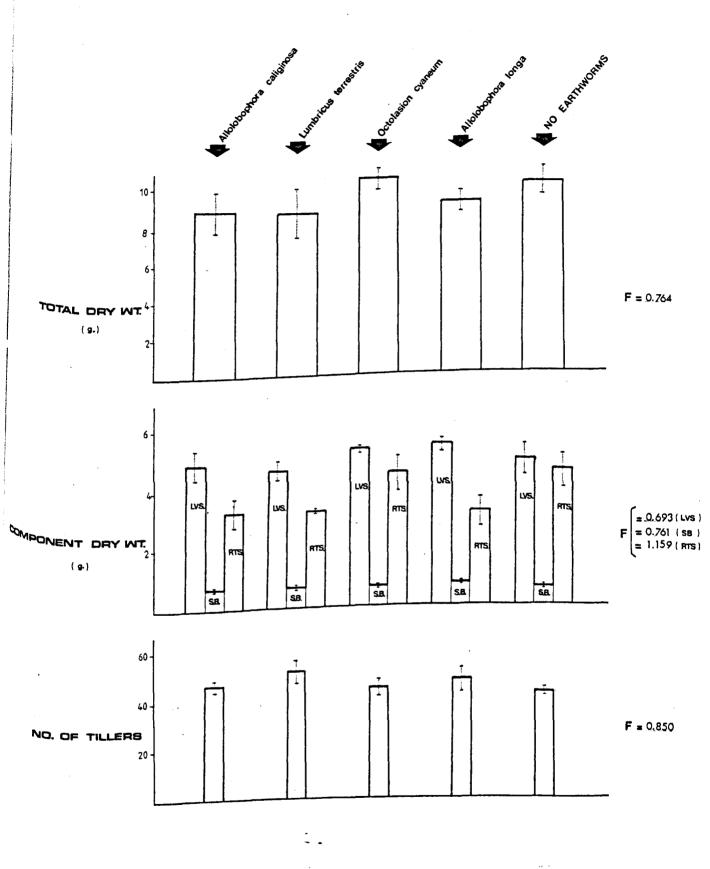


FIG 46: Growth of Lollum perenne at 10°C after 12 weeks with 4 species of earthworms (see text). Dry ut. (±s.e.) is divided into leaves (LVS), stem bases (SB) and roots (RTS). Variance ratios (F values) are indicated: F > 2.61, p = 0.10; F > 1.8, p = 0.20 (4, 10 d.f.). No significant differences.

was lower in pots containing earthworms, although above-ground growth was not impaired. Indeed, tiller number was significantly higher in pots containing earthworms.

Data from experiment 2 is shown in <u>FIG. 46</u>. High residual error masked any treatment differences, but mean values augment the conclusions of the previous experiment, with the exception of *Octolasion cyaneum*.

7.5.3 Earthworms and Breakdown of Below-Ground Components A) METHODS

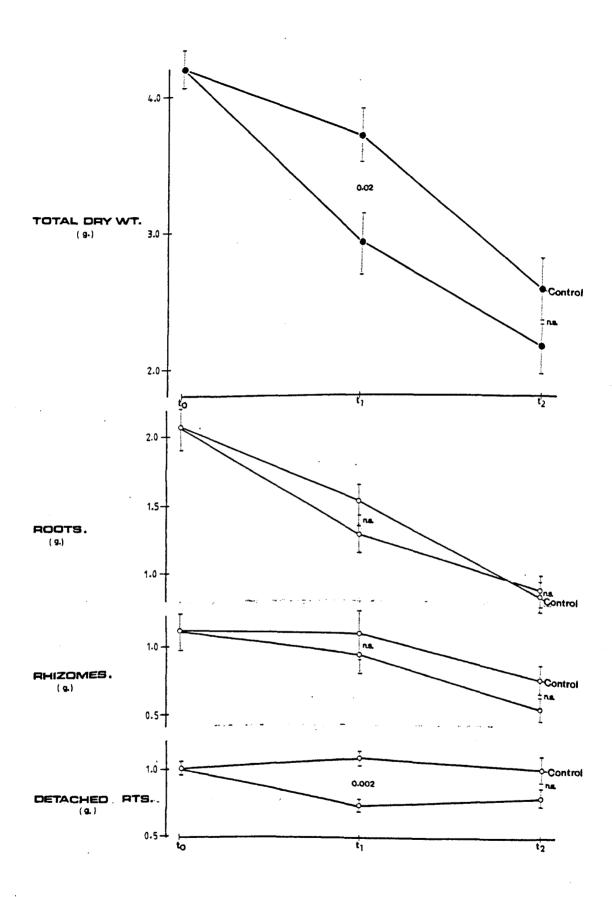
Sixty-four 7.5 cm cubic cores were removed from an 8 x 8 sampling grid in SG, with cores taken 7.5 cm apart. Each core was assigned to one of eight treatments (TABLE 27) using a latin square design, then frozen overnight at -18°C, thawed and placed in 10 cm plastic containers sealed with fine mesh. Earthworms were introduced into the containers which were incubated at 12.5°C and moistened occasionally to prevent soil cores from drying out. One treatment and a control were removed after 8 weeks, and the remaining cores after 16 weeks.

TREATMENTS	EARTHWORM NUMBERS	INCUBATION TIME		
1. t ₀	_	NIL		
2. No Earthworms	-	8 wks		
3. No Earthworms	-	16 wks		
4. Low Nos. Mixed	$(1 \times L.t., 5 \times A.c.)$	8 wks		
5. Low Nos. Mixed	$(1 \times L.t., 5 \times A.c.)$	16 wks		
6. L. terrestris/A. longa	(3 individuals)	16 wks		
7. High Nos. Mixed	$(5 \times L.t./A.l., 2 \times 0.c.)$	16 wks		
8. A.caliginosa	(5 individuals)	16 wks		

TABLE 27: Earthworm treatments in incubation experiment

B) RESULTS

Low numbers of earthworms had very little effect on breakdown rates (FIG. 47), although detached roots were significantly less at t_1 in



<u>FIG 47</u>: Breakdown of below-ground components (dry wt tell) with earthworms and without (control) after 8 (t_1) and 16 (t_2) weeks incubation at 12 5°C. Levels of significant differences are shown (n.s. indicates no significance at 0.1).

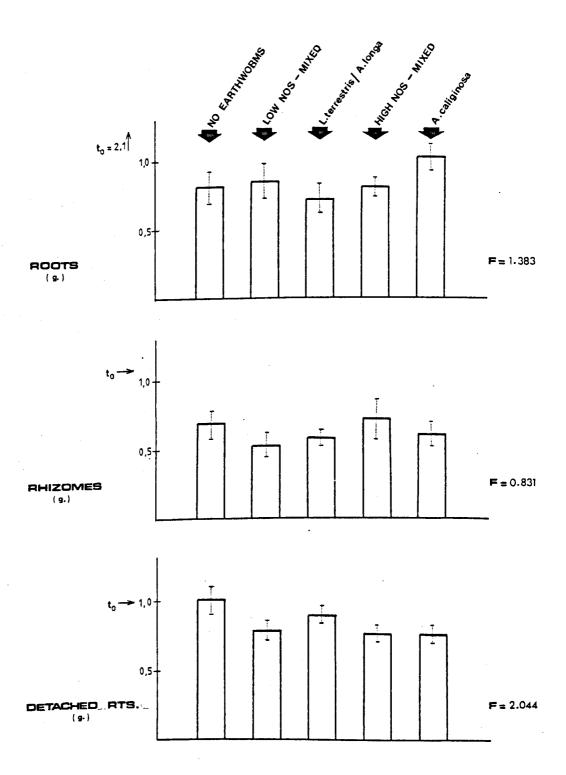


FIG 48: Dry wt. (\pm s.e.) of below ground components with & without earthworms after 16 weeks incubation at 12.5°C (see text). Variance ratios (F values) are indicated: F>2.12, p=0.10; F>1.6, p=0.20. No significant differences.

cores incubated with earthworms. Dry weight of below-ground components after 16 weeks (t_2) are shown in <u>FIG. 48</u>. No significant differences between treatments could be identified, although detached roots tended to decrease when incubated with earthworms. Detached root levels in control treatments remained at similar levels after 16 weeks incubation, whereas root levels had decreased to less than 40%, and rhizome levels to approximately 50% of original (t_0) values.

7.5.4 Earthworms and Mowing Treatments

A) METHODS

Earthworms were extracted using three applications of 4.55 1 of 0.275% formaldehyde (see Satchell, 1971) on 0.25 m² quadrats. One extraction was made from each of the 5 replicated strips of each mowing treatment at the Botanic Garden site, during September, 1979.

B) RESULTS

Results are shown in <u>TABLE 28</u>. Differences are not within acceptable levels of significance, although inspection of raw data revealed unusually large numbers of *Allolobophora spp*. in one sample from LG. Exclusion of data from this quadrat provides significance levels for total numbers and weight within p = 0.05. However the validity of data exclusion is questionable.

Nevertheless, earthworm populations in autumn are clearly not enhanced by large surface accumulations of litter. More likely larger populations correspond to a larger standing crop of below-ground components in the mown treatments.

7.6 Discussion and Conclusions

Initial experimental attempts to measure below-ground turnover rates were confounded by the labour requirements of impracticable amounts of replication. The technique of incubating isolated soil

MOWING	L.terr	restris	A. Z	onga	A.caliginosa gp. 0.cyan		.cyaneum TOTAL		AL.	
TREATMENT	Nos.	Wt.	Nos.	Wt.	Nos.	Wt.	Nos.	Wt.	NOS.	WT.
SG	18	6.7	52	28.1	47	6.6	4	2.9	121 + 22.3	44.4 <u>+</u> 3.6
MG	24	10.7	29	16.3	30	3.9	9	7.7	91 <u>+</u> 10.1	38.5 <u>+</u> 5.9
LG	10	7.1	30	14.4	19	2.8	1	1.0	61 + 29.4	25.4 <u>+</u> 3.0

TABLE 28: Numbers (per m²) and fresh weight (g.m⁻²) of earthworms from each mowing treatment in September, 1979. A.caliginosa gp. includes small numbers of A.chlorotica and A.rosea but A.longa is listed separately (Gerard, 1964). Standard errors of total values are shown. F values for total nos. and wt. are 1.85 and 1.46 (2,12 d.f.) respectively (F > 1.8, p = 0.20).

cores is more feasible, and annual estimates of below-ground turnover could be achieved in future studies with 12 replicates collected monthly or bimonthly through the year. Annual estimates are not available from this study, but results indicate that below-ground productivity estimates would probably be under-estimated by over 100% if breakdown were not taken into account. Below-ground breakdown rates were higher than those recorded for surface litter breakdown during spring. Between March and June, root productivity estimates which included breakdown were 3.6 times higher than those based on differences between standing crop. Incubation period should be as short as possible, although at least one month, to limit the likelihood of fractions decomposing which otherwise would not. Errors from this source may Differences were identified between breakdown of be unavoidable. living and dead root systems (ie: not frozen and frozen prior to incubation), with respect to changes in detached root fractions. Clearly, estimates of turnover must be based on realistic breakdown values (see Milner and Hughes, 1970).

Categorization data indicate that fine roots are most frequent near to the soil surface, and represent a larger proportion of the root system in sites with a larger root biomass. Thus, proportions of fine roots appear to be correlated to root activity. Fine roots are known to develop extensively in areas of localized nutrients (Duncan and Ohlrogge, 1958; Drew and Saker, 1975; Fitter, 1976).

Unsuberized roots account for up to 30% of total root weight, being most frequent around 0.07 - 0.09 mm diameter (8 - 10 units). As with fine suberized roots they disappear quickly when growing conditions become unfavourable, which probably explains the presence of fine roots and root tips in detached root fractions and accounts for increased

detached root levels after incubation. Large suberized roots are much more resistant to decay. Friable roots account for approximately 20% of total root weight, with relatively small increases after incubation, and should be considered in association with detached roots (see below).

The categorization technique was used as a viable alternative to root observation chambers (see Schuurman and Goedewaagen, 1971; Böhm, 1979), and provides a method for obtaining accurate comparative data. Errors may be caused by root damage and loss of root hairs during washing, although Böhm (1979) considered that few root hairs are removed by washing processes. To some extent the method surmounts the problems of distinction between living and dead fractions of the root system, discussed by numerous authors (see Böhm, 1979). Perspex wedge observation chambers (Shaver and Billings, 1975) were also tested, but considered unsuitable due to difficulties of maintaining close contact with soil, and in measuring fine roots.

Throughout the study it has been considered valid to describe detached roots as a separate below-ground component, although seasonal variations are often related to those of roots, or less often of rhizomes. For the main part, the detached roots probably represent fractions of decaying roots which become easily detached from the root system.

Results from earthworm studies must be treated with some caution, and further experimentation would have been preferred in certain instances. Nevertheless, a number of conclusions can be drawn from the experiments. Earthworm activities were shown to inhibit root production whilst having no effect on aerial dry weight production, but increasing the numbers of tillers. Edwards and Lofty (1978) found that cereal root growth in soil cores from compacted arable land was concentrated in areas of activity of earthworms, thus demonstrating the benefit of earthworm

tunnelling to root growth in compacted soils. In the present study, with loosely compacted soil, they had the opposite effect.

Earthworms accelerated root breakdown in field experiments, but this could not be substantiated in laboratory experiments. mental factors not simulated in the laboratory may enhance the effects Laboratory incubation studies showed that they can of earthworms. accelerate the breakdown of detached roots, and gut analyses revealed that small pieces of fragmented roots can be consumed. thought that some species are root browsers, and besides recording small amounts of roots in gut analyses he found large amounts of unspecified fibrous plant materials. Although he does not comment on their origin. these may be derived from below-ground components. Dexter (1978) showed that earthworms tunnel by ingesting the soil ahead of themselves. rather than by pushing loose soil out of the way. By necessity, those species without permanent burrows would consume large amounts of root-derived Waters (1955) suggested earthworm numbers may be correlated materials. with flushes in the availability of dead root material, although Edwards and Lofty (1977) considered there to be few grounds for acceptance, but state that a few species have been shown to feed on dead roots. Comparison of earthworm populations in different mowing treatments in autumn indicated that they are not enhanced by large surface accumulations of litter, but more probably by the larger below-ground biomass in mown treatments.

CHAPTER 8

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

The results from the main sampling programme (Chapters 3-5) and their significance are considered in relation to published information, and inferences together with those of the subsidiary experiments (Chapters 6-7) are discussed in perspective.

8.1 Above-Ground Primary Production

Accurate estimates of nett primary productivity (NPP) were not sought, but it is worthwhile to compare data from LG and PAD to other similar grassland studies. NPP calculated from harvest data by incremental summation of positive increases of total standing crop are compared with results of other studies of British grasslands in TABLE

29. Values for LG are particularly high, with an enormous proliferation

AUTHORITY	GRASSLAND SITE	FREQUENCY OF SAMPLING (per annum)	(g.m ⁻² annum ⁻¹)
Welches & Rawes (1965)	Pennines. Grazed lowland (max.) upland (min.)	12 12	194.7 55.9
Williamson (1976)	Sussex. Very lightly grazed lowland	6	213
Perkins <i>et al.</i> (1978)	Snowdonia. Grazed upland	9	271
present study	, LG	5	549.1
present study	PAD	5	187.7

TABLE 29: Above-ground NPP calculated from incremental summation of positive increases of total standing crop.

of above-ground biomass following cessation of mowing. In fact these

calculated values for NPP, although derived by methods recommended by Milner and Hughes (1970), are grossly under-estimated. Williamson (1976) studied a chalk grassland with minimal grazing by rabbits and which was being invaded by scrub. Production parameters were similar to those in the present study, particularly in LG (TABLE 30) and he estimated an improved value for NPP of 691 g.m⁻² annum⁻¹ by allowing for leaf turnover. This value is 2.1 times higher than estimates from positive increases in living biomass. Perkins et al. (1978) provided an improved estimate for NPP of 1143-1145 g.m⁻² annum⁻¹ by including measurements of litter disappearance and living material consumed by sheep and slugs (cf. TABLE 29).

Semi-permanent grasslands are not characterized by high productivity, nor is this considered important in amenity grasslands (Grime, 1980).

Total removal of cuttings from SG and MG were 200 and 132 g.m⁻² annum⁻¹ respectively. These values are considerably lower than NPP estimates in LG, although the efficiency of collecting cuttings after mowing may not be very high. Nevertheless, in agricultural grasslands harvestable dry weight yields in excess of 1000 g.m⁻² annum⁻¹ are obtained from fertilized ryegrass swards (NIAB, 1979; Rhodes and Mee, 1980).

Holiday and Wilman (1965) studied the effects of frequency of mowing (between 2-10 cuts per year) on above-ground dry matter yield of mixed swards, and found that the longer the period between mowings the higher was the yield.

8.2 Effects of Cessation of Mowing

Succession from a plagioclimax (a plagiosere) involves an integrated response affecting all components of the ecosystem (Whittaker, 1970; Odum, 1971), and the successional consequences of removal of grazing or mowing pressure are well documented (Duffey et al., 1974).

TABLE 30: Above-ground production parameters in LG and PAD compared to those in a Sussex chalk grassland (Williamson, 1976)

PRODUCTION PARAMETERS	Williamson (1976)	LG	PAD
Maximum total standing crop (g.m. ⁻²)	773	779	448
Maximum living biomass (g.m. ⁻²)	355	462	587
Litter as a % of above-ground standing crop	57-89%	17-97%	23-95%
Maximum % of live and dead forb of total above-ground vegetation	8%	6%	57%
NPP from increases in living biomass (g.m. ⁻² annum ⁻¹)	310	409	244

In the first year following cessation of mowing in the present study, above— and below—ground fractions of grasses increase enormously, until large accumulations of surface litter prevent their continued dominance. The main reason for this is probably the prevention of establishment of new seedlings and tillers by the deep litter layers. Succession towards tall, erect and tussock growth forms is evident in PAD, with Alopecurus pratensis and Dactylis glomerata particularly abundant (see PLATES). Although large amounts of nutrients are bound in the litter, these represent only a small proportion of total ecosystem nutrients. Below—ground components of grasses decline whilst the litter layer is large, excepting detached roots which increase slightly.

In the second year following cessation of mowing, large accumulations of litter mark the decline of grass communities and favour the proliferation of forbs. Rumex acetosa had become established in considerable proportions, above and below ground. Grime (1978, 1980) described the role of plant strategies in vegetation processes. He considered a sequence whereby stress tolerators replace competitors, as a result of resource depletion arising from the development of a large plant biomass.

8.3 Below-Ground Components

Large amounts of replication are found to be necessary to account for the variability of below-ground components. Bohm (1979) echoed the pronouncements of numerous authors that the more accurate the method of root study, the more laborious, tedious and time-consuming it becomes, whilst acknowledging the necessity for the establishment of background information.

Primary production parameters for below-ground components in SG,

LG and PAD have been calculated in TABLE 31. In SG annual turnover rates,
as indicated by differences between maximum and minimum standing crop,

TABLE 31: Annual below-ground primary production parameters (ash-free dry wt.; g.m.⁻²) in SG, LG and PAD. Values are means of annual figures between March 1978-March 1979 and June 1978-June 1979.

COMPONENTS	MEAN STANDING CROP (g.m. ⁻²)	MAXMIN. STANDING CROP	INCREMENTAL SUMMATION OF GAINS OF STANDING CROP	INCREMENTAL SUMMATION OF LOSSES OF STANDING CROP
SG				
Roots	258.5	123.6	134.0	69.9
Rhizomes	241.7	86.9	113.4	86.2
Detached Roots	177.1	35.0	43.9	17.8
Σ	677.3	245.5	291.3	173.9
Total Below-Ground Standing Crop	677.3	224.2	249.9	132.5
LG				
Roots	259.5	107.5	37.4	122.4
Rhizomes	231.0	223.2	218.1	233.1
Detached Roots	190.2	50.1	69.0	94.3
Forb Roots	30.0	62.2	54.3	59.4
Σ	710.7	443.0	378.8	509.2
Total Below-Ground Standing Crop	710.7	395.7	285.0	415.4
PADDOCK				
Roots	255.2	133.4	56.9	171.1
Rhizomes	176.9	233.6	61.3	233.6
Detached Roots	176.3	100.3	102.6	81.1
Forb Roots	103.1	268.2	291.9	197.3
Σ	711.5	735.5	512.7	683.1
Total Below-Ground Standing Crop	711.5	287.7	117.4	287.7

In LG, values are larger (56-62%) mainly due to are 33-36% overall. changes in rhizome biomass and larger losses. Below-ground fractions in PAD reached peak standing crop at different times, and higher production values are obtained from the summation of data for individual com-Large gains are caused by the proliferation of forbs, and differences between maximum and minimum standing crop are 103% of mean Using differences between maximum and minimum standing standing crop. crop, Dahlman (1968) recorded turnover rates of 25% per year in prairie grasslands, Nilsson (1970) recorded 50% in a Swedish hay meadow and Perkins et al. (1978) recorded 38-46% in Snowdonia grassland. estimates of primary production derived in this way represent the balance of growth and breakdown, and therefore under-estimate true Incubation data indicate that annual turnover production values. exceeds mean standing crop (see below).

Few studies have distinguished between different below-ground Plewczynska-Kuras (1976) divided underground parts of meadow fractions. herbage into three categories of roots, underground parts of stems. The importance of fine root underground litter and tillering nodes. dynamics has been realized in woodland studies (Barnard and Jorgensen, 1977; Santantonio et al., 1977; Cox et al., 1978) and Ares (1976) categorized the root system of Bouteloua gracilis (Blue Grama grass). He found that 30-60% of young unsuberized roots decreased within a few weeks of elongation during the spurt of spring growth. Garwood (1967) found that the longevity of adventitous roots arising from the base of tillers of Lolium perenne in April and May was often less than one week, whilst those initiated in September to November survived for an average of Spiedel and Weiss (1974) noted that 54% of observed root 5-6 months. tips survived less than one month, whilst only 10-15% survived more than 4 months. In the present study, unsuberized roots are found to

account up to 30% of root weight, and together with fine suberized roots they disappear quickly when conditions become unfavourable, whereas larger suberized roots are more resistant to decay.

The separation of large amounts of detached roots [16-41% (\bar{x} = 28.4%) of ash-free dry weight of total below-ground components] by flotation. after all visible plant material had been picked out, was surprising. Little direct evidence of this fraction has been reported; most authors have used either root washing over sieves or flotation techniques, but not combinations of both. Malone and Swartout (1969) found large proportions of small roots between 297 μm and 1,190 μm in size, and considered that washing through 1 mm screens may under-estimate below-ground standing crop by 50%. The detached root fraction consists mainly of detrital roots, and together with friable categories must account for the largest contribution of organic detritus into the soil. (1976) reported 20-30% detrital roots in prairie grasslands and Shamoot et al. (1968) and Sauerbeck and Johnen (1977), using radio-active tracer methods, found 20-49% more organic debris in soil than could be visibly separated, which they attributed to rhizo-deposition (also see Barber Sloughed root fractions, mucilaginous and and Martin, 1975, 1976). soluble materials have not been considered in the present study.

8.4 Effects of Mowing on Below-Ground Components

The greater proportion of biomass in grasslands is held below ground (Bazilevich and Titlyanova, 1980), which represents 54-98% of total biomass in the present study. The morphological and physiological adaptations of grasses provide a certain resilience to grazing or mowing (Langer, 1979) and Nyahoza et al. (1973) demonstrated that assimilate redistribution after defoliation between adjacent tillers and between rhizomes and tillers ensures their survival.

Bartos (1971) reviewed the literature concerning the effects of herbage removal on root weight (also see Section 2.1), and concluded that most studies showed a reduction in the amounts of roots after herbage removal. For example, Crider (1954) found that removal of half or more of grass foliage stopped root growth for 6-18 days. However, most of these results were derived from experiments carried out in the short term. Pearson (1965) found that grazed areas had more roots than ungrazed areas in desert communities of Eastern Idaho, as did Sims and Singh (1978) in North American grasslands. The present study indicates an increased investment in roots and rhizomes with increased frequency of mowing, although higher levels of roots and rhizomes did not return until the second year following the re-introduction of heavy mowing.

8.5 Nutrient Concentrations

Seasonal changes in nutrient concentrations between components of the vegetation are varied. In broad terms these changes result from movement of nutrients during growth and senescence. Elements differ in their mobility, and translocation particularly affects N, P and K (Allen et al., 1974). Some elements tend to be retained, whilst others are highly mobile and easily leached from tissues. Conclusions of the present study are listed in Section 4.11. Seasonal changes in concentrations vary between nutrients and plant components, are altered by mowing regime, and can often be described by dry weight parameters.

Allen et al. (1974) described the general seasonal trends of variation of nutrient concentrations in deciduous leaves in temperate climates. They described N, P and K fluctuations as reaching an early spring peak and remaining steady over summer with an autumn decline, which contrasts with the present study in which concentrations were lowest at times of peak biomass and increased through autumn and winter.

Also fluctuations of Mg and Mn in grasses are better defined than Allen et al. suggested, with concentrations increasing through the season to reach an autumn peak. Ca concentrations were very high in autumn. Williams et al. (1977) found N, P and K concentrations in sheaths and blades of New Zealand tall-tussock grasslands decreased with age, whilst Ca and Mg increased. Pritchard et al. (1964) showed that with progressive maturity of Phleum and Bromus spp., leaf and flowering head concentrations of K decreased, Ca increased and Mg remained relatively constant, whilst stem concentrations declined. In the present study, above-ground grass concentrations of most nutrients were highest in mown treatments.

Fluctuations of nutrient concentrations in below-ground components are poorly described in the literature, which provides few comparisons to the present study. Perkins et αl . (1978) measured N, P, K, $C\alpha$ and Mg concentrations in roots and grasses in Snowdonia grassland. measured higher Mg concentrations and lower Ca concentrations in roots than in above-ground grasses, both of which were vice versa in the Otherwise, concentrations and relative proportions in present study. grasses and roots were similar in both studies. Troughton (1957) stated that, in general, roots lose N at times of rapid herbage growth and gain it during autumn, whereas seasonal concentrations varied only slightly in the present study. Weinman (1942) found P concentrations in roots decreased during spring and early summer, and was transferred from leaves to roots in autumn. In the present study, root and rhizome P increased through the sampling period in SG and MG and were lowest in autumn in LG.

8.6 Nutrient Cycling

General information and descriptive models of nutrient turnover and circulation are presented by Butler and Bailey (1973), Frissel (1977)

and Clark et al. (1980). Briefly, N flows readily through plant components, although there is a build up of organic N in soil, whilst P is in tight circulation, governed by its low solubility, and intra-plant recycling becomes more important. Rapid turnover rates (open circulation) of K and Na between components of the ecosystem are illustrated by large available pools and leaching losses. Cycling of Ca and Mg are less well known, although they have important effects on soil properties, and leaching losses may be large (Wilkinson and Lowrey, 1973). Mn has been neglected as a nutrient, but soil levels may be low enough to restrict plant growth, and Zn is freely available to plants except in very acid soils (Allen et al., 1974).

In the present study, nutrient investment in plant components is shown to differ with management regime. Conclusions are detailed in Section 5.9. Release of nutrients from the large accumulations of litter, in the second year following cessation of mowing, are exploited by forb fractions although Ca, Mn and Zn tend to be retained in litter. Mowing encourages substantial investments in root and rhizome pools, and seasonal differences between treatments in the amounts of N, P, Ca and Zn in roots and rhizomes tend to follow dry matter differences. Seasonal fluctuations of K, Mg, Na and Mn pools in below-ground components differ according to mowing regime.

Perkins et al. (1978) recorded largest proportions of N, Ca and Mg in roots, compared to aerial parts, but slightly lower proportions of P and much less K in roots. Results of the present study are similar, although P and Mg vary seasonally. Bokhari and Singh (1975) found a greater N content in above— and below—ground plant tissues in short grass prairie compared to tall grass prairie.

Jones and Woodmansee (1979) discussed biogeochemical cycling of N, P and S in annual grassland ecosystems. They pointed out that internal

recycling is not important in annual grasslands because most vegetation dies at the end of the growing season, and therefore most nutrients in a current years vegetation are derived from direct mineralization of soil residues. Their comments have some relevance in the present context of perennial grass dominated ecosystems. Translocation of nutrients between plant components during senescence (ie: from leaves to rhizomes and roots) is usually assumed, particularly for those elements in limited supply such as N and P. However, large proportions of nutrients are transferred from grasses to litter (TABLE 32), which indicates that nutrients are poorly conserved by grass communities on an annual basis. Nevertheless, although available nutrients may limit grass production at certain times, those bound in organic matter and soil fractions probably become available as later successional stages develop.

Bradshaw (1980) examined the amounts of nutrients that become available to plants during the growing season, using data of Perkins et al. (1978) from Snowdonia grassland. He formulated the total annual requirement of each nutrient, which varied between 1.6-2.6 times the nutrients in capital, assuming the system was in a steady state with complete turnover of capital every year. Similar values are shown for LG in TABLE 33 where annual requirement varies between 0.7-1.5 times the nutrients in capital. The table provides a summary of dry weight and nutrients in capital and production at the Botanic Garden site, together It should be noted that, production with other relevant measurements. values are underestimated in both studies, particularly for below-ground components, and therefore provide an inaccurate measure of nutrient requirements.

Floate (1970 b, d) examined the modification of nutrient cycles by sheep grazing in Scottish hill pastures, where the supply of available nutrients is frequently low. He considered that increased pasture utilization during the growing season should lead to more efficient utilization of nutrients held in soil organic matter by increasing their availability through faeces and urine.

	N	P	K	Ca	Mg	Na	Mn	Zn
Litter concentration as a % of grass concentration at previous sampling date (mean values).	65.2	63.2	37.7	126.0	78.4	56.6	192.7	140.9
Annual Production - Grasses (g.m. ⁻²)	4.405	1.141	5.367	2.910	0.703	1.946	0.172	0.022
Annual Production - Litter (g.m. ⁻²)	7.723	1.039	2.401	2.523	0.365	0.801	0.420	0.053

TABLE 32: Comparison of nutrients in grasses and litter in LG. Annual production is calculated from the summation of positive increases in standing crop between March 1978-March 1979

	DRY WEIGHT	N	P	K	Ca	Mg	Na	Mn	Zn
ABOVE-GROUND Biomass (capital) Production ^a BELOW-GROUND ^b	247.3 549.1 710.7 ^c	3.62	0.62	3.20 4.52	1.21 2.17	0.32	0.75	0.09	0.02
Biomass (capital) Production	443.7	8.18 3.39	0.78 0.51	0.21 0.34	5.46 3.35	0.62 0.46	0.16 0.12	0.30 0.29	0.11 0.08
TOTAL Biomass (capital) Production ^d P/B ratio	958.0 992.8 <i>1.04</i>	11.80 7.83 0.66	1.40 1.34 <i>0.96</i>	3.41 4.86 1.43	6.67 5.52 <i>0.83</i>	0.94 0.95 <i>1.01</i>	0.91 1.33 <i>1.46</i>	0.39 0.42 1.08	0.13 0.12 0.92
Annual litter production-LG [©]	441.0	7.72	1.04	2.40	2.52	0.37	0.80	0.42	0.05
Removal of cuttings- SG^f Nett annual gains or losses in vegetation g	200 +80.5%	4.61 +20.0%	0.62	3.13 +9.7%	1.70	0.38	0.57	0.14	0.01

TABLE 33: Dry weight and nutrients in biomass (capital) and production at the Botanic Garden site in g.m.⁻².

Litter production and removal of cuttings are also shown, together with annual gains or losses from vegetation. Values refer to LG, except where indicated, and represent mean annual values.

- a. Estimated from incremental summation of positive increases. Accurate estimates including measurements of turnover may be 3x larger (p. 132).
- b. Below-ground values are ash-free dry weight.
- c Dry weights are mean values from table 31, and nutrients are calculated from incremental summation of positive increases of biomass. Breakdown studies indicate more accurate estimates may be 2-3.6x larger (p. 105).
- d. Bradshaw (1980) equates these values to total annual requirements (p. 139).
- e. see p. 140.
- f. see p. 79.
- g. see p. 68.

Less than 5% of the total capital of most nutrients are contained within the vegetation, and usually 1% or less are removed per annum by mowing.

8.7 Decomposition

Organic matter decomposition and the release of nutrients by mineralization are important parameters of ecosystem function and, in the absence of fertilizer, are controlling determinants of primary production.

Surface litter accumulation and breakdown have been considered in detail, and conclusions are discussed in Section 6.4. Breakdown rates of large accumulations of litter following cessation of mowing are rapid, particularly in spring and autumn. The combined influence of prevailing moisture conditions, especially repeated wetting and drying, and faunal activity determine breakdown rates. In situ incubation of below-ground fractions showed breakdown rates may exceed those of surface litter, and infer that annual turnover rates are in excess of Decomposition of below-ground fractions is discussed in Section 100%. Similar incubation techniques were used by Hackney and de la Cruz 7.6. (1980) to measure decomposition of roots and rhizomes of tidal marsh Otherwise quantitative root decomposition studies have involved the use of ground roots (Herman et αl ., 1977) or roots previously separated from soil and then buried. Using the latter method Stenina (1964) and Malone and Reichle (1973) recorded breakdown rates of These rates are much lower than those recorded in 0.07-0.12% per day. the present study (cf. TABLE 20) and are not really comparable.

The present study has shown that a major proportion of organic matter input into grassland soils is derived from the death of belowground components (also see Schlesinger, 1977; Singh and Gupta, 1977;

Coleman et αl ., 1980), although the precise contribution made by roots to soil organic matter is largely unknown. Clark et αl . (1980) considered that the major portion of detrital root nitrogen becomes mineral N, and does not go to humus N. The accumulation of organic matter in grassland soils has been described (Dahlman, 1968; Floate, 1970d; Swift et αl ., 1979) and Huntjens and Albers (1978) found that the continuous addition of a substrate together with N deficiency are probably largely responsible for this accumulation. The substrate is mainly derived from below-ground components.

8.8 Synopsis

The research project has provided background information concerning the structure and function of a semi-permanent grassland ecosystem, according to management regime, although an individual effort on this scale could not practicably embrace all areas of important ecological significance. Certain investigations were initiated but time limitations prevented their continuation. These were mostly concerned with ecosystem inputs and outputs and flow rates between compartments, particularly of soil respiration measurements (although techniques are described in the literature) and nutrient leaching through the grassland canopy. Nevertheless, seasonal biomass dynamics and nutrient variations according to mowing intensity and cessation of mowing are described in detail, with particular emphasis on the dynamics of below-ground components.

The importance of heterotrophic processes to ecosystem structure and function has been stressed. The subsidiary experiments, although often tentative, were instigated in an attempt to examine parameters considered most pertinent to ecosystem dynamics. Breakdown of large surface accumulations of litter is examined in detail and an insight is provided

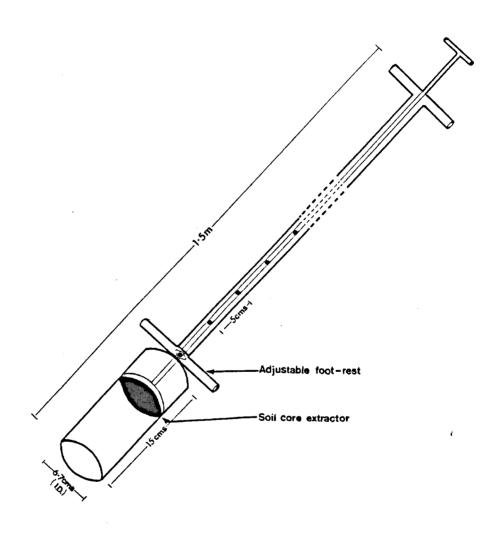
into the breakdown of below-ground components, the importance of fine roots, and the occurrence of detrital roots in soil.

Many aspects of ecological processes in grassland remain largely unknown. For example, Darwin (1881) realized the importance of earthworms in grasslands, but there have been few studies on their associations with plant root systems. The aims of further research should be towards obtaining a unified viewpoint of grassland dynamics, a detailed elucidation of differences between management regimes, and the development of simulation models.

APPENDIX 1: Physical and Chemical Properties of Soils. Total soil nutrients are percentage of oven-dry weight (see 5.1). Methods follow those given by Allen et al. (1974).

	LG	MG	SG	PAD
рН	5.1	5.0	5.2	5.2
Bulk density	0.823	0.830	0.927	0.965
% sand % silt	73.5 11.6	70.5 10.4	71.0 12.1	73.8 10.3
% clay ISSS Classification	14.9 sandy loam	19.1 sandy loam	16.9 sandy loam	16.1 sandy loam
% loss on ignition	7.58	8.00	8.04	6.45
total C (%)	3.48	3.87	3.91	3.00
total N (%)	0.50	0.65	0.78 0.62	0.38
total H (%) total P (%)	0.60 0.062	0.65 0.039	0.02	0.058
totak K (%)	0.329	0.292	0.323	0.271
total Ca (%)	0.046	0.054	0.053	0.037
total Mg (%)	0.266	0.225	0.254	0.212
total <i>Na</i> (%)	0.011	0.012	0.014	0.015
total Mn (%)	0.103	0.106	0.135	0.109
total Zn (%)	0.008	0.006	0.008	0.006

APPENDIX 2 : STEEL SOIL CORER.



APPENDIX 3

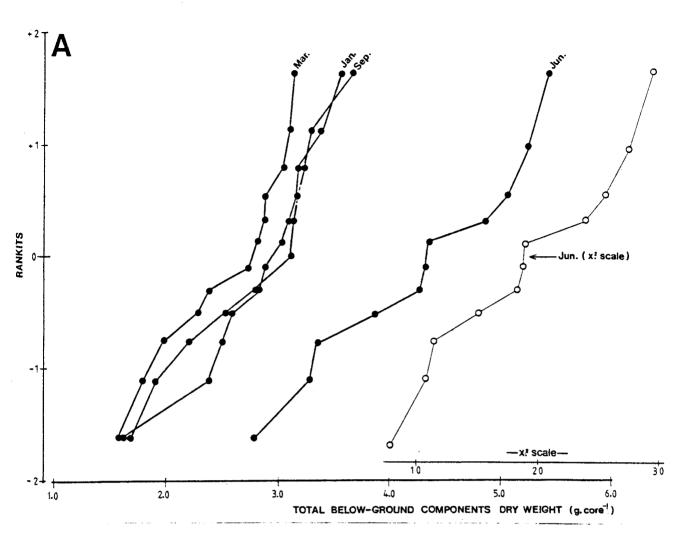
Frequency Distribution and Spatial Distribution of Below-Ground Components

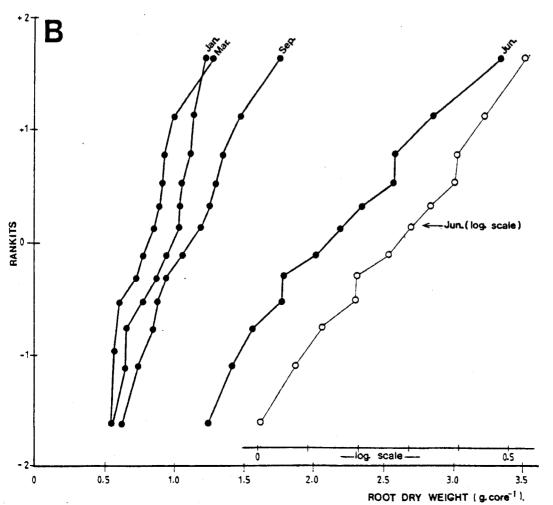
Few published data are available concerning the frequency distribution of below-ground components, and their horizontal spatial dispersion.

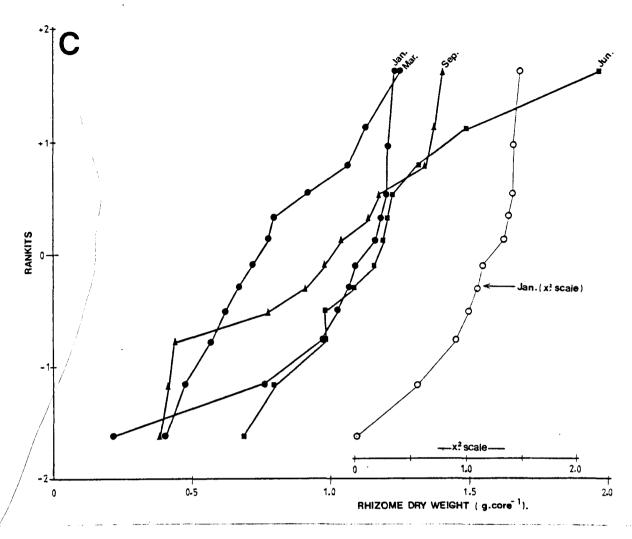
Frequency distributions are examined using rankit tests of normality. To pool data indiscriminately into a single distribution could give misleading results, and Bliss (1967) considered that rankit diagrams are the simplest and most sensitive tests of normality. Observations of each sample are arranged in order of increasing size and paired with the corresponding rankit (average deviate for each rank order) drawn from a population known to be normal. Rankit diagrams are shown in FIGS. A-D for below-ground data from SG in four months. A similar linear trend at different months gives a reasonable assurance of normality, but successive points are not independent of each other and tend to weave about the line (see Bliss, 1967). In most instances a straight line could reasonably be fitted to the data, although possible transformations are indicated on the graphs.

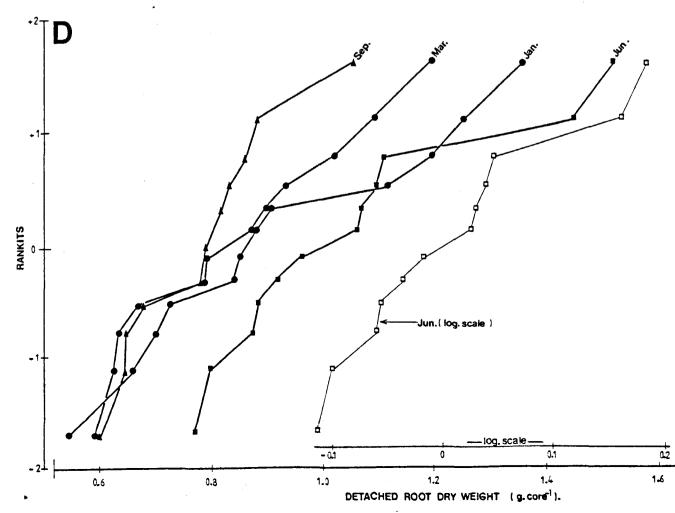
The mean corresponds to rankit O and standard deviation corresponds to one rankit unit. It is a property of the normal distribution curve that 95% of observations should fall within 1.96 standard deviations of its mean (see Bishop, 1975), which provide a further indication of normality from the graphs. Thus the proposed metameter of normality is not discredited, and statistics which assume a normal distribution are applied to below-ground dry weight data.

It is worthwhile to briefly consider horizonal spatial distribution. Westlake (1968) found that a large number of random samples were needed to overcome the contagious distribution of underground material of reedswamp plants with extensive rhizomes. Although data of the present study are insufficient to examine spatial dispersion, rankit diagrams of rhizomes in January are markedly curvilinear, indicating a frequency distribution skewed to the left. Rhizomes are produced in varying amounts by different species of grasses (Hubbard, 1968), and a more detailed study may indicate some clumping at certain times of the year.









APPENDIX 4: Description of Cluster Analysis and Multiple Regression techniques implemented in Chapters 3 and 4.

A) CLUSTER ANALYSIS

The aims of cluster analysis are to separate data into constituent groups using a number of largely empirical procedures. Objectives and techniques are discussed by Everitt (1974).

CLUSTAN 1B*, run at UMRCC, was used with options selected for Squared Euclidean Distance Similarity Coefficients, Hierarchic Fusion (Ward's Method) and Centroid Sorting.

Number of clusters was selected by eye on a best of fit basis.

B) MULTIPLE REGRESSION ANALYSIS

A multiple linear regression analysis program in the SPSS** package (version 7) was selected using forward stepwise inclusion with default parameters. Selection criteria are based on the F ratio.

All data were transformed to arcsin before computation.

- * 'Clustan 1B'. First Edition (1979)
 University of Manchester Regional Computer Centre.
- ** 'Introduction to SPSS' (1978) 3rd Edition. NWD2.

APPENDIX 5: Multiple Regression Equations (LG), with component dry weights as independent variables to describe nutrient concentrations. Levels of significance are indicated (see TABLE 6).

			LEVEL OF
			SIGNIFICANCE
N%g	=	1.607 - 0.0018G	5%
N%1	=	2.217 - 0.0014G - 0.0012L - 0.0028 RTS	5%
N%rts	=	0.766 + 0.00012G - 0.00113RTS + 0.0008RZM	5%
		0.803 - 0.00105RZM	5%
		1.151 - 0.00097RZM	0.1%
P%L	=	0.253 - 0.00012G - 0.00009L - 0.00035DR - 0.00006RTS	1%
P%rzm	=	0.067 - 0.000059G	5%
<i>K</i> %g		1.917 - 0.0033RZM - 0.0008L - 0.0005G	5%
K %1			5%
<i>K</i> %rts	=		1%
K%rzm			1%
K%dr	=	0.045 + 0.00006L - 0.00023DR	1%
Ca%g	=	0.135 + 0.00063G	5%
		-0.260 + 0.0019RZM + 0.0007G	5%
		0.304 + 0.008RZM	5%
		0.582 - 0.00015L - 0.00111DR	0.1%
<i>Ca</i> %dr	=	0.267 + 0.0007RTS + 0.00018L - 0.0002G + 0.0005RZM	5%
<i>Mg</i> %g	=	0.0618 + 0.00008/G	5%
Mg%1	=	0.0618 + 0.000087G 0.0798 + 0.00002G - 0.00003L - 0.00009RTS - 0.00002RZ 0.0729 - 0.0001RZM	M 1%
Mg%dr	=	0.035 + 0.00008L - 0.00004G - 0.00009RTS	0.1%
17 a 97 a	=	0.0416 + 0.00052G	0.1%
<i>Na</i> %g			1%
Na%1			
Na%rts			5%
Na%rzm			-
<i>Na</i> %dr	=	0.037 - 0.00012DR	1%
Mn%g	=	0.0124 + 0.0001RTS - 0.00005RZM	10%
Mn%rts	=	0.0419 - 0.00008RTS	10%
Mn%dr	=	0.0328 - 0.0002RTS + 0.00033DR	5%
IIII/VIII	_	O.OJEO O.OOOERED O.OOOJJER	J/6
Zn%g	=	0.0323 - 0.000095RTS	1%
Zn %1	=	0.0132 - 0.000006L - 0.000013RZM	5%
Zn%rts	=	0.0055 + 0.000011G	10%

APPENDIX 6: Multiple Regression Equations (PAD), with component dry weights as independent variables to describe nutrient concentrations. Levels of significance are indicated (see TABLE 7).

N%rts N%rzm N%dr P%g P%1	= = =	2.009 - 0.00289 - 0.0015RZM 0.788 - 0.00065RZM 0.636 - 0.00061RZM 1.104 - 0.0014RTS 0.161 - 0.00089RZM + 0.00066L + 0.00015G 0.152 - 0.00024RZM 0.0418 - 0.000047L 0.131 - 0.00025RTS	LEVELS OF SIGNIFICANCE 1% 5% 1% 5% 0.1% 0.1% 1% 10%
Ca%1 Ca%rts Ca%dr Mg%1 Mg%rts	= = = =	0.421 + 0.00093G - 0.0014DR 0.539 - 0.00041RZM 0.630 - 0.00088RZM 0.078 + 0.00014G - 0.00015RTS 0.083 - 0.000075RZM 0.159 - 0.00024RTS	1% 5% 1% 5% 10% 5%
Na%1 Na%rts Na%rzm Na%dr Mn%1 Mn%rts	= = =	0.028 - 0.00047RZM + 0.00026G + 0.0004L - 0.0003DR 0.018 - 0.000026RTS 0.006 + 0.000015L 0.023 - 0.000048RTS 0.0509 - 0.000073L + 0.00006RTS 0.036 - 0.000051RZM 0.0102 + 0.000018RTS	1% 5% 5% 1% 5% 10% 1%
Mn7dr Zn7g Zn71 Zn7rts Zn7rzm	=======================================	0.134 - 0.00023L - 0.00015DR - 0.000085G + 0.00007RZM 0.0071 - 0.000014G 0.267 - 0.000032L - 0.000047DR 0.0036 + 0.000033G - 0.000038RTS + 0.00003L 0.0035 + 0.000021RZM 0.0137 - 0.000025RTS	

APPENDIX 7: Additional Regression Equations for LG (above) and PAD (below) with nutrient concentrations included with their component dry weights in the list of independent variables (see TABLE 8).

LEVEL OF SIGNIFICANCE

LG

P%rts	= $0.278 - 1.23P\%$ rts - $0.000086G$ = $0.057 + 0.073N\%1$ = $-0.015 + 0.995P\%$ dr = $0.114 + 0.042N\%1 - 0.451P\%g$ = $-0.122 + 0.245N\%$ dr - $0.898K\%$ dr	1% 1% 0.1% 5% 5%
Ca%dr	= 0.189 + 0.00092RTS + 2.214Mg%dr	5%
Mg%rzm	= 0.025 + 0.912 Mn% rzm	5%
Na%rzm	= 0.022 + 0.266K%rzm + 0.786Mg%rzm	1%
Mn%rts	= $0.031 + 2.985$ Mg%1 - 0.574 Na%1 - 14.866 Zn%1 = $0.100 + 0.0002$ 7RTS + 0.799 K%rts = $0.018 + 0.829$ Mg%rzm	5% 5% 5%

PAD

N%1	= 0.270 + 5.354P%1	5%
P%rts	= 0.0042 + 0.832 <i>P</i> %dr	5%
	= -0.0047 + 11.150ZnZrts $- 0.00013$ G	5%
	= 0.0027 + 0.706 P% rts	5%
	= 0.239 - 0.00028RTS - 0.240N%rzm	5%
	= -0.0905 + 0.337 N Trts - 0.00042 DR	5% 5%
<i>K</i> %g	= 0.425 + 0.0018L + 6.365 <i>P</i> %rts	5%
	= -0.728 + 14.322 Mg%1 + 0.0012 L	1%
K%rts	= -0.051 + 1.282 Mg% rts	0.1%
	= -0.029 + 0.079 % 1	5%
	= -0.041 + 2.558 Mn% dr	1%
Ca%g	= -0.439 + 9.683 Mg%g	1%
Caro	= -0.133 + 3.209 Na g + 0.00083 RZM	1%
Ca%rzm	= $-0.439 + 9.683Mg\%g$ = $-0.133 + 3.209Na\%g + 0.00083RZM$ = $0.367 - 1.808P\%rzm$	1%
Ma%e	= 0.050 + 0.087 Ca%g	1%
Maza	= 0.099 + 0.269Na%g - 0.00026DR	5%
Mg%rts	= 0.041 + 0.747 %rts	0.1%
Mg%rzm		5%
Na%g	= 0.043 + 0.305Ca%g - 0.00026RZM	1%
Na%1	= 0.0018 + 0.134 % 1 - 0.091 Ca% 1	1%
Mn7g	= $0.044 - 0.084 ^{\text{K}}\text{g} + 0.00022 \text{L} + 0.11 ^{\text{M}}\text{a}^{\text{M}}\text{g} + 0.0001 \text{DR}$	5%
Mn%rts	= -0.012 + 0.568 Mg% rts	5%
Zn%rts	= 0.0013 + 0.097 <i>P</i> %rts	5%

APPENDIX 8: One-way analysis of variance tests of difference between treatment means of SG, MG, LG and PAD (nutrient concentrations), corresponding to FIGS. 16-20. Values shown are probability (p) of computed F values exceeding tabulated values.

	GRASSES (Fig.16)	LITTER (Fig.17)	ROOTS (Fig.18)	RHIZOMES (Fig.19)	DETACHED ROOTS (Fig.20)
N%	0.493	0.534	0.615	0.926	0.064
P%	0.669	0.011	0.475	0.361	0.128
K%	0.005	0.113	0.039	0.386	0.003
Ca%	0.644	0.967	0.008	0.011	0.015
Mg%	0.002	0.003	0.039	0.072	0.310
Na%	0.011	0.038	0.364	0.521	0.768
Mn%	0.164	0.445	0.296	0.404	0.920
Zn%	0.852	0.142	0.606	0.341	0.312

APPENDIX 9: Spearman correlation coefficients (r) and significan corresponding to FIGS. 16-20 (spaces indicate p > 0.

NUTRIENT	GRASSES (Fig.16)				LITTER (Fig.17)					
CONCNS.	LG v. MG	LG v. SG	MG V. SG	LG v. PAD	LG v. MG	LG v. SG	MG V. SG	LG v. PAD	V	LG v. MG
N%			r 1.000 p .001	r .900 p .038	r 1.000 p .001	r 1.000 p .001	r 1.000 p .001		r 1	1.000
P%		r 1.000 p .001		r .821 p .089		. *	*			
K%	r -1.000 p .001			r900 p .038		*	*			
Ca%	r 1.000 p .001					*	*	r .943 p .005		
Mg%		r 1.000 p .001			r 1.000 p .001	*	*			
Na%	r 1.000 p .001					*	*			
Mn%	r 1.000 p .001			r .900 p .038		*	*			
Zn%			r 1.000 p .001		r 1.000 p .001	*	*			

e levels (p) for pairs of treatments (nutrient concentrations), ; asterisks indicate n=2 and value of r is invalid).

ROOTS (Fig.18)		RHIZOMES (Fig.19)				DETACHED ROOTS (Fig.20)				
LG v. SG	MG V. SG	LG v. PAD	LG v. MG	LG v. SG	MG v. SG	LG v. PAD	LG V. MG	LG v. SG	MG V. SG	LG v. PAD
r943 p .005	r 1.000 p .001	·			r 1.000 p .001	r .771 p .073			r 1.000 p .001	
	r .949 p .052	r771 p .073			r 1.000 p .001			·		
	·				r-1.000 p .001					
r .943 p .005				r .900 p .038	r 1.000 p .001		r 1.000 p .001	r .886 p .019		
	r 1.000 p .001		r .949 p .052							
r .820 p .046		r .826 p .043				r746 p .089	r 1.000 p .001			r .750 p .086
r .783 p .066			r .949 p .052			r .985 p .001				
	r .949 p .052				r 1.000 p .001		r 1.000 p .001			

APPENDIX 10: Above- and below-ground nutrient concentrations (%) in forb fractions, compared to above-ground grasses and total below-ground components (excluding herb roots). Data from PAD.

ABOVE-GROUND

		1/6/78	21/9/78	21/3/79	19/6/79
N	Forbs	3.895	2.294	4.782	1.056
	grasses	2.337	2.074	3.148	1.445
P	Forbs	0.370	0.289	0.526	0.129
	grasses	<i>0.276</i>	<i>0.400</i>	<i>0.427</i>	<i>0.184</i>
K	Forbs	3.365	2.543	2.889	1.178
	grasses	2.692	2.216	2.223	1.997
Са	Forbs	0.856	1.859	0.276	0.44
	grasses	<i>0.544</i>	0.959	<i>0.178</i>	0.183
Мд	Forbs	0.298	0.238	0.262	0.127
	grasses	<i>0.145</i>	<i>0.172</i>	0.108	0.103
Na	Forbs	0.492	0.509	0.192	0.108
	grasses	<i>0.102</i>	<i>0.297</i>	0.095	0.153
Mn	Forbs	0.035	0.031	0.029	0.011
	grasses	<i>0.037</i>	<i>0.053</i>	<i>0.030</i>	0.020
Zn	Forbs	0.011	0.008	0.010	0.004
	grasses	<i>0.009</i>	<i>0.008</i>	<i>0.014</i>	<i>0.004</i>

BELOW-GROUND

		21/9/78	9/1/79	21/3/79	19/6/79
N	Forbs	0.940	1.490	1.850	1.100
	others	1.333	1.380	1.524	1.502
Р	Forbs	0.102	0.115	0.192	0.082
	others	<i>0.107</i>	<i>0.108</i>	<i>0.136</i>	0.100
K	Forbs	0.195	0.075	0.157	0.078
	others	<i>0.032</i>	<i>0.047</i>	0.090	<i>0.049</i>
Са	Forbs	0.936	0.844	0.911	1.030
	others	<i>0.898</i>	<i>0.936</i>	<i>0</i> .988	<i>0</i> .918
Mg	Forbs	0.111	0.108	0.123	0.128
	others	<i>0.114</i>	<i>0.109</i>	0.150	<i>0.118</i>
Na	Forbs	0.023	0.021	0.027	0.028
	others	0.021	0.021	0.025	0.022
Mn	Forbs	0.016	0.024	0.023	0.032
	others	<i>0.040</i>	<i>0.038</i>	0.056	0.052
Zn	Forbs	0.005	0.012	0.010	0.010
	others	<i>0.017</i>	<i>0.013</i>	<i>0.014</i>	<i>0.013</i>

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Addendum

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