

ARCHIVES OF AGRONOMY AND SOIL SCIENCE

Archives of Agronomy and Soil Science

ISSN: 0365-0340 (Print) 1476-3567 (Online) Journal homepage: https://www.tandfonline.com/loi/gags20

Impact of the establishment of a botanical garden on soil carbon sequestration and nutrient availability in tropical soils

R.R. Ratnayake, Dinusha Chamari, Sumith Ekanayake, K. Rajapaksha, S.B. Karunaratne & K.L. Wasantha Kumara

To cite this article: R.R. Ratnayake, Dinusha Chamari, Sumith Ekanayake, K. Rajapaksha, S.B. Karunaratne & K.L. Wasantha Kumara (2019): Impact of the establishment of a botanical garden on soil carbon sequestration and nutrient availability in tropical soils, Archives of Agronomy and Soil Science, DOI: <u>10.1080/03650340.2019.1651449</u>

To link to this article: https://doi.org/10.1080/03650340.2019.1651449

Accepted author version posted online: 31 Jul 2019. Published online: 13 Aug 2019.

Ì

Submit your article to this journal 🕝

Article views: 44



View related articles 🗹

View Crossmark data 🗹



Check for updates

Impact of the establishment of a botanical garden on soil carbon sequestration and nutrient availability in tropical soils

R.R. Ratnayake^a, Dinusha Chamari^b, Sumith Ekanayake^c, K. Rajapaksha^a, S.B. Karunaratne^d and K.L. Wasantha Kumara ^b

^aNational Institute of Fundamental Studies, Kandy, Sri Lanka; ^bDepartment of Agriculture Biology, Faculty of Agriculture, University of Ruhuna, Mapalana, Kamburupitiya, Sri Lanka; ^cMirijjawila Botanical Garden, Hambantota, Sri Lanka; ^dAgriculture Victoria Research, Ellinbank, Australia

ABSTRACT

The objective of the study was to identify the potential for soil C sequestration associated with the establishment of a botanical garden in the tropics. Since forest resources are dwindling and home gardens are limited botanical gardens could play a major role in mitigating CO_2 in the urban environment. This study determined C sequestration and nutrient availability of different thematic areas of a botanical garden 10 years after establishment in comparison with the primary land use, a dry zone forest at the establishment. The establishment of the botanical garden has created a significant improvement of the soil properties with compared to the primary land use. The soil C stocks were significantly high in the botanical garden with compared to the primary land use (7.3 t ha⁻¹). Thematic areas such as Arboretum Part B (13.04 t ha⁻¹), Herbal Garden (12.5 t ha⁻¹) and Valley path (13.23 t ha⁻¹) contained the highest amount of C in soil. Management practices used in maintaining this botanical garden may have affected the soil organic carbon and nutrient status of soil. This study showed that botanical gardens established in urban areas have a great capacity to store C and thereby to mitigate global warming.

ARTICLE HISTORY

Received 18 January 2019 Accepted 30 July 2019

KEYWORDS

Carbon sequestration; microbial biomass C; total organic C; soil carbon stocks; soil nutrients

Introduction

Sequestering C in the soil could be one of the efficient mechanisms for reducing CO_2 emissions to the atmosphere and thereby reducing global warming. As the largest terrestrial reservoir of C, soils may exert a strong influence on atmospheric CO_2 concentrations as C sources or sinks (Lal 2009). Soil organic matter (SOM) is produced by the cycling of the organic compounds in plants, animals, and microorganisms into the soil (Schimel and Schaeffer 2012). Thus, the ability of soil to act as a carbon sink depends a great deal on the presence of vegetation (Ross et al. 2016). It is important to note that soil deflation represents a reduction in natural carbon sequestration infrastructure that is separate and distinct from that occurring in vegetation. Carbon is sequestered at different rates over the lifetime of a vegetation stand (Yang et al. 2018).

Land use affects soil organic C (SOC) concentrations and stocks (Khaledian et al. 2017). Losses in soil C caused by the conversion of natural vegetation to agricultural land or to urban areas are well documented (Ross et al. 2016). It is estimated that globally, 24% of the SOC stock has been lost through the conversion of forest to agricultural land (Murty et al. 2002; Wei et al. 2014) and 59% through the conversion of pasture to agricultural land (Guo and Gifford 2002). It is reported that

CONTACT R.R. Ratnayake renuka.ra@nifs.ac.lk I National Institute of Fundamental Studies, Hantana Road, Kandy, Sri Lanka This article has been republished with minor changes. These changes do not impact the academic content of the article. I 2019 Informa UK Limited, trading as Taylor & Francis Group during this conversion the terrestrial carbon pool can be greatly reduced by human induced activities (Lal 2004; Pan 2008). However so far there are no reports specifically on the conversion of forest to botanical garden in elsewhere typically under tropical ecosystems.

Botanical gardens are established for the purpose of maintaining documented collections of living plants used in scientific research, conservation, display and education (Groover and Dosmann 2012). Due to their large collections of plants from wide areas, botanical gardens play a central role in plant biology research (Groover and Dosmann 2012) and conservation of most threaten plants species due to climate change (Krishnan and Novy 2016). The process of urban greening through the establishment of botanical gardens will be vital for enhancing urban soil health while improving air quality as a result of the removal of excess CO₂ from the atmosphere. Therefore, studies on climate change mitigation through soil C sequestration will provide further avenues of improvement that might be suitable for the development of botanical gardens in the future. As the forests do not exist and home gardens are limited, botanical gardens have a major role in reducing CO₂ from the urban environment. Based on our review no studies have been reported on the soil C sequestration capacities of different thematic areas of a botanical garden in the tropics. Therefore, the aim of this work is to study the changes in soil properties with a special emphasis on soil C storage after the establishment of a botanical garden.

In line with the above, the current investigation was carried out with the objective of studying C storage capacity and availability of macro nutrients in different thematic areas of the Hambantota tropical botanical garden of Sri Lanka 10 years after its establishment hypothesizing that the disturbances to the soil do not make changes to the organic C fractions or nutrients.

Materials and methods

Study area

The study was carried out in a botanical garden located in the dry zone of Sri Lanka (6° 7' 27" N, 81° 7' 21" E, 6.124167, 81.1225) that was established in 2006 (Figure 1). The garden extends over 121 ha of land. The soil type of the area is known locally as Reddish Brown Earth (USDA Soil taxonomy order: Alfisols; Word reference base Major group: Luvisols). Terrain is characterized with undulating terrain which is common in the defined dry zone catena of Sri Lanka (Panabokke 1996). It is a neutral soil (pH = 7) in nature and cation exchange capacity is in between 10–20 meq 100 g⁻¹ hence it is considered as a fertile soil (De Silva and Dassanayake 2010). Base saturation of the soil is more than 50%. Calcium percentage is higher and soils can get eroded easily. Primary vegetation of the area was a dry zone forest with small trees and shrubs. Dominant trees present were included *Sapindusi marginata, Feronia limonia, Dichrostachys cinerea, Carissa spinarum, Cassipourea ceylanica* etc.

The botanical garden was composed of 7 thematic areas such as Arboretum part A (HARA), Arboretum part B (HARB), Ethanobotanical garden (HEBG), Herbal garden (HHG), Ornamental shrub garden (HOSG), Student garden (HSG) and Valley path (HVP). A patch of primary vegetation of the area before the establishment of the botanical garden was left undisturbed within the botanical garden for study purposes and known as Natural shrub garden (NSG). A detailed description of each thematic area is provided in Table 1.

Management practices

No chemical fertilizers were added, and only organic fertilizers were used to grow the plants during its establishment. The organic fertilizer was added as a mixture of cow dung, sand and forest topsoil in 1:2:3 ratios during the establishment. Thereafter, only cow dung was added as a fertilizer to HHG, HOSG and HSG whenever required. During the initial 3-year period, the plants were irrigated daily using row water. Thereafter, the plants were irrigated only during the dry season at 2-week intervals. The thematic areas were protected against disturbances and human interference. Natural plant litter and residues added were not removed from the soil other than the roads and paths inside the garden.

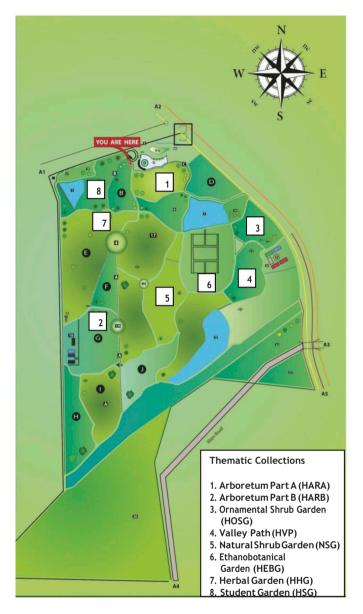


Figure 1. Study area of Dry Zone Botanical Garden in Hambantota, Sri Lanka including different thematic collections (Source: Hambantota Dry Zone Botanical Garden, Sri Lanka).

Climate

The annual temperature varied between 28 and 32 $^{\circ}$ C, while the mean annual rainfall in the area was recorded as 50–190 mm (< 800) (Figures 2 and 3).

Soil sampling

A random sampling scheme was adopted to obtain soil samples from two depth levels: 0–0.15 m and 0.15–0.30 m. Samples were collected using a soil core of 5 cm width after removing the surface litter layer. Total of 144 samples were collected from two depth levels and pooled to form 48 composite samples for the study site. Finally, from all thematic areas 48 samples were used for the analysis.

4 👄 R. R. RATNAYAKE ET AL.

Table 1.	Description	of the	study	locations	of	the	garden.

Thematic area		location	Composition of plants		
Arboretum	part A	232276 East	Large trees		
(HARA)		106143 North	Azadirachta indica, Salvadora persica,		
			Limonia acidissima		
Arboretum	part B	232145 East	Large trees		
(HARB)		105694 North	Diospyros ebanum, Glycyrrhiza glabra, Ziziphus mauritiana		
Ornamental shrub	Ornamental shrub garden (HOSG)		Ornamental Shrubs		
		105970 North	Nerium oleander,		
			Acacia cornier		
			Barleria prionitis		
Valley path (HVP)		232882 East	Ornamental plants		
		105801 North	Calotropis gigantean		
			Cassia fistula		
Ethano botanical g	arden (HEBG)	233005 East	Shrubs and trees		
		105842 North	Salvadora persika		
			Manilkara hexandra		
			Asclepias eriocarpa		
Herbal garden (HHG)		232495 East	Herbs & Small trees		
		106031 North	Memozylum umbelatum		
			senna auriculata, Strychnos potatorum		
Student garden (H	SG)	232234 East	Shrubs		
		106162 North	Carissa spinarum Capparis zeylanica Ziziphusoenoplia		
Natural shrub garden (NSG)		232556 East	Thorny shrubs & trees		
		105841 North	Sapindusi marginata Dichrostachys cinerea		
			Cassipourea ceylanica		

HARA = Arboretum part A; HARB = Arboretum part B; HEBG = Ethanobotanical garden; HHG = Herbal garden; HOSG = Ornamental shrub garden; HSG = Student garden; HVP = Valley path; NSG = Natural shrub garden.

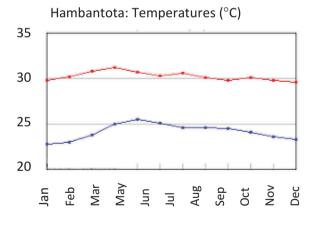


Figure 2. Average minimum and maximum temperatures in Hambantota, Sri Lanka during 2016 (Source: https://eldorado weather.com/climate/sri%20lanka/Hambantota.html.

Soil preparation and analysis

Soil core samples collected in black polythene bags were brought to the laboratory for further processing. All visible organic debris, stones, and plant roots were removed from these samples. Large soil aggregates were crushed and sieved using a 2 mm mesh sieve. Soil pH, electrical conductivity, moisture content, bulk density, available nitrogen, phosphorus and microbial biomass carbon (MBC) were analyzed using this fresh soil. The remaining soil samples were air dried and ground (0.15 mm) using a grinder (M20 IKA, WERAKE) for further analysis (Anderson and Ingram 1993) such as SOC fractions (KMnO₄ oxidizable carbon (POC) and water soluble organic carbon (WSC)), soil PO_4^{-3} -content, soil NO₃ content, soil NH₄⁺ content and available macronutrients (K, Ca and Mg). Additional soil

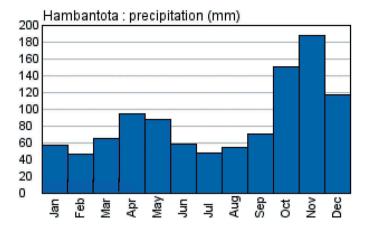


Figure 3. Average precipitation (rain/snow) in Hambantota, Sri Lanka during 2016 (Source: https://eldoradoweather.com/ climate/sri%20lanka/Hambantota.html).

samples were taken from each site by core sampling method and analyzed for gravimetric water content and bulk density (Blake and Hartge 1986). The samples obtained for bulk density measurements were free from roots, stones and debris. Microbial biomass carbon (MBC) was determined using the chloroform fumigation and extraction method (Vance et al. 1987). After fumigation, the microbial biomass C was extracted using 0.5 M K₂SO₄ and quantified using the titration method with acidified ferrous ammonium sulphate (Anderson and Ingram 1993). The determination of TOC was carried out using acidified dichromate of organic carbon with the modified Walkley's oxidation method (Baker 1976). In this study, TOC was considered to be equal to SOC. The labile fraction of SOC, mainly coming from the active carbon pools, was determined using the KMnO₄ oxidizable carbon stimation method (Weil et al. 2003). Water soluble organic carbon (WSC) was extracted with water after shaking at 200 rpm for 30 min and filtering using Whatman 42 ashless filters. The extract was analyzed for carbon by titration with ferrous ammonium sulphate after dichromate oxidation in acidic medium.

Determination of available macronutrients

Macronutrients (K, Ca, and Mg) were extracted using modified Morgan extractant (NH_4OH/CH_3COOH) (Mc Intosh 1969) and were analyzed using an atomic absorptionspectrophotometer (GBC 933 AA). Soil PO^{3-} content was measured using the molybdenum blue method (Watanabe and Olsen 1965). Soil available N:NO₃ (Cataldo et al. 1975) and NH₄ (Lenore et al. 1989) were determined calorimetrically.

Calculation of soil carbon stocks

Carbon stocks were calculated using the following equation (Benbi et al. 2015):

C stock (t ha^{-1})= C content (%) × bulk density (Mg m^{-3}) × depth (m) × 100

Statistical design and analysis

A general linear model (GLM) analysis was conducted in Minitab 16 to detect statistically significant differences in variables across the study area at the 0.05 probability level. The available nitrogen, available phosphorus, magnesium, copper and iron concentration data were natural log transformed to approximate a normal distribution. Other variables were tested without transformation.

6 🛞 R. R. RATNAYAKE ET AL.

A Pearson correlation analysis was performed to investigate the relationships between variables. Simple regression analyses were also performed to evaluate the relationships between the measured variables. A GLM was used to study the interactions between the studied variables. The selection criteria for the regressions were based on the R² and p values.

Results

Soil organic carbon fractions and stocks

The SOC fractions and stocks varied significantly with respect to the primary land use NSG. The total organic carbon (TOC) was significantly differed (p < 0.05) between the 2 soil depths and varied between 0.62 and 0.90% in the top soil layer of the different thematic areas (Figure 4) and between 0.63 and 1.06% in the 15–30 cm soil layer (Figure 4). The MBC ranged between 0.01 and 0.04% in the 0–15 cm soil depth (Figure 5). The water soluble C (WSC) significantly differed (p < 0.05) with soil depth and thematic area, showing variation of between 0.007 and 0.025% in the upper soil layer and between 0.006 and 0.916% in the lower soil layer respectively (Figure 6). The NSG showed the lowest MBC content and lowest WSC content. The KMnO₄ oxidizable carbon (POC) content varied across the different thematic areas and soil depths, showing variation of between 410.77 and 598.79 mg kg⁻¹ in the upper soil layer and between 409.09 and 527.61 mg kg⁻¹ in the lower soil layer respectively (Figure 7). The highest carbon stocks in the 0–15 cm layer were shown by thematic areas such as Arboretum Part B (13.04 t ha⁻¹), Herbal Garden (12.5 t ha⁻¹) and Valley path (13.23 t ha⁻¹) in comparison with the primary land use NSG (7.3 t ha⁻¹). A similar pattern was shown by the C stocks in the 15–30 cm layer as well (Figure 8).

Soil available nutrients

The soil available nitrate content significantly differed with soil depth and thematic area (p < 0.05). It ranged between 0.16 and 1.21 μ g g⁻¹ in the upper soil layer and between 0.06 and 0.31 μ g g⁻¹ in the lower layer. The highest nitrate content was recorded in the upper layer of NSG. The available NH₄⁺ content of the soil significantly differed across the thematic areas and with soil depth, and the values varied between 1.23 × 10⁻⁵ μ g g⁻¹ and 5.12 × 10⁻⁴ μ g g⁻¹ in the upper soil layer and

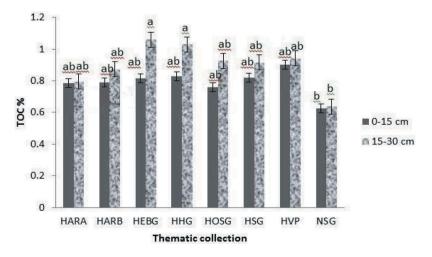


Figure 4. Variation of total organic carbon (TOC) in different thematic collections of the botanical garden, Arboretum part A (HARA), Arboretum part B (HARB), Ethanobotanical garden (HEBG), Herbal garden (HHG), Ornamental shrub garden (HOSG), Student garden (HSG), Valley path (HVP), Natural shrub garden (NSG). Means denoted by the same letter are not significantly different (p < 0.05).

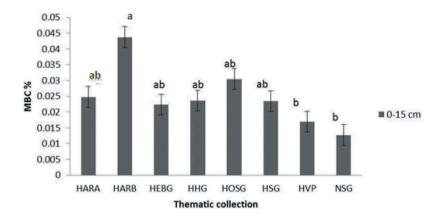


Figure 5. Variation of soil microbial biomass carbon (MBC) in different thematic collections of the botanical garden, Arboretum part A (HARA), Arboretum part B (HARB), Ethanobotanical garden (HEBG), Herbal garden (HHG), Ornamental shrub garden (HOSG), Student garden (HSG), Valley path (HVP), Natural shrub garden (NSG). Means denoted by the same letter are not significantly different (p < 0.05).

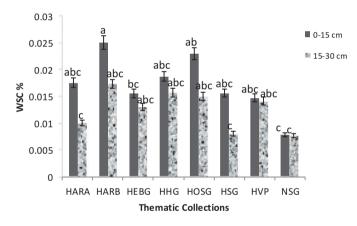


Figure 6. Variation of water soluble carbon (WSC) in different thematic collections of the botanical garden, Arboretum part A (HARA), Arboretum part B (HARB), Ethanobotanical garden (HEBG), Herbal garden (HHG), Ornamental shrub garden (HOSG), Student garden (HSG), Valley path (HVP), Natural shrub garden (NSG). Means denoted by the same letter are not significantly different (p < 0.05).

between 2.7×10^{-5} and $3.1 \times 10^{-4} \ \mu g \ g^{-1}$ in the lower soil layer. The study showed that NSG contained the highest NH₄⁺ content, while the lowest was found in HOSG. These results indicate that the changes in nutrients showed a different pattern compared to the organic C fraction. The contents of macronutrients (K, Ca, Mg) significantly differed across the different thematic areas and between the two soil layers. The K, Ca and Mg contents ranged between 21.22 and 36.62 mg kg⁻¹, 80.5 and 161.5 mg kg⁻¹ and 27.79 and 82.36 mg kg⁻¹, respectively (Table 2).

Soil pH and electrical conductivity

In this study, the pH decreased with soil depth, and significant differences (p < 0.05) were found in the soils of all thematic areas (Figure 9). The soil pH in the top soil layer (0–15 cm) ranged from 5.98 to 7.93 and from 5.93 to 7.84 in the bottom layer. The EC of the soils significantly differed (p < 0.05) among the soils of the thematic areas (Figure 9). The EC ranged between 30.41 and 79.85 μ S cm⁻¹ in the upper soil layer and between 27.01 and 78.24 μ S cm⁻¹ in the lower soil layer.

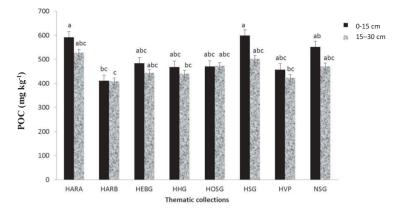


Figure 7. Variation of KMnO₄ oxidizable carbon (POC) in different thematic collections of the botanical garden, Arboretum part A (HARA), Arboretum part B (HARB), Ethanobotanical garden (HEBG), Herbal garden (HHG), Ornamental shrub garden (HOSG), Student garden (HSG), Valley path (HVP), Natural shrub garden (NSG). Means denoted by the same letter are not significantly different (p < 0.05).

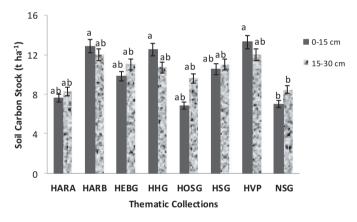


Figure 8. Soil carbon stock (t ha^{-1}) in different thematic collections of the botanical garden, Arboretum part A (HARA), Arboretum part B (HARB), Ethanobotanical garden (HEBG), Herbal garden (HHG), Ornamental shrub garden (HOSG), Student garden (HSG), Valley path (HVP), Natural shrub garden (NSG). Means denoted by the same letter are not significantly different (p < 0.05).

Soil physical properties

HARB showed the highest value of bulk density (1.00 g cm⁻³) (Table 2). The lowest bulk density value was observed in NSG (0.68 g cm⁻³). HEBG, HSG and HVP showed the same bulk density value, which was 0.80 g cm⁻³. The soil moisture content significantly varied between the 2 layers: 2.77–9.61% for the 0–15 layer and 3.20–7.13% for the 15–30 cm layer.

Discussion

Generally, in commercial agriculture, continuous cultivation is practiced with conventional tillage and inorganic fertilizer without the addition of organic manure. Such cultivation practices lead to land degradation, which is mainly due to the acceleration of the decomposition of SOM (Pan 2008; Ratnayake et al. 2017), reduction in the quantity of plant inputs into the soil and increasing erosion rates (Albaladejo et al. 2013; Assis et al. 2010; Sousa et al. 2012). However, in the current study the botanical garden was maintained with some sustainable land use practices and selected plant

			Ca	
Thematic collection	Layer (cm)	K	$(mg kg^{-1})$	Mg
HARA	0–15 cm	36.09ab	130.13ab	82.36a
HARA	15–30 cm	36.62ab	161.50a	73.09ab
HARB	0–15 cm	29.54ab	133.28ab	52.90abcd
HARB	15–30 cm	27.64ab	97.72b	46.85bcd
HEBG	0–15 cm	31.25ab	115.28ab	39.39cd
HEBG	15–30 cm	25.40b	151.55b	40.06cd
HHG	0–15 cm	23.67b	115.25b	55.03abcd
HHG	15–30 cm	21.22b	127.05b	62.18abc
HOSG	0–15 cm	28.78ab	153.55ab	41.04cd
HOSG	15–30 cm	30.86ab	141.60ab	52.14bcd
HSG	0–15 cm	27.44ab	94.90b	43.98bcd
HSG	15–30 cm	28.75ab	80.50b	27.79d
HVP	0–15 cm	25.96ab	92.25b	42.15cd
HVP	15–30 cm	25.48b	104.70b	48.44bcd
NSG	0–15 cm	34.98a	102.10b	54.60abcd
NSG	15–30 cm	31.36ab	90.73b	49.84bcd

Table 2. Soil available K, Mg, and Ca concentrations in different thematic collections.

HARA = Arboretum part A; HARB = Arboretum part B; HEBG = Ethanobotanical garden; HHG = Herbal garden; HOSG = Ornamental shrub garden; HSG = Student garden; HVP = Valley path; NSG = Natural shrub garden. Values in the same column followed by the same letter are not significantly different at p < 0.05.

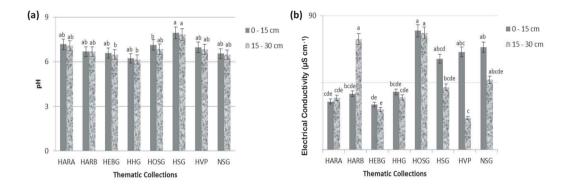


Figure 9. Variation of (a) pH (b) Electrical Conductivity (μ S cm⁻¹) in different thematic collections of the botanical garden, Arboretum part A (HARA), Arboretum part B (HARB), Ethanobotanical garden (HEBG), Herbal garden (HHG), Ornamental shrub garden (HOSG), Student garden (HSG), Valley path (HVP), Natural shrub garden (NSG). Means denoted by the same letter are not significantly different (p < 0.05).

species resulting a significant increase in C sequestration (Campbell et al. 2001) compared to the primary vegetation of the area. The primary vegetation of the area was a dry zone forest composed of thorny shrubs small trees and very few large trees. Carbon fractions and TOC content of the soils of the thematic areas of the botanical garden was significantly higher with compared to the primary land use as dry zone forest experiences high temperatures throughout the year, and thereby increase decomposition rate of the organic matter in soil (Darmaparakrama et al. 2009).

The increase in C storage capacity of the soils of the botanical garden attributed to more soil C gain from aboveground litter and belowground roots. Minimum soil C loss from erosion due to the proper land management within the botanical garden has also contributed for this increase (Chang et al. 2011). Minimal/no surface litter removal in the botanical garden has led to conclude that residues of above ground and below ground are the major source of carbon contributing to SOC improvement (Smith 2008). The results of the current study also showed that the types of vegetation have a significant effect on the SOC storage as reflected by different thematic areas (Yang et al. 2018).

10 👄 R. R. RATNAYAKE ET AL.

Microbial biomass is the most active part of SOM (Behera and Sahani 2003). Microbial biomass and particularly its ratio to organic carbon are early indicators of changes in the carbon status of the soil (Insam and Domsh 1988; Powlson et al. 2011). High MBC in thematic areas compared to NSG is due to the addition of organic fertilizer and maintaining soil moisture by irrigation. Usually, in topsoil, organic inputs (Santos et al. 2012) as well as high soil moisture and O_2 levels (Fierer et al. 2003) can determine the MBC content. A high microbial population can usually be expected in soils when there is high organic matter content (Six et al. 2006). Grassland soils are reported to have more soluble C (Lu et al. 2011), as seen the WSC in HARB, which was also covered by a thick and continuous grass layer (lawn). The lowest WSC content was reported in NSG, as a result of the increased erosion rates (Assis et al. 2010) in the dry zone forests. The KMnO₄ oxidizable carbon (POC) content varied in small amounts. The KMnO₄ oxidizable carbon (POC) content is considered as an indicator of soil quality (Weil et al. 2003) and showed small variations in different thematic areas of the garden. The soil carbon stocks were significantly differed (p < 0.05) across the soil depths and thematic collections.

The pH and EC of the soil significantly varied among the different thematic areas and between the two soil depths. The natural shrub garden (NSG) showed a fairly alkaline pH compared to the other sites as it was covered by grasses making the soil alkaline (Sharma et al. 2008). The soil pH and EC largely depend upon the leaching regime (Syed et al. 2013). The leaching regime of the soils in this study may vary according to the vegetation cover, which would have caused differences in the pH and EC, as reported by Syed et al. (2013). The pH of the soil was moderately alkaline, as also shown in a study conducted in a botanical garden at GC University, Lahore (semi-arid zone) (Syed et al. 2013). Soil moisture content is an important parameter for soil carbon sequestration, as it regulates soil respiration and plant biomass production (Chemura et al. 2014). The soil moisture content varied across the thematic areas and soil depths. The highest soil moisture content was reported in the upper layer (0–0.15 m) of the botanical garden, showing that the soil moisture is much higher in the top soil layer than in the lower soil layers (Fierer et al. 2003).

Soil NO₃⁻ and NH₄⁺ contents were significantly low in all thematic areas compared to the primary land use as there was no irrigated water supply for leaching. The potassium content did not significantly differ (p < 0.05) across the thematic collections and between depths. The Ca and Mg contents were significantly differed (p < 0.05) across the different thematic collections and soil depths. Both Ca and Mg availability were highest in HARA. The study showed that nutrient availability was strongly affected by fertilization, soil tillage and irrigation practices used in the maintenance of the garden (Sartori et al. 2007).

The botanical garden was not established to serve the purpose of enhancing C storage capacity. In addition, there was a belief that the soil conditions could be further degraded by the establishment of this botanical garden, as the garden is mostly composed of herbs rather than woody perennials. However, the study confirmed that the establishment of botanical garden improved the C storage capacity to a significant level compared to the primary land use of the area. There are few studies available on the contribution of botanical gardens as urban green spaces, particularly in the tropics. Therefore, this study provided useful information to understand the value of botanical gardens as urban green spaces and the benefits in terms of C storage in soil.

Conclusion

In overall the establishment of the botanical garden has created a significant improvement of the soil properties with compared to the soils of the primary vegetation of the area. Plant species composition and some of the management practices used in maintaining this botanical garden such as organic fertilizer application, pruning techniques, litter management and irrigation practices, may have affected the soil organic C status. The study provides valuable information on soil carbon sequestration due to the establishment of botanical gardens in order to reduce atmospheric carbon dioxide levels in urban environments. The study also provides baseline information

that could be useful in future C trading programs. As we hypothesized, the results showed that the establishment of the botanical garden has enhanced the natural balance, soil organic C fractions, C stocks and nutrients. The present study showed that the botanical garden established in dry zone of Sri Lanka has enhanced the natural balance, soil organic C fractions, C stocks and available nutrients. The establishment of this botanical garden has confirmed its suitability to improve urban soils and mitigate climate change.

Acknowledgements

The authors would like to thank Ms. R.K.C. Karunaratne and Mr. A.K. Pathirana, Senior Technical Officers at NIFS, for assistance in the laboratory analysis and Mr. Asanga Pushpakumara for sampling and sample preparation. The authors are thankful to Dr. D.H.P. Peramunugama, Director General, Department of National Botanic Gardens, for providing permission to carry out this research.

Disclosure statement

No potential conflict of interest was reported by the authors.

ORCID

K.L. Wasantha Kumara (D) http://orcid.org/0000-0002-8640-1811

References

- Albaladejo J, Ortiz R, Garcia-Franco N, Navarro AR, Almagro M, Pintado JG, Martinez-Mena M. 2013. Land use and climate change impacts on SOC stocks in semi-arid Spain. J Soil Sediments 13:265–277. doi:10.1007/s11368-012-0617-7.
- Anderson JM, Ingram JSI. 1993. Chemical analysis. Tropical soil biology and fertility: a hand book of methods. 2nd ed. UK: Information Press Ltd.
- Assis CP, Oliveir TS, Dantas JAN, Mendonça ES. 2010. Organic matter and phosphorus fractions in irrigated agro ecosystems in a semi-arid region of North Eastern Brazil. Agric Ecosyst Environ. 138:74–82. doi:10.1016/j.agee.2010.04.002.

Baker KF. 1976. The determination of organic carbon in soil using a probe-colorimeter. Lab Prac. 5:82-83.

Behera N, Sahani U. 2003. Soil microbial biomass and activity in response to Eucalyptus plantation and natural regeneration on tropical soil. Forest Ecol Manag. 174:1–11. doi:10.1016/S0378-1127(02)00057-9.

- Benbi DK, Brar K, Toor AS, Singh P. 2015. Total and labile pools of soil organic carbon in cultivated and undisturbed soils in northern India. Geoderma 237:149–158. doi:10.1016/j.geoderma.2014.09.002.
- Blake GR, Hartge KH. 1986. Bulk density. In: Klute A, editor. Methods of soil analysis. 2nded. Part 1. Madison: American Society of Agronomy Inc.; Chapter 30; p. 374–390.
- Campbell A, Selles F, Lafond GP, Biederbeck VO, Zentner RP. 2001. Tillage-fertilizer changes: effect on some soil quality attributes under long-term crop rotation in a thin Black Chernozem. Can J Soil Sci. 81:157–165. doi:10.4141/S00-085.
- Cataldo DA, Haroon M, Schrade LE, Young VL. 1975. Rapid colorimetric determination of nitrate in plant tissue by nitration of salicylic acid. Commun Soil Sci Plant Anal. 6:71–80. doi:10.1080/00103627509366547.
- Chang RY, Fu BJ, Liu GH, Liu SG. 2011. Soil carbon sequestration potential for "Grain for Green" Project in Loess Plateau, China. Environ Manage. 48:1158–1172. doi:10.1007/s00267-011-9682-8.
- Chemura A, Mahoya C, Chidoko P, Kutywayo D 2014. Effect of soil moisture deficit stress on biomass accumulation of four coffee (Coffea arabica) varieties in Zimbabwe. ISRN Agronomy.
- Darmaparakrama ALS, Tennakoon KU, Gunathilleke IAUN, Glatzen G 2009. Carbon stores of the major land use types in the knuckles forest and surrounding region in Sri Lanka. In: proceedings of the conference on "Global Climate Change and its Impacts on Agriculture, Forestry and Water in the Tropics; Kandy, Sri Lanka; Sept 10–11.
- De Silva GGR, Dassanayake AR. 2010. Soils formed on erosional surfaces of the dry zone. In: Mapa RB, Somasiri S, Dassanayake AR, editors. Soils of the dry zone of Sri Lanka. Sri Lanka: Survodaya Vishva Lekha; p. 79–176.
- Fierer N, Schimel JP, Holden PA. 2003. Variations in microbial community composition through two soil depth profiles. Soil Biol Biochem. 35:167–176. doi:10.1016/S0038-0717(02)00251-1.
- Groover A, Dosmann M. 2012. The importance of living botanical collections for plant biology and the "next generation" of evo-devo research. Front Plant Sci. 3:137. doi:10.3389/fpls.2012.00154.
- Guo LB, Gifford RM. 2002. Soil carbon stocks and land use change: a meta analysis. Glob Chang Biol. 8:345–360. doi:10.1046/j.1354-1013.2002.00486.x.

12 👄 R. R. RATNAYAKE ET AL.

- Insam H, Domsch KH. 1988. Relationship between soil organic carbon and microbial biomass on chronosequences of reclamation sites. Microb Ecol. 15:177–188. doi:10.1007/BF02011711.
- Khaledian Y, Kiani F, Ebrahimi S, Brevik EC, Aitkenhead-Peterson J. 2017. Assessment and monitoring of soil degradation during land use change using multivariate analysis. Land Degrad Dev. 28:128–141. doi:10.1002/ldr.2541.
- Krishnan S, Novy A. 2016. The role of botanic gardens in the twenty-first century. CAB Rev. 11:1–10. doi:10.1079/ PAVSNNR201611023.
- Lal R. 2004. Soil carbon sequestration impacts on global climate change and food security. Science 304:1623–1627. doi:10.1126/science.1097396.
- Lal R. 2009. Challenges and opportunities in soil organic matter research. Eur J Soil Sci. 60:158–169. doi:10.1111/j.1365-2389.2008.01114.x.
- Lenore S, Clesceri LE, Greenberg AE, Trussell RR. 1989. Standard methods for the examination of water and waste water 2. Washington: American Public Health Association; p. 115–117.
- Lu X, Fan J, Yan Y, Wang X. 2011. Soil water soluble organic carbon under three alpine grassland types in Northern Tibet, China. Afr J Agric Res. 6:2066–2071.
- Mc Intosh JL. 1969. Bray and Morgan soil extractants modified for testing acid soils from different parent materials. Agron J. 61:259–265. doi:10.2134/agronj1969.00021962006100020025x.
- Murty D, Kirschbaum MUF, Mcmurtrie RE, Mcgilvray H. 2002. Does conversion of forest to agricultural land change soil carbon and nitrogen? A review of the literature. Glob Chang Biol. 8:105–123. doi:10.1046/j.1354-1013.2001.00459.x.
- Pan GX. 2008. Soil organic carbon stock, dynamics and climate change mitigation of China. Adv Clim Change 4:282–289.
- Panabokke CR. 1996. Soils and agro-ecological environments of Sri Lanka. Colombo Natural Resources, Energy and Science Authority of Sri Lanka.
- Powlson DS, Whietmore AP, Goulding KWT. 2011. Soil Carbon Sequestration to mitigate climate changes: a critical re-examination to identify the true and false. European J Soil Sci. 62:42–55. doi:10.1111/j.1365-2389.2010.01342.x.
- Ratnayake RR, Perera BMAC, Rajapaksha RPSK, Ekanayake EMHGS, Kumara RKGK, Gunaratne HMAC. 2017. Soil carbon sequestration and nutrient status of tropical rice based cropping systems: rice-rice, rice-soya, rice-onion and rice tobacco in Sri Lanka. Catena 150:17–23. doi:10.1016/j.catena.2016.11.006.
- Ross CW, Grunwald S, Myers DB, Xiong X. 2016. Land use, land use change and soil carbon sequestration in the St. Johns River Basin, Florida, USA. Geoderma R. 7:19–28. doi:10.1016/j.geodrs.2015.12.001.
- Santos VB, Leite LFC, Nunes LAPL, Melo WJ. 2012. Soil microbial biomass and organic matter fractions during transition from conventional to organic farming systems. Geoderma 170:227–231. doi:10.1016/j.geoderma.2011.11.007.
- Sartori F, Lal R, Ebinger MH, Eaton JA. 2007. Changes in soil carbon and nutrient pools along a chronosequence of poplar plantations in the Columbia Plateau, Oregon, USA. Agr Ecosyst Environ. 122:325–339. doi:10.1016/j.agee.2007.01.026.
- Schimel J, Schaeffer SM. 2012. Microbial control over carbon cycling in soil. Front Microbiol. 3:348. doi:10.3389/ fmicb.2012.00348.
- Sharma G, Sharma R, Sharma E. 2008. Influence of stand age on nutrient and energy release through decomposition in alder-cardamom agroforestry system of the eastern Himalayas. Ecol Res. 23:99–106. doi:10.1007/s11284-007-0377-9.
- Six J, Frey SD, Thiet RK, Batten KM. 2006. Bacterial and fungal contributions to carbon sequestration in agro-ecosystems. Soil Sci Soc Am J. 70:555–569. doi:10.2136/sssaj2004.0347.
- Smith P. 2008. Land use change and soil organic carbon dynamics. Nutr Cycl Agroecosys. 81:169–178. doi:10.1007/ s10705-007-9138-y.
- Sousa FP, Ferreira TO, Mendonça ES, Romero RE, Oliveira JGB. 2012. Carbon and nitrogen in degraded Brazilian semi-arid soils undergoing desertification. Agric Ecosyst Environ. 148:11–21. doi:10.1016/j.agee.2011.11.009.
- Syed TR, Muhammad UH, Sahar TF. 2013. Assessment of fertility status of soil of botanic garden, GC University, Lahore. Biologia. 59:275–280.
- Vance ED, Brookes PC, Jenkinson DS. 1987. An extraction method for measuring soil microbial biomass. Soil Biol Biochem. 19:703–707. doi:10.1016/0038-0717(87)90052-6.
- Watanabe FS, Olsen SR. 1965. Test of an ascorbic acid method for determining phosphorus in water and NaHCO₃ extracts from soil. Soil Sci Soc Am Proc. 29:677–678. doi:10.2136/sssaj1965.03615995002900060025x.
- Wei XR, Shao MA, Gale W, Li LH. 2014. Global pattern of soil carbon losses due to the conversion of forests to agricultural land. Sci Rep. 4:4062. doi:10.1038/srep04062.PMID: 24513580.
- Weil RR, Islam KR, Stine MA, Gruver JB, Samson-Liebig SE. 2003. Estimating active carbon for soil quality assessment: A simplified method for lab and field use. Am J Agric Econ. 18:3–17.
- Yang Y, Chen Y, Li Z, Chen Y. 2018. Land-use/cover conversion affects soil organic-carbon stocks: A case study along the main channel of the Tarim River, China. PLoS One 13:11. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0206903.