Chapter 1 What is Soil Biological Fertility?

Lynette K. Abbott and Daniel V. Murphy

School of Earth and Geographical Sciences, Faculty of Natural and Agricultural Sciences, The University of Western Australia, Crawley, 6009, WA, Australia.

1. INTRODUCTION

There is increasing interest in soil management practices that enhance biological contributions to soil fertility due to greater awareness of the need for sustainable farming systems (e.g. Lynam and Herdt 1989, Dick 1992, Roper and Gupta 1995, Doran *et al.* 1996, Swift 1997, Condron *et al.* 2000, Mäder *et al.* 2002, von Lützow *et al.* 2002). This has occurred due to the requirement for better fertiliser use efficiency which is essential in: i) developing nations where cost and availability constrain production (Swift 1997) and ii) many developed nations where public concern over environmental pollution from agricultural sources and associated government legislation restricts gaseous losses and nutrient leaching (e.g. N: Hatch *et al.* 2002, P: Leinweber *et al.* 2002). There has been a considerable decline in soil organic matter levels and associated loss of soil structure in many intensively cropped soils throughout the world. This has caused scientists

1

L.K. Abbott & D.V. Murphy (eds) Soil Biological Fertility - A Key to Sustainable Land Use in Agriculture. 1-15. © 2007 Springer. and landowners to consider more carefully how various components of the farming system can be managed to more efficiently benefit from biological processes that improve soil fertility.

Soil biological processes are extremely diverse and complex (Lavelle and Spain 2001). Physical and chemical soil characteristics, climate, plant communities and agricultural practices influence soil biology in a magnitude of ways, with both positive and negative influences on the overall fertility of soil. This level of complexity constrains our ability to assess or predict the biological state of soil through measures of abundance of organisms or their activity (Pankhurst et al. 1997). The current inability to predict the outcome of a change in agricultural management on soil biological processes, with a subsequent understanding of what this means in terms of production or the environment, is a major constraint to the successful design of farming systems that harness the biological potential of soil. Many studies have attempted to define the biological status of soil using simple indicator measurements (Doran and Parkin 1994, Gregorich et al. 1994. Franzluebbers et al. 1995, Pankhurst et al. 1995, Walker and Reuter 1996, Stenberg 1999). Whilst this is appealing to scientists, land holders and policy makers, it is extremely difficult to find correlations between potential indicators and crop production, long-term sustainability and environmental impact. Part of this difficulty has been with understanding how organisms and the functions that they perform interact with chemical and physical soil attributes in agricultural soils to regulate crop production and influence the longer-term status of the soil resource. Due to spatial and temporal heterogeneity and the enormous diversity displayed in soil biological characteristics, it is not easy to use them to define 'best practice' for land management.

The focus of this book is thus to provide an overview of a range of biological processes that contribute to soil fertility and to discuss the manner in which management practices influence soil biological fertility. With the complexity of these biological processes in mind, the impact of major management options and farming systems on soil biological processes can be addressed. The consequence of this is the basis for sustainable use of the whole soil resource, which demands equal consideration of biological, physical and chemical contributions to soil fertility. Inclusion of information about soil biological fertility in farm management decision-making should allow more precision in selecting inputs that complement the capacity of a soil to sustain production and minimise environmental damage such as might be caused by nutrient loss. If the type of production at a site is changed, different biological, physical and chemical states might be required to sustain the soil resource there, depending on the production system in place. A set of biological characteristics necessary for sustaining the soil resource at a particular site cannot be prescribed because different farming systems, or even different stages in the same farming system, might require differences in soil biological fertility. Therefore, a suite of soil biological characteristics needs to be defined for each land use category according to the soil type and climatic conditions.

2. WHAT IS SOIL BIOLOGICAL FERTILITY?

There has been a great deal of discussion about the use of terms to describe the state of soil - e.g. soil quality, soil fertility, and soil health - as a means of improving recognition of the importance of the soil resource. In an agricultural context, the historical term - soil fertility - has the ability to convey all of the qualities required for plant and animal production. Soil has usually been investigated primarily from the perspective of pedological, physical, chemical and hydrological characteristics. This is the case even though soil organisms mediate a number of important pedological, physical and chemical processes (Lavelle and Spain 2001). The concept of soil fertility has generally been most concerned with soil chemical fertility and its ability to meet the nutritional needs of plants. For chemically-based farming systems, fertiliser requirements can be determined according to plant, soil and climatic conditions and extensive research has been carried out to identify these requirements in many agricultural situations. The physical constrains to soil fertility are also widely acknowledged and considerable effort has been expended in identifying land use practices that prevent or minimise development of structural constraints to plant growth or to soil loss through wind or water erosion. In contrast, much less is known about i) how to maximise benefits from soil biological processes (with the exception of symbiotic N fixation and biological control of plant disease), and ii) whether it is economically or environmentally sustainable to capture benefits from other soil biological processes.

The term 'soil fertility' used without the qualifiers 'biological', 'physical' or 'chemical' gives insufficient information about the state of soil. These three prefixes allow interpretation to be focused on components, or combinations of components, of soil fertility that are influenced by management decisions. Soil biological fertility has been used in this book in preference to terms such as 'soil biological quality' and 'soil biological health' within the framework set out in Table 1. Unfortunately, there are no simple, widely applicable and quantitative measures of any of the aspects of soil biological fertility because they are constrained by parent rock, soil origin, landscape and climatic factors as well as by land use. In spite of this, we recommended that the term *soil biological fertility* become widely used with reference to agricultural production systems. Without a focus on this component of soil fertility, the contributions of beneficial soil biological processes will continue to be consumed within the context of physical and chemical fertility and not recognised as an equally important aspect of the soil resource.

Table 1 Suggested working 'definitions' of soil fertility and its components: soil biological fertility, soil chemical fertility and soil physical fertility. The terms only have general conceptual significance because they cannot be quantified exactly or defined in specific units. For a particular site, the 'degree' of soil fertility (and components of soil fertility) depends on the inherent characteristics of the soil according to its origin and on the land management practices implemented.

COMPONENT OF SOIL FERTILITY	'DEFINITION'
SOIL FERTILITY	The capacity of soil to provide physical, chemical and biological requirements for growth of plants for productivity, reproduction and quality (considered in terms of human and animal wellbeing for plants used as either food or fodder) relevant to plant type, soil type, land use and climatic conditions.
SOIL BIOLOGICAL FERTILITY	The capacity of organisms living in soil (microorganisms, fauna and roots) to contribute to the nutritional requirements of plants and foraging animals for productivity, reproduction and quality (considered in terms of human and animal wellbeing) while maintaining biological processes that contribute positively to the physical and chemical state of soil.
SOIL CHEMICAL FERTILITY	The capacity of soil to provide a suitable chemical and nutritional environment for plants and foraging animals for productivity, reproduction and quality (considered in terms of human and animal wellbeing) in a way that supports beneficial soil physical and biological processes, including those involved in nutrient cycling.
SOIL PHYSICAL FERTILITY	The capacity of soil to provide physical conditions that support plant productivity, reproduction and quality (considered in terms of human and animal wellbeing) without leading to loss of soil structure or erosion and supporting soil biological and chemical processes.

3. IMPORTANCE OF SOIL BIOLOGICAL FERTILITY TO AGRICULTURAL PRODUCTION

If the fertility of soil is considered in terms of short-term agricultural production alone, there may be little need for attention to soil biological processes in many developed nations where soils are inherently well supplied with major nutrients (for global soil nutrient maps see Figure 3, Huston 1993). This is because many of the benefits provided by soil organisms can be overridden by the indigenous nutrient supply or by the addition of synthetic fertilisers where inorganic nutrients and chemicals are readily available and relatively inexpensive. Biological processes that are exceptions to this are plant disease and symbiotic nitrogen fixation, which can both have significant effects on production in predominantly chemicalbased agricultural systems. Generally, the emphasis of 'modern' agriculture, with widespread introduction of synthetic fertilisers, has largely ignored the potentially beneficial contributions of some soil organisms. This approach has lead to serious contamination of some environments by pesticides and nutrients including nitrogen, phosphorus or even trace elements such as copper. Furthermore, modern plant varieties have often been selected under conditions that are not favourable for certain biological processes (such as the function of arbuscular mycorrhizas (Smith et al. 1993)). This might create agricultural environments that cause some potentially positive aspects of soil biological fertility to be detrimental (Ryan and Graham 2002).

A pedological context to soil biology has been presented in great detail by Lavelle and Spain (2001). It provides a necessary perspective for evaluation of the importance of soil biological processes and for identifying underlying principles that can be applied across soil types and environments. It cannot be assumed that soil biological processes are effective unless demonstrated to be so for specific environmental and soil conditions. Furthermore, land management practices (such as fertiliser use) can alter soil conditions substantially to facilitate growth of agricultural plants that are not naturally suited to the original soil conditions. Other changes in both physical and chemical conditions might be able to be mediated by soil organisms if they are provided with an energy source (e.g. from manure, mulching or stubble retention).

Although larger organisms such as earthworms and termites can substantially influence the structural characteristics of soil, the greatest impact of smaller organisms is likely to be on soil chemical characteristics. Some chemical and physical processes in soil have significant influences on one another independently of biological processes. Thus, the interdependent nature and complexity of soil processes means that a simplistic view to its assessment is not appropriate.

It is not routine practice to prescribe soil biological conditions suited to the needs of individual farming systems at specified locations, although this is attempted with organic farming practices (Stockdale et al. 2001). Different sets of soil biological attributes may be more or less appropriate as farming practices are changed. If a soil has a high content of nitrogen or phosphorus (in terms of the adequacy of these nutrients for plant growth) it would probably be considered to be 'fertile'. However, this level of chemical fertility could have been derived primarily from synthetic fertiliser inputs. Alternatively, substantial contributions may have come from processes involving interactions between organisms, decomposition of organic matter and cycling of nutrients, or from a combination of organic and inorganic inputs and biological processes related to organic matter degradation. If soil organisms were major contributors to the high level of chemical fertility (through their interactions with organic matter inputs), corresponding positive contributions to the physical state of soil would most likely result. Furthermore, the biological processes and chemical inputs that contribute to soil chemical fertility can be linked. For example, higher fertiliser input leads to increased plant biomass that can enhance nutrient cycling through soil organisms if the organic matter has the required elemental content and is managed appropriately. The capacity of the soil to retain these nutrients is of great importance to their efficient use for agricultural production and to ensure that there is no loss into the environment through leaching and other means of dispersion.

From the perspective of enhancing and/or preserving the soil resource, the effect on the soil of increases in chemical fertility arising from either a biological or a chemical source may be quite different. However, evaluation of the biological component of soil fertility has generally been considered unnecessary when 'available' nutrient levels are 'adequate'. The evaluation of components of soil biological fertility presented in this book combine to demonstrate the breadth of contributions that soil biological processes make to the state of soil (Table 2).

4. MEASUREMENT OF SOIL BIOLOGICAL FERTILITY

There are well-established criteria for defining 'ideal' conditions of both soil chemical and physical fertility across diverse soils of different origins and in different climatic zones (e.g. Karlen and Stott 1994, Cass *et al.* 1996, Merry 1996). However, there is a lack of fundamental understanding of how soil biological, chemical and physical soil attributes interact and how they

Organic matterMicrobial populations enhanced. Initially crop residue, farmyard and green manure and green manure omposted household or green waste material. Crop rotation Use of pasturesMicrobial populations enhanced. Initially especially N, S and P. Cation exchange capacity increased isinificant in low clay soils). Soin faunal groups may increase or decrease epending on residue quantity and quality. Born praticular earthworms. I use of pastures particular earthworms.Increased availability of nutrients especially N, S and P. Cation exchange capacity increased isinificant in low clay soils). Soin faunal groups may increase or decrease depending on residue quantity and quality. I beavy metals. Crop rotation Dise of pastures particular earthworms.Increased availability of nutrients especially N, S and P. Some potential for accumulation of heavy metals. C.N ratio decreased. Dise of pastures particular earthworms.Increased availability of nutrients especially N, S and P. Some potential for accumulation of heavy metals. C.N ratio decreased. C.N ratio decreased soil organic matter species and functional groups. Increase in decomposition rates initially cause puild up of soil organic matter specie	Management option S	Soil biological processes influenced	Change to soil chemical fertility	Change to soil physical fertility
due to high C:N of organic residues. Soil faunal groups may increase or decrease depending on residue quantity and quality. Increased abundance of soil fauna, in particular earthworms. Greater range of root exudates supports diverse microbial population. Encourages re-colonisation by soil faunal species and functional groups. Increased soil organic matter ratio favouring fungal feeding faunal species. Concentrates soil microbial biomass into surface soil layer.		licrobial populations enhanced. Initially av cause immobilisation of soil nutrients	Increased availability of nutrients especially N. S and P.	Improve soil structure through
Soil faunal groups may increase or decrease depending on residue quantity and quality.(significant in low clay soils). Some potential for accumulation of heavy metals.Increased abundance of soil fauna, in particular earthworms.Some potential for accumulation of heavy metals. C:N ratio decreased.Greater range of root exudates supports diverse microbial population.Changes in C:N ratio. teavy metals.Greater range of root exudates supports diverse microbial population.Changes in C:N ratio. teavy metals.Broourages re-colonisation by soil faunal species and functional groups. Increase in overall faunal abundance and encourages ratio favouring fungal feeding faunal species.Decreased soil organic matter decomposition rates initially cause nutrient immobilisation. However greater net nutrient release.Sourface soil layer.Concentrates soil microbial biomass into surface soil layer.	٩	ue to high C:N of organic residues.	Cation exchange capacity increased	aggregation and
depending on residue quantity and quality.Some potential for accumulation of heavy metals.Increased abundance of soil fauna, in particular earthworms.Some potential for accumulation of heavy metals.Greater range of root exudates supports diverse microbial population.Changes in C:N ratio.Greater range of root exudates supports diverse microbial population.Changes in C:N ratio.Broourages re-colonisation by soil faunal species and functional groups. Increase in overall faunal abundance and encourages ratio favouring fungal feeding faunal species.Decreased soil organic matter decomposition rates initially cause nutrient immobilisation. However greater net nutrient release.species.Concentrates soil norganic matter resu greater net nutrient release.surface soil layer.Sould up of soil organic matter resu greater net nutrient release.		oil faunal groups may increase or decrease	(significant in low clay soils).	water holding
Increased abundance of soil fauna, in particular earthworms.C:N ratio decreased.Increased abundance of root exudates supportsChanges in C:N ratio.Greater range of root exudates supportsChanges in C:N ratio.Greater faural population.Changes in C:N ratio.Encourages re-colonisation by soil faunalDecreased soil organic matterspecies and functional groups. Increase in overall faunal abundance and encourages fratio favouring fungal feeding faunal species.Decreased soil organic matterspecies.Concentrates soil microbial biomass into surface soil layer.Suite faunal soil faunal surface soil layer.		epending on residue quantity and quality.	Some potential for accumulation of heavy metals.	capacity.
stures particular earthworms. legumes. Greater range of root exudates supports Changes in C:N ratio. ation Greater range of root exudates supports Changes in C:N ratio. ation diverse microbial population. Ant species diverse microbial population. Encourages re-colonisation by soil faunal Decreased soil organic matter species and functional groups. Increase in decomposition rates initially cause overall faunal abundance and encourages intrient immobilisation. However greater diversity. Alters the bacterial:fungal ratio favouring fungal feeding faunal species. Concentrates soil microbial biomass into surface soil layer.		ncreased abundance of soil fauna, in	C:N ratio decreased.	Preferential flow
ationGreater range of root exudates supportsChanges in C:N ratio.ant speciesdiverse microbial population.Decreased soil organic matterwho tillage.Encourages re-colonisation by soil faunalDecreased soil organic matterwho tillage.species and functional groups. Increase in overall faunal abundance and encouragesdecomposition rates initially cause nutrient immobilisation. Howeverwho tillage.overall faunal abundance and encourages greater diversity. Alters the bacterial:fungal greater diversity. Alters the bacterial:fungal greater mutrient release.poild up of soil organic matter resu greater net nutrient release.species.Concentrates soil microbial biomass into surface soil layer.Steater supports	_	articular earthworms.		paths improving aeration and water
ation Greater range of root exudates supports Changes in C:N ratio. ant species diverse microbial population. Decreased soil organic matter vho tillage. Encourages re-colonisation by soil faunal Decreased soil organic matter vho tillage. species and functional groups. Increase in decomposition rates initially cause vho tillage. species and functional groups. Increase in decomposition rates initially cause ratio faunal abundance and encourages nutrient immobilisation. However greater diversity. Alters the bacterial:fungal build up of soil organic matter resu ratio favouring fungal feeding faunal greater net nutrient release. species. Concentrates soil microbial biomass into surface soil layer.				innitration.
Encourages re-colonisation by soil faunal species and functional groups. Increase in overall faunal abundance and encourages greater diversity. Alters the bacterial:fungal ratio favouring fungal feeding faunal greater net nutrient release.Decreased soil organic matter decomposition rates initially cause nutrient immobilisation. However build up of soil organic matter resu rates from the species.Encourages greater soil faunal species.Decreased soil organic matter decomposition rates initially cause 	ation ant species	ireater range of root exudates supports iverse microbial population.	Changes in C:N ratio.	Increased localised heterogeneity of soil.
species and functional groups. Increase in species and functional groups. Increase in overall faunal abundance and encourages greater diversity. Alters the bacterial:fungal ratio favouring fungal feeding faunal species. Concentrates soil microbial biomass into surface soil layer.		incouraçãe ra-colonication hy coil faunal	Decreased soil organic matter	Improved soil
nutrient immobilisation. However. gal build up of soil organic matter resu greater net nutrient release.		pecies and functional groups. Increase in	decomposition rates initially cause	structure through
gal build up of soil organic matter resu greater net nutrient release.	0	verall faunal abundance and encourages	nutrient immobilisation. However,	aggregation and
greater net nutrient release.	63	reater diversity. Alters the bacterial:fungal	build up of soil organic matter results in	water holding
	13	atio favouring fungal feeding faunal	greater net nutrient release.	capacity. Improved
	S	pecies.		macro-pore
		Concentrates soil microbial biomass into mface soil laver		formation.
			Table 2	Table 2 Continued on Page 8

Table 2 Examples of how management options influence soil biological processes and change soil fertility.

7

Management options	Soil biological processes influenced	Change to soil chemical fertility	Change to soil physical fertility
Controlled traffic	Minimises soil compaction resulting in higher soil faunal abundance and an increase in microbial biomass.	Increased availability of nutrients.	Improved total porosity leading to greater acration and better water infiltration
Livestock grazing	Provides a C-source, enhancing microbial and faunal activity, unless increased soil compaction	Reduced mineralisation due to increased compaction and less	Increased soil compaction.
Fertiliser High application rates	decreases microbial activity. High P reduces mycorrhizal colonisation of roots. High N inhibits N_2 fixation. Nitrifier populations increased with NH_4^+ fertiliser. Some soil faunal groups increased.	organic matter. Decreased availability of nutrients derived from soil biological processes. Soil acidification. Increased nitrate leaching to proundwater.	
Inoculants <i>Rhizobium</i> inoculation	N ₂ fixation from the atmosphere. Introduction of more effective strains dependent on indigenous populations.	Increased N availability in soil on subsequent decomposition of legumes. Soil acidification.	
Inoculants Penicillum radicardium	Mineralisation of non-soluble P rich fertiliser products.	Increase P available to plant.	
Pesticides	Some beneficial soil fauna also killed. Potential to loose beneficial species completely, thus altering food webs.	Nutrient supply altered depending on shift in food web.	

are changed by agronomic management practices. Biological processes often have an indirect effect on plant growth (e.g. via nutrient availability or soil structure) making it difficult to illustrate a benefit to crop production. More than one combination of soil biological properties could be considered ideal, so it is difficult to define an optimal biological state of soil or the precise importance of biodiversity of organisms in agricultural soils.

Development of more quantitative research techniques to estimate biodiversity of organisms in soil and the dynamics of nutrient pools mediated by organisms have enabled specific management practices and more complex farming systems to be studied in ways not previously possible. For example, the development of techniques for assessing nutrients in the soil microbial biomass was a major advance for the rapid and routine study of soil biological processes associated with organic matter (Jenkinson and Powlson 1976-a, 1976-b, Brookes et al. 1982, Brookes et al. 1985). The capacity to quantify the mass of the bacterial and fungal population (compared to direct microscopy and plating techniques) played an important role in advancing knowledge of the dynamics of organic matter breakdown (Powlson and Brookes 1987) and associated nutrient cycling (Jenkinson and In recent years, there has been a major advance in the Parry 1989). assessment of more specific biochemical, functional and molecular characteristics of soil biology (Torsvik et al. 1990-a, 1990-b, Turco et al. 1994, Zak et al. 1994, Degens and Harris 1997, Tiedje et al. 2001, Murphy et al. 2003). These advances have allowed focus to shift from determination of types of organisms present to an assessment of the contribution of biological processes to key beneficial soil functions. The focus on identifying functional diversity of soil communities (Lupwayi et al. 1998, Kennedy 1999, Altieri 1999) provides the opportunity to determine causal effects on plant production and longer-term predictions of the future soil status.

In parallel with improved technology for assessing components of communities of soil organisms, emphasis has been placed on the importance of sampling strategies including time of sampling, depth of sampling, spatial distribution, storage of samples and use of volumetric units of measurement (Doran *et al.* 1996, Glendining and Poulton 1996, Sparling 1997, Degens and Vojvodi-Vukovi 1999, Shi *et al.* 2002, Smith *et al.* 2002). Although many technical advances have been made and new methods have become available for the assessment of specific components of soil biological fertility, it is essential to ensure that they are suitable to the soil conditions where they are used (e.g. Murphy *et al.* 2003). Inappropriate use of this technology, such as use without regard for local soil conditions, will lead to confusion and misinformation about soil biological fertility in relation to farming systems. The interpretation of data related to soil biological fertility

remains an impediment to the development and implementation of models of nutrient cycling.

5. APPLYING KNOWLEDGE OF SOIL BIOLOGICAL FERTILITY TO FARMING PRACTICES

The complex nature of biological processes in soil is well recognised and it is not possible to characterise in detail the whole of the soil biology at every site. This means that day-to-day recommendations for improving the sustainability of farming systems are very seldom based on well-defined (if any) measures of soil biological fertility. Soil biological fertility is dynamic and quantitative measures vary greatly with time, even within short periods. The heterogeneity of soil biological processes in soil (Strong et al. 1998) presents further difficulty for quantification of soil biological fertility. Yet another problem is the conflicting views of what constitutes an ideal value. Crop production, long-term soil sustainability and environmental concerns often require opposing classifications of what is an acceptable indicator value (Sojka and Upchurch 1999). Therefore, the concept of defining acceptable and critical values for soil biological indicators has not been successful (Sojka et al. 2003). Thus 'one-off' measurements are not particularly useful for characterising the biological status of a soil. This contrasts with measures of other soil characteristics, such as pH, which change relatively slowly over time and allow 'one-off' measures to be applicable beyond the time of sampling.

Measurements of specific aspects of soil biology can be successfully applied to the comparison of management practices (e.g. tillage versus no tillage) or contrasting farming systems (e.g. organic versus conventional). Although measurements of soil biological characteristics are often difficult to interpret, their advantage over chemical and physical characteristics is that they are often more responsive to changes in management practice (Figure 1). For example, microbial biomass and biologically active fractions of soil organic matter turnover within months to a few years (Jenkinson and Ladd 1981) whilst the majority of soil organic matter takes decades or longer to turnover (Stout et al. 1981). Although it is generally not possible to define an optimal value for microbial biomass in a soil, if the microbial biomass or ratio of microbial biomass-carbon to total-carbon increased, this would be perceived as an improvement to the soil (Sparling 1997) even though it may not be expressed in terms of nutrient availability, plant production or yield (Fauci and Dick 1994, Sorn-srivichai et al. 1988). For this reason, such measurements are often well suited to monitoring programs where the

emphasis is on assessment of the change in direction of a soil characteristic over time. Soil biological characteristics that change rapidly could be useful indicators of the impacts of agricultural practices. The current fundamental understanding of the importance of these characteristics to soil conditions can be used to make valued judgements as to the importance of the degree and direction of change of the indicators in response to agricultural practice.

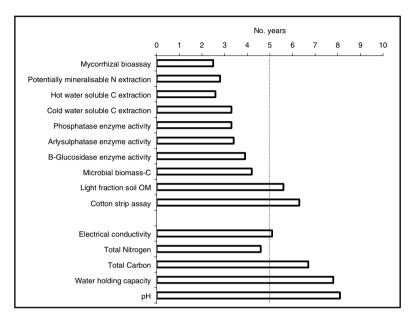


Figure 1 Number of years required to detect significant differences in soil measurements between management practices assessed on a grey clay soil (Sodosol) in south-western Australia (Milton et al. 2002). Land managers have a low uptake rate for soil monitoring (Lobry de Bruyn and Abbey 2003) and factors that take more than five years before a change can be detected are likely to have little impact on their decision-making.

Although soil biological characteristics can be monitored, this does not overcome the difficulty of knowing if they are either within an acceptable range or over an acceptable threshold value if one does indeed exist. Furthermore, the rate of change of the measured soil parameter may provide more insight into the impact of management on soil biological fertility than the magnitude of the parameter *per se*. Fundamental understanding of how specific soil biological characteristics respond to management practices is required if the characteristics are to be used as indicators. More importantly, information is required about the relationship between the biological characteristics and plant production, development of a sustainable soil matrix and/or prevention of environmental problems.

6. ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

We have received valuable support from the Grains Research and Development Corporation, the Rural Research and Development Corporation and The University of Western Australia for research on soil biological fertility. Finally, we thank Nui Milton and Merome Purchas for their assistance in preparing this chapter.

7. **REFERENCES**

- Altieri M A, 1999 The ecological role of biodiversity in agroecosystems. Agriculture, Ecosystems and Environment 74: 19-31.
- Brookes P C, Landman A, Pruden G and Jenkinson D S 1985 Chloroform fumigation and the release of soil nitrogen: a rapid direct extraction method to measure microbial biomass nitrogen in soil. Soil Biology and Biochemistry 17: 837-842.
- Brookes P C, Powlson D S and Jenkinson D S 1982 Measurement of microbial biomass phosphorus in soil. Soil Biology and Biochemistry 16: 169-175.
- Cass A, McKenzie N and Cresswell H 1996 Physical indicators of soil health. In: Indicators of catchment health: A technical perspective. J Walker and D J Reuter (eds.) pp. 89-107. CSIRO. Melbourne, Australia.
- Condron L M, Cameron K C, Di H J, Clough T J, Forbes E A, McLaren R G and Silva R G 2000 A comparison of soil and environmental quality under organic and conventional farming systems in New Zealand. New Zealand Journal of Agricultural Research 43: 443-466.
- Degens B P and Harris J A 1997 Development of a physiological approach to measuring the catabolic diversity of soil microbial communities. Soil Biology and Biochemistry 29: 1309-1320.
- Degens B P and Vojvodi -Vukovi M 1999 A sampling strategy to assess the effects of land use on microbial functional diversity in soils. Australian Journal of Soil Research 37: 593-601.
- Dick R P 1992 A review: Long-term effects of agricultural systems on soil biochemical and microbial parameters. Agriculture, Ecosystems and Environment 40: 25-36.
- Doran J W and Parkin T B 1994 Defining and assessing soil quality. *In:* Defining soil quality for a sustainable environment. J W Doran, D C Coleman, D F Bezdicek and B A Stewart (eds.) pp. 3-21. Soil Science Society of America Special Publication No 35. Madison, WI.
- Doran J W, Sarrantonio M and Liebig M A 1996 Soil health and sustainability. Advances in Agronomy 56: 1-54.
- Fauci M F and Dick R P 1994 Microbial biomass as an indicator of soil quality: Effects of long-term management and recent soil amendments. *In:* Defining soil quality for a sustainable environment. J W Doran, D C Coleman, D F Bezdicek and B A Stewart (eds.) pp. 229-234. Soil Science Society of America Special Publication No 35. Madison, WI.
- Franzluebbers A J, Zuberer D A and Hons F M 1995 Comparison of microbiological methods for evaluating quality and fertility of soil. Biology and Fertility of Soils 19: 135-140.

- Glendining M J and Poulton P R 1996 Interpretation difficulties with long-term experiments. *In:* Evaluation of soil organic models. NATO ASI Series I, Vol 38. D S Powlson, P Smith and J L Smith (eds.) pp. 99-109. Springer-Verlag. Berlin.
- Gregorich E G, Carter M R, Angers D A, Monreal C M and Ellert B H 1994 Towards a minimum data set to assess soil organic matter quality in agricultural soils. Canadian Journal of Soil Science 74: 367-385.
- Hatch D, Goulding K and Murphy D 2002 Nitrogen. In: Agriculture, Hydrology and Water Quality. P M Haygarth and S C Jarvis (eds.) pp. 7-27. CAB International. Wallingford, Oxon. UK.
- Huston M 1993 Biological diversity, soils and economics. Science 262: 1676-1680.
- Jenkinson D S and Ladd J N 1981 Microbial biomass in soil: Measurement and turnover. In: Soil Biochemistry Vol 5. E A Paul and J N Ladd (eds.) pp. 415-471. Marcel Dekker. New York.
- Jenkinson D S and Parry L C 1989 The nitrogen cycle in the Broadbalk wheat experiment: A model for the turnover of nitrogen through the soil microbial biomass. Soil Biology and Biochemistry 21: 535-541.
- Jenkinson D S and Powlson D S 1976 (a) The effects of biocidal treatments on metabolism in soil - V. A method for measuring soil biomass. Soil Biology and Biochemistry 8: 209-213.
- Jenkinson D S and Powlson D S 1976 (b) The effects of biocidal treatments on metabolism in soil – I. Fumigation with chloroform. Soil Biology and Biochemistry 8: 167-177.
- Karlen D L and Stott D E 1994 A framework for evaluating physical and chemical indicators of soil quality. *In:* Defining soil quality for a sustainable environment. J W Doran, D C Coleman, D F Bezdicek and B A Stewart (eds.) pp. 53-72. Soil Science Society of America Special Publication No 35. Madison, WI.
- Kennedy A C 1999 Bacterial diversity in agroecosystems. Agriculture, Ecosystems and Environment 74: 65-76.
- Leinweber P, Turner B L and Meissner R 2002 Phosphorus. *In:* Agriculture, Hydrology and Water Quality. P M Haygarth and S C Jarvis (eds.) pp. 29-55. CAB International. Wallingford, Oxon. UK.
- Lavelle P and Spain A V 2001 Soil Ecology. Kluwer Academic Publishers. Dordrecht/Boston/London. pp 654
- Lobry de Bruyn L A and Abbey J A (2003) Characterisation of farmers' soil sense and the implications for on-farm monitoring of soil health. Australian Journal of Experimental Agriculture 43: 285-305.
- Lupwayi N Z, Rice W A and Clayton G W 1998 Soil microbial diversity and community structure under wheat as influenced by tillage and crop rotation. Soil Biology and Biochemistry 30: 1733-1741.
- Lynam J K and Herdt R W 1989 Sense and sustainability: Sustainability as an objective in international agricultural research. Agricultural Economics 3: 381-398.
- Mäder P, Fliessbach A, Dubois D, Gunst L, Fried P and Niggli U 2002 Soil fertility and biodiversity in organic farming. Science 296: 1694-1697.
- Merry R H 1996 Chemical indicators of soil health. *In:* Indicators of catchment health: A technical perspective. J Walker and D J Reuter (eds.) pp. 109-119. CSIRO. Melbourne, Australia.
- Murphy D V, Recous S, Stockdale E A, Fillery I R P, Jensen L S, Hatch D J and Goulding K W T 2003 Gross nitrogen fluxes in soil: Theory, measurement and application of ¹⁵N pool dilution techniques. Advances in Agronomy 79: 69-118.

- Milton N, Murphy D, Braimbridge M, Osler G, Jasper D and Abbott L 2002 Using power analysis to identify soil quality indicators. 17th World Congress of Soil Science Symposium No. 32, Paper No. 557 pp. 1-8
- Pankhurst C E, Doube B M and Gupta V V S R (eds.) 1997 Biological indicators of soil health. CAB International. Wallingford, Oxon. UK.
- Pankhurst C E, Hawke B G, McDonald H J, Kirkby C A, Buckerfield J C, Michelsen P, O'Brien K A, Gupta V V S R and Doube B M 1995 Evaluation of soil biological properties as potential bioindicators of soil health. Australian Journal of Experimental Agriculture 35: 1015-1028.
- Powlson D S and Brookes P C 1987 Measurement of soil microbial biomass provides and early indication of changes in total soil organic matter due to straw incorporation. Soil Biology and Biochemistry 19: 159-164.
- Roper M M and Gupta V V S R 1995 Management practices and soil biota. Australian Journal of Soil Research 33: 321-339.
- Ryan M H and Graham J H 2002 Is there a role for arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi in production agriculture? Plant and Soil 244: 263-271.
- Shi Z, Wang K, Bailey J S, Jordan C and Higgins A H 2002 Temporal changes in the spatial distribution of some soil properties on a temperate grassland site. Soil Use and Management 18: 353-362.
- Smith S E, Robson A D and Abbott L K 1993 The involvement of mycorrhizas of genetically-dependent efficiency of nutrient uptake and use. Plant and Soil 146: 169-179.
- Smith J U, Smith P, Coleman K, Hargreaves P R and Macdonald A J 2002 Using dynamic simulation models and the 'Dot-to-Dot' method to determine the optimal sampling times in field trials. Soil Use and Management 18: 370-375.
- Sojka R E and Upchurch D R 1999 Reservations regarding the soil quality concept. Soil Science Society of America Journal 63: 1039-1054.
- Sojka R E, Upchurch D R and Borlaug N E 2003 Quality soil management or soil quality management: Performance versus semantics. Advances in Agronomy 79: 1-68.
- Sorn-srivichai P, Syers J K, Tillman R W and Cornforth I S 1988 An evaluation of water extraction as a soil-testing procedure for phosphorus II. Factors affecting the amounts of water-extractable phosphorus in field soils. Fertilizer Research 15: 225-236.
- Sparling G P 1997 Soil microbial biomass, activity and nutrient cycling as indicators of soil health. *In:* Biological indicators of soil health. C E Pankhurst, B M Doube and V V S R Gupta (eds.) pp. 97-119. CAB International. Wallingford, Oxon. UK.
- Stenberg B 1999 Monitoring soil quality of arable land: Microbiological indicators. Acta Agriculturae Scandinavica 49: 1-24.
- Stockdale E A, Lampkin N H, Hovi M, Keatinge R, Lennartsson E K M, Macdonald D W, Padel S, Tattersall F H, Wolfe M S and Watson C A 2001 Agronomic and environmental implications of organic farming systems. Advances in Agronomy 70: 261-327.
- Stout J D, Gof K M and Rafter T A 1981 Chemistry and turnover of naturally occurring resistant organic compounds in soil. *In:* Soil Biochemistry Vol 5. E A Paul and J N Ladd (eds.) pp. 1-73. Marcel Dekker. New York.
- Strong D T, Sale P W G and Helyar K R 1998 The influence of the soil matrix on nitrogen mineralisation and nitrification. I. Spatial variation and a hierarchy of soil properties. Australian Journal of Soil Research 36: 429-447.

- Swift M J 1997 Biological management of soil fertility as a component of sustainable agriculture: Perspectives and prospects with particular reference to tropical regions. *In:* Soil ecology in sustainable agricultural systems. L Brussaard and R Ferrera-Cerrato (eds.) pp. 137-159. CRC Press. New York.
- Tiedje J M, Cho J C, Murray A, Treves D, Xia B and Zhou J 2001 Soil teeming with life: New frontiers for soil science. *In:* Sustainable management of soil organic matter. R M Rees, B C Ball and C A Watson (eds.) pp. 393-412. CAB International. Wallingford, Oxon. UK.
- Torsvik V, Goksoy J and Daae F L 1990 (a) High diversity in DNA of soil bacteria. Applied Environmental Microbiology 56: 782-787.
- Torsvik V, Salte K, Sorheim R and Goksoyr J 1990 (b) Comparison of phenotypic diversity and DNA heterogeneity in a population of soil bacteria. Applied Environmental Microbiology 56: 776-781.
- Turco R F, Kennedy A C and Jawson M D 1994 Microbial indicators of soil quality. *In:* Defining soil quality for a sustainable environment. J W Doran, D C Coleman, D F Bezdicek and B A Stewart (eds.) pp. 73-90. Soil Science Society of America Special Publication No 35. Madison, WI.
- von Lützow M, Leifeld J, Kainz M, Kögel-Knabner I and Munch J C 2002 Indications for soil organic matter quality in soils under different management. Geoderma 105: 243-258.
- Walker J and Reuter D J 1996 Key indicators to assess farm and catchment soil health. *In:* Indicators of catchment health: A technical perspective. J Walker and D J Reuter (eds.) pp. 21-33. CSIRO. Melbourne, Australia.
- Zak J C, Willig M R, Moorhead D L and Wildman H G 1994 Functional diversity of microbial communities: A quantitative approach. Soil Biology and Biochemistry 26: 1101-1108.