

1 **Effects of changes in soil hydraulic properties after crop abandonment on co-occurring**  
2 **perennial species in a semi-arid grassland in Mongolia**

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## 18 Abstract

19           The objective of this study was to investigate successional changes in water flow as a  
20 result of changes in soil hydraulic properties after crop abandonment under drought and non-  
21 drought conditions, and under water uptake by co-occurring perennial plant species to clarify the  
22 observation that typical perennial grass species are seldom observed in abandoned fields. Soil  
23 hydraulic properties were measured in croplands which had been abandoned for different periods (2,  
24 9, and 18 years from abandonment) and in a grazed grassland site. Hydrological processes in the  
25 soil profiles were simulated with soil hydraulic properties under drought and non-drought summer  
26 conditions with water uptake from perennial grass species. Suction in the surface soils increased  
27 with the period of abandonment, with this trend being particularly obvious in a drought year.  
28 Available water appears to be restricted in the later successional stage of abandoned fields and in  
29 grazed grassland for plants that have drought tolerance. Dry soil and climate conditions are  
30 important factors determining the intrusion of the typical perennial grass, *S. krylovii*, into degraded  
31 abandoned fields. This abiotic interaction between soil hydraulic properties and climate conditions  
32 may play an important role for plant succession in abandoned cropland.

33

34 **Keywords:** unsaturated hydraulic conductivity, water restoration, cumulative transpiration, particle  
35 size distribution, grazed grassland

36

## 37 Introduction

38 Crop abandonment is a factor responsible for soil degradation in semi-arid regions.  
39 Soil degradation within a few decades following abandonment of cropping is a serious problem  
40 in Mongolia and Inner Mongolia [1,2]. The dominant land use in these areas is grazing. Palatable  
41 grasses for livestock are originally dominant. Grasslands are dominated by the perennial grass,  
42 *Stipa krylovii*, which has lower vulnerability for drought than degraded grassland where annual  
43 species dominate [3]. However, the dominant species of typical perennial grasslands are seldom  
44 found in abandoned fields in Mongolia, even decades after abandonment [1] and in Inner  
45 Mongolia [4]. Instead of typical perennial species, annual species and the perennial species  
46 (*Leymus chinensis*), which has a high compensation rate, tend to dominate such grasslands [1,4].

47 Active ecological restoration has been tried in Mongolia to accelerate the recovery  
48 process. For instance, sowing of typical perennial grasses [5] and making gaps by removal of  
49 annual species [6] in abandoned fields have been tried. However, these activities have not  
50 brought the expected results due to unexpected drought and degraded soil conditions [5,6]. These  
51 limitations of restoration activities may result from having inappropriate particular goals or from  
52 targeting apparent symptoms without considering underlying causes [7]. Therefore rigorous  
53 assessment of the state of abandoned cropland in the Mongolian rangeland and the underlying  
54 factors leading to that state, such as changes in soil hydraulic properties and plant species  
55 composition under annual variability of precipitation, should be undertaken as a first step in

56 restoration activity.

57           The effects of crop abandonment on soil restoration may depend on soil properties and  
58 climatic conditions of an area [8]. In particular, soil hydraulic properties affect the vegetation  
59 recovery process [9]. Soil water suction interacts with water uptake by plant roots. Therefore,  
60 measuring the changes in average suction after crop abandonment is critical in understanding soil  
61 water conditions for typical perennial plant growth. Previous studies have found changes in  
62 particle size distribution [1,10,11], hydraulic properties of the near-saturated range of surface  
63 and subsurface soils [12,13] and unsaturated hydraulic conductivity (i.e., high suction range) of  
64 surface soils [1] due to crop abandonment in the semi-arid region. However, there are insufficient  
65 studies on successional changes in infiltration into and capillary rise from the subsoil that occur  
66 when considering the changes in unsaturated hydraulic properties after crop abandonment. In  
67 addition to changes in hydraulic properties of the soil profile, there is substantial annual  
68 variability in climatic conditions in semi-arid regions. Therefore it is important to investigate soil  
69 hydraulic properties under various climatic conditions when evaluating the soil water condition in  
70 places where typical perennial species grow to answer the question as to why typical perennial  
71 species such as *S. krylovii* have seldom been observed in abandoned cropland.

72           The objective of this study is to present the successional changes in water flow due to  
73 changes in the soil hydraulic properties after crop abandonment under drought and non-drought  
74 conditions, and under water uptake by co-occurring dominant plant species to clarify the reason  
75 why typical perennial grass species are seldom observed in abandoned fields.

## 76 **Materials and methods**

### 77 **Study site and soil sampling**

78           The study area was in Hustai National Park (HNP, 47°50'N, 106°00'E) in Mongolia.  
79           The average elevation of HNP is 1240 m asl. The climate of the region is semi-arid and cold,  
80           with short summers. Most of the annual precipitation falls in summer, from May to July, which is  
81           critical for the growth of plants. According to meteorological data from the HNP climatic station,  
82           annual precipitation was approximately 232 mm (C.V. 31%) and the mean annual temperature  
83           was approximately 0°C from 1999 to 2005 at HNP. The zonal soils were classified as  
84           Kastanozems by WRB [14] based on soil profile morphology and physicochemical properties.

85           All abandoned croplands had been tilled from 1977 in this area by administrative plan.  
86           Satellite images (Landsat MSS 1994, 1996, 1999, 2002, 2005, 2007) were used to confirm the  
87           period of abandonment. We then consulted municipal archives and held personal interviews with  
88           landowners to determine the period of abandonment. We selected croplands that had been  
89           abandoned in 1990 (site CA18), 1999 (CA9) and 2006 (CA2) and semi-natural grassland (SNG)  
90           in the flat buffer zone in Hustai National Park as a reference site. The CA2, CA9 and CA18 sites  
91           had been abandoned from cropping two, nine and eighteen years, respectively, prior to our survey  
92           in summer 2008. Wheat had been cultivated prior to the cropland being abandoned. The cropping  
93           system and agricultural materials (e.g. fertilizer and agricultural machines) used at each site  
94           basically followed the government guidelines until 1990. Although the abandoned cropland sites

95 had had different durations of cultivation, previous studies reported that half of the changes in  
96 soil physicochemical properties occur during the first 8 years from primary tillage, and  
97 subsequent changes are slow [2,15]. All of the study sites of abandoned fields had been cultivated  
98 for more than 12 years. Hence, the study sites should allow proper comparison of the effects of  
99 crop abandonment on soil and plant properties between these sites. Grazing was introduced on all  
100 abandoned cropland sites after crop abandonment. Livestock numbers were strictly controlled by  
101 HNP in the buffer zone including CA2, CA9, CA18 and SNG.

102           Annual forbs (*Erodium stephanianum*, *Artemisia macrocephala*, *Chenopodium*  
103 *aristatum*) dominated at the CA2 site, annual forbs (*Erodium stephanianum*) and perennial  
104 grasses (*Leymus chinensis*) were growing at the CA9 site, perennial grasses (*Leymus chinensis*,  
105 *Cleistogenes squarrosa*) dominated at the CA18 site and perennial grasses (*Stipa krylovii*) and  
106 shrubs (*Kochia prostrata*) dominated at the SNG site. Since *S. krylovii* is replaced by *L. chinensis*  
107 when land degrades (Hilbig 1995), the dominant grass at SNG, *S. krylovii*, was not dominant in  
108 the abandoned fields.

109           Soil surveys and soil sampling were performed from July to August 2008. Soil cores  
110 (100 ml) were sampled from depths of 0–5, 10–15 and 30–35 cm in the three different fields to  
111 investigate the variation in each field. The selection of soil layers for sampling was based on the  
112 soil profile observations. The sampled soil cores did not contain the boundaries between soil  
113 horizons.

114

## 115 **Calculations of plant growth and hydrological fluxes**

116 Initial simulations of soil water flow were performed for the bare surface condition to  
117 focus on the effect of changes in soil hydraulic properties with different periods of crop  
118 abandonment and land-use history on average suction and volumetric water content. We then  
119 simulated the cumulative evaporation of the dominant two species (*Stipa krylovii* and *Leymus*  
120 *chinensis*) and water movement under those plants, to compare the effects of drought and  
121 differences in soil hydraulic properties on the growth of these two species. Since *S. krylovii* and *L.*  
122 *chinensis* were not observed at the CA2 site, we did not use the soil hydraulic properties of this  
123 site.

124 The various terms of water balance in one dimension were simulated using WASH\_1D  
125 ([http://www.alrc.tottori-u.ac.jp/fujimaki/download/WASH\\_1D/WASH\\_1D.zip](http://www.alrc.tottori-u.ac.jp/fujimaki/download/WASH_1D/WASH_1D.zip)), which solves the  
126 one-dimensional Richards' equation and convection-diffusion equation for heat movement with  
127 the finite difference method. The WASH\_1D program considers the dependence of albedo on  
128 water content and vapor movement due to the thermal gradient and hysteresis. The potential  
129 evaporation rate was calculated by the Penman equation. A plant growth model is also involved  
130 in this program.

131 We simulated the soil water movement in the 0–5 cm, 5–15 cm and 15–50cm soil  
132 layers with core soil samples from the 0–5 cm, 10–15 cm and 30–35cm depths, respectively.  
133 Tables 1 and 2 show all parameter values for soil and plants, respectively.



Table1 Parameter values of soil hydraulic properties in the hydrological simulation. (*continued*)

Simulated soil depth (cm)	CA18a			CA18b			CA18c		
	2.5	12.5	40	2.5	12.5	40	2.5	12.5	40
Soil water retention curve									
<i>W<sub>sat</sub></i>	0.441	0.396	0.359	0.437	0.419	0.41	0.434	0.418	0.414
<i>zeta</i>	0.022	0.03	0.036	0.023	0.023	0.023	0.014	0.014	0.014
<i>alpha</i>	0.013	0.018	0.012	0.01	0.016	0.023	0.013	0.015	0.015
<i>n</i>	1.689	1.5	1.722	1.761	1.538	1.65	1.52	1.702	1.618
<i>m</i>	0.408	0.333	0.3	0.341	0.37	0.3	0.342	0.37	0.382
Hydraulic Conductivity									
<i>K<sub>sat</sub></i>	0.002	0.002	0.003	8E-04	0.002	0.003	7E-04	0.002	0.004
<i>ak</i>	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
<i>bk</i>	2.63	0	0	13.35	0	0	0.99	0	0
<i>ck</i>	8.45	12.16	10.92	6.8	9.92	8.65	9.79	9.24	10.34
Thermal Conductivity									
<i>a<sub>h</sub></i>	0.0075			0.0075			0.0068		
<i>b<sub>h</sub></i>	0.0066			0.0066			0.0061		
<i>c<sub>h</sub></i>	0.5			0.318			0.2819		
<i>d<sub>h</sub></i>	0.004			0.0041			0.0038		
<i>e<sub>h</sub></i>	4			4			4		
Albedo									
<i>Max</i>	0.207	-	-	0.232	-	-	0.211	-	-
<i>Min</i>	0.183	-	-	0.185	-	-	0.18	-	-
<i>a<sub>al</sub></i>	10	-	-	10	-	-	5	-	-
<i>b<sub>al</sub></i>	3	-	-	2	-	-	5	-	-
<i>Walb</i>	1	-	-	1	-	-	1	-	-



## 137 **Meteorological data**

138 Meteorological data for precipitation, maximum and minimum temperatures, wind  
139 velocity, relative humidity, sunshine duration and direct radiation for every 3 h were used in the  
140 simulation. These data were obtained from the Institute of Meteorology and Hydrology (IMH)  
141 and World Radiation Data Centre in Tov Prefecture where HNP is located. Since we focused on  
142 soil hydraulic properties as the critical condition determining water availability for plants, the  
143 simulated period was restricted to the plant growth period (May–July). To reflect a typical  
144 climate difference, we selected data from non-drought (1999) and drought (2004) summers.  
145 Amounts of precipitation during the relevant periods were 158 and 81 mm, respectively. We  
146 assumed that the initial suction was uniform at 300 cm.

## 147 **Soil hydraulic properties**

148 Saturated hydraulic conductivity was measured by the falling head method for every  
149 soil core sample. Unsaturated hydraulic conductivity and retention data were measured by the  
150 evaporation method using two tensiometers [16]. Those at the surface layer were determined by  
151 an evaporation method, which gives hydraulic conductivity at a high suction (>600 cm) range. In  
152 this evaporation method, two tensiometers were used until suction at the upper tensiometer  
153 reached more than 500 cm. After removing the water in the tensiometers, the soil column was  
154 again placed under the evaporative condition until the evaporation rate became lesser than 10%  
155 of that at the initial stage. After termination, the soil columns were dismantled to obtain the water

156 content profiles. Parameters in hydraulic conductivity functions in the high suction range were  
 157 inversely determined using tensiometer readings, cumulative evaporation derived from the  
 158 weight change of soil samples through the experiments and the water content profile in the  
 159 objective function. The values for unsaturated hydraulic conductivity and retention curves were  
 160 determined in this way and validated by comparison with unsaturated hydraulic conductivity and  
 161 water retention data measured using the multi-step outflow experiment of Fujimaki and Inoue  
 162 (2003)[17]. We further validated the method that we used with the known hydraulic properties of  
 163 the Kanto loam. Retention data in the high suction range (14077 cm, 402941 cm) were obtained  
 164 using the vapor pressure method for surface core samples because soil water suction covers a  
 165 wide range in the semi-arid Mongolian grassland.

166 The water-retention data were fitted with a modified version of Shiozawa's equation:

$$167 \quad \theta = \frac{\theta_{sat} - \zeta}{[1 + (ah)^n]^m} + \zeta \left\{ 1 - \left[ \frac{\ln(h+1)}{\ln(h_0+1)} \right]^{-2} \right\} \quad (1)$$

168 where  $\theta$  is the volumetric water content,  $\theta_{sat}$  is the saturated  $\theta$  value,  $h$  is the suction (cm), and  $\alpha$ ,  
 169  $\zeta$ ,  $m$ ,  $n$ , and  $h_0$  are fitting parameters. The unsaturated hydraulic conductivity ( $\text{cm h}^{-1}$ ) data were  
 170 fitted with Campbell's equation:

$$171 \quad K = K_{sat} \left( \frac{\theta}{\theta_{sat}} \right)^\omega \quad (2)$$

$$172 \quad \omega = a_k \theta^2 + b_k \theta + c_k, \quad (3)$$

173 where  $\omega$ ,  $a_k$ ,  $b_k$ ,  $c_k$  are fitting parameters. The relationship between water content and thermal  
 174 conductivity ( $K_h$ ) is given by:

175 , 
$$K_h = a_h + b_h \left( \frac{\theta}{\theta_{sat}} \right) - (a_h - d_h) \exp \left[ -c_h \left( \frac{\theta}{\theta_{sat}} \right)^{\theta_e} \right] \quad (4)$$

176 where  $a_h$ ,  $b_h$ ,  $c_h$  and  $d_h$  are fitting parameters. We estimated these fitting parameters using the  
 177 method proposed by Campbell (1985) [18] for the surface soil (0–5cm). The estimated thermal  
 178 conductivity function was verified by comparison with that measured using a thermal  
 179 conductivity probe (Decagon Devices Inc., Pullman, WA, USA). The same parameter values  
 180 were used for subsurface soils. The dependence of albedo on the water content ( $\alpha_R$ ) is given by:

181 
$$\alpha_R = \frac{\alpha_{max} - \alpha_{min}}{1 + (a_{al} \bar{\theta}_l)^{\beta_{al}}} + \alpha_{min} \quad (5)$$

182 where  $\theta_l$  is the average volumetric water content in the top 1 cm ( $\text{cm}^3 \text{cm}^{-3}$ ) and  $\alpha_{max}$ ,  $\alpha_{min}$ ,  $\alpha_{al}$   
 183 and  $\beta_{al}$  are fitting parameters. We took measurements using a newly designed device and  
 184 pyranometer (LI200X Campbell Scientific, Inc) that requires only a small amount of soil sample  
 185 and allows quick measurement across a wide range of water contents to obtain the parameter  
 186 values of each soil sample. The accuracy of the values measured using this device was validated  
 187 using the known data of Fujimaki et al. (2003) [19].

## 188 Calibration for simulation of soil hydraulic properties

189 To verify the accuracy of the predicted water movement, two soil moisture sensors  
 190 (5TE, Decagon Devices, Inc.) were inserted to monitor the water content, electrical conductivity  
 191 and temperature at depths of 5 and 15 cm at 3-h intervals, from July 24 to August 8, 2008.  
 192 Precipitation (ECRN-100, Decagon Devices, Inc) and shortwave radiation (LI200X, Campbell  
 193 Scientific, Inc) at 3-h intervals were monitored in the same period. Other meteorological data

194 (maximum and minimum temperature, wind velocity and relative humidity) were obtained from  
195 IMH. We took core soil samples from depths of 2.5–7.5 and 12.5–17.5 cm from the point where  
196 the soil moisture sensors were inserted. Saturated and unsaturated hydraulic properties were  
197 measured by the falling head and evaporation methods. Retention data in the high suction range  
198 were obtained with the vapor pressure method for surface core samples. We estimated fitting  
199 parameters of thermal conductivity and dependence of albedo on the water content using the  
200 same method as for the other sampled surface soils. We compared the simulated data of the  
201 volumetric water content at depths of 5 and 15 cm using the sampled soil parameters and  
202 monitored the values of volumetric water content. The RMSE between simulated and monitored  
203 soil water content at depths of 5 and 15 cm were 0.0053 and 0.0181, respectively.

#### 204 **Plant properties**

205 The actual transpiration rate,  $T$ , is computed by

$$206 \quad T = \int S dz . \quad (6)$$

207 The sink term,  $S$  ( $s^{-1}$ ), is defined as the volume of water removed from a unit volume of soil per  
208 unit time due to water uptake by a plant, and  $z$  is soil depth (cm). Feddes et al. (1978) [20]  
209 specified  $S$  as

$$210 \quad S = T_p \beta \alpha_w , \quad (7)$$

211 where  $T_p$ ,  $\beta$  and  $\alpha_w$  are the potential transpiration rate ( $cm\ s^{-1}$ ), normalized root density  
212 distribution ( $cm^{-1}$ ) and reduction coefficient, respectively.  $T_p$  was given by multiplying the

213 reference evapo-transpiration rate using the Penman equation [21] and crop coefficient ( $K_c$ ).  $K_c$  is  
 214 expressed as a function of cumulative transpiration:

$$215 \quad K_c = a_{kc} \left[ 1 - \exp(b_{kc} \sum T) \right] + c_{kc}, \quad (8)$$

216 where  $a_{kc}$ ,  $b_{kc}$  and  $c_{kc}$  are fitting parameters. The values of  $a_{kc}$ ,  $b_{kc}$  and  $c_{kc}$  were assumed to be 0.8,  
 217 -0.4 and 0.3, respectively, based on a previous study [22].  $\beta$  was given by:

$$218 \quad \beta = (b_{rt} + 1) d_{rt}^{-b_{rt}+1} (d_{rt} - z) b^{rt} \quad (9)$$

219 where  $b$  is a fitting parameter, and  $d_{rt}$  and  $z$  are the rooting depth (cm). The value of  $b$  was  
 220 assumed to be unity, based on data from an experiment using these two plants, which means that  
 221 normalized root density distributions are distributed linearly. The  $d_{rt}$  is also expressed as a  
 222 function of cumulative transpiration:

$$223 \quad d_{rt} = a_{drt} \left[ 1 - \exp(b_{drt} \sum T) \right] + c_{drt}, \quad (10)$$

224 where  $a_{drt}$ ,  $b_{drt}$  and  $c_{drt}$  are fitting parameters. The values of  $a_{drt}$ ,  $b_{drt}$  and  $c_{drt}$  were assumed to be  
 225 25, -0.04 and 10, respectively, which means that the rooting depth becomes dipper-shaped  
 226 depending on cumulative transpiration. These parameter values were adapted by assuming *S.*  
 227 *krylovii* and *L. chinensis* have similar rooting depths in the early stage of making a habitat. The  
 228  $\alpha_w$  was described using the S-shaped function:

$$229 \quad \alpha_w = \frac{1}{1 + (h/h_{50})^p} \quad (11)$$

230 where  $h_{50}$  is the soil water pressure head at which uptake is reduced by half and  $p$  is an adjustable  
 231 parameter. In this work, we set  $h_{50} = -1302$ ,  $p = 1.355$  and  $h_{50} = -1254$  and  $p = 4.862$  for *Stipa*  
 232 *krylovii* and *Leymus chinensis*, respectively, given by averaging determined parameters in our

233 previous research [23] (Fig. 1). The parameters were obtained by the pot experiments of full-  
 234 grown *S. krylovii* and *L. chinensis* (Table 2). Present study, therefore, did not consider about  
 235 germination process from seed in simulation. Leaf area index (I) was expressed as a function of  
 236 cumulative transpiration.

$$237 \quad I = a_{LAI} [1 - \exp(b_{LAI} \sum T)], \quad (12)$$

238 where  $a_{LAI}$  and  $b_{LAI}$  are fitting parameters. Assumed values of  $a_{LAI}$  and  $b_{LAI}$  were 1 and 0.2,  
 239 respectively. Parameters related to LAI were assumed based on the results of a previous study in  
 240 *S. krylovii* and *L. chinensis* dominated grassland [24]. Initial cumulative transpiration was 0.1 cm  
 241 based on field survey results in Mongolia [25]. Since shortwave radiation flux which arrives at  
 242 the soil surface is decreased due to vegetation cover, the shortwave flux is expressed as a  
 243 function of leaf area index. Evaporation rate ( $E$ ) is calculated by a bulk transfer equation as  
 244 follows:

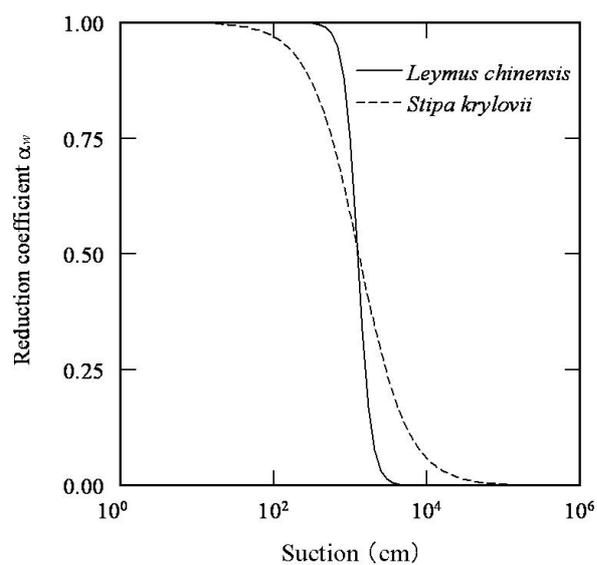
$$245 \quad E = \frac{\rho_{vs} h_{rs} - \rho_{va} h_{ra}}{r_a + r_{sc}} \quad (13)$$

246 where  $\rho_{vs}$  is the saturated vapor concentration at the soil surface ( $\text{g cm}^{-3}$ ),  $\rho_{va}$  is the saturated  
 247 vapor concentration at reference height ( $\text{g cm}^{-3}$ ),  $h_{rs}$  is the relative humidity at the soil surface ( $\text{g}$   
 248  $\text{cm}^{-3}$ ),  $h_{ra}$  is the relative humidity at reference height,  $r_a$  is the aerodynamic resistance ( $\text{s cm}^{-1}$ ) and  
 249  $r_{sc}$ , is the resistance due to salt crusting ( $\text{s cm}^{-1}$ ). An increase in aerodynamic resistance due to  
 250 plant cover was also expressed as a function of leaf area index. Vegetation dependent parameters  
 251 were filled with theoretical values except for  $h_{50}$  and  $p$  of each species, and each parameter was  
 252 assumed to be the same value for every numerical experiment.

253 Table2 Parameter values of plant properties in the simulation

Properties	<i>Stipa</i>	<i>Leymus</i>
Parameters	<i>krylovii</i>	<i>chinensis</i>
Stress Response Function		
<i>h50</i>	-1302	-1254
<i>a</i>	1.355	4.862
Root Density Distribution		
<i>brt</i>		1
<i>adrt</i>		25
<i>bdrt</i>		-0.04
<i>cdrt</i>		10
Crop Coefficient		
<i>aKc</i>		0.8
<i>bKc</i>		-0.4
<i>cKc</i>		0.3
Leaf Area Index		
<i>aLAI</i>		1
<i>bLAI</i>		-0.2

254



255

256 Fig. 1. Drought stress response function for *L. chinensis* and *S. krylovii* applied to the simulations of

257 water flow in the soil. This response function was the average of the responses of three plants of  
258 each plant species.

### 259 **Particle size distribution**

260 The soil core samples were air-dried and sieved to obtain all particles <2.0 mm after the  
261 hydraulic measurements. The particle size distribution for each site was determined using the  
262 pipette method.

## 263 **Results**

### 264 **Particle size distribution and hydraulic properties of surface soil samples**

265 The average particle size distribution of soils at the different sampled sites is shown in  
266 Table 3. The coarse sand content was highest at the CA2 site, and its fine sand content was higher  
267 than at the cropland sites abandoned for longer periods. The fine sand content at the SNG site  
268 was the highest of all sites.

269 Figures 2 and 3 show the unsaturated hydraulic conductivity and water retention curves  
270 for the surface soils at the four sites. The unsaturated hydraulic conductivity of soils from  
271 abandoned fields, especially at the CA2 site, was higher than that for the soil at the SNG site at a  
272 given volumetric water content. The suction of the soil from abandoned fields at the CA2 site  
273 was lower than that for the soil at the SNG site at a given volumetric water content (ex.  
274 volumetric water content is  $0.2 \text{ cm}^3 \text{ cm}^{-3}$ ). Suction values for soils at the CA9 and CA18 sites fell

275 between values from the CA2 and SNG sites.

276

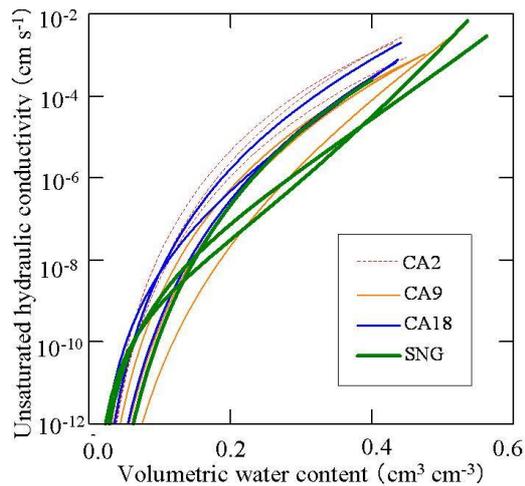
277 Table 3 Particle size distribution of soils at the study sites.

Site	Particle size distribution (%)			
	Clay (<0.002mm)	Silt (0.002-0.02mm)	Fine sand (0.02-0.25mm)	Coarse sand (0.25-2.00mm)
CA2	11.15 (±2.76)	23.70 (±3.94)	34.12 (±5.75)	31.03 (±3.64)
CA9	17.25 (±1.13)	31.15 (±6.09)	38.68 (±3.04)	12.91 (±5.55)
CA18	13.88 (±4.54)	19.22 (±3.24)	45.90 (±6.47)	21.00 (±3.04)
SNG	10.17 (±1.75)	25.08 (±1.18)	46.84 (±4.48)	17.91 (±4.05)

278 ( ) values show the standard error.

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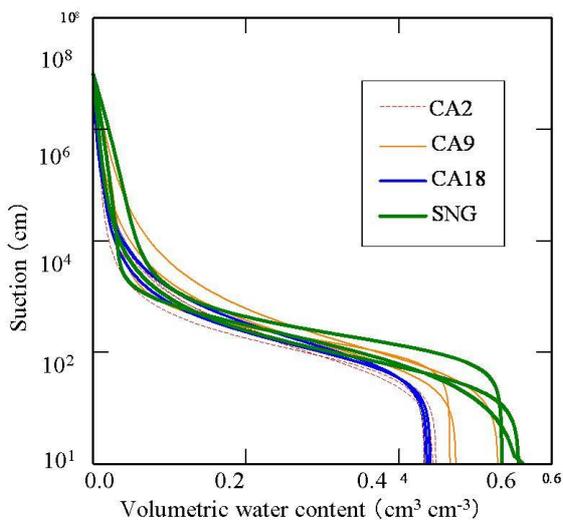
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Fig. 2. Unsaturated hydraulic conductivity of soil samples at depths of 0–5 cm as a function of the volumetric water content. Three replications were measured for each site: curves of the same style represent values from the same site.

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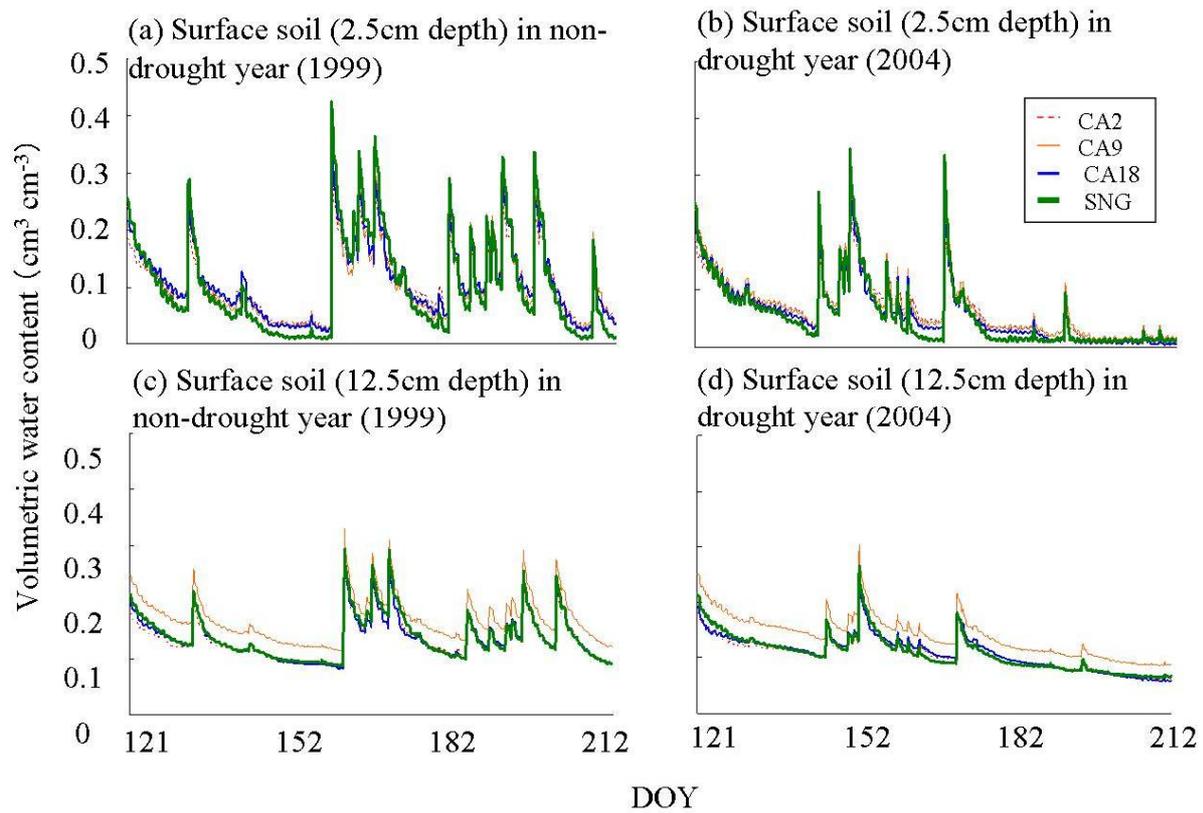
Fig. 3. Soil water-retention curves for soil samples at depths of 0–5 cm from the four sites: suction as a function of the volumetric water content. Three replications were measured for each site: curves of the same style represent values from the same site.

**289 Volumetric water content and soil water suction in drought and non-drought summers**

290 Figure 4 shows the average volumetric water content of surface soils from the different  
291 sampled sites in the summer of drought and non-drought years. There are no obvious differences  
292 among sites. Figure 5 shows changes in soil suction in the same years. There were large  
293 differences in terms of suction in the surface soil. Soil suction in abandoned fields was lower than  
294 that at the SNG site, and at the CA2 site, was the lowest of all sites in the drought year. Although  
295 there was not a large difference in suction between the CA9- and CA18 sites in the non-drought  
296 year (Fig. 4a), the suction at the CA18 site was higher than that at the CA9 site in the drought  
297 year (Fig. 4b). Thus the difference in suction in the surface soil in the drought summer was larger  
298 than in the non-drought year. In the sub-surface soil, there were no obvious differences in suction  
299 among the sites for both the drought and non-drought years.

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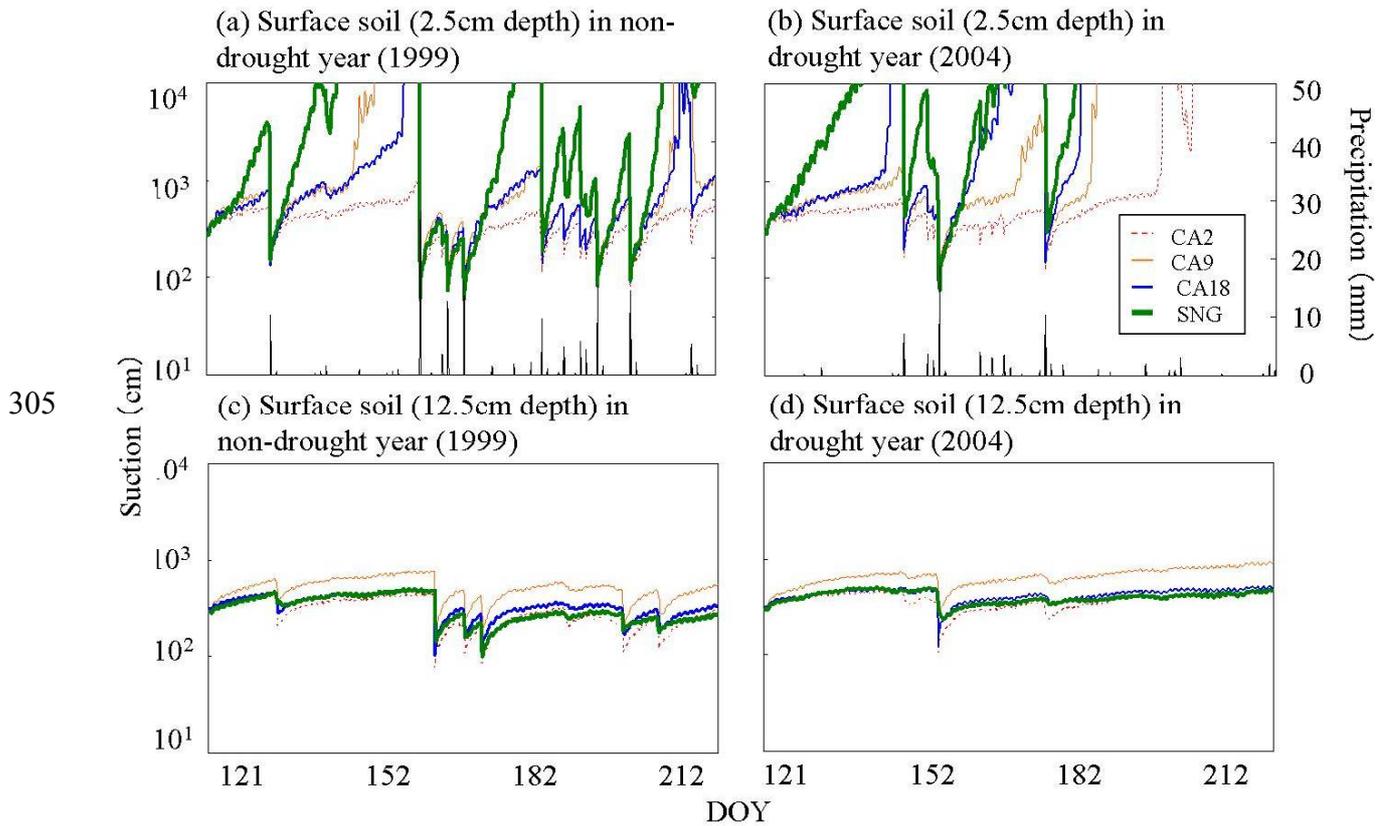
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Fig. 4. Volumetric water content at depths of 2.5 and 12.5 cm at each site in non-

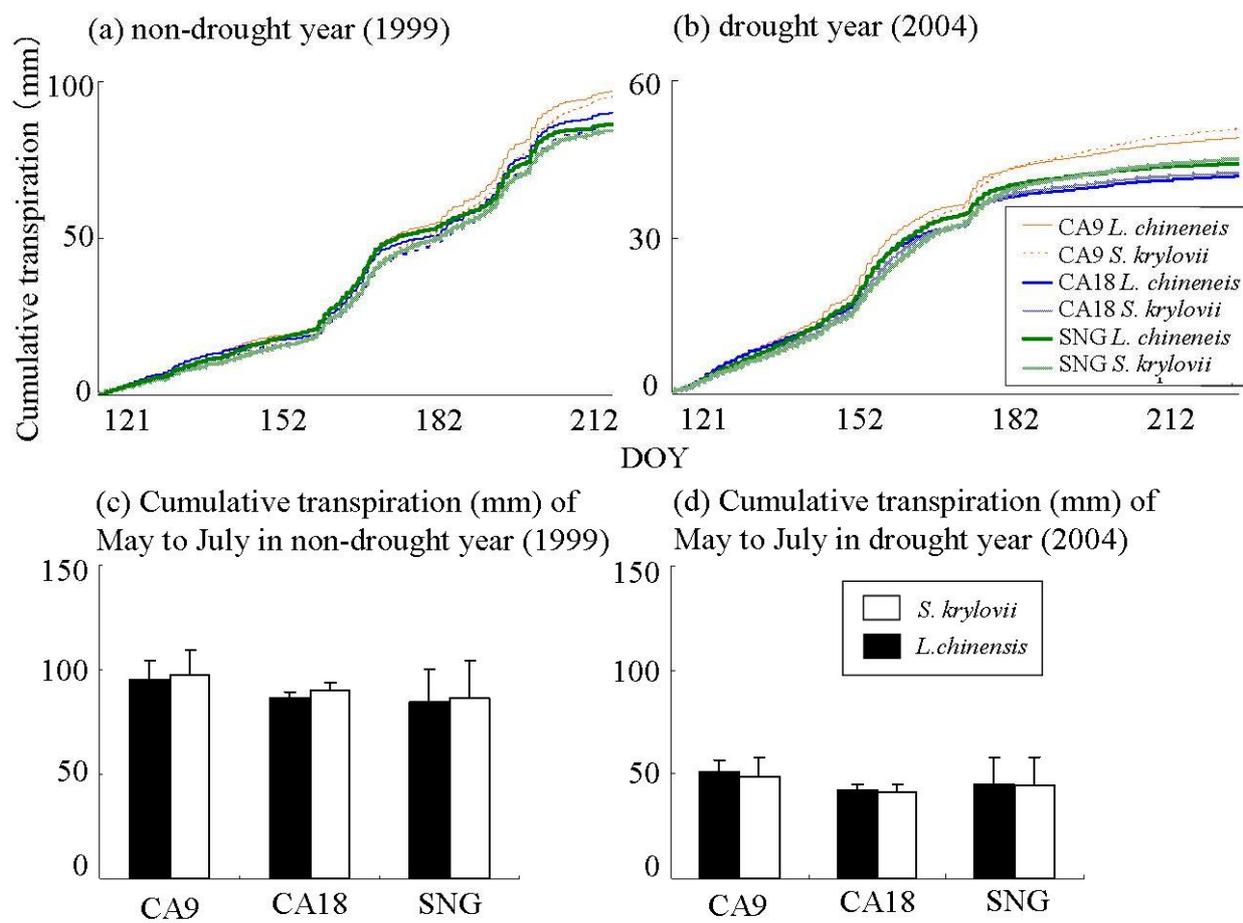
drought (1999) and drought (2004) summers. Each value is the average of three samples.



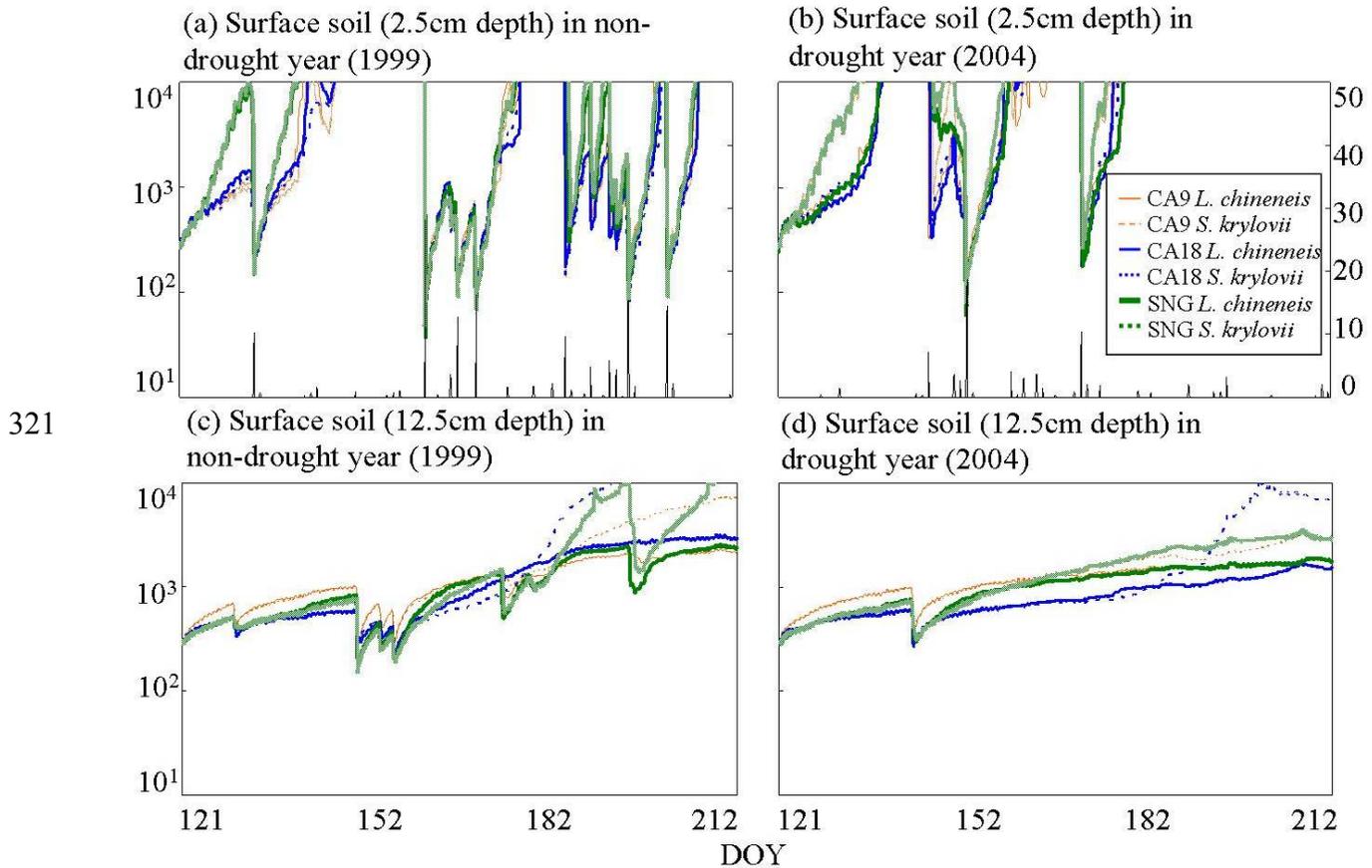
306 Fig. 5. Soil water suction at depths of 2.5 and 12.5 cm at each site in non-drought  
 307 (1999) and drought (2004) summers. Each value is the average of three samples.

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 309  
 310 Cumulative transpiration of *L. chinensis* and *S. krylovii* and soil water suction in  
 311 drought and non-drought summers and average cumulative transpiration are shown in Figure 6.  
 312 The bar graphs show the cumulative transpiration at the end of July (DOY = 212). The  
 313 cumulative transpiration of *L. chinensis* was slightly higher than that of *S. krylovii* in the non-  
 314 drought year at all three sites. In contrast, the cumulative transpiration of *S. krylovii* was slightly  
 315 higher than that of *L. chinensis* in the drought year at all three sites.

316



318 Fig. 6. Cumulative transpiration of *L. chinensis* and *S. krylovii* at the CA9, CA18 and SNG  
 319 sites in non-drought (1999) and drought (2004) summers. Each value is the average of three  
 320 samples.



322 Fig. 7. Soil water suction at depths of 2.5 and 12.5 cm at each site under growth of *L. chinensis*  
 323 and *S. krylovii* in non-drought (1999) and drought (2004) summers. Each value is the average of  
 324 three samples.

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Figure 7 shows that the suction of subsurface soils under growing *S. krylovii* was higher than that under *L. chinensis* in the drought year. Meanwhile, the soil suctions of surface and subsurface soils under the growing *S. krylovii* were higher than that under *L. chinensis* in the drought year.

## 330 Discussion

### 331 Particle size distribution and hydraulic properties of surface soil samples

332 The difference in particle size distribution among sites seems to be related to dust  
333 storms and differences in vegetation at these sites. More than half of the dust storms in Mongolia  
334 occur in the spring [26], a season when perennial species begin to grow in the grasslands. In  
335 contrast, the ground remains essentially bare in spring in areas dominated by annual species in  
336 early stage abandoned croplands (for example the CA2 site). Therefore, a greater amount of soil  
337 erosion may occur in areas with sparse vegetation [26]. Consequently, we suggest that the  
338 fraction of coarse sand that is less easily transported by dust storms owing to its size and weight  
339 remains, and the fraction of fine sand that is easily carried away might have decreased at the CA2  
340 site. Since fine sand is easily trapped around vegetation due to its weight during wind storms,  
341 there is a possibility that it concentrates in springtime in fields with perennial species [27,28],  
342 such as the CA18 and SNG sites.

343 The unsaturated hydraulic conductivity and suction of the soils at the SNG site at a  
344 given water content were the lowest and highest of all sites, respectively. This means that soil  
345 water at the SNG site will move through the soil micro-structure slowly due to the high suction of  
346 the capillary force in soil micro pores in this structured soil [1,29]. On the other hand, the soil  
347 structure of abandoned fields such as in CA2 has been largely destroyed by past tillage and has  
348 lost its fine sand content due to wind erosion. Therefore, the soil in abandoned fields was less

349 structured in comparison with the SNG site.

350 It has been reported that the volume fraction of capillary pores for available water for  
351 plants and macro pores in an abandoned cropland was lower and higher, respectively, than those  
352 in grassland without a history of cultivation, because of destruction of the soil structure by past  
353 tillage [1]. Soil water in abandoned fields, such as CA2, is retained in macropores at low suction.  
354 Consequently, the suction in abandoned fields, especially in CA2, is lower than in SNG at a  
355 given volumetric water content.

#### 356 **Volumetric water content and suction of soil water in drought and non-drought summers**

357 The lower content of coarse sand may lead to higher soil suction at the SNG site and at  
358 the later stage of abandoned fields, CA18, which may affect suction of the surface soil at each site  
359 after rainfall (Fig. 4a and 4b). The structured soil which has a lower coarse sand content and many  
360 capillary pores contributed to keeping the water at high suction. On the other hand, soil water at the  
361 CA2 site was retained in developing macropores consisting of coarse sand, whose size is too large  
362 to maintain a high capillary force. The differences in surface soil suction among the sites implicate a  
363 difference in land-use history and periods of abandonment. The present study suggests that surface  
364 soil suction more clearly indicated soil hydraulic conditions for plant growth than the volumetric  
365 water content. Suction in the surface soils seems to indicate that the available water is restricted for  
366 drought tolerant plants at the CA18 and SNG sites and is less restricted at the CA2 site.

367 There were few differences in the volumetric water content and suction in the subsurface

368 soils among sites except for the CA9 site. The high value of  $W_{sat}$  of CA9a and CA9c (Table 1)  
369 results in the differences in the volumetric water content and soil water suction observed at the CA9  
370 site. The volumetric water content and suction in the subsurface soil were relatively more abundant  
371 (Fig. 3c and d) and lower (Fig. 4c and d) than in the surface soil, respectively. In general, the root  
372 depth of perennial species is deeper than for annual species, and the growth rate of perennial species  
373 relies on subsurface soil water. Therefore, the high suction of the surface soil at the CA18 and SNG  
374 sites has less possibility of preventing the growth of perennial species.

375           Although previous studies have shown changes in water retention curves and hydraulic  
376 conductivities of the near-saturated range of surface and subsurface soils [12,13] and of the  
377 unsaturated range (i.e., high suction range) of surface soils [1] due to crop abandonment, the present  
378 study indicates that suction of the surface soil water differed according to the period of  
379 abandonment and climatic conditions considering infiltration into and capillary rise from the subsoil.

### 380 **Cumulative transpiration of *L. chinensis* and *S. krylovii* and soil water suction in drought** 381 **and non-drought summers**

382           The higher cumulative transpiration of *L. chinensis* occurred in the days immediately  
383 following rainfall (e.g. Fig. 6a, DOY: 195) in the non-drought year, which may be caused by a  
384 difference in the reduction coefficient at around -1000 cm (Fig. 1). *Leymus chinensis* can maintain  
385 its potential transpiration rate up to a suction of about -1000 cm. This variation of cumulative  
386 transpiration along with the weather conditions shows why *L. chinensis* is the predominant species

387 in habitats with relatively abundant water [30]. *L. chinensis* seemed to retain its advantage in  
388 transpiration at places with abundant water due to its drought tolerance at relatively low suction.

389           The cumulative transpiration of *S. krylovii* was higher than that of *L. chinensis* at every  
390 site in the drought year of 2004 (Fig. 6d). Since *S. krylovii* has tolerance to drought stress at  
391 relatively high suctions (Fig. 1), it seems to contribute to the higher cumulative transpiration for *S.*  
392 *krylovii* in drought years. *Stipa krylovii* decreased its transpiration rate under conditions of relatively  
393 low drought stress, but it retained a low transpiration rate under relatively high drought stress  
394 conditions ( $h > 1000\text{cm}$ ) (Fig. 1). In a drought year, *S. krylovii* may use its drought tolerance at  
395 relatively high suction and replace *L. chinensis*. *Stipa krylovii* was observed at the CA18 and SNG  
396 sites where suction increases relatively quickly after rainfall (Fig. 5), which may indicate a possible  
397 advantage of *S. krylovii* and its replacement at the CA18 and SNG sites in a drought year. Shinoda  
398 et al. (2010) reported that *L. chinensis* diminished their above-ground biomass following a two year  
399 drought, but *S. krylovii* did not decrease its biomass even after a third year of drought. The present  
400 study suggests a reason for the tolerance of *S. krylovii* to continuous drought.

401           The soil water suction at a depth of 2.5 cm under *S. krylovii* was higher than that of *L.*  
402 *chinensis* at each site in the drought year (Fig. 5b). Therefore, soil conditions in terms of suction  
403 under the *S. krylovii* community seem harsh in terms of water uptake by other plant species in a  
404 drought year. Shinoda et al. (2010) [3] showed that most of the annual species did not grow in a  
405 mixed community of perennial and annual species in drought conditions, which may be due to the  
406 relatively high soil water suction in the surface soil aggravated by drought tolerant species such as

407 *S. krylovii*. Since annual species are dependent on the soil water in the surface layer, lack of  
408 available soil water in the surface is critical for them. These phenomena may indicate a competitive  
409 superiority of *S. krylovii* in dry Mongolian rangeland.

410 In abandoned cropland, the typical dry soil conditions were lost due to an increase in the  
411 fraction of coarse sand, especially at the CA2 site. The soil water is retained in the macropores at  
412 low suction (power), which means that this soil water could be used more easily than water at  
413 higher suction in the capillary pores, because soil water at low suction is preferred by annual plants.  
414 In these abandoned croplands, typical perennial grasses, such as *S. krylovii* which has a tolerance  
415 for relatively high drought stress, would not have an advantage in this non-dry soil condition. In  
416 contrast, the increase in fine sand content of the surface soil layer with increasing period of  
417 abandonment and irregular drought would contribute to providing dry conditions and encourage the  
418 replacement of *L. chinensis* by *S. krylovii*. The present study suggests the importance of typical dry  
419 conditions of soil and climate for the growth of the typical perennial grass, *S. krylovii*, in degraded  
420 abandoned fields. This abiotic interaction between soil hydraulic properties and climate conditions  
421 appears to play an important role in plant succession in abandoned cropland.

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