



1 **Impact of perennial forage plants on microbial carbon use efficiency in**  
2 **weathered Ethiopian soils**

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11 **Abstract**

12 *Aims:* Ethiopian soils are highly weathered and in urgent need of remediation. Increasing the  
13 soil carbon (C) pool by perennials potentially remediates soil degradation while sequestering  
14 atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub>. The soil microbial loop is thought to play an important role in soil C  
15 sequestration as it contributes significantly to the stabilization of plant litter C. The amount of  
16 stabilized litter C has been hypothesized to depend on microbial carbon use efficiency  
17 (mCUE), which is sensitive to soil nutrients and plant inputs. Here, we investigate the effect  
18 of two perennial forage crops on mCUE in four weathered Ethiopian soils.

19 *Methods:* We cultivated the grass *Urochloa* cv. Cayman as single stand and in mixture with  
20 the legume *Desmodium intortum* in a fully factorial greenhouse experiment with four distinct  
21 farmers' soils from the Ethiopian Rift Valley (Amhara and Sidama). Microbial CUE was  
22 assessed after 104 days of plant growth using <sup>18</sup>O-H<sub>2</sub>O incorporation.

23 *Results:* Microbial CUE varied between the four soils, with Amhara soils showing lower  
24 mCUE than Sidama soils. Overall, mCUE was little affected by plant growth but increased  
25 significantly with plant dry weight (DW) in one of the two Sidama soils. Mass specific  
26 growth rates remained small in Amhara soils, indicating that factors other than plant C input  
27 inhibited microbial growth. Plant composition had no effect in Amhara soils while the  
28 *Urochloa* × *Desmodium* mixture tended to have lower mCUE in Sidama soils.

29 *Conclusions:* Perennials may improve mCUE in weathered soils, but this stimulation strongly  
30 depends on soil nutrient availability and suggests that there are critical nitrogen (N) and  
31 phosphorous (P) thresholds below under which mCUE does not respond to growing plants.



- 32 This implies that highly degraded soils must be ameliorated before using perennials to  
33 stimulate nutrient cycling and restore soil health.



## 34 **1. Introduction**

35 Soils store vast amounts of carbon (C) and can sequester additional C from the atmosphere  
36 (Dynarski et al., 2020). In sub-Saharan Africa, many soils are severely weathered and limited  
37 in nutrients due to intensive farming practices, overgrazing and little return of crop residues,  
38 highlighting the need to develop ameliorative land management practices (FAO, 2019;  
39 Gebreselassie et al., 2016). Plant based approaches, particularly the targeted use of perennial  
40 mixtures in crop rotations, have been demonstrated to provide multiple benefits by reducing  
41 soil erosion and building soil organic carbon (SOC) over time (Fornara and Tilman, 2008;  
42 Fry et al., 2026). However, the stabilization and fate of plant C in soils largely depend on the  
43 activity and growth dynamics of soil microbial communities (Malik et al., 2019; Ziegler and  
44 Billings, 2011), which also play a key role in soil nutrient cycling.

45 Plant C entering the soil is processed through a microbial loop of growing and decaying  
46 microbial cells allocating decomposed C to either microbial biomass, respired CO<sub>2</sub> or  
47 exoenzyme synthesis. The proportion of C that is assimilated into microbial biomass relative  
48 to the amount lost by respiration is defined as the apparent microbial carbon use efficiency  
49 (mCUE) (Sinsabaugh et al., 2013). Higher mCUE values reflect relatively more allocation of  
50 C to microbial biomass, which can be interpreted as microbial growth (Spohn et al., 2016).  
51 Upon cell death, necromass is formed which is prone to stabilization on mineral and metal  
52 oxide surfaces, thus increasing the soil SOC content (Zhou et al., 2023). Strategies aimed at  
53 increasing mCUE can therefore increase sequestration of atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> as soil organic  
54 carbon (SOC).

55 Microbial CUE has been shown to be positively influenced by microbial growth (Zheng et  
56 al., 2019). Soil properties that inhibit microbial growth, such as limited nitrogen (N) and  
57 phosphorous (P) availability, elevated aluminum (Al), low pH and fine soil texture can  
58 therefore reduce CUE (Cotrufo et al., 2013; Jones et al., 2019). Also, microbial community  
59 composition affects CUE, as copiotrophic microorganisms tend to have a lower CUE than  
60 oligotrophic ones (Malik et al., 2019). Under optimal conditions, the theoretical maximum  
61 mCUE is 0.88, accommodating for an inherent respiratory loss of ~12 % of C taken up  
62 (Gommers et al., 1989). However, such values are rarely achieved in natural systems. In  
63 multi-resource limited environments, mCUE values are closer to 0.3, as microbial  
64 communities prioritize maintenance metabolism over growth. In these scenarios, a substantial  
65 proportion of microbial C and N has to be allocated to nutrient acquisition, which is



66 energetically costly (Sinsabaugh et al., 2013). Empirical studies have demonstrated that N  
67 and P additions increase mCUE by promoting microbial C incorporation without a  
68 corresponding increase in respiration (Poeplau et al., 2019; Spohn et al., 2016). Increased  
69 nutrient availability generally improves mCUE by reducing microbial investment in  
70 exoenzyme synthesis and redirecting resources to microbial growth (Manzoni et al., 2012;  
71 Sinsabaugh et al., 2013).

72 In extensive crop production, plant mediated approaches instead of fertilizer inputs may  
73 provide an alternative way to ameliorate soils. For instance, increasing plant species diversity  
74 has been shown to increase soil C and N in the long run (Fornara and Tilman, 2008), with  
75 SOC content being positively correlated with microbial biomass C ( $C_{mic}$ ) (Prommer et al.,  
76 2020). In terms of mCUE, the C:N ratio of plant residues may play a critical role; low C:N  
77 residues such as from legumes are associated with high mCUE, apparently because they  
78 relieve co-limitation of N for microbial growth. More generally, increasing plant C and N  
79 input into soil by intercropping perennials may lead to priming, i.e. increased microbial  
80 decomposition of native SOC, which promotes microbial growth and mCUE, thereby  
81 balancing the loss of SOC (Kuzyakov, 2010; Manzoni et al., 2012). Likewise, co-cultivation  
82 of plants with complementary growth traits in mixtures may have positive side effects on  
83 microbial growth and mCUE as mixtures may overyield, develop more roots and stimulate C  
84 and N inputs and cycling (Fornara and Tilman, 2008; Zhang et al., 2021). The suitability of  
85 mCUE as a sensitive indicator for monitoring belowground effects of plants on microbial  
86 nutrient status, functioning and soil health in degraded soils remains to be tested.

87 We conducted a fully factorial greenhouse experiment to test the effects of two forage species  
88 on mCUE in four weathered Ethiopian soils. We grew the native grass *Urochloa* hybrid cv.  
89 Cayman in single stands and in mixture with the non-native legume *Desmodium intortum* in  
90 four soils collected from four farmers' training centers (FTCs) situated in two  
91 pedoclimatically contrasting regions of the Ethiopian Rift Valley (Amhara and Sidama  
92 region). We hypothesized that (i) mCUE and its response to plant inputs would strongly  
93 depend on initial soil properties with limited response in highly nutrient poor soils, (ii)  
94 legume inclusion would increase mCUE by relieving N co-limitation and (iii) plant functional  
95 diversity would exert a greater influence on mCUE than overall plant biomass.



## 96 **2. Materials and Methods**

### 97 2.1 Experimental sites and soils

98 Soils were collected from four Farmers' Training Centers (FTCs) in Ethiopia, which are  
99 managed jointly by local farmers and extension services. All soils were highly weathered  
100 acidic and nutrient poor (Table 1). In Sidama (Southern Ethiopia), soils were collected at  
101 Boricha (1837 m.a.s.l.) and Bilate (1819 m.a.s.l.), and in Amhara (Northern Rift Valley) at  
102 Kudmi (1983 m.a.s.l.) and Abiyot Fana (2043 m.a.s.l.). Mean annual rainfall and temperature  
103 in the Sidama region are 650 to 960 mm and 22 °C to 30 °C, respectively, and in the Amhara  
104 region 1500 to 2200 mm and 24 °C to 27 °C. All fields were under maize cultivation with a  
105 fertilizer application of 64 kg urea N ha<sup>-1</sup> and 20 kg ha<sup>-1</sup> P as di-ammonium phosphate (DAP).  
106 Soils for the greenhouse experiment were sampled in June 2021 at all four sites from a depth  
107 of 0-25 cm. Five composite soil samples, consisting of 5-8 subsamples each, were taken per  
108 field site, one from each quarter and one from the center of the field. Larger roots and stones  
109 were removed, and the soil was air-dried before sending it to the Norwegian University of  
110 Life Science for the greenhouse experiment.

### 111 2.2 Greenhouse experiment

112 The soil samples were air dried and shipped to Norway, where pooled soils from the same  
113 site and sieved (2 mm). We used slightly conical 1 L pots with a height of 11 cm and a rim  
114 diameter of 13 cm. A filter cloth and a 1 cm sterile sand layer were placed in the bottom to  
115 allow for free drainage of excess water. The pots were filled with ~1 L of dry soil which was  
116 rewetted to field capacity and left to preincubate for 48 h before we sowed the seeds directly  
117 into the pots. We used two plant species in the experiment; the native grass *Urochloa* and the  
118 non-native legume *D. intortum* in two different treatments: either as *Urochloa* single stands  
119 or *Urochloa* × *Desmodium* mixture. The *Urochloa* seeds were obtained from Tropical seeds,  
120 LLC (Papalotla group, Mexico) and the *D. intortum* seeds from the Alliance Biodiversity &  
121 CIAT (Kenya). With four soils, two plant treatments and five replicates, a total of 40 pots  
122 were set up. Ten seeds were sown per pot in a pentagram shape to ensure good spatial  
123 distribution. For the grass-legume mixture, five seeds of each species were sown evenly  
124 distributed across the pot surface. Four extra pots with only soil (one per site) were prepared  
125 as unplanted controls. The pots were placed in a greenhouse with a day/night light cycle of  
126 16/8h and a temperature cycle of 25/15°C. The placement of the pots was reshuffled every  
127 4.5 weeks. The pots were watered daily with 40 mL tap water using an automatic drip



128 Table 1. Chemical and physical characteristics of the four soils used in the greenhouse experiment. pH, organic C, total N and C:N ratio are given as average and standard  
 129 deviation (SD) based on a sample size of n = 5

| Site        | pH           | %                |                  |             | mg kg <sup>-1</sup> |      |      |      | cmol kg <sup>-1</sup> |      |           | %    |      |  | Soil type |  |
|-------------|--------------|------------------|------------------|-------------|---------------------|------|------|------|-----------------------|------|-----------|------|------|--|-----------|--|
|             |              | C <sub>org</sub> | N <sub>tot</sub> | C:N ratio   | P                   | Al   | CEC  | Sand | Silt                  | Clay | Sand      | Silt | Clay |  |           |  |
| Amhara      |              |                  |                  |             |                     |      |      |      |                       |      |           |      |      |  |           |  |
| Kudmi       | 5.53 ± 0.17  | 2.64 ± 0.15      | 0.243 ± 0.017    | 10.9 ± 0.32 | 1.30                | 930  | 33.4 | 7.00 | 46.7                  | 46.3 | Silt Clay |      |      |  |           |  |
| Abiyot Fana | 5.26 ± 0.092 | 2.10 ± 0.11      | 0.188 ± 0.015    | 11.2 ± 0.38 | 1.00                | 1200 | 36.4 | 10.7 | 66.3                  | 23.0 | Silt Loam |      |      |  |           |  |
| Sidama      |              |                  |                  |             |                     |      |      |      |                       |      |           |      |      |  |           |  |
| Boricha     | 6.26 ± 0.10  | 2.17 ± 0.22      | 0.183 ± 0.024    | 11.9 ± 0.36 | 15.0                | 640  | 48.5 | 36.6 | 54.4                  | 9.00 | Silt Loam |      |      |  |           |  |
| Bilate      | 6.20 ± 0.041 | 1.82 ± 0.11      | 0.155 ± 0.011    | 11.8 ± 0.29 | 16.0                | 580  | 37.3 | 41.7 | 49.0                  | 9.30 | Loam      |      |      |  |           |  |



130 watering system regulated by a self-built PLS system controlling a water pump (SIP SUB  
131 1075-FS, SIP industrial, England).

### 132 2.3 Sample collection

133 The plants were cut 104 days after sowing 1 cm above the soil and dried at 60°C for 48 hours  
134 before weighing them. Soil samples were taken in the center of the pot down to the sand layer  
135 with a spoon. The soil was sieved with a 2 mm mesh size and stored at 4°C in the dark before  
136 further analysis.

### 137 2.4 Laboratory analysis

138 We determined soil water content (WC) by weight difference after drying the soils at 60°C  
139 for 48 h. All samples were adjusted to 30% gravimetric soil moisture before analyzing them.

#### 140 2.4.1 Respiration

141 We measured soil respiration by weighing soil equivalent to 1 g dry weight (DW) into 10 mL  
142 vials (Chromacol) closed with crimp-sealed butyl rubber septa. The vials were flushed five  
143 times with synthetic air (21 vol% O<sub>2</sub> and 79 vol% N<sub>2</sub>). After releasing over-pressure, the vials  
144 were left to incubate for 24 h at room temperature (22 °C) before measuring CO<sub>2</sub> headspace  
145 concentration by a gas-chromatograph (GC model 7890A, Agilent, USA). CO<sub>2</sub> production  
146 was calculated as CO<sub>2</sub>-C g<sup>-1</sup> h<sup>-1</sup>.

#### 147 2.4.2 Microbial biomass C

148 We assessed microbial biomass C ( $C_{mic}$ ) by chloroform fumigation-extraction (Brookes et al.,  
149 1982). Four grams of soil adjusted to 30% gravimetric soil moisture were weighed into  
150 aluminum cups and placed in a desiccator together with 25 mL of chloroform in a beaker. The  
151 desiccator was evacuated three times to enrich the atmosphere with chloroform and left in the  
152 dark to incubate for 24 h. After pumping away excess chloroform, the soils were transferred  
153 to Falcon tubes and suspended in 20 mL of 0.5 mol L<sup>-1</sup> K<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>. The tubes were shaken  
154 horizontally for 1 h. Parallel to the fumigation, non-fumigated samples were prepared  
155 following the same procedure. The samples were filtered through Schleicher & Schuell paper  
156 filters, and the concentration of dissolved organic carbon (DOC) was measured on a TOC  
157 analyzer (TOC Vcph/ CPN, Shimadzu, Japan).  $C_{mic}$  was calculated as the difference of DOC  
158 concentration between the fumigated and non-fumigated sample. A conversion factor of 0.45  
159 was used (Joergensen, 1996).

#### 160 2.4.3 <sup>18</sup>O-labelling and DNA extractions

161 To estimate microbial carbon use efficiency (mCUE), we used the <sup>18</sup>O labeling method as



162 devised by Spohn et al., (2016). In short, we weighed 300 mg DW equivalent of each soil  
163 into 1 mL Cryotubes (Nunc A/S, Denmark). Two replicates of each sample were prepared,  
164 one to be labelled with  $^{18}\text{O}$  and one to remain non-labeled. Based on the targeted gravimetric  
165 water content of 30%, we added different amounts of a 97 at%  $^{18}\text{O}$  stock solution to reach 20  
166 at%  $^{18}\text{O}$  enrichment in the soil solution. The non-labeled control soil received an equivalent  
167 amount of  $\text{DI-H}_2\text{O}$ . The vials were sealed with a screw cap and incubated at room  
168 temperature (22 °C). After 24 h, the samples were snap frozen in liquid  $\text{N}_2$  and stored in a -80  
169 °C freezer until DNA-extraction.

170 To maximize the amount of extracted DNA we added 40 mg of skimmed milk powder to  
171 restrict binding of DNA to clay particles (Yankson and Steck, 2009). DNA was extracted  
172 from both labelled and non-labelled samples using the DNeasy PowerSoil Pro Kit (QIAGEN,  
173 Germany) following the standard protocol with the following modifications: the cell lysing  
174 was extended to  $2 \times 40$  seconds on a tissue lyser with a 5-minute rest on ice between the  
175 cycles and the subsequent centrifugation step was extended to 15 min. Elution was done with  
176  $2 \times 50$   $\mu\text{L}$  elution buffer. DNA concentration was quantified using a Qubit dsDNA high  
177 sensitivity assay (Invitrogen, USA). 60  $\mu\text{L}$  of the eluate was transferred to silver capsules and  
178 dried at 60 °C for 12 h. To keep the DNA dry until  $^{18}\text{O}$  analysis, the capsules were stored in a  
179 desiccator.

180 The  $^{18}\text{O}$  isotope ratios of labelled and non-labelled DNA extracts were analyzed at Norway's  
181 National Light Stable Isotope Facility, FARLAB, at the University of Bergen (UiB) by  
182 pyrolyzing the DNA extract using a Thermo Fisher Scientific Flash 2000-HT PLUS element  
183 analyzer (USA) coupled to an isotope ratio mass spectrometer (IRMS, Delta V PLUS,  
184 Thermo Fisher scientific, USA). Certified standards of benzoic acid and barium sulfate were  
185 used for scale correction. All data were drift and size corrected.

## 186 2.5 Calculations

187 Following Schroeder et al., (2021), newly produced DNA was calculated as

$$188 \quad \text{DNA}_{\text{produced}} = \text{DNA O} \times \frac{\text{DNA}^{18}\text{O}}{\text{E}\%} \times \frac{100}{31.21} \quad (1)$$

189 where DNA O is the amount of O in the DNA elution buffer,  $\text{DNA}^{18}\text{O}$  the at%  $^{18}\text{O}$  excess of  
190 the labelled sample, E% the  $^{18}\text{O}$  enrichment in the soil solution and 31.21 the average weight  
191 % of O in DNA ( $\text{C}_{39}\text{H}_{44}\text{O}_{24}\text{N}_{14}\text{P}_4$ ). Microbial growth was calculated from  $\text{DNA}_{\text{produced}}$  and  
192 measured  $C_{\text{mic}}$  as



193 
$$C_{\text{growth}} = \frac{\text{DNA}_{\text{produced}} \times f_{\text{DNA}}}{\text{g soil} \times \text{time}} \quad (2)$$

194 where  $f_{\text{DNA}}$  is a conversion factor calculated from each sample as  $C_{\text{mic}}$  ( $\mu\text{g C g}^{-1}$  DW soil)  
195 per total DNA ( $\mu\text{g g}^{-1}$  DW soil) derived from fumigation extraction and Qubit measurements,  
196 respectively. Finally, microbial carbon use efficiency was calculated as

197 
$$\text{mCUE} = \frac{C_{\text{growth}}}{C_{\text{growth}} + C_{\text{respiration}}} \quad (3)$$

198 We also calculated the mass specific growth rate as described by Schroeder et al., (2021) by  
199 normalizing  $\text{DNA}_{\text{produced}}$  by total DNA:

200 
$$\text{Mass specific growth rate} = \frac{\text{DNA}_{\text{produced}} \times \frac{24}{t}}{\text{total DNA}} \quad (4)$$

## 201 2.6 Statistics

202 We tested the effect of plant treatments, soils and their interactions on mCUE and mass  
203 specific growth by two-way ANOVA separately for each response variable ( $C_{\text{mic}}$ , respiration,  
204 mCUE, mass specific growth rate). Statistical differences between treatments were assessed  
205 by TukeyHSD. For the effect of plant biomass on  $C_{\text{mic}}$ , respiration, mCUE and mass specific  
206 growth rate, we performed linear regressions. All statistics were done in Rstudio v 4.5.1  
207 (Posit team, 2025).

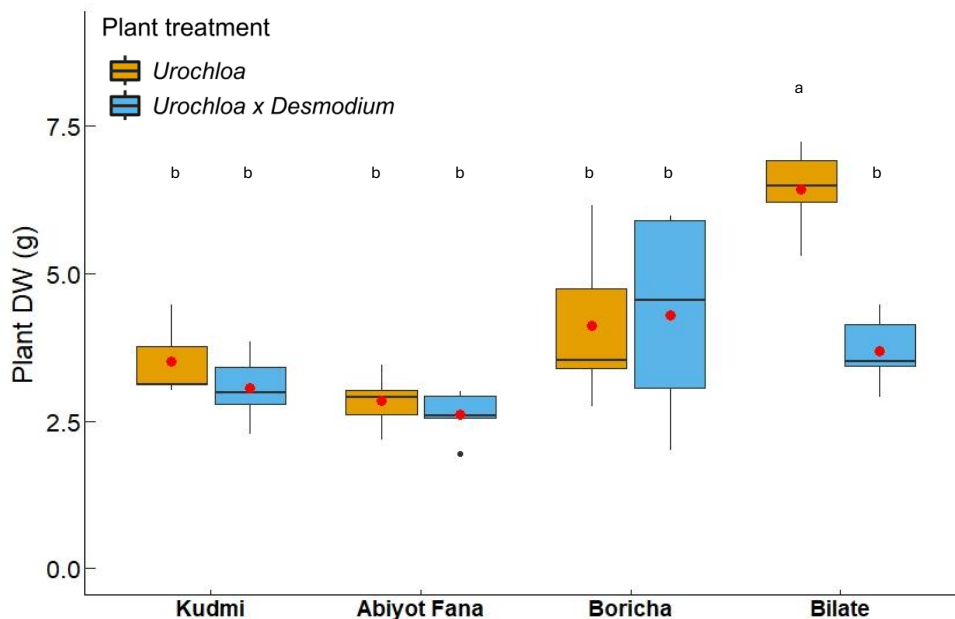


208 **3. Results**

209 **3.1 Plant growth**

210 Aboveground dry weight (DW) biomass differed significantly between the four soils but was  
 211 more similar between soils from the same region ( $p = <0.001$ ) (Fig. 1). In general, soils from  
 212 Amhara produced less biomass than soils from Sidama. Biomass was lowest in soil from  
 213 Abiyot Fana in Amhara and largest in soil from Bilate in Sidama. There were no significant  
 214 differences in plant dry weight between single stands and mixtures, except for Bilate soil,  
 215 which supported more growth of *Urochloa* in single stand than in mixture with *Desmodium*  
 216 ( $p = 0.010$ ). The *Urochloa* single stand in Bilate soil had the highest observed biomass among  
 217 all plant treatments.

218



219

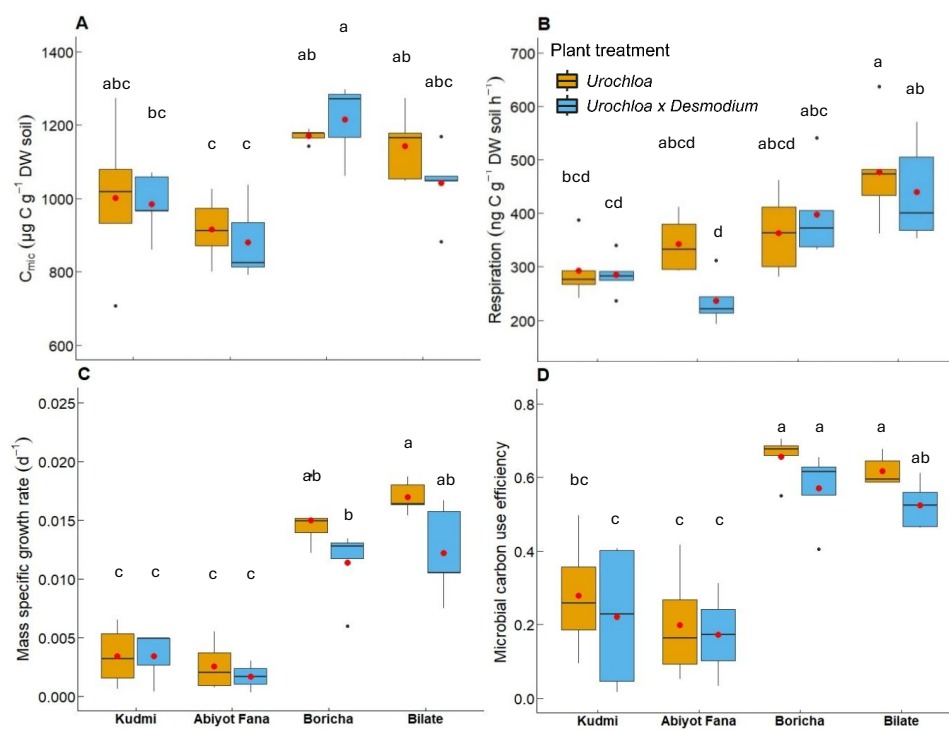
220 Figure 1. Total dry weight (DW) aboveground biomass per of *Urochloa* single stands and *Urochloa* ×  
 221 *Desmodium* mixtures after 104 d of growth in soils from Kudmi and Abiyot Fana (Amhara) and Boricha and  
 222 Bilate (Sidama). The boxes show upper and lower quartiles with horizontal lines indicating the median. The  
 223 vertical lines represent the minimum and maximum values and the dots outliers. The red dots represent the  
 224 arithmetic mean. Different letters indicate statistically significant differences between the treatments and soils.  
 225 Each box is calculated with a sample size of  $n = 5$ .

226 **3.2 Microbial C and soil respiration**

227  $C_{mic}$  varied significantly between the soils ( $p = <0.001$ ) (Fig. 2A) with larger values in  
 228 Sidama soils, specifically Boricha and smaller values in Amhara soils, especially Abiyot



229 Fana. On a single pot basis,  $C_{mic}$  correlated positively with plant DW in Boricha ( $p = 0.015$ )  
 230 and Bilate ( $p = 0.016$ ) soils (Fig. 3A). However, there was no significant effect of plant  
 231 treatments on  $C_{mic}$  in any of the soils.



232

233 Figure 2. Effects of plant treatments on soil microbial variables: (A) microbial biomass C ( $C_{mic}$ ), (B) respiration  
 234 rate, (C) mass specific growth rate, and (D) microbial carbon use efficiency (mCUE). Each box in the plot  
 235 shows the upper and lower quartiles, with horizontal lines indicating the median values. The vertical lines  
 236 represent the minimum and maximum values, and dots indicate outliers. The red dots represent the arithmetic  
 237 mean. Different letters indicate statistically significant differences between the treatments and soils. Each box is  
 238 calculated with a sample size of  $n = 5$ .

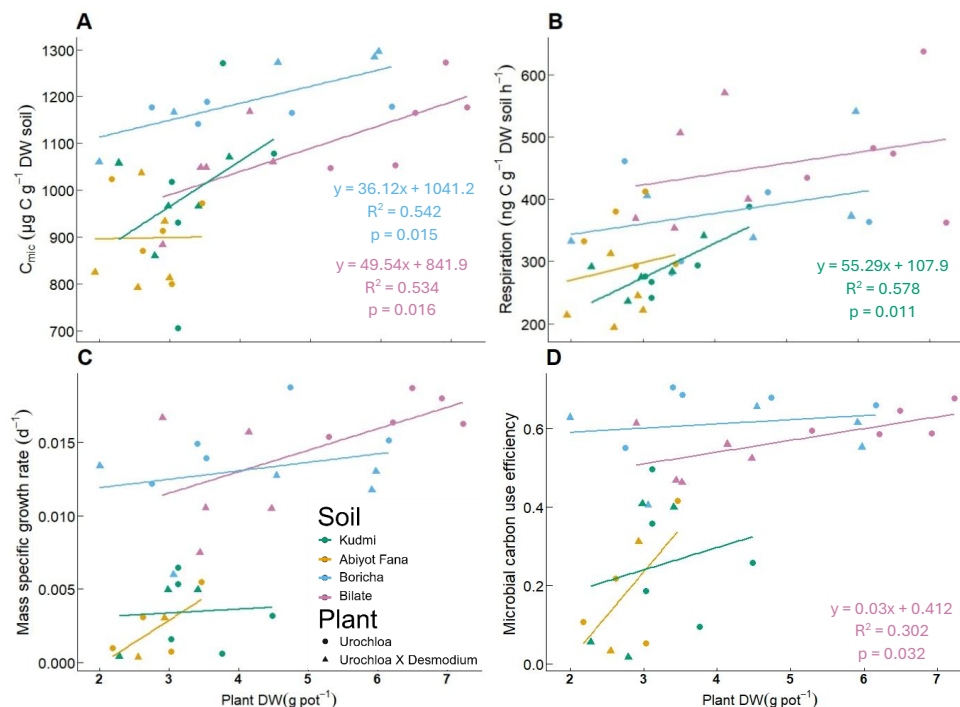
239 Soil respiration was significantly lower in Amhara than Sidama soils ( $p < 0.001$ ). Lowest  
 240 rates were recorded for Abiyot Fana soil, and highest for Bilate soil (Fig. 2B). Soil respiration  
 241 was not related to plant DW, except for Kudmi soil in which  $C_{mic}$  correlated positively with  
 242 plant DW ( $p = 0.010$ ) (Fig. 3B). Statistically, soil respiration was unaffected by plant  
 243 composition, but there was a significant difference between the two plant treatments in  
 244 Abiyot Fana, with soil from the *Urochloa* × *Desmodium* mixture having a lower respiration  
 245 rate than the *Urochloa* single stand ( $p = 0.010$ ).

### 246 3.3 Mass specific growth rate and mCUE

247 Values of  $\delta$ DNA varied between the soils, with Abiyot Fana having the highest and Kudmi the



248 lowest amount of  $C_{mic}$  per unit DNA extracted (Fig. 4), indicating differences in DNA  
 249 extraction efficiency. However, these differences could not explain differences in mass  
 250 specific growth rates which were significantly smaller in Amhara than Sidama soils ( $p =$   
 251  $<0.001$ ) (Fig. 2C). There was no correlation between plant DW and mass specific growth rate  
 252 in either soil (Fig. 3C). Plant composition had a significant effect, with *Urochloa* in single  
 253 stand tending to support larger mass specific growth rates ( $p = 0.005$ ), which was most  
 254 pronounced in Sidama soils. However, this effect was significant in Bilate soil only ( $p =$   
 255  $0.032$ ).



256

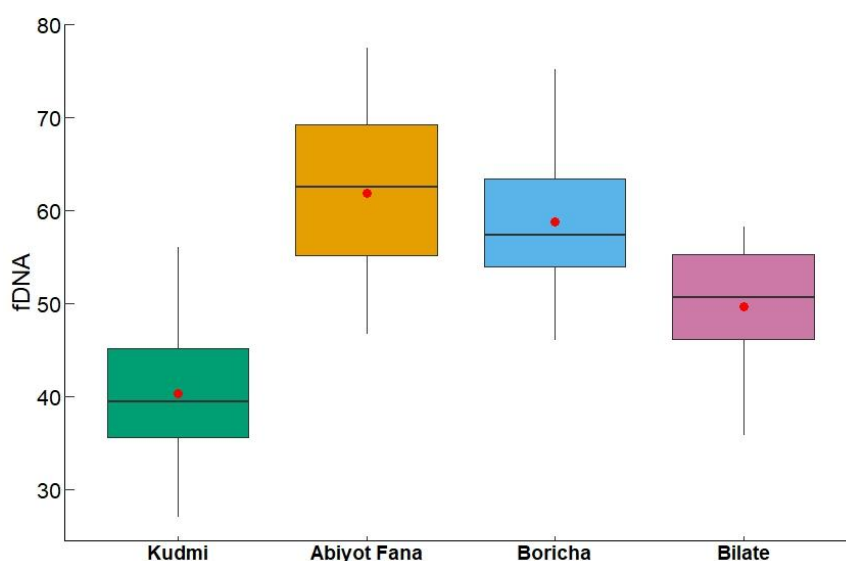
257 Figure 3. Linear regressions of (A) microbial biomass C ( $C_{mic}$ ), (B) respiration, (C) mass specific growth rate  
 258 and (D) microbial carbon use efficiency (mCUE) with plant dry weight (DW) in the four soils.

259

260 The mean mCUE of the four soils was  $0.25 \pm 0.17$  in Kudmi soil,  $0.19 \pm 0.15$  in Abiyot Fana  
 261 soil,  $0.61 \pm 0.09$  in Boricha soil and  $0.57 \pm 0.07$  in Bilate soil (Fig. 2D). Microbial CUE  
 262 varied significantly between the soils ( $p = <0.001$ ), with lower values for Amhara than  
 263 Sidama soils. Analyzed separately for each soil, mCUE was unaffected by plant DW, except  
 264 for Bilate soil in which mCUE increased significantly with plant DW ( $p = 0.032$ ) (Fig. 3D).  
 265 The mCUE did not show any significant difference with plant composition in Kudmi, Abiyot



266 Fana and Boricha soil. In Bilate soils, mCUE was significantly higher in *Urochloa* single  
267 stands than in mixtures ( $p = 0.025$ ). A similar trend was observed in Boricha soil. We were  
268 unsuccessful in determining mCUE in the four control soils without plants, as  $^{18}\text{O}$   
269 incorporation was indiscernible from the non-labelled samples in all four soils, resulting in  
270 partly negative mCUE values. The control soils were therefore omitted from the statistical  
271 analyses.



272

273 Figure 4. The conversion factor  $f\text{DNA}$  ( $C_{\text{mic}}/\text{DNA}$ ) for the four soils. Different letters indicate statistically  
274 significant differences between the treatments. Each box in the plot shows the upper and lower quartiles, with  
275 horizontal lines indicating the median values and the red dot the arithmetic mean. Each box is calculated with a  
276 sample size of  $n = 10$  (5 replicate pots and two technical replications).

277



278 **4. Discussion**

279 4.1 Soil specific variations in plant growth, microbial growth and mCUE

280 Initial soil properties affected plant growth performance, with plants grown in Sidama soils  
281 accumulating more biomass compared to plants in Amhara soils (Fig. 1). This difference  
282 reflects inherent differences in soil nutrient content; Sidama soils are less clay-rich, have a  
283 higher pH and hold more extractable P than Amhara soils (Table 1), making them the more  
284 fertile soils included in our study. We did not measure root biomass but the higher plant  
285 growth in Sidama soils may have increased root volume and length and hence the root-soil  
286 interface, making microbial communities in the Sidama soils more responsive to plant C  
287 inputs.

288 Organic C and total N contents were similar across the soils, as were their C:N ratios (Table  
289 1). It is therefore unlikely that microbial responses differed because of differences in soil  
290 parental C and N availability. The single most striking difference between the soils from the  
291 two regions was the difference in Melich III extractable phosphorous (P), which was 11 - 16  
292 times higher in Sidama than Amhara soils. A larger microbial P availability in Sidama soils  
293 may thus be key for a more balanced microbial nutrient status that would allow for more  
294 microbial growth in response to plant C input resulting in larger mCUE values (Wickander et  
295 al., 2026). Interestingly, differences in soil respiration (Fig. 2B) between the two regions  
296 appeared smaller than those for mCUE or mass specific growth rate (Fig. 2C), suggesting that  
297 mCUE across all four soils was more controlled by microbial growth than microbial activity.

298 Differences in soil texture may contribute to explaining the observed differences in mCUE.  
299 Amhara soils have higher clay and aluminum (Al) contents than Sidama soils. Clay may  
300 negatively impact microbial growth as it protects SOC from microbial attack so that more  
301 energy must be invested in extracellular enzyme synthesis which reduces both microbial  
302 growth and mCUE (Sinsabaugh et al., 2013). Others works reported higher mCUE in clay  
303 rich soils attributing this to more stabilization of microbial decomposition products and  
304 microbial necromass, which potentially lowers respiration (Angst et al., 2021; Cotrufo et al.,  
305 2013; Zhou et al., 2023). Our findings contradict this notion and point towards growth  
306 inhibition rather than reduced respiration as a regulating mechanism for mCUE in degraded  
307 Rift valley soils. In Amhara soils, additional factors may have reduced mCUE, such as low  
308 soil pH and Al toxicity (Jones et al., 2019).



309 4.2 Effect of plant growth and mixture on microbial growth and mCUE

310 We confirmed our first hypothesis that mCUE response to plant input would depend on initial  
311 soil properties. In Amhara soils, plant composition had no effect on mass specific microbial  
312 growth or mCUE (Fig. 2C, D). This suggests that the realized plant C and N input did not  
313 alleviate nutrient deficiencies in these soils. Mass specific growth rates remained small,  
314 suggesting that the ability of soil microbial communities to respond to plant C and N input by  
315 growth in Amhara soils was stoichiometrically constrained, most likely by their severe P  
316 deficiency (Cleveland and Liptzin, 2007; Manzoni et al., 2012). Conversely, in the more  
317 fertile Sidama soils, which has significantly higher mCUE values, we observed that mCUE  
318 was notably lower in the *Urochloa* × *Desmodium* mixture than in the grass single stand.  
319 Although this effect was significant in the Bilate soil only, we observed a similar tendency in  
320 the Boricha soil. This refutes our hypothesis that N input from legumes in the mixture would  
321 increase mCUE. N input from legumes typically enhances microbial growth and activity  
322 (Poeplau et al., 2019; Spohn et al., 2016), but this may not necessarily result in higher  
323 microbial C uptake with increased mCUE in degraded, P-limited soils. Moreover, the N input  
324 from legumes and the low C:N ratio in legume litter can potentially increase decomposition  
325 rates (Kuzyakov, 2010; Manzoni et al., 2012) by promoting copiotroph microbes which tend  
326 to have low mCUE (Malik et al., 2019). However, we did not observe higher respiration rates  
327 in *Urochloa* × *Desmodium* mixtures compared with grass single stands.

328 Several indirect effects of legumes may have added to the finding of lower mCUE in  
329 mixtures. Generally, legumes exude less photosynthetically derived C to the soil than non-  
330 legumes owing to the high energy demand of symbiotic N-fixation. Once soil N increases due  
331 to the presence of legumes, plant C allocation to roots and exudates is downregulated as more  
332 native soil N is available. This results in less C available for soil microbes, which may  
333 decrease decomposition rates and microbial growth (Prommer et al., 2020). This would be  
334 consistent with our observation of reduced mass specific growth rates in the *Urochloa* ×  
335 *Desmodium* mixtures in Sidama soils.

336 Together, this highlights stoichiometric controls as a strong driver for mCUE. Nutrient  
337 imbalances restrict microbial growth and incorporation of C into microbial biomass. In  
338 nutrient limited soils, microbes must therefore allocate more resources toward acquiring  
339 scarce nutrients. In a companion study with the same soils, we found increased investment in  
340 exoenzyme synthesis in the low N and P Amhara soils (Wickander et al., 2026), which could  
341 explain the low mCUE of these soils observed here. In general, more plant C must be



342 invested in maintenance metabolism in nutrient poor soils (Poeplau et al., 2019; Spohn et al.,  
343 2016), which is consistent with the low mCUE values found for Amhara soils in the present  
344 study. Enhanced utilization of plant C for maintenance respiration in Amhara soils is also  
345 supported by the low mass specific growth rates (Fig. 2C) and high  $C_{mic}$ -specific respiration  
346 relative to amount of  $C_{mic}$ , both of which result in low mCUE.

#### 347 4.3 Plant-soil interactions and mCUE

348 We could not confirm our second and third hypotheses that legume incorporation and plant  
349 diversity would increase mCUE; neither inclusion of legumes, nor plant biomass exhibited  
350 significant effects on mCUE, except for Bilate soil. While increased species diversity is well  
351 documented to increase soil C (Fornara and Tilman, 2008; Fry et al., 2026), our experiment  
352 has only two plant treatments (single stand and a mixture) grown over a 104-day period,  
353 which may not be sufficient to produce discernable effects on mCUE. Additionally, due to the  
354 failed  $^{18}O$ -incorporation in microbial DNA extracted from unplanted controls, we could not  
355 analyze plant effect on mCUE *per se*. Yet, this failure demonstrates the pivotal role of plants  
356 for driving soil microbial activity and growth in degraded subtropical soils, even on the short  
357 term, and opens for plant-based soil remediation.

358 Notably, we found a suppressing effect of *Urochloa* × *Desmodium* mixture on mCUE,  
359 suggesting that plant functional types play a role. Previous studies have found that mCUE is  
360 not affected by species richness, even in long term experiments, but is instead affected by  
361 plant functional type (Prommer et al., 2020). Together with the strong dependency on soil  
362 nutrient status described above, this suggests that mCUE is controlled by both soil nutrient  
363 availability and plant C input. The significant correlation between plant biomass and mCUE,  
364 observed in Bilate soil suggests that biomass may act as a driving factor for high mCUE if P  
365 is available. When soil nutrient conditions support plant growth, plant C and N inputs can  
366 create a positive feedback by enhancing microbial growth and mineralization, which in turn  
367 supports plant growth and stabilization of plant C as SOC with multiple benefits for soil  
368 health.

369



370 **5. Conclusions**

371 This study investigates the effects of grass single stands and grass-legume mixture on mCUE  
372 across four weathered Ethiopian soils. Our results show that mCUE varies greatly with  
373 regional soil differences, while functional plant types play a minor role. Notably, mCUE was  
374 nearly twice as high in Sidama soils, which were characterized by higher pH and P  
375 availability, supporting increased microbial growth and mCUE. Overall, the regulation of  
376 mCUE appeared to depend on microbial growth rather than metabolism. This highlights the  
377 pivotal role homeostatic nutrient supply has on microbial growth and in consequence on  
378 mCUE and implies that highly degraded sub-Saharan soils must be phosphorous amended  
379 before using forage plants in a targeted way to ameliorate soils.

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385 **Author contributions**

386 NJW performed the greenhouse experiment and carried out laboratory work, processed and  
387 analyzed the data and wrote the initial draft. PD conceived the study together with NJW and  
388 assisted in data interpretation and writing.

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393 **Competing interests**

394 The authors have no relevant financial or non-financial interests to disclose.

395 **Data availability**

396 The datasets generated during and/or analyzed under the current study are available at  
397 zenodo.org, <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.19821240>.



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