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Long-term zero-tillage enhances the protection of soil carbon in tropical agriculture

Running title: Long-term zero-tillage and soil carbon

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Highlights

- 1) Understanding the thermostability and carbon retention ability of aggregates under different tillage systems to ascertain potential terrestrial carbon storage
- 2) Characterised the thermostability of SOC within aggregate size classes under both zero and conventional tillage using novel Rock-Eval pyrolysis and quantified the pore system by X-ray Computed Tomography.
- 3&4) These data reveal profound effects of different tillage systems upon soil structural modification, with important implications for the potential of zero-tillage to increase carbon sequestration compared to conventional tillage.

Abstract

Contrasting tillage strategies not only affect the stability and formation of soil aggregates but also modify the concentration and thermostability of soil organic matter associated with soil aggregates. Understanding the thermostability and carbon retention ability of aggregates under different tillage systems is essential to ascertain potential terrestrial carbon storage. We characterised the concentration and thermostability of soil organic carbon (SOC) within various aggregate size classes under both zero and conventional tillage using novel Rock-Eval pyrolysis. The nature of the pore systems was visualised and quantified by X-ray Computed Tomography to link soil structure to organic carbon preservation and thermostability. Soil samples were collected from experimental fields in Botucatu, Brazil, which had been under zero-tillage for 2, 15 and 31 years, along with adjacent fields under conventional tillage.

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Soils under zero-tillage significantly increased pore connectivity whilst simultaneously decreasing inter-aggregate porosity, providing a potential physical mechanism for protection of soil organic carbon in the 0-20 cm soil layer. Changes in the soil physical characteristics associated with the adoption of zero-tillage resulted in improved aggregate formation compared to conventionally tilled soils, especially when implemented for at least 15 years. In addition, we identified a chemical change in composition of organic carbon to a more recalcitrant fraction following conversion to zero-tillage, suggesting aggregates were accumulating rather than mineralising soil organic carbon. These data reveal profound effects of different tillage systems upon soil structural modification, with important implications for the potential of zero-tillage to increase carbon sequestration compared to conventional tillage.

Introduction

The quantity of CO₂ released to the atmosphere from agricultural soils is mainly dependent on the rate of soil organic carbon (SOC) formation versus decomposition (Trumbore, 1997). Conventional agricultural practices, such as ploughing/conventional tillage accelerate the loss of SOC by increasing the oxygen concentration in the soil profile, destroying soil aggregates and exposing organic carbon for mineralisation (Liu et al., 2006). Zero-tillage, an agricultural practice which minimises soil disturbance, can increase soil aggregation and may preserve and/or accumulate soil organic carbon (Liu et al., 2006; Luo et al., 2010a; West and Post, 2002), which is critical to meet global targets for soil carbon sequestration (Minasny et al., 2017). However, results from studies on the impact of zero-tillage on soil carbon storage to date have been inconsistent, reporting both significant increases and decreases compared with conventional tillage following adoption depending on the methodology used (Luo et al., 2010b). For example, studies which consider the top 20 cm, show an increase in carbon storage in zero compared to conventional tillage. However, in those studies taking into account soil layers deeper than 30 cm, there has typically been no overall significant difference in soil organic carbon between zero and conventionally tilled soils (Baker et al., 2007).

Few studies have characterised the chemical composition and thermostability of organic carbon in long-term zero-tilled soils thus there remains a large gap in our understanding of the mechanisms which control carbon storage and determine future susceptibility to mineralisation or accumulation (Bongiorno et al., 2019; Sainepo et al., 2018). The dynamic processes involved in the transformation of organic matter are highly sensitive to environmental conditions. In wet sub-tropical regions, organic matter decomposes at an annual rate of approximately 3.2%, over three times faster than in temperate zones (1.0%) (Nogueirol et al., 2014). Changing from conventional tillage to zero-tillage alters the soil physical structure and influences the arrangement of solid particles (mineral and organic matter) and

pores in which microbial decomposers, gases and soluble compounds are located (Mangalassery et al., 2014). The interactions between the organic matter and decomposing microorganisms, or their enzymes, drives organic matter mineralisation at the micrometre scale. X-ray Computed Tomography (CT) offers a way to measure non-destructively the size and shape of the pores and their degree of connectivity, enabling assessment of the susceptibility of organic matter to mineralisation (Galdos et al., 2019).

Soil carbon sequestration potential depends on the level of aggregation. It has been hypothesised that zero-tillage increases not only the proportion of macroaggregates but also the quantity of microaggregates formed within macroaggregates (Six et al., 1999). Previous studies have shown that microaggregate formation within macroaggregates is crucial for long-term carbon sequestration, as microaggregates have a greater capacity to protect carbon from decomposition compared with macroaggregates (Coleman et al., 2007; Kumar et al., 2013). It is important not only to assess the quantity of organic carbon but also the lability within different aggregates. Turnover of labile organic matter occurs over intervals ranging from hours to years and is highly influenced by soil management practices, while stable organic matter turnover occurs on timescales ranging from decades to centuries (Feng et al., 2014). Both fractions can be found in aggregates of all sizes and contribute to the regulation of organic carbon storage duration (Bongiorno et al., 2019). Advances in analytical techniques now permits the detailed description of the structure of organic carbon. Rock-Eval pyrolysis has previously been used to characterise organic matter thermostability in forest soils (Soucémariadin et al., 2018), mountainous soils (Saenger et al., 2013) and tropical peatlands (Cooper et al., 2019; Girkin et al., 2019) but to date is rarely used in cropping-system soils under contrasting managements to understand carbon dynamics (Cécillon et al., 2018).

The aim of this study was to understand the relationship between soil physical protection of carbon in different aggregate size classes and identify the potential for further accumulation or release by assessing carbon thermostability under two contrasting agricultural systems. We hypothesise that (i) the minimised mechanical disturbance associated with zero-tillage will allow regeneration of the soil porous architecture over time and increase soil porosity through the development of continuous pores and (ii) this will increase stable macroaggregates under long-term zero-tilled soils, (iii) there will be a greater fraction of microaggregates formed within macroaggregates as the rate of macroaggregate formation and degradation is reduced under zero-tillage and (iv) zero-tilled aggregates will contain more organic carbon than conventionally tilled aggregates, with an increase in the “labile” proportion,

as characterised by its thermostability, due to a reduction in aggregate porosity therefore limiting microbial access.

Materials and methods

Sites and soil sample collection

Soil samples were collected in November 2017 from the experimental site of the São Paulo State University (UNESP) at Botucatu, São Paulo, Brazil (22°46'S, 48°25'W). The climate is classified as mesothermal with dry winters, and the dry season is well defined from May to September, with yearly average rainfall of 1450 mm, distributed typically between October and April. Soil samples were taken from six fields, of which three had been zero-tilled for different lengths of time and three paired conventionally tilled fields (details are outlined in Table 1 and Figure 1). Zero-tilled soils had been managed this way for 2 (field 6), 15 (field 2) and 31 (field 4) years, whereas the conventionally tilled soils were subjected to annual mechanical turnover to a depth of 15-20 cm in fields 1 and 3, and to a depth of 10-15 cm in field 5. Below is a description of the management for the experimental fields:

Field 1: Tillage operations were carried out with disc plough plus disc harrow at 15-20 cm deep layer. Maize was grown in the spring/summer (November through March/April), and triticale in the autumn/winter (April through to August).

Field 2: Before 1997 the field was cultivated in a conventional tillage system for soybean and maize production. In 1997 zero-tillage was established and the crop rotation soybean/black oats/maize/triticale was used until 2002. From 2003-2018, soybean was grown in the spring/summer (November through to March/April), followed by triticale in the autumn/winter (April through to August).

Field 3 and 4: The experimental field is part of a long-term study of conventional tillage and zero-tillage systems which began in 1985. In the conventionally tilled field, the tillage was undertaken every year with disc plough plus disc harrow at 15-20 cm deep layer. For both fields (3 and 4) the cropping history was the same and included wheat, black oats, yellow oats, maize, pearl millet, dry beans, brachiaria grass and safflower in the autumn/winter growing season, followed by maize and soybean in spring/summer growing season.

Field 5 and 6: These fields were part of an experiment where maize is grown intercropped with palisade grass. The area had been fallowed for many years before the experiment with a stand of mixed grasses. Maize was fertilized annually with 180 kg ha⁻¹ of N, 53 kg ha⁻¹ of P and 100 kg ha⁻¹ of K. From each field (Figure 1), employing simple randomised sampling, six intact soil cores (5 cm diameter × 30 cm depth) were collected with a manual core sampler that used transparent sample liner tubes (Van Walt Lts, Haslemere, UK) suitable for X-ray Computed Tomography imaging. The soil cores were first

sealed with paraffin wax at the top and bottom to prevent movement during transit and then shipped to The University of Nottingham where all samples were stored at 4°C until analysis (within two weeks). To account for changes in bulk density between managements, soil samples were collected to a depth of 50 cm at 4 cm increments using a stainless-steel cutting cylinder (7 cm diameter × 4 cm height). Two cores were collected (0-4 cm and 1-5 cm) and a mean calculated. Simultaneously, sub-samples of bulk soil samples were collected at each increment for measurements of soil organic carbon, aggregate size distribution and soil moisture content.

X-ray Computed Tomography

Following sealing, samples were transported to the Hounsfield Facility at the University of Nottingham for X-ray CT scanning. Prior to this, a pilot study had been conducted which involved preserving the samples as described here and then transporting them for X-ray CT scanning initially in Brazil and then again at the Hounsfield Facility in the U.K. This confirmed that the addition of paraffin wax was an excellent approach for preventing sample disturbance during transit. The method was subsequently utilised successfully in Galdos et al. (2019) prior to this study.

Soil cores were scanned using a Phoenix v|tome|x M scanner (GE Measurement and Control Solution, Wunstorf, Germany), which allowed visualisation and quantification of the soil porous architecture. Voxel resolution was set to 50 µm, with a potential energy of 160 kV and a current of 180 µA. Soil cores were scanned in three sections (i.e. depths), with a total scan time of 30 minutes per soil core. A total of 2998 image projections were captured for each core. After scanning, each soil core was dismantled into two depths, 0 – 20 cm and >20 cm and the soil passed through a series of sieves of 2, 0.25 and 0.053 mm aperture while subjected to horizontal shaking for four minutes at 250 rotations minute⁻¹. Three randomly selected aggregates, retained between the 2 and 0.25 mm sieve per core at each depth were scanned using a Phoenix Nanotom (GE Measurement and Control Solution, Wunstorf, Germany), where voxel resolution was 1.51 µm, with a potential energy set at 90 kV and a current of 65 µA. A total of 1440 projection images were collected with a total scan time per sample of 69 minutes. A longer scan time was required to achieve enhanced image quality at the higher resolution.

Scanned images were reconstructed at 32-bit using Phoenix Datos x 2 reconstruction software. Due to the irregularity of soil surface between cores, the first 50 image slices from the top of each soil core were excluded from analysis. Scanned images were optimised to correct for any movement of the sample during scan and noise was reduced using the beam hardening algorithm in Datos x 2, set at level

8. As a multi-scan routine was performed for the soil cores to enable a higher spatial resolution than scanning the whole column in a single scan with a larger field of view, VG StudioMax 2.2.5 was used to merge the three scans to obtain a single 3D volume for the complete core.

Image analysis

Initial image analysis of the soil pore morphology was performed using *Image J* (Schneider et al., 2012). A uniform region of interest (ROI) was defined for each soil core and aggregate; $50 \times 50 \times 50$ mm and $0.500 \times 0.650 \times 0.480$ mm, respectively, after scanning. Soil core ROIs were centrally positioned to limit inclusion of stones and any cracks that may have been introduced during the sampling procedure. Cubic ROIs for the aggregates were not possible because of their inconstant geometry, so the same ROI, the largest possible in all aggregates was chosen and the coordinates of these regions were adapted for each image volume/sequence. Once ROIs had been determined, several stages of image processing occurred; (i) cropping image volume to the ROI; (ii) enhancing the contrast/brightness by 0.35%; (iii) application of a 2-pixel median filter; (iv) converting the image volume to 8-bit format and (v) saving the new image volume. Pore morphology within the soil cores and individual aggregates were analysed using the bin bi-threshold approach by Vogel and Kretzschmar (1996) using the open source software QuantIm (<http://www.quantim/ufz.de/>). Measurements were taken for detectable porosity (referred to as total porosity), pore size distribution and pore connectivity. For a more detailed methodology please refer to Bacq-Labreuil et al., (2018).

Dry aggregate size distribution

Sub samples of 100 g of field moist soils were sieved with an 8 mm sieve, air dried and stored at room temperature. The samples were placed on top of a nest of sieves, comprising 4, 2, 0.250- and 0.053-mm. Aggregates were slowly separated by horizontal oscillations (150 rounds per minute) for 30 seconds. The aggregates remaining on each sieve were weighed and the dry mean weight diameter (dMWD) calculated:

$$dMWD = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i w_i ,$$

where w_i is the weight percentage of each aggregate size class with respect to the total sample and x_i is the mean diameter of each aggregate size class (van Bavel, 1950).

The proportion of microaggregate (0.053-0.250 mm) weight within macroaggregates (0.250-2 mm) was calculated following Six et al. (2000). In brief, macroaggregates (10 g) were immersed in deionised water on top of a 0.25 mm screen and gently shaken with 50 glass beads (dia. = 3 mm). Continuous and steady water flow through the mesh ensured that microaggregates were immediately flushed onto a 0.053 mm sieve. Sub-samples of the sieved aggregates and the microaggregates within macroaggregates (50 mg) were used for Rock-Eval pyrolysis.

Rock-Eval 6 pyrolysis

Rock-Eval pyrolysis is a technique used to trace changes in bulk organic matter composition and degree of decomposition (Disnar et al., 2003; Newell et al., 2016). It predicts soil carbon contents reliably and is an appropriate tool for assessing the vulnerability of soil organic carbon stocks to microbial degradation (Saenger et al., 2013; Soucémarianadin et al., 2018; Upton et al., 2018). Surface (0-20 cm) and subsurface (20-50 cm) soil samples were analysed using a Rock-Eval 6 analyser. Freeze-dried powdered soil samples (60 mg) were heated at 300 °C for three minutes before an increase in temperature to 650 °C at a rate of 25 °C per minute in an inert N₂ atmosphere. Residual carbon was subsequently oxidized from 300 °C to 850 °C at a rate of 20 °C per minute. The release of hydrocarbons during the two-stage pyrolysis process was detected by a flame ionisation detector, with an infrared cell detecting the release of CO and CO₂ during the thermal cracking of the organic matter. Rock-Eval analysis generated a range of standard parameters including:

- Total organic carbon (TOC_{RE}) is calculated from the sum of the carbon moieties (HC, CO and CO₂).
- The Hydrogen Index (HI mg HC g⁻¹ TOC), a measure of hydrocarbons released relative to TOC, was calculated from $S2 \times 100 / TOC_{RE}$.
- The Oxygen Index (OI mg O₂ g⁻¹ TOC), corresponding to the amount of oxygen released as CO and CO₂ relative to TOC_{RE}, was calculated from $S3 \times 100 / TOC_{RE}$.
- S2 (mg/g), free hydrocarbons released on the thermal cracking of organic matter for temperatures up to 850 °C.
- S3' (mg/g), CO and CO₂ derived from oxygen-containing moieties, generally dominated by carbohydrates and lignins.

Estimating carbon stocks

Total carbon of the bulk soil was determined from 20 mg of oven dried, ball milled soil combusted using a total element analyser (Flash EA 1112, CE Instruments, Wigan, UK). Soil carbon stocks were estimated by an equivalent soil mass (ESM) procedure using a cubic spline function to calculate stocks in multiple soil layers (Mg C ha^{-1}) within a defined area using several calculations which can be shown in Wendt and Hauser (2013). This method quantifies and corrects for the fixed depth error associated with calculating carbon stocks as the product of soil bulk density, depth and concentration.

Statistical analysis

All statistical analysis was performed using the R software (R version 3.4.1). If the residuals from fitted models did not appear consistent with a normal distribution, and showed any evidence of heteroscedasticity (with their variance increasing with the fitted value) then a Box-Cox transformation was applied, using the BOXCox procedure in the MASS package for the R platform (Venables and Ripley, 2002). A linear mixed model was fitted on all primary variables with management and as a fixed effect. Depth was also considered as a fixed effect for those variables where properties were measured for different depth increments within sample cores. Field and pair were random effects in all models. For those variables where measurements were made on different depth increments within a core, then core was also a random effect. The random effects were nested: (i) between-core (within field) which groups together observations within the same core (ii) between-field within pair which groups together observations in the same field (and so acknowledges that these are not independent randomizations of the treatments and (iii) between-pairs, which reflects the paired fields in each zone. Linear mixed models were fitted using the nlme package for the R platform (Pinheiro et al., 2014). The supplementary table shows outline analysis of variance tables for the different variables with the partition of degrees of freedom.

This study examines soil properties in paired fields from long-established trials. A limitation to this is that the length of time in which the zero-tilled paired field has been so-managed, which differs markedly between the pairs, and is not a replicated factor. The observations are therefore pseudo-replicated with respect to time, and effects of time contribute to the between-pair random effect. We therefore cannot make inferences about effect of length of time under zero tillage because this is confounded with other factors which may differ between the pairs. As time might have substantial effects, which might interact with the management and depth differences, this could result in heteroscedasticity. As noted above, evidence for heteroscedasticity was examined in the residuals of the fitted model, and data transformed, as necessary.

Results

Effect of management on soil pore structure

3D image assessment at core scale

There were several differences in soil pore characteristics between zero- and conventionally tilled fields (Fig 2). At the pore size class 0.19 mm there was a significant difference in pore size distribution between zero and conventionally tilled soils, whereby 20% of the total porosity in conventionally tilled soils was accounted for by pore size 0.19 mm compared to 14% of total porosity in zero-tilled soils ($F_{1,2} = 25.0$, $p=0.038$, Fig. 2a).

There was a significant difference in pore connectivity between zero and conventionally tilled managements at 0.06 and 0.11mm diameter ($F_{1,2} = 113.7$, $p=0.009$ and $F_{1,2} = 121.5$, $p=0.008$, respectively, Fig. 2b). Soils which had been in zero-tillage for 15 and 31 years had a higher degree of connected pores compared with soils than in the paired conventionally tilled fields. There was no significant difference in total porosity between zero- and conventionally-tilled fields ($F_{1,2} = 0.41$, $p = 0.587$). However, it is notable in Figure 2c that the mean porosity in the conventionally tilled field is markedly larger than in the zero-tilled field for the pair with zero-tillage for 2 years. There is little difference between the treatments with respect to porosity for the pair with 15 years under zero-till, and that porosity is notably larger in the field under zero-tillage for 31 years than its pair under conventional tillage. This is suggestive of an interaction between management and time in the effect on soil porosity, which we are unable to examine formally here because of the lack of true replication of treatments constituted by a factorial combination of these two factors.

Soil aggregate properties

There was no significant difference between the managements with respect to mean weight diameter (MWD) ($F_{1,2}=9.52$, $p=0.091$). However, there is evidence for a difference in MWD between the depth increments ($F_{4,136} = 19.71$, $p < 0.0001$). Furthermore, there was significant change in MWD with depth differs between the managements ($F_{4,136} = 76.18$, $p < 0.0001$). Figure 3a shows that under zero-tillage MWD is generally larger near the surface than at depth, while the converse is true under conventional tillage.

There was a significant difference in mM (the proportion of microaggregates within macroaggregates) between zero and conventionally tilled managements ($F_{1,2} = 28.0$, $p=0.034$, Fig. 3b). The proportion of

mM was largest at the sites that had been under zero-tillage for 15 and 31 years compared with their adjacent conventionally tilled soils.

3D image assessment at aggregate scale

Porosity in macroaggregates significantly differed between the two managements ($F_{1,2} = 20.8$, $p = 0.045$, Fig. 4a, b) with conventionally tilled macroaggregates having an average total porosity of 10.1% compared to 4.0% in zero-tilled macroaggregates. The porosity in macroaggregates decreased from 6% to 4% to 2% in macroaggregates that had been in zero-tillage for 2, 15 and 31 years, respectively.

There was no evidence for a difference in pore size distribution and cumulative pore size distribution between zero- and conventionally-tilled fields. Further, it is notable in Figure 4c that soil aggregates under zero-tillage for 15- and 31-years treatment had a larger percentage of the total porosity accounted for by smaller pores ($< 5.97 \mu\text{m}$) compared with conventionally tilled soils, where a larger percentage of total porosity was accounted for by larger pores ($> 11.83 \mu\text{m}$).

Effect of management on soil carbon storage

Land use effects on aggregate associated carbon

When we considered the cumulative soil carbon stock over all three depth increments, there was a significant difference between the treatments ($F_{1,2} = 20.67$, $p = 0.045$). Analysis of the components of the stock by depth increment showed a significant effect of depth ($F_{2,68} = 254.00$, $p < 0.0001$) and a significant interaction of treatment with depth, with the distribution of the soil carbon stock within the profile differing between the treatments ($F_{2,68} = 4.66$, $p = 0.013$).

Between the three aggregate size classes, there was no significant difference in TOC %.. However, it is notable in Figure 6a, that analysis of the components of TOC % by depth showed a significant effect of depth ($F_{1,16} = 121.10$, $p < 0.0001$) and a significant interaction of treatment with depth, the concentration of TOC % within the macroaggregates differs between the treatments ($F_{1,16} = 36.07$, $p < 0.0001$). In addition, in both microaggregate and microaggregates within macroaggregates there were a significant effect of depth ($F_{1,16} = 139.79$, $p < 0.0001$ and $F_{1,16} = 64.28$, $p < 0.0001$).

In surface aggregates (0-10 cm), the largest increase in TOC % was in 31 year zero-tilled soils, where TOC increased from 1.4% to 2.2% in the macroaggregates (Fig. 6a), from 1.4% to 2.1% in the microaggregates (Fig. 6b) and from 1.5% to 2.0% in the microaggregates formed within macroaggregates (Fig. 6c).

Influence of tillage methods on thermostability of soil organic carbon

When we considered the S2 values within the macroaggregates across tillage treatments, there was a significant difference ($F_{1,2} = 19.35$, $p=0.0480$). Similarly, the S3 values significantly differed between tillage practices in microaggregates ($F_{1,2} = 299.00$, $p=0.0033$).

Discussion

Influence of tillage management on soil structural properties

The absence of mechanical disturbance to invert topsoil increased soil surface bulk density and reduced soil porosity (Fig. 2c), when soils had been under zero-tillage for two years. Matula, (2003) and Romaneckas et al., (2009) also observed that a reduced soil porosity decreased water infiltration rates and noted a significantly lower root mass measured compared with conventionally tilled soils. The surface soil condition under zero-tillage can impede root development and the growth of the main root axes (Martínez et al., 2008).

However, in line with our first hypothesis, that ‘minimised mechanical disturbance associated with zero-tillage will regenerate the soil pore architecture through the development of continuous pores’, we show soil structure under long-term zero-tillage (15 and 31 years) improved considerably with a significant increase in soil porosity and pore connectivity (Fig. 2b, c). Galdos et al., (2019) also found that soil under zero-tillage for 30 years had larger connected pores than neighbouring conventionally tilled soils in Brazil. The absence of soil inversion and disturbance in zero-tilled systems increases bioturbation in which soil organisms, including microbes, rooting plants and burrowing animals alter the soil structure and contribute to the development of a system of continuous pores (Dignac et al., 2017; Piron et al., 2017).

A soil’s porosity, which influences the water holding capacity, gas exchange and microbial activity is usually greater under conventional tillage compared to those recently converted to zero-tillage (Skaalsveen et al., 2019). However, most similar studies generally consider only the topsoil, and do not include measurements below the plough layer (c. 25-30 cm). Our study considers the differences in soil structural properties down to 50 cm. Indeed, in recently converted zero-tilled soils (two years), the total porosity decreased by 7% in the top 50 cm, but after 31 years the total porosity was 13% greater than the paired conventionally tilled soils (Fig. 2c). It has been shown (Hangen et al., 2002, He et al., 2009) that long term zero-tilled soils can have much deeper percolation, due to more favourable conditions for burrowing soil animals providing deep vertical macropores, increasing the soil porosity. Our results demonstrate that soil structure regenerates under long-term zero-tillage and increases the connectivity of pores, which will impact root growth, water dynamics and soil gas fluxes.

Effect of tillage management on soil aggregate formation and structure

Changes in the soil physical characteristics associated with the adoption of zero-tillage generally resulted in improved aggregate formation, especially when implemented for at least 15 years across the soils we examined. Figure 3a shows the effect of different tillage systems on aggregate stability down

to 50 cm and supports our second hypothesis, that ‘zero-tillage will result in a greater number of stable macroaggregates, which will increase in long term zero-tilled soils’. In general, aggregates are considered ‘stable’ if the mean weight diameter is >1.3 mm and stable aggregates play a central role in protecting pools of carbon and nitrogen, providing microhabitats for microorganisms and are important in ensuring the soil is resilient against wind and water erosion (Blaud et al., 2017). Our results indicate that long-term zero-tillage improved aggregate stability in the top 50 cm compared with conventionally tilled soils (Fig. 3). It is likely this is through a reduction in soil disturbance as a result of discontinuing mechanical inversion and an increase in surface crop residue cover enhances the organic binding agents preventing soil erosion. In this study, it was observed in the conventionally tilled soils that the aggregates were considered either ‘unstable’ or ‘median/medium’ stability. The exposure of the soil surface in conventionally tilled soils results in aggregates breaking apart due to continuous drying and wetting cycles (Devine et al., 2014; Kou et al., 2012). However, the incorporation of crop residue into conventionally soils also promote aggregate stability (Zhang et al., 2020).

In contrast to results from the core scale, whereby porosity increased with time under zero-tillage (Fig. 2c), porosity decreased at the macroaggregate scale with time under zero-tillage (Fig. 4a, b). Very few studies have assessed the impact of zero-tillage at the aggregate scale, focussing primarily on the larger soil ‘core’ scale. A significant reduction in aggregate porosity would provide a crucial mechanism for soil macroaggregates to provide physical protection of organic matter by minimising microorganism mineralisation. On the other hand, the encapsulated organic carbon within these aggregates may slow any additional decomposition primarily due lack of microbial penetration into aggregates (Lehmann and Kleber, 2015). Fungi occur more abundantly in association with macroaggregates and differences in the microbial community compositions have not only been reported for different aggregate size fractions, but also for the aggregate interior versus exterior. This demonstrates that different-size aggregates and their opposing associated pore structures, nutrient availabilities and chemical conditions can favour some microbial groups over others (Kihara et al., 2012). In addition, zero-tillage is coupled with a reduction in macroaggregate turnover, thereby increasing the microbial abundance in large macroaggregates and the associated organic carbon (Six et al., 2000). Furthermore, zero-tillage can improve microbial growth by stabilising soil temperature and moisture, thereby supplying environmental conditions which promote both the abundance and diversity of fungi and bacteria and a favourable fungal:bacterial biomass ratio (Muñoz et al., 2008).

Effect of tillage management on aggregate associated soil organic carbon

Aggregates from zero-tilled soils had a larger TOC content compared with conventionally tilled aggregates (Fig. 6), supporting our fourth hypothesis, that 'zero-tilled aggregates contain more organic carbon than conventionally tilled aggregates'. During conventional tillage, the disruptive shearing breaks down soil aggregates (of any size class), and the organic material that was held within them is mineralised by microbial organisms eventually decreasing the organic carbon content of the soil. In addition, the smaller carbon content in conventionally tilled soil can be partially explained by the reduced probability that the carbon of plant residues will transform into organic matter. In these systems, the carbon balance (input vs. output) does not always support carbon sequestration (Haddaway et al., 2017).

We observed that the larger carbon content within zero-tilled aggregates translated into a greater total carbon content throughout the soil profile (0-50 cm) (Fig. 6a). Beare et al., (2010) and Six et al., (2002) also found higher carbon concentrations in surface samples from zero-tilled soils than from conventionally tilled soils. However, they found no significant differences in carbon content between zero and conventional tillage in deeper soil layers (>20 cm). The large increase in carbon stocks in superficial layers in the zero-tilled soils can be explained by minimal soil disturbance, which allows greater protection of carbon from microbial attack in the aggregates, reducing the organic matter mineralization rate (Franzluebbers 2010, Lal 2015, Ruis and Blanco-Canqui 2017). Previous research has proposed an even distribution of carbon throughout the soil profile in conventionally tilled soils, compared to the larger carbon concentration found only in surface soils in zero-tillage due to deposition of crop residues, with carbon content decreasing with depth (Powlson et al., 2014). In agreement with our results (Fig 5a-c), Sisti et al., 2004 measured greater carbon content in zero-tilled soils which had been in this management for the greatest length of time, showing long term zero-tillage can significantly increase the organic carbon content of soil; an effect that was significantly greater in zero-tilled than in conventionally tilled soils across 0-100 cm depths. An increase in organic carbon throughout the soil profile in zero-tilled soils has previously been attributed to the increase in soil organic carbon in stable macroaggregates (Song et al., 2016), and partly due to bioturbation, specifically via the surface-deposition of soil by anecic earthworms, which are known to move material to lower soil horizons over time (Blouin et al., 2013). In addition, with incorporation of soil tillage and plant residues, the decomposition of fresh organic material is favored by soil aeration, which increases the oxidation of labile organic matter (Reicosky, 1995). Differences in carbon stocks at greater depths can be explained by better root growth conditions under zero-tillage (Galdos et al., 2018). Sisti et al. (2004) showed that increased carbon accumulation in zero-tillage soil below 30 cm depth could be explained by greater root density when compared with conventional tillage. Bodey et al. (2010) showed a strong correlation between carbon accumulation at 0-30 cm and 0-100 cm in ferralsols. Sá et al. (2014) comparing the carbon stocks in the soil profile in long-term tillage systems in a Brazilian Oxisol and

observed that in the 20-40 cm layer the carbon stocks in zero-tillage were 15 Mg ha⁻¹ higher than conventional tillage

It has been proposed that rates of soil carbon sequestration reduce as the soil carbon stock approaches a new steady state (i.e. when soil carbon inputs approximate soil carbon outputs), and the soil carbon sink is saturated (Paustian et al., 1997; West and Six, 2007). The proposed time period necessary for soil organic carbon to attain a steady state varies between studies, ranging from 10 years (Qin et al., 2016) to 100 years (Sauerbeck, 2001), depending on climate and soil type. In our study, the data suggests that a steady state was reached after 15 years under zero-tillage (Fig. 5).

Highlighting the importance of long-term management strategies, Six and Paustian (2014) postulated the proportion of microaggregates formed within macroaggregates (mM) can serve as a robust indicator for changes in soil organic carbon under different management practices over decadal time scale. Significantly, greater soil organic carbon in the mM fraction of zero-tilled soils has been identified in numerous experiments across varying environmental contexts, signifying that a considerable proportion of the difference between zero versus conventional tillage could be driven by carbon associated within the mM fraction (Arshad et al., 1990). Our results confirm our third hypothesis, that 'there will be a greater fraction of microaggregates formed within macroaggregates in zero-tilled soils, as the rate of macroaggregate formation and degradation is reduced under zero-tillage'. The majority of macroaggregates in conventionally tilled soils are destroyed upon mechanical disturbance, therefore any formation of microaggregates within macroaggregates is also destroyed. The increased amount of soil organic carbon in the mM fraction in long term zero-tilled soils, in addition to the increase in mean weight diameter, indicates stronger potential for soil aggregation and accumulation of soil organic carbon under zero-tillage compared with conventional tillage.

Impact of tillage methods on thermal stability of soil organic carbon

It has been speculated that the additional carbon found in zero-tilled soils is predominantly in labile forms (plant residues and particulate organic carbon) that could be decomposed if zero-tillage practices ceased and the soil reverted back to conventional tillage (Powlson et al., 2014). Our results confirm this is the case for the soil sampled from the surface from zero-tillage for two years. Soils under zero-tillage are generally cooler and wetter in temperature compared to nearby conventionally tilled soils and receive less mechanical disturbance, thus leading to lower macroaggregate turnover rates and more labile soil organic matter in macroaggregates (Salem et al., 2015). On the other hand, it may also be expected that the retention of crop residues provides more favourable soil moisture conditions for SOC decomposition to occur (Corbeels et al., 2016). Broadly in line with our fourth hypothesis, 'zero-tilled

aggregates will contain more organic carbon than conventionally tilled aggregates, with an increase in the “labile” proportion, as characterised by its thermostability, due to a reduction in aggregate porosity therefore limiting microbial access,’ soils which had been managed under zero-tillage for 15 and 31 years were characterised by a progressive increase in S2 in surface and subsurface soil macroaggregates. Increasing time under zero-tillage was associated with higher HI and lower OI, suggesting that surface soils were characterised by a progressive increase in the proportion of labile carbon.

Recently-added organic matter is generally incorporated into macroaggregates, with subsequent slow movement of carbon into macroaggregates at 40 – 50 cm, driven by a combination of root dynamics, and earthworm activity (Fonte et al., 2007). Macroaggregates are more susceptible to disruption by cultivation and environmental perturbations (e.g., wet-dry cycles) than are microaggregates (Tisdall and Oades, 1982). For example, organic matter lost from cultivated grasslands is largely from macroaggregates (Elliott, 1986). S3 also progressively increased with time under zero-tillage in microaggregates. This material generally has a lower C:N ratio and is rich in humic materials and compounds resistant to microbial degradation (Tisdall and Oades, 1982; Turchenek and Oades, 1979; Oades, 1988). The chemical composition of this type of carbon is more resistant to decomposition by microorganisms, and tends to turn over more slowly, from decades to centuries. In addition, the lower proportion of labile carbon in conventionally tilled systems likely occurs due to the reduced deposition of crop residues, the greater microbial accessibility, and the aeration of the soil. In zero-tilled soils, as the residues are left on the soil surface they are less susceptible to microbial attack (Wang et al., 2020).

Overall, these findings demonstrate both a progressive increase in total carbon under zero tillage, including increases in labile carbon, and the gradual incorporation of more recalcitrant carbon in microaggregates.

Conclusions

After a period of 31 years, our measurements suggest zero-tilled management improved the soil structure through an increase in porosity and pore connectivity (as revealed by X-ray imagery) and increased the stability of soil aggregates. In addition, zero-tillage increased the soil organic carbon content in all aggregate size classes in comparison to conventionally tilled soils. The increased soil disturbance by conventional tillage accelerated the soil organic carbon decomposition by altering physical protection and/or mineralising the labile forms of carbon in soil aggregates. Furthermore, long term zero-tillage (15 and 31 years) further increased carbon stocks and altered the chemical composition of the organic carbon stored, which reduced the susceptibility of mineralisation upon any disturbance. Our results demonstrate the potential of zero-tillage to increase carbon sequestration when practiced in

the longer term compared to paired conventionally tilled soils. However, additional studies, taking into account soils which have been in zero-tillage for at least ten years and with an increased number of spatial observations are urgently required for the potential of zero-tillage to underpin any future policy recommendations

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Conflict of interest

None

Data availability statement

Data available on request from the authors

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Tables and Figures

Table 1. Selected soil and management characteristics of experimental fields. ZT and CT refer to zero and conventional tillage respectively.

Field	Management	Ploughing depth (cm)	Years in zero-tillage	Soil texture (% clay)	Crop rotation (2017/18)	Grain yield (Mg ha ⁻¹)
1	CT	15-20		65	Triticale/Maize	2.5 / 10.2
2	ZT		15	65	Triticale/Soybean	2.0 / 1.8
3	CT	15-20		62	Maize/Soybean	8.5 / 2.7
4	ZT		31	62	Maize/Soybean	8.5 / 2.9
5	CT	10-15		62	Grasses/Maize	6.0
6	ZT		2	62	Grasses/Maize	6.0

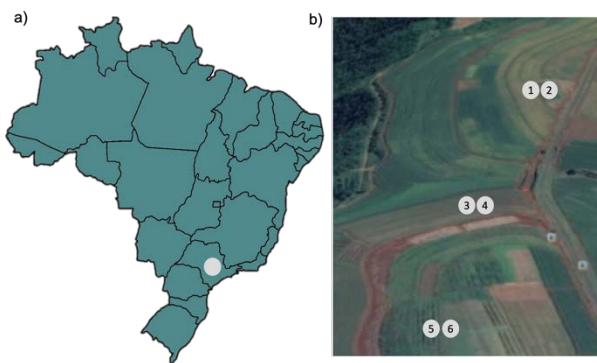


Figure 1 a) Location of State São Paulo University, Botucatu Campus and b) the location of selected field sites.

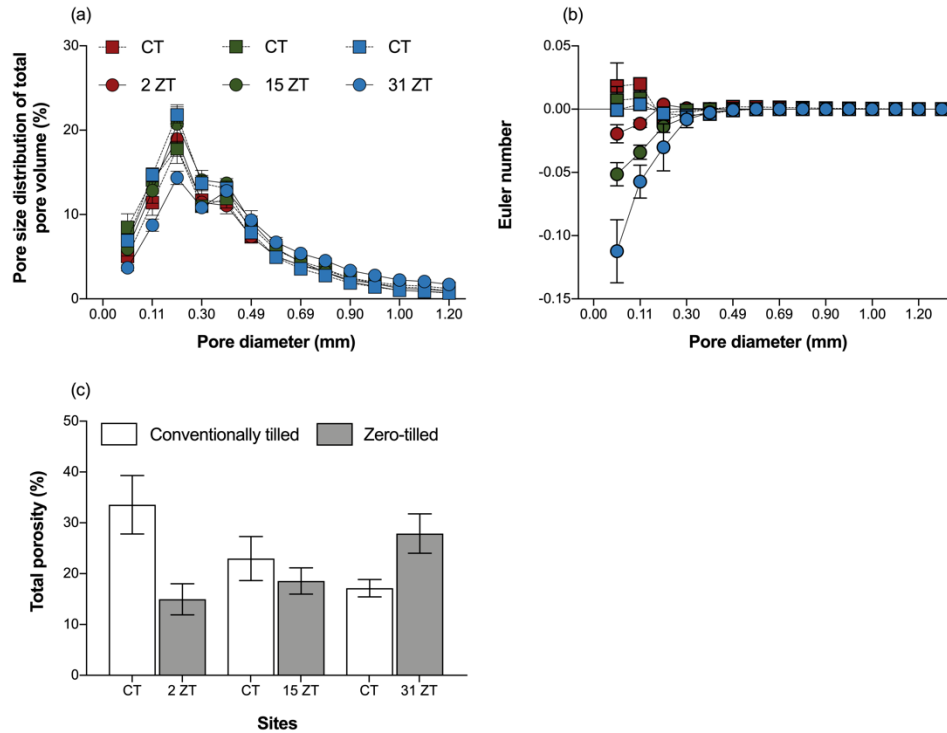


Figure 2. Soil pore characteristics of soils under different tillage systems at the core scale (50 μm resolution). (a) Pore size distribution of total pore volume, (b) the Euler number and (c) total porosity of each management. Means \pm 1 SEM (n = 6). Where CT is conventional tillage and ZT is zero-tillage. The red data points refer to fields 5 and 6, the green correspond to fields 1 and 2 and the blue data points reference to fields 3 and 4 as outlined in Table 1.

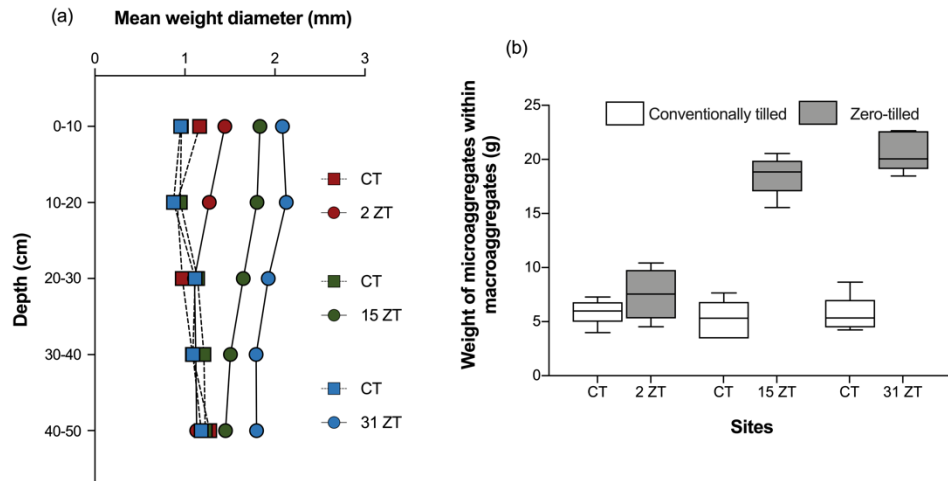


Figure 3. Soil aggregate characteristics under conventional and zero-tillage. (a) Mean weight diameter throughout the soil profile to a depth of 50 cm (SEMs ranged from 0.007 to 0.05mm) and (b) the weight of microaggregates (53-250 μm) within macro aggregates (250-2000 μm) to a depth of 50cm. Means \pm 1 SEM (n = 6). Where CT is conventional tillage and ZT is zero-tillage. The red data points refer to fields 5 and 6, the green correspond to fields 1 and 2 and the blue data points reference to fields 3 and 4 as outlined in Table 1.

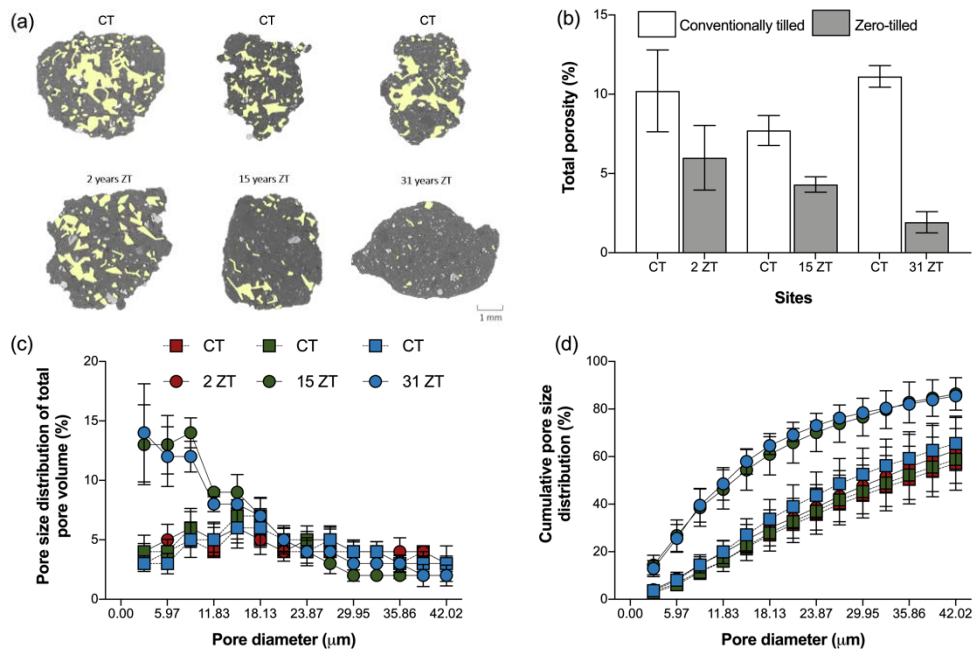


Figure 4. Soil pore characteristics of soils under different tillage systems in macroaggregates at 1.5 μm resolution in the top 20 cm. (a) Representative microtomographic images for soil macroaggregates under different tillage systems where yellow is identified as the pore space, (b) total porosity, (c) pore size distribution of total pore volume and (d) cumulative pore size distribution. Means \pm 1 SEM ($n = 3$). Where CT is conventional tillage and ZT is zero-tillage. The red data points refer to fields 5 and 6, the green correspond to fields 1 and 2 and the blue data points reference to fields 3 and 4 as outlined in Table 1.

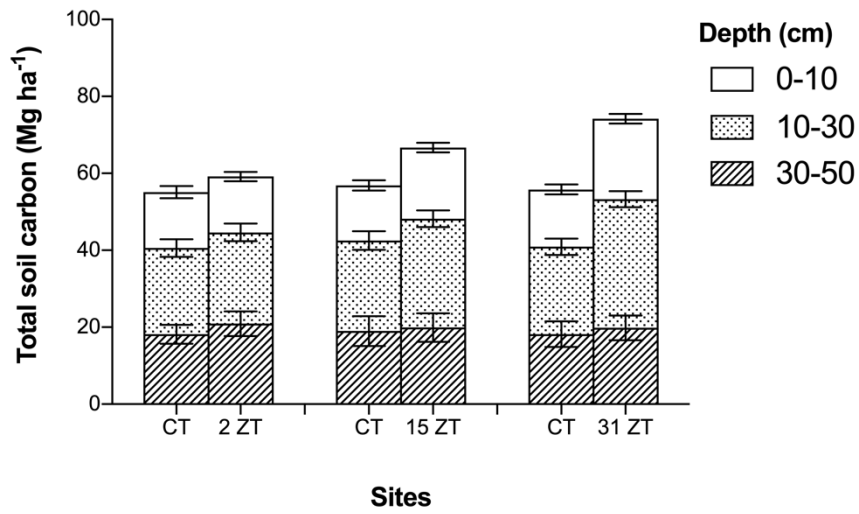


Figure 5. Cumulative carbon stocks and carbon content with depth in conventional and zero-tilled soils to a depth of 50 cm, calculated on an equivalent soil mass basis. Where CT and 2 ZT are fields 5 and 6, CT and 15 ZT are fields 1 and 2 and CT and 31 ZT correspond to fields 3 and 4.

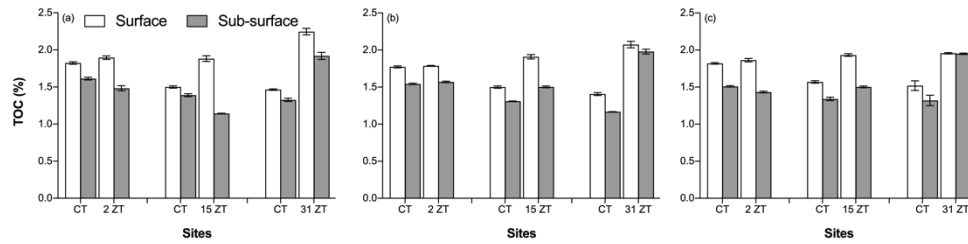


Figure 6.
Aggregate associated organic carbon under different

tillage systems in a) macroaggregates, (b) microaggregates and (c) microaggregates within macroaggregates. Results are shown for the soil surface (0-10 cm) and sub-surface (40-50 cm). Means ± 1 SEM ($n = 3$). Whereby, CT is conventional tillage (fields 5, 1 and 3 respectively) and 2 ZT, 15 ZT and 31 ZT represent 2, 15 and 31 years in zero-tillage, respectively.

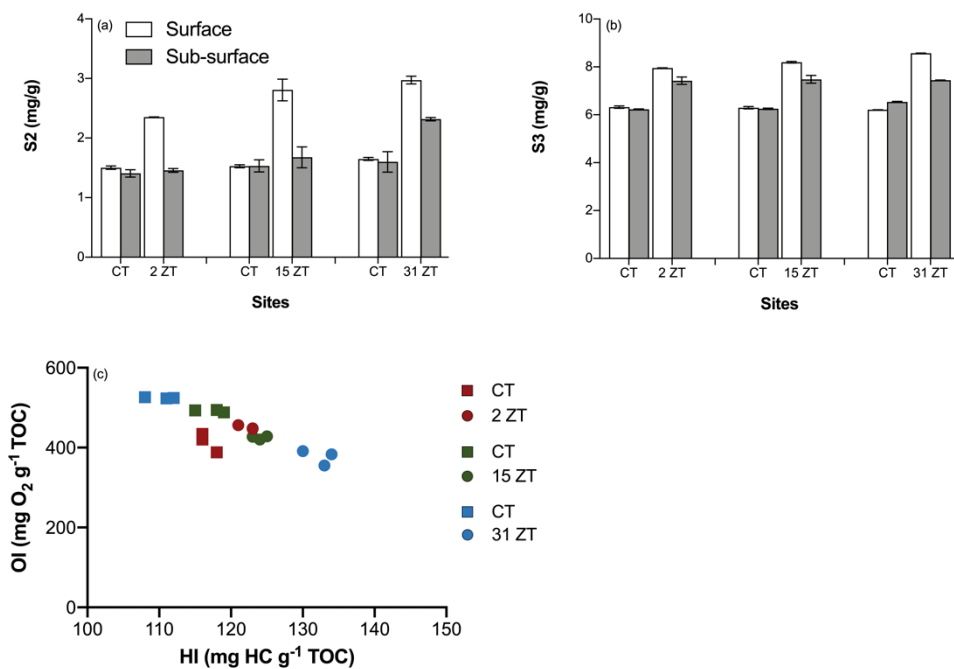


Figure 7.
Selected
Rock-Eval 6
parameters
across
different
tillage
practices in
surface and
sub-surface

soils. Where a) shows the S2 values (free hydrocarbons released on the thermal cracking of organic matter for temperature up to 850 °C and b) the S3 values (CO and CO₂ derived from oxygen-containing moieties, generally dominated by carbohydrates and lignins). c) HI versus OI plot which indicates the level of humification within the macroaggregates across the tillage practices. Where CT and 2 ZT are fields 5 and 6, CT and 15 ZT are fields 1 and 2 and CT and 31 ZT correspond to fields 3 and 4.