

1 **Impact of crop residue management on crop production and soil**
2 **chemistry after seven years of crop rotation in temperate climate, loamy**
3 **soils.**

Eliminado: fertility

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22 Abstract

23 Society is increasingly demanding a more sustainable management of agro-ecosystems in a
24 context of climate change and an ever growing global population. The fate of crop residues is one
25 of the important management aspects under debate, since it represents an unneglectable quantity
26 of organic matter which can be kept in or removed from the agro-ecosystem. The topic of residue
27 management is not new, but the need for global conclusion on the impact of crop residue
28 management on the agro-ecosystem linked to local pedo-climatic conditions has become apparent
29 with an increasing amount of studies showing a diversity of conclusions. This study specifically
30 focusses on temperate climate and loamy soil using a 7-year data set.

31 Between 2008 and 2016, we compared four contrasting residue management strategies differing
32 in the amount of crop residues returned to the soil (incorporation vs. exportation of residues) and
33 in the type of tillage (reduced tillage (10 cm depth) vs. conventional tillage (ploughing at 25 cm
34 depth)) in a field experiment. We assessed the impact of the crop residue management on crop
35 production (three crops – winter wheat, faba bean and maize – cultivated over six cropping
36 seasons), soil organic carbon content, nitrate (NO₃⁻), phosphorus (P) and potassium (K) soil
37 content and uptake by the crops.

38 The main differences came primarily from the tillage practice and less from the restitution or
39 removal of residues. All years and crops combined, conventional tillage resulted in a yield
40 advantage of 3.4% as compared to reduced tillage, which can be partly explained by a lower
41 germination rate observed under reduced tillage, especially during drier years. On average, only
42 small differences were observed for total organic carbon (TOC) content of the soil, but reduced
43 tillage resulted in a very clear stratification of TOC and also of P and K content as compared to
44 conventional tillage. We observed no effect of residue management on the NO₃⁻ content, since

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Eliminado: conclusions

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Eliminado: between 2008 and 2016.

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Eliminado: We observed a limited effect of the residue management strategy on crop productivity.

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54 the effect of fertilization dominated the effect of residue management. To confirm the results and
55 enhance early tendencies, we believe that the experiment should be followed up in the future to
56 observe whether more consistent changes in the whole agro-ecosystem functioning are present on
57 the long term when managing residues with contrasted strategies.

Eliminado: The relatively low differences between

Eliminado: management strategies are probably due to the fact

Eliminado: is rather young (<10y). The experiment

Eliminado: soil quality

Eliminado: . In order to assess the full impact of crop residue management on the agro-ecosystem functioning, there is a range of additional variables to quantify: soil fauna, greenhouse gas emissions, economical aspects of the technical itinerary, ...

58 1. Introduction

59 Once a crop is harvested, farmers have to decide what to do with the remaining crop residue (the
60 above ground biomass that is cut but not harvested). Residues can be either exported and
61 valorised as co-products (e.g. animal fodder, biogas production,...), or restored to the soil as such
62 or after being burnt. Returning straw directly to the field has been promoted as a source of
63 organic matter and a way to increase soil water holding capacity and its overall quality. As such,
64 it is thought to help maintain, or even to some extent restore, soil fertility (Lal et al., 2004). If the
65 residues are returned to the soil, farmers have to choose how to manage them using either
66 conventional tillage or alternatives such as reduced tillage. We define conventional tillage as a
67 tillage based on mouldboard ploughing which is commonly used in temperate regions and
68 reduced tillage as a tillage with reduced intensity and/or depth (Hiel et al., 2016; the practical
69 implementation of these techniques are specified in Table S1).

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70 The precise impact of the restitution (or not) of residues and of the choice of tillage system to
71 apply to the soil-plant system remains unclear and seems to be highly dependent on the pedo-
72 climatic conditions (soil structure, moisture, macro fauna, etc.) (Powlson et al., 2011). For
73 instance, soil organic carbon (SOC) generally seems to slightly increase if residues are returned
74 to the soil, particularly in the long term (Autret et al., 2016; Chenu et al., 2014; Merante et al.,
75 2017). However, the actual quantification of straw incorporation effect on soil organic carbon

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86 stocks shows conflicting results, as synthesized by Poeplau et al., (2015), with studies reporting
 87 SOC losses, SOC stabilization or even non-significant or negligible impact. The effect of tillage
 88 on SOC content is less clear. While some studies show an increase of SOC with reduced or no-
 89 tillage (Arrouays et al., 2002; Garcia-Franco et al., 2015; Smith, 2007), others report no effect
 90 (Dick, 1983; Dikgwatlhe et al., 2014; Dolan et al., 2006).
 91 As Hiel et al., (2016) show in their review, the impact of crop residue management on crop
 92 performance is also contradictory in the existing literature. The presence of residues seems to be
 93 detrimental to crop germination as they can form a physical obstacle for seedlings (Arvidsson et
 94 al., 2014), can create a cold and humid micro-climate around the seed (Soane et al., 2012) and
 95 provide a favourable habitat for slugs (Christian and Miller, 1986) and plant pathogens (Arvidsson
 96 et al., 2014). In general, the literature show that weather conditions are the main factor
 97 influencing crop yields (Dam et al., 2005; Linden et al., 2000; Soon and Lupwayi, 2012), and
 98 sometimes an interacting explanatory factor is the residue management (Riley, 2014). Residue
 99 retention tends to induce lower yields under wet weather conditions (effect on diseases and pests)
 100 (Riley, 2014) and higher yields in dry conditions (effect on water retention capacity) (Linden et
 101 al., 2000; Riley, 2014). There are also several studies reporting no effect on crop yields (Brennan
 102 et al., 2014; Dam et al., 2005; Riley, 2014; Soon and Lupwayi, 2012). Some specific results show
 103 that it is important to have the information on the entire management type (i.e. residue in or out,
 104 type of tillage, tillage depth and timing...) in order to be able to assess the impact of the
 105 management on crop performance. Van den Putte et al. (2010) showed for example that residue
 106 retention of winter cereals and maize, combined with reduced tillage reduces yields in Europe.

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Eliminado: soil organic carbon

Eliminado: (Dick, 1983; Dikgwatlhe et al., 2014; Dolan et al., 2006)
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Eliminado: As Hiel et al. (2016) show in their review, the impact of crop residue management on crop performance is also contradictory in the existing literature.

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Eliminado: (Linden et al., 2000; Riley, 2014).

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123 On the other hand, Blanco-Canqui and Lal, (2007) have shown that residue removal can impede
124 crop yield.

Eliminado: Blanco-Canqui and Lal (2007)

125 The literature on the effect of residue management on nitrogen (N) or phosphorus (P) uptake by
126 plant is equally dispersed with no (N: Brennan et al., 2014); positive (N: Malhi et al., 2011; P:
127 Noack et al., 2014) or negative (N: Soon and Lupwayi, 2012; P: Damon et al., 2014) effects
128 reported by different authors. These differences are generally attributed to differences in soil
129 texture and/or initial nutrient status or residue quality (Chen et al., 2014; Kumar and Goh, 2002).

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Eliminado: Soon and Lupwayi, 2012; P: Damon et al., 2014)

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130 Interactions between crop residue management and the soil-water-plant system are complex and
131 inherently depend on the pedo-climatic conditions. Local assessment and system approach are
132 therefore necessary to come to relevant guidelines for residue management under specific pedo-
133 climatic conditions. The objective of our study is therefore to determine the effects of contrasting
134 crop residue management strategies on crop production and components of the soil fertility, over
135 a period of several years. Regarding crop production, we studied how residues management
136 strategy impacts on germination rate, biomass production and yield elaboration, along with N, P
137 and K exportation. The soil fertility components that were dynamically followed are SOC, N, P
138 and K content and their repartition within the soil profile. The experiment was conducted in the
139 loam belt under temperate climatic conditions, taking into account common crop rotations and
140 local farming practices.

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141 2. Materials and methods

142 2.1. Site description

143 The field experiment (50°33'49.6"N, 4°42'45.0"E) was established on 1.7ha of the experimental
144 farm of Gembloux Agro-Bio Tech, University of Liège, Belgium in 2008 and yield

152 measurements started in 2010. The soil is a Cutanic Luvisol (IUSS Working Group WRB, 2014).
 153 According to the Walloon soil map (REF geoportail de wallonie), it is a silty soil with favourable
 154 natural drainage. The texture is as follows : silt content of 70-80 %, clay content of 18-22 % and
 155 sand content 5-10 %. A characterization of the spatial variability of certain chemical parameters
 156 was carried out in 2011 (maps available in Fig. S1). Descriptive statistics are presented in Table
 157 1.

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Comentado [Office7]: the soil was silty with favourable drainage, containing 70-80% of silt, 18-22% clay, and 5-10% sand

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158 The climate is temperate (Cfb in Köppen–Geiger classification (Peel et al., 2007)) with 819 mm
 159 average annual rain and 9.8 °C annual average temperature. Weather data were measured in a
 160 federal weather station located in Ernage (Belgium's Royal Meteorological Institute), at 2.4 km
 161 from field site. An overview of monthly temperature and rainfall during the experimental period
 162 is shown in Figs S2 and S3.

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Eliminado: Appendices A

Eliminado: B

2.2. Experimental design and treatments

163 The field is designed as a Latin square disposal with four replications. Each plot is 15 m wide and
 164 40 m long. Crop residue management is defined as the combination of two practices: (i) the fate
 165 of the crop residue and (ii) the type of tillage. Firstly the residue fate can be restitution (IN) or
 166 exportation (OUT). It has to be noted that stubble and chaff are always left on the fields, even if
 167 the rest of the residue is exported. Secondly, we considered two tillage types (see Table 2):
 168 conventional (CT, 25 cm depth) or reduced (RT, 7-10 cm depth). The different combinations of
 169 these two aspects of residue management resulted in four treatments: CT-IN, CT-OUT, RT-IN,
 170 RT-OUT.
 171

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Eliminado: table 1

172 The crop rotation during the experiment was: rapeseed (*Brassica*) in 2008-09, three consecutive
 173 years of winter wheat (*Triticum aestivum*) in 2009-10, 2010-11 and 2011-12, mustard (*Sinapis*
 174 *alba*) cover crop in 2012-13, faba bean (*Vicia Faba*) in 2013, winter wheat in 2014, oats (*Avena*

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181 *sativa*) and peas (*Pisum sativum*) **mix** as cover crop in 2014-15, and finally maize (*Zea mays*) in
 182 2015. Sowing densities **are** 300 kernels/m² for winter wheat, 50 kernels/m² for faba bean, and 13
 183 kernels/m² for maize. Sowing process is detailed for each crop in Table S1.
 184 N fertilisation (liquid N, UAN at 39%) followed the regional standards depending on the type of
 185 crop. Rapeseed received two applications (at stem elongation **stage**: 31 and 32-50 on BBCH scale
 186 (Meier et al., 2009)) with a total of 160 kg of N/ha. **We provided three applications** to winter
 187 wheat (at tillering, stem elongation and flag leaf stage (26, 30 and 37-39 on BBCH scale)) with a
 188 total of 180 kg of N/ha. Faba bean was not fertilised and maize crop was fertilised **by** 120 kg of
 189 N/ha before sowing. There was no external addition of P or K. Crop protection measures
 190 corresponded to the regional standards.

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191 The detailed crop protocols (crop management, crop harvest, residue exportation, soil tillage,
 192 fertilization and crop protection treatments) are available in Table S1.

Eliminado: Appendix C

2.3. Crop sampling and analyses

194 We monitored the germination rate and growth dynamics during the season with an adapted
 195 protocol for each crop type (Table 3). The determination of the germination rate **consists in**
 196 counting of the number of seedlings on a definite area (Table 3). To quantify above-ground
 197 biomass, plants were collected (according to crop protocol in Table 3) and their different parts
 198 (shoot and ears, pods or cobs) were separated, counted and oven-dried at 60 °C for 72 h. Grain
 199 yield was assessed with an experimental **combine** adapted to **the** crop by one passage per plot (40
 200 m long on a width dependent on the **combine**; see specific crop protocol in Table 3). To quantify
 201 the amount of remaining crop residues on the field, residues (i.e. OUT plots: stubble and chaff,
 202 IN plots: all residue) were collected over a surface of 0.5 m wide and 2 m long immediately after
 203 harvest, dried, weighed. These samples were also used to quantify the NPK content of the

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217 remaining crop residues. We took composite grain samples (grain of maize and wheat, faba bean
 218 seeds) of 1 kg from the harvest hopper (1 sample per plot) for quantification of NPK grain
 219 content. Both grains and residues were crushed before analysis. N content was measured using
 220 the Kjeldahl method (Bradstreet, 1965). Phosphate and potassium (K) levels in plants were
 221 measured using a modified protocol of Zasoski and Burau (1977). Samples were first treated by a
 222 concentrated acid mix of HNO_3 and HClO_4 (1:1) (15 ml per g of sample). K content was
 223 measured by a flame atomic absorption spectrometric method (Spectrometer Varian 220). P was
 224 measured by colourimetry with molybdate and ammonium vanadate at 430 nm (Nanocolor
 225 UV/VIS (Macherey-Nagel)). NPK content [kg/ha] were calculated by multiplying the nutrient
 226 content [%] by the biomass of the residue or grain [kg/ha].

2.4. Soil sampling and analyses

227 Twice a year around April and October, we took ten soil subsamples (with a gouge auger of 2 cm
 228 diameter) to form a composite sample per plot at 0-10 cm, 10-20 cm and 20-30 cm depth. The
 229 fall sampling was usually either made after spring crop harvest and before winter wheat sowing
 230 or after winter wheat harvest and cover crop sowing. The spring sampling was made when
 231 climatic conditions were again favourable for winter wheat growth or after spring crop sowing.
 232 TOC was determined on a 1 g of dry soil (ground at 200 μm) by the Walkley-Black method
 233 (Blakemore, 1972): oxidation with $\text{K}_2\text{Cr}_2\text{O}_7$ and H_2SO_4 ; titration of the excess of $\text{K}_2\text{Cr}_2\text{O}_7$ with
 234 Mohr Salt ($(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{Fe}(\text{SO}_4)_2 \cdot 6\text{H}_2\text{O}$). Available soil nutrients were measured by stirring a 10 g
 235 sample of soil (air-dried and sieved at 2 mm) for 30 min in 50 ml of solution (ammonium acetate
 236 0.5 M and EDTA 0.02 M at pH 4.65 (Lakanen E. and Erviö R., 1971)). After filtration the cations
 237 were measured by atomic emission for K and P was determined by colourimetry (colour reaction
 238 of Murphy and Riley (1962), Nanocolor UV/VIS (Macherey-Nagel)).

Eliminado: content. We also collected the residues present on 1m² per plot to determine its NPK

Comentado [Office21]: suggestion
 Composite grain samples (maize and wheat grains; faba bean seeds) of 1 Kg were prepared from the harvest hopper (1 sample per plot) for quantification of NPK grain content.

Eliminado: Nitrogen

Eliminado: Kjeldahl

Eliminado: (equal parts)

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Eliminado: Total organic carbon

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251 In addition to the two overall soil sampling campaigns per growing season, soil nitrate content
 252 was measured more frequently to catch the dynamic of uptake during the growing phase of the
 253 main crops. Composite humid soil samples based on eight subsamples (sampled with gouge
 254 auger of 2 cm diameter) were used per plot at three depths: 0-30 cm, 30-60 cm and 60-90 cm. We
 255 used KCl extraction and a colourimetry method of reduction of nitrate to nitrite (using Cadmium
 256 or Hydrazine) with a determination of nitrite ions by the modified Griess-Ilosvay reaction
 257 (Bremner, 1965; Guiot et al., 1992).

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Eliminado: at times corresponding

Eliminado: specific crop phenological stages using composite

Eliminado: :

Eliminado: hydrazine

258 2.5. Statistical analyses

259 Statistical analyses were performed with R package (R Core Team, 2015). The statistical analyses
 260 were systematically applied to assess the effect of crop residue management on crop and soil
 261 measurements, as follows. First, a 2-way ANOVA was performed, including the soil tillage and
 262 residue fate as fixed factors (with interaction) and the plot position (line and columns of the Latin
 263 square) as random factors. In case no interaction was highlighted between the fixed factors, we
 264 compared on the one hand, IN and OUT treatments, and, on the other hand, RT and CT
 265 treatments. These comparisons were then immediately made on the basis of the results of the 2-
 266 way ANOVA test. Contrarily, when an interaction between the fixed factors was significant, the
 267 four treatments (CT-IN, CT-OUT, RT-IN and RT-OUT) were intercompared and ranked using a
 268 post-hoc test (Student-Newman-Keuls - SNK). Analyses of variance (2-way ANOVA) and SNK
 269 tests were performed with the *agricolae* package (Mendiburu and Simon, 2015). The conditions
 270 of application of the ANOVA test (normality of the distribution and homoscedasticity) were
 271 systematically checked on the residuals of the ANOVA, using respectively a Shapiro-Wilk test
 272 and a Bartlett test.

Eliminado: All statistical

Eliminado: For comparison of treatments, we always first tested the difference between treatments (so with interaction of tillage type and residue fate). In case these difference were not significant we compared IN and OUT and RT and CT treatments. When the interactions were not significant, we did not report the outcome of the statistical tests in the text. Analyses of variance (ANOVA) and Student-Newman-Keuls tests (SNK) to assess the effect of crop residue management on crop and soil measurements

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Comentado [Office24]: IN versus OUT treatments as well as RT versus CT treatments

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Eliminado:) included as a fixed factor the soil tillage and residue fate (with interaction) and as a random factor the plot position (line and columns

Eliminado: Latin square). These analyses were performed to assess the effect of crop residue management on crop and soil measurements. Normality

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301 To study the evolution of soil parameters over the years, a linear mixed effects model was fitted
 302 using the *lme4* package (Bates et al., 2014). To evaluate possible difference between treatments
 303 on the entire profile or per depth, the model was used with soil tillage and residue fate and their
 304 interaction as fixed factors, while dates and plots were random effects. To estimate whether
 305 stratification occurred in the soil parameters per crop residue management treatment, the mixed
 306 effects model was used with the depths as a fixed factor and plots and dates as random effects. A
 307 student's T-test was used to test for each treatment whether the soil factors of the last sampling
 308 year and the first sampling year were significantly different.

309 3. Results

310 3.1.1.

312 3.1.2.

314 3.1.3.

315 3.2. Management of crop residues

316 After seven crop rotations, the total amount of crop residue returned to the soil was on average
 317 52% higher (i.e. +28.8 t/ha) for IN plots (55.7 t/ha) compared to OUT plots (26.8 t/ha) (Table 4
 318 and Table S2 for ANOVA summary). This was correlated with an increase in the amount of
 319 nutrients in the residues (Tables S3 and S4) that were further restored to the soil.
 320 While the stock (expressed in [kg/ha]; Table S3) of nutrients returned were greater in IN plots, the
 321 OUT plots were characterised by greater content (expressed in [g/kg]; Table S5) of N (3 years out
 322 of 5) and P (2 years out of 5), due to a larger proportion of chaff in the remaining residues. The
 323 trend was the opposite for K (2 years out of 5) (Tables S5 and S6).

Movido(s) para baixo [1]: Germination rate

The presence or absence of extra residues did not affect germination rate, except for winter wheat in 2013-14 where we observed a lower germination rate in the RT-IN treatment. Tillage type, however, did result in differences in germination rate.

Eliminado: <#>Crop production

Movido(s) para baixo [2]: we see that residue fate and tillage type had an interacting effect on the global relative germination rate which is the average of all germination rates of all crops considered for a specific treatment, normalised to the sowing density. The germination rate in RT-IN was significantly lower than RT-OUT, itself lower than CT-IN and CT-OUT.

Eliminado: Table 3 shows that three crops (out of six) had a higher germination rate in CT as compared to RT (wheat (2010-11), faba bean (2013), winter wheat (2013-14)).

<#>Crop development

Yearly grain yields were in general not influenced by residue fate or soil tillage, except for a negative effect for reduced tillage for winter wheat cultivated in 2010-11 (-9%) and maize in 2015 (-4%) and residue incorporation for winter wheat in 2010-11 (-10%, year characterised by a spring drought, Appendix A).

There was no significant effect on grain quality, except for P in winter wheat grains in 2010-11 and a slightly lower K content under conventional tillage in 2 years out of 5 (data not shown, available at <https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.5442289>).

Movido(s) para baixo [4]: Crop yield and quality

Eliminado: <#>Crop development ... [1]

Movido(s) para baixo [3]: These were more pronounced for the shoot than the ear biomasses. In 2010, with weather conditions ... [2]

Eliminado: and no negative impact of residues on yields were observed. In 2011, characterised by a spring drought, the com ... [3]

Eliminado: Yearly grain yields were in general not influenced by soil tillage, except for a negative effect for reduced tillage for ... [4]

Movido(s) para baixo [5]: No effect of residue fate was observed.

Eliminado: There was no significant effect on grain quality, except winter wheat grains in 2010-11 and a slightly lower K content ... [5]

Movido(s) para baixo [6]: Link between germination, development and yield

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Eliminado: No correlation could be seen between germination rate and shoot dry weight produced except for faba bean (2013) and ... [6]

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Eliminado: (Table 6). The

Eliminado: in

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Eliminado: (Tables S5 and S6)

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425 The tillage treatment had no significant impact on the total amount of crop residues or on the
426 stock of nutrients (Table 4 and Tables S2 to S6).

Eliminado: or the composition of the residues since also total final biomass was not strongly affected. No interactions between the tillage and the crop residue management were observed, which is why we mainly present results IN vs OUT and RT vs CT. Table 7 shows that

427 Table 5 puts the emphasis on the different amounts of each nutrient (NPK) returned by the
428 different crops through their residues: e.g. while maize and faba bean brought higher N than
429 wheat, maize residues alone provided the highest quantity of K to the soil.

Eliminado: provided different amounts of nutrients

Eliminado: the crop

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430 3.3. Soil results

431 3.3.1. Total organic carbon

432 The initial TOC content, over the entire arable depth (0-30 cm) was 11.7 g/kg. After 8 years, the
433 different treatments (tillage or residue management) did not have a significant effect on the
434 overall TOC content evolution (lmer; on tillage $F = 1.62$, $p = 0.22$; on residue treatments $F =$
435 0.58 , $p = 0.46$), although significant differences were observed during some specific years
436 (Figure 1). The last measurement, in spring 2016, showed higher TOC under RT-IN compared to
437 CT-OUT and RT-OUT.

Eliminado: total organic carbon (

Eliminado:)

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Eliminado: 1.17

Eliminado: 100g

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Eliminado: overall

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438 We observed a clear stratification of the TOC content between the different soil depths (0-10, 10-
439 20 and 20-30 cm depths) in the reduced tillage treatments (lmer $F = 236.55$, $p < 2.2e^{-16}$, Figure 1
440 B-D). More specifically, the TOC content increased over time in the 0-10 cm soil profile and,
441 after 3.5 years, was systematically higher in RT than in CT (with the exception of autumn 2014).
442 At that depth, higher TOC contents were observed in RT-IN than in RT-OUT. In the 10-20 cm
443 soil layer, there were no differences between CT and RT. In the 20-30 cm soil layer, RT resulted
444 in lower TOC content than CT from the third year of the trial onwards.

Eliminado: 3B

445 3.3.2. Soil nutrients

446 **Nitrate.** Averaged over the soil profile and over time, we did not observe differences in nitrate
447 content between the different treatments, although some temporary differences were visible

Eliminado: are visible in figure 4. Due to its high mobility in the soil and the high amounts of N fertiliser (black dots) applied to the crops,

471 (Figure 2). The levels of nitrate within the 0 to 90 cm soil layer were highly variable over time
472 and dominated by external inputs of fertilizer (black dots on Figure 2). Residue fate had no
473 impact on the NO_3^- stock in any of the soil layers under any crop.

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474 **Phosphorus.** Over the course of the experiment, P content in soil significantly decreased in the 0-
475 30 cm soil layer for all crop residue treatments, due to the absence of fertilisation during the
476 course of the experiment (Fig. S4). In addition, there was a stratification of P under RT (RT-OUT
477 from autumn 2012 onwards (lmer F = 84.58, $p < 2.2 \times 10^{-16}$) and RT-IN from spring 2014 onwards
478 (lmer F = 34.06, $p = 3.6 \times 10^{-12}$). In the top layer (0-10 cm), these treatments showed a higher
479 decrease in P content than deeper in the profile. Our data do not suggest any significant impact of
480 crop residue on P stocks in the soil (lmer F = 0.05, $p = 0.83$).

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481 **Potassium.** As for P, K content in soil decreased from the beginning of the trial, as no K
482 fertilisation was applied (Fig. S4). No particular effects of the different treatments were observed
483 on the total amount of K (lmer F = 0.06, $p = 0.81$), except for the last 2 years of the experiment
484 (2015-2016), where IN plots showed a higher K content. Also for K a stratification was visible
485 (lmer F = 97.91, $p < 2.2 \times 10^{-16}$) with decreasing concentrations from top to bottom.

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3.4. Crop results

3.4.1. Germination rate

487 The presence or absence of extra residues did not affect germination rate, except for winter wheat
488 in 2013-14 where we observed a lower germination rate in the RT-IN treatment. Tillage type,
489 however, did result in differences in germination rate. Table 6 (and ANOVA summary in Table
490 S7) shows that three crops (out of six) had a higher germination rate in CT as compared to RT
491 (winter wheat (2010-11), faba bean (2013) and winter wheat (2013-14)).
492

Movido(s) (inserção) [1]

499 In Table 6, we see that residue fate and tillage type had an interacting effect on the global relative
500 germination rate which is the average of all germination rates of all crops considered for a
501 specific treatment, normalised to the sowing density. The germination rate in RT-IN was
502 significantly lower than RT-OUT, itself lower than CT-IN and CT-OUT

Movido(s) (inserção) [2]

503 ***3.4.2. Dynamic crop growth***

504 When looking at the dynamics of crop growth, except for two sampling dates on ears' growth and
505 two sampling dates on shoot's growth, no interactions were found between tillage and residue
506 management treatment. Observations and results of the ANOVA and SNK analysis are reported
507 in the supplementary material separately for ears and shoot growth (Tables S8 to S11). The
508 cumulated total produced biomass is presented in Fig. S5 (ANOVA summary in Table S12)
509 under graphical representation. It was therefore decided to analyse the impacts of tillage and
510 residue management individually.

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511 Differences between residues management treatments (IN vs. OUT) were observed for crop
512 development. Incorporation of residues (IN plots) negatively impacted the dynamic of ears and
513 shoots during the first two crop seasons (winter wheat seasons 2009-10 and 2010-11). These
514 differences appeared in both cases after the ear emergence stage. These were more pronounced
515 for the shoot than the ear biomasses. In 2010, with weather conditions close to historical means,
516 lower biomass under IN treatments decreased over the crop growth period, but no negative
517 impact on yields were observed when residues were returned to the soil. In 2011, characterised by
518 a spring drought, the exportation of residue (OUT) was favourable to the shoot development and
519 to the early growth of ears. However, for this season, the final yield was not impacted by the
520 residue management treatment (IN vs. OUT), as detailed in the next section. Finally, one could
521 also notice that at the end of the 2014 crop season, while no differences were observed all along

Movido(s) (inserção) [3]

525 the season, a statistical difference was reported on the last sampling date in favour of IN plots.
526 For all other sampling dates, no statistical differences were reported.
527 Reduced tillage mostly negatively impacted shoot crop development of winter wheat (2010-11),
528 faba bean (2013) and maize (2015) (Tables S8 and S9). This was probably due, in part, to the
529 lower germination rate in RT plots for the winter wheat crop (2010-11) and faba bean (2013) (cfr
530 section 3.3.3). When computing the differences between tillage treatments (Figure 3 and Table
531 S12 for ANOVA summary), it was observed that the gap between treatments tended to decrease
532 for the different crops as they developed through the season. For faba bean no differences were
533 finally observed between the final biomass (Figure 3), the pods (Table S10 and S11) and the seed
534 yield (Table 7 – cfr section 3.3.3), while statistical differences between RT and CT remained for
535 maize shoot, cobs and grain yield cultivated in 2015 (Figure 3, Table S10 and S11, and Table 7 –
536 cfr section 3.3.4).

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537 3.4.3. Crop yield and quality

538 Yearly grain yields were in general not influenced by residue fate or soil tillage (Table 7 and
539 Table S13 for ANOVA summary), except for a negative effect for reduced tillage for winter
540 wheat cultivated in 2010-11 (–9%) and maize in 2015 (–4%) and residue incorporation for winter
541 wheat in 2010-11 (–10%, year characterised by a spring drought, Figs. S2 and S3).

Movido(s) (inserção) [4]

542 The cumulative grain yield since 2010 was significantly lower under reduced compared to
543 conventional tillage (–3.4%, Table 7). No effect of residue fate was observed.

Movido(s) (inserção) [5]

544 There was no significant effect of the treatments on NPK content of the harvested grain or seeds
545 (Table S14), except for marginally higher P content in winter wheat (in 2010-11) grains in IN
546 plots (P-value: 0.03) and a slightly lower K content under conventional tillage in 2 years out of 5
547 (Winter wheat in 2011-12, p-value: 0.01 ; Maize in 2015, p-value: 0.03).

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3.4.4. Link between germination, development and yield

No correlation was seen between germination rate and shoot dry weight except for faba bean (2013) and a slight effect for winter wheat (2010-11) (Figure 4A). Grain yield was only positively correlated to germination rate for winter wheat (2010-11) (Figure 4B). Similarly, grain yield was slightly correlated to shoot dry weight for that year only (Figure 4C).

Movido(s) (inserção) [6]

3.5. Integrated approach between crop production and soil chemistry

A principal component analysis was performed to study the relationship between soil and plant parameters (Figure 5). Plant and crop residue data are the accumulation (Residue biomass, shoot biomass, yield, NPK stock) or mean (germination rate, harvest index (HI)) of the all crop data. We used soil data from the last spring measurement in 2016.

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The two principal components allowed to explain respectively 35 % and 25% of the variance. Treatments were easily differentiated by the two principal components (Figure 5-A). It appeared that crop productivity (yield, shoot and total biomass) and quality (K_{grain} , P_{grain} and N_{grain}) were favoured by conventional tillage, as illustrated by the discrimination of treatments along the second component (Y-Axis) of the PCA. Similarly, it seemed that the soil parameters (TOC, K_{soil} and to a lower extent P_{soil}) were more positively influenced by the crop residue retention (Figure 5-B), as illustrated by the discrimination of treatments along the first component (X-Axis) of the PCA.

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4. Discussion

4.1. Effect of tillage and crop residue treatments on crop production

Overall, tillage influenced crop production more strongly than import or export of residues. The strongest effect was seen in terms of germination rate and was even stronger for residue incorporation treatments. RT resulted consistently in lower germination rates as also shown by

576 Brennan et al. (2014). Germination rate is strongly affected by seedbed soil moisture, soil
577 structure and contact around the seed and soil temperature (Guérif et al., 2001). It is
578 acknowledged that crop residues can be a physical obstacle to crop emergence and a source of
579 phytotoxicity for crop seedlings (Morris et al., 2010). Moreover, the presence of crop residues
580 around seeds can impede adequate seed-to-soil contact needed for good crop emergence by
581 increasing the macroporosity which is known to decrease the degree of contact (Brown et al.,
582 1996). Nevertheless, the differences due to germination rate have the tendency to disappear at
583 later growth stages if no climatic extremes occur, since the plants generally compensate a lower
584 density with a better growth under favourable growth conditions as also observed by Dam et al.
585 (2005).

586 Several studies report higher crop production levels under CT under temperate climate, when
587 compared to RT (Brennan et al., 2014; Pittelkow et al., 2014). However, the difference between
588 both systems remained small in the presented experiment, but confirmed, among else, by the
589 PCA analysis. Our results went in the direction of the conclusion of Van den Putte et al. (2010)
590 study of conservation agriculture in Europe showing a yield decline of 4.5% in RT systems as
591 compared to conventional systems. When confronting the crop results to the meteorological
592 conditions (Figure 3, Table 7 and Figs. S2 and S3) we believe that the CT production systems
593 might be less sensitive to inter-annual fluctuations of climatic conditions over different years
594 compared to the RT systems. Also, Brennan et al. (2014) highlighted that the residue fate was
595 less important than the tillage type for crop performance. Residue fate has a stronger effect on
596 crop production under drier climates and water limited conditions (Linden et al., 2000; Pittelkow
597 et al., 2014).

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609 The differences observed for germination rates or during crop growth seem to have little
610 influence on crop yield. A similar lack of correlation between shoot biomass and grain yield, as
611 observed most strongly for faba bean and wheat (2014) in our study, has previously been
612 observed for legume crops (Araújo and Teixeira, 2008). For winter wheat, it is likely that the
613 ability to produce more tillers at lower densities explains the recovery from lower germination
614 rates, as reported in the literature (Gooding et al., 2002; Whaley et al., 2000). Moreover, it is
615 known that the flag leaf and ears are the main photosynthetic organs contributing to grain filling
616 (Sanchez-Bragado et al., 2014) which is an additional explanation why the entire shoot biomass
617 was not correlated to yield, especially during years with climate conditions close to the historical
618 means (i.e. winter 2009-10, 2011-12 and 2013-14). Winter wheat (2010-11) and maize (2015)
619 were the only crops with observable differences between treatments at the end of crop
620 development. We hypothesize that the spring drought during winter wheat development in 2010-
621 11 impeded its ability to recover its potential yield as in the other years.

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622 Except for the winter wheat 2010-11, our results did not show an increase in N grain stock. This
623 observation is in agreement with Brennan et al. (2014), but opposed to the results reported by
624 Malhi et al. (2011) or Soon and Lupwayi (2012). The absence of crop residue treatment effects on
625 P grain content could be also due to the poor P content of crop residues. Regarding the small
626 differences observed in grain K content, Zörb et al. (2014) mentioned that K content in grain is
627 not correlated to K supply and grains have relatively low K contents.

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628 4.2. Effect of tillage and crop residue treatments on soil chemistry 629

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630 Over the seven years of this experiment, the effects of crop residue management on soil fertility
631 parameters showed few statistical differences in the early time of the trial. However, the results

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640 were slowly magnifying, up to the point where differences became more systematically
 641 significant, with clear stratification occurring over the different soil layer of the ploughing depth.
 642 Furthermore, our results (PCA analysis) confirmed a clear link between soil TOC, K content, and
 643 to a lower extent P content, with residues management treatment (IN vs. OUT).
 644 Even though the literature shows that residue incorporation could have a positive effect on the
 645 stock of SOC (Autret et al., 2016; Chenu C. et al., 2014; Merante et al., 2017), we only observed
 646 small effects on the TOC content. It should be noted that we cultivated wheat for 4 out of 7 years
 647 and therefore our residues contained a large proportion of straw, which has already been shown
 648 to be inefficient to increase TOC (Lemke et al., 2010; Poeplau et al., 2015). Just like previous
 649 studies (Angers et al., 1997; Dimassi et al., 2013; Dikgwatlhe et al., 2014; Dolan et al., 2006;
 650 Gadermaier et al., 2012; Riley, 2014), we have shown that reduced tillage provoked a
 651 stratification of TOC. The absence of differences between TOC(CT-IN) and TOC(CT-OUT) can
 652 be explained by a dilution effect (accumulation of organic matter in the top that is mixed through
 653 ploughing) as well as by a potentially faster degradation rate, as reported by Lal et al. (2004).
 654 The absence of any overall effect of residue treatment on the nitrate content was likely due to a
 655 combination of factors. Firstly, the proportionally high amount of mineral N applied as fertiliser -
 656 which respects the common practice in Belgium - reduced the effect of N returned by the
 657 residues. Secondly, the straw incorporation effect might have had a short-term impact on soil
 658 nitrate (Van Den Bossche et al., 2009) rather than long term impact (Brennan et al., 2014). Such a
 659 lack of impact was also reported by Stenberg et al. (1999).
 660 The absence of residue treatment effects on P content in soil can be explained by the low P
 661 content of crop residues. Damon et al. (2014) have shown that P availability is only increased for

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672 large amounts of residues with high P content. A P content threshold of 2 to 3 mg/g of residue is
 673 generally considered as the limit below which no impact should be expected. Under this value,
 674 immobilisation by microbial biomass occurs and P mineralization is hampered (Damon et al.
 675 2014). In our study, P content was 0.9 mg/g for wheat and maize residues and 1.6 mg/g for faba
 676 bean crop, which means that we were consistently and considerably below this theoretical
 677 threshold for P mineralization.

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678 The decrease in K content was due to the lack of fertilisation during the trial (no dedicated K
 679 fertilisation or manure application was intentionally made between 2008 and 2016) but the slope
 680 is slight. Compared to P content, K content of residues was much higher. Furthermore, as the
 681 mineralisation process did not occur, K might have been released in soil solution as soon as the
 682 plant cells were dead (Schvartz et al., 2005). These combined effects probably explain the
 683 slighter slope observed on the dynamics of K. The stratification observed in P and K content with
 684 reduced tillage was also reported by Riley (2014).

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Eliminado: These results are consistent since the K content of crop residue is much higher than the P content and K is released in soil solution as soon as the plant cells are dead, as the mineralisation process is not involved (Schvartz et al., 2005).

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685 5. Conclusion

686 When looking within the available choices among the soil and crop management techniques, crop
 687 production remains one of the most important drivers of farmer's decisions. However, the impact
 688 of residue management and tillage treatment on crop production, and also on soil fertility, are
 689 known to be highly dependent on the local pedo-climatic conditions, and the literature usually
 690 focus on one of the aspects (soil or crop) and barely on multiple aspects at the same time.

Eliminado: Crop production, which is an important driver of farmer's decisions, was not dramatically impacted by the different residue management strategies. When choosing a crop residue management under temperate climate, other factors than yield should determine the decision taken by a farmer, such as fuel consumption, working hours, greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions (Lognoul et al., 2017), soil fauna (Degruene, 2017), long-term soil quality and health (Parvin et al., in prep.).

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691 This study aimed at analysing the impacts of crop residue management techniques on different
 692 soil and crop parameters together, as interacting components of the agro-ecosystem, and as a
 693 response to the local pedo-climatic conditions. We found out that, at the annual scale, crop

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721 production was generally not significantly impacted by the different residue management
722 strategies. However, over the duration of the trial, while no effect of residue fate was reported (IN
723 vs. OUT), the cumulative grain yield was found to be significantly lower (–3.4%) under reduced
724 tillage (RT) compared to conventional tillage (CT).

725 In this seven-year experiment, small but gradually increasing differences between the different
726 crop residue management strategies were observed. After a few years, the TOC content in the soil
727 was higher only where the residues were incorporated and the tillage reduced. Overall, a
728 stratification of organic matter and nutrients was observed under reduced tillage, i.e. for TOC, P
729 and K. Crops grown on reduced tillage plots had a lower germination rate in some years, but in
730 two years out of three crops overcame this germination gap through compensation mechanisms
731 and finally yields were statistically equivalent.

732 Soil processes in general, and carbon dynamics in particular, are slow processes. Our study
733 reflects a system currently in transition, which will likely continue to evolve over the next
734 decade. Therefore, it will be of uttermost importance to continue the monitoring of this
735 experimental site in order to understand the long-term impact of residue management on crop
736 performance and soil quality and health.

737 Finally, when choosing among soil and crop management techniques, (among which the fate of
738 residues and the intensity of tillage that were analysed in this study are few examples), other
739 factors than the sole crop productivity should be included in the farmer's decision process, such
740 as fuel consumption, required working hours, greenhouse gas emissions (Lognoul et al., 2017 -
741 analysis conducted on the same experiment), soil fauna (Degruene, 2017- analysis conducted on
742 the same experiment), long-term soil quality and health.

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6. Acknowledgements

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Crop development

Differences between treatments were observed for crop development. Incorporation of residues (IN plots) negatively impacted the first two rotations (winter wheat seasons 2009-10 and 2010-11). These differences appeared in both cases after the ear emergence stage (BBCH59, (JKI, 2010)).

1.1.1.

These were more pronounced for the shoot than the ear biomasses. In 2010, with weather conditions close to historical means, lower biomass under IN treatments decreased over the crop growth period

1.1.2.

and no negative impact of residues on yields were observed. In 2011, characterised by a spring drought, the combination of residue exportation and conventional tillage (CT-OUT) was favourable to the crop development.

Reduced tillage negatively impacted crop development of winter wheat (2010-11), faba bean (2013) and maize (2015) (Figure 1). This was probably due, in part, to the lower germination rate in RT plots for the winter wheat crop (2010-11) and faba bean (2013). However, the gap between treatments decreased for the different crops as they developed through the season. For faba bean no differences were observed between the final biomass and the harvested yield (Table 5), while statistical differences between RT and CT remained for maize cultivated in 2015 (Figure 1 and Table 5).

Yearly grain yields were in general not influenced by residue fate or soil tillage, except for a negative effect for reduced tillage for winter wheat cultivated in 2010-11 (−9%) and maize in 2015 (−4%) and residue incorporation for winter wheat in 2010-11 (−10%, year characterised by a spring drought, Appendix A).

The cumulative grain yield since 2010 was significantly lower under reduced compared to conventional tillage (−3.4%, Table 5

Página 10: [5] Eliminado	Marie-Pierre Hiel	11/04/18 11:38:00
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There was no significant effect on grain quality, except for P in winter wheat grains in 2010-11 and a slightly lower K content under conventional tillage in 2 years out of 5 (data not shown, available at <https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.5442289>).

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No correlation could be seen between germination rate and shoot dry weight produced except for faba bean (2013) and a slight effect for winter wheat (2010-11) (Figure 2A). Grain yield was only positively correlated to germination rate for winter wheat (2010-11) (Figure 2B). Similarly, grain yield was slightly correlated to shoot dry weight for that year only (Figure 2C).

Crop residues

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Crop production, which is an important driver of farmer's decisions, was not dramatically impacted by the different residue management strategies. When choosing a crop residue management under temperate climate, other factors than yield should determine the decision taken by a farmer, such as fuel consumption, working hours, greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions (Lognoul et al., 2017), soil fauna (Degruene, 2017), long-term soil quality and health (Parvin et al., in prep.).

The impact of residue fate (IN and OUT) and tillage treatment (conventional and reduced) on crop production and soil fertility are known to be highly dependent on the pedo-climatic conditions.