

Tillage-induced short-term soil organic matter turnover and respiration

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Abstract

Tillage induces decomposition and mineralisation of soil organic matter (SOM) by the disruption of macroaggregates and may increase soil CO₂ efflux by respiration, but these processes are not well understood at the molecular level. We sampled three treatments (mineral fertiliser = MF, biogas digestate = BD, unfertilised control = CL) of a stagnic luvisol a few hours before and directly after tillage, and four days later from a harvested maize field in Northern Germany and investigated these samples by pyrolysis-field ionization mass spectrometry (Py-FIMS) and hot-water extraction. Before tillage, the Py-FIMS mass spectra revealed distinct differences in relative ion intensities of MF and CL compared to BD most likely attributable to the cattle manure used for the biogas feedstock and to relative enrichments during anaerobic fermentation. After tillage, the CO₂ effluxes were increased in all treatments, but this increase was less pronounced in BD. We explain this by a restricted availability of readily biodegradable carbon compounds and, possibly an inhibitory effect of sterols from digestates. Despite high spatial variability, significant changes in SOM composition were observed following tillage. In particular, lignin decomposition and increased proportions of N-containing compounds were detected in BD. In MF, lipid proportions increased at the expense of ammonia, ammonium, carbohydrates and peptides,

indicating an enhanced microbial activity. SOM composition in CL was unaffected by tillage. In summary, combining all analyses data provided strong evidence for significant short-term SOM changes due to tillage in fertilised soils.

32

33 **1 Introduction**

34 The influence of tillage on soil organic matter (SOM) is generally well understood.
35 Tillage stimulates decomposition of SOM resulting in increased CO₂ efflux (Dao,
36 1998), mostly by aeration and by the disruption of macro-aggregates, leading to release
37 of protected in SOM (Grandy and Robertson, 2007). In the long-term, tillage promotes a
38 shift of chemical structure and age towards more recent SOM (Grandy and Neff, 2008)
39 due to both, the mineralisation of older SOM and the decomposition of recent plant
40 residues (Balesdent et al., 1990). In addition, tilled soils contain lower amounts of
41 readily biodegradable (hereinafter referred to as “labile”) organic matter (Balota et al.,
42 2003) and have an increased potential for mineralisation and nitrification (Doran, 1980)
43 which implies a lower potential to immobilise mineral N (Follett and Schimel, 1989;
44 Schulten and Hempfling, 1992). However, the immediate, short-term effects of tillage
45 events on SOM are almost unknown.

46 Research on short term effects of tillage on SOM has focussed largely on CO₂ efflux:
47 several studies recorded the dynamics of CO₂ efflux immediately after tillage (cf., Table
48 5 in Fiedler et al., 2015) and some basic models have been developed that describe
49 correlations between CO₂ efflux and the turnover of soil organic carbon (SOC) after
50 tillage by first order kinetics (La Scala et al., 2008). Admittedly, these correlations do
51 not causally explain which organic components are mineralised. Furthermore, SOM-
52 CO₂-efflux-relationships are influenced by the type of soil amendment (Fiedler et al.,
53 2015).

54 Biogas digestate is a relatively new type of soil amendment, and its long-term stability
55 in soil is still under debate as recently reviewed by Möller (2015). Consequently, it is
56 not clear how long-term application of biogas digestates would alter the composition of
57 SOM, and tillage effects on short-term SOM turnover in biogas digestate-amended soils
58 are almost unstudied. Even short-term changes of SOM may have strong effects on

59 nutrient availability and plant productivity. A better understanding of the immediate
60 impacts of tillage on SOM and its turnover may help to avoid adverse effects for plant
61 growth (Franzluebbers et al., 1994).

62 In general, detecting changes in the molecular-chemical composition of SOM in time
63 periods as short as days, requires extremely sensitive methods. Pyrolysis-field
64 ionization mass spectrometry (Py-FIMS) is a very sensitive method and has been
65 applied successfully to investigate differences in the chemical composition of SOM
66 under different fertiliser treatments like mineral NPK-fertiliser or farmyard manure
67 (Jandl et al., 2004; Leinweber et al., 2008; Schmidt et al., 2000). Even very small
68 alterations in the composition and stability of dissolved organic matter – a very reactive
69 part of SOM – during storage in the fridge (Schulten et al., 2008) or diurnal cycles of
70 CO₂-assimilation and respiration (Kuzyakov et al., 2003; Melnitchouck et al., 2005)
71 have been detected and resolved by multivariate statistics of mass-spectrometric
72 fingerprints. Furthermore, Py-FIMS of bulk SOM revealed alterations in laboratory
73 incubation experiments and allowed to link these to respiration and enzyme activities
74 (Leinweber et al., 2008). However, it is unclear if the method is sensitive enough to
75 detect tillage-induced SOM alterations under various fertilisation regimes and analyse
76 its influence on CO₂ efflux at the field scale where spatial heterogeneity may interfere
77 with the temporal dynamics much more than in the above cited laboratory studies.

78 Hot-water extraction is a relatively simple method to release labile SOM and to estimate
79 how much of soil C and N can be easily utilised by microorganisms (Leinweber et al.,
80 1995). These labile pools have been suggested to be an important indicator of short-
81 term changes in SOM quality due to soil management (Haynes, 2005). Furthermore, a
82 significant proportion of hot water-extracted organic matter originates from microbial
83 biomass. Thus, this approach is a potential indicator for changes in microbial biomass
84 or activity (Sparling et al., 1998), which may reflect sources of CO₂ efflux following
85 tillage.

86 Here, we investigate (1) short-term effects of tillage on SOM composition and (2)
87 potential relationships between decomposable SOM fractions and measured CO₂ efflux
88 under the impact of different soil amendments by combining Py-FIMS with CO₂ efflux

89 measurements.

90

91 **2 Materials and methods**

92 **2.1 Study site**

93 The study site is located in northeast Germany in the ground moraine of the
94 Weichselian glacial period at 53° 48' 35" N and 12° 4' 20" E (elevation 10 m) within a
95 gently rolling relief. The soil is a stagnic luvisol (IUSS Working Group WRB, 2006)
96 with sandy loam texture (sand = 63 %, silt = 26 %, clay = 11 %) overlying bedrock of
97 till. The top soil (0-30 cm) has an organic carbon content of 1.16% \pm 0.10 (mean \pm
98 standard deviation, $n = 3$), pH of 7.4 \pm 0.9 ($n = 3$) and bulk density of 1.51 g cm⁻³ \pm 0.08
99 ($n = 3$), measured according to Fiedler et al. (2015). The climate is characterized by
100 maritime influence with annual averages of 8.8° C temperature and 557 mm total
101 precipitation for the 30-year-period from 1985 until 2014 (LFA, 2015). The experiment
102 was conducted on a field which has been cultivated with maize (*Zea Mays* L.), cultivar
103 “Atletico”, as feedstock for a biogas plant. The previous crops were winter wheat
104 (*Triticum aestivum* L.) followed by maize.

105 We compared three fertiliser treatments: CL – without fertiliser (control), MF – with
106 mineral fertiliser, and BD – with biogas digestate. The size of the three experimental
107 plots was 6 by 30 m each. In both fertilised treatments, equal overall amounts of plant-
108 available N were applied (160 kg ha⁻¹) on 26 April 2012. The mineral fertiliser calcium
109 ammonium nitrate was top-dressed whereas the biogas digestate was injected into the
110 soil down to 10 cm depth with a track width of 25 cm. Following the research facility
111 for agriculture and fisheries (LFA) of the federal state of Mecklenburg-Western
112 Pomerania, Germany (2012, personal communication), a mineral fertiliser equivalent of
113 70% of total N in the biogas digestates (229 kg N ha⁻¹) was assumed. The biogas
114 digestate originated from the anaerobic fermentation of 91% cattle slurry, 7% rye groats
115 and 2% maize silage; it had pH 8.1, and 3.8% C, 0.5% total N and 0.3% NH₄-N in
116 undried material. During the cropping season 2012, maize was grown according to
117 conventional agricultural practice.

118 Sixteen days after harvest of the maize (8 October 2012), the field site was first tilled
 119 with a disc harrow “Väderstad Carrier 300” down to 10 cm depth (24 October, about
 120 9.15 a.m.) and then with a reversible mouldboard plough “Överum CX 490” down to 30
 121 cm depth on the subsequent day (25 October, about 11.30 a.m.).

122 **2.2 CO₂ concentration measurement and estimation of CO₂ efflux**

123 For measuring CO₂ exchange, we permanently installed three replicate bases in each
 124 treatment after fertilisation in spring which were removed for tillage and inserted back
 125 afterwards. The adjacent bases were placed 1 m apart. The bases had dimensions of
 126 79 x 79 cm, a total height of 15 cm and were installed into the soil down to 12 cm
 127 depth. The CO₂ concentration measurements were performed with two LI-COR (Inc.,
 128 Lincoln, NE, USA) LI-820 infrared gas analysers, each connected to a non-steady state
 129 closed chamber that was placed on the bases during measurements. The chambers had a
 130 square area of 0.6241 m² and a height of 0.55 m, resulting in a chamber volume of 0.34
 131 m³ and were equipped with small fans (80 x 80 x 25 mm, 3000 rpm, 68 m³ h⁻¹) in order
 132 to mix and homogenize the air inside the chambers. Due to the successive measurement
 133 of the replicate bases in each treatment, we obtained pseudo-replications.

134 During chamber placement, we recorded CO₂ concentrations in the chamber headspace
 135 with 1.3 s intervals for 3 to 5 min, resulting in approximately 140 to 230 data points per
 136 measurement. Fluxes were estimated with function *fluxx* of package *flux* version 0.3-0
 137 (Jurasinski et al., 2014) for the R statistical software version 2.15.2 (R Core Team,
 138 2013). In short, the algorithm identifies the most linear part of the CO₂ concentration
 139 development during chamber placement time and fits a linear regression model (Eq.
 140 (1)):

$$141 \quad f = \frac{MpV}{RTA} \frac{dc}{dt} 10^6, \quad (1)$$

142 with *f* the CO₂ flux (g m⁻² h⁻¹), *M* the molar mass of CO₂ (g mol⁻¹), *p* the air pressure
 143 (Pa), *V* the chamber volume (m³), *R* the gas constant (J mol⁻¹ K⁻¹), *T* the temperature
 144 inside the chamber (K), *A* the area covered by the chamber (m²), and *dc/dt* the CO₂
 145 concentration change over time (ppm h⁻¹). The minimum proportion of data points to be

146 kept for regression analyses was 70 % of a concentration measurement. This allowed
147 discarding data noise at the beginning and the end resulting from chamber deployment
148 and removal (for details see help file for function *fluxx* of package *flux*). Thus, each CO₂
149 flux was estimated at least from 98 concentration measurements. Only linear fluxes
150 with a concentration change of at least 10 ppm, a normalised root mean square error
151 (NRMSE) ≤ 0.15 and a coefficient of determination (R^2) of at least 0.85 were included
152 in further analyses. We assumed linearity of concentration change and did not test for
153 non-linearity since 95.1% of the obtained linear regressions had $R^2 \geq 0.95$.

154 To obtain reference data from before tillage operations, the undisturbed site was
155 measured hourly between 7 a.m. and 1 p.m. on 19 October 2012 (i.e. between harvest
156 and tillage). The intervals between measurements before, during and after tillage
157 operations were varied to effectively capture the development of CO₂. The
158 measurements immediately after the tillage operations were conducted within one
159 minute by inserting the collars and putting on the airtight chambers. The timeline (24
160 till 29 October) of tillage events, soil samplings and the respective CO₂ measurements,
161 together with soil temperature, is shown in Fig. 1. After this period, CO₂ measurements
162 were performed hourly before noon on 1, 5 and 9 November.

163 **2.3 Soil sampling and analyses**

164 Three replicates of bulk soil samples were taken between 0 – 10 cm depth (depending
165 on unevenness of soil surface due to tillage) with soil sample rings ($h = 6.1$ cm, $V = 250$
166 cm³) in a triangular arrangement between the three collars for gas sampling (see 2.2) in
167 each treatment at three dates: 1) right before the first tillage operation, 2) in the
168 afternoon after the second tillage operation and 3) four days after the second tillage
169 operation. The resulting 27 soil samples were fixed immediately with liquid nitrogen
170 and splitted thereafter into subsamples for freeze-drying and for oven-drying at 60° C.

171 For Pyrolysis-field ionization mass spectrometry (Py-FIMS), the freeze-dried samples
172 were finely ground and homogenized by a planetary ball mill. Then, about 2 g were
173 transferred into a Petri dish with a spatula and three crucibles were filled by drawing
174 them across. These subsamples of about 5 mg were thermally degraded in the ion

175 source (emitter: 4.7 kV, counter electrode -5.5 kV) of a double-focusing Finnigan MAT
176 95 mass spectrometer (Finnigan, Bremen, Germany). The samples were heated in a
177 vacuum of 10^{-4} Pa from 50 °C to 700 °C, in temperature steps of 10 °C over a time
178 period of 15 minutes. Between magnetic scans the emitter was flash heated to avoid
179 residues of pyrolysis products. The Py-FIMS mass spectra of each sample were gained
180 by the integration of 65 single scans in a mass range of 15 – 900 m/z . Ion intensities
181 were referred to 1 mg of the sample. Volatile matter was calculated as mass loss in
182 percentage of sample weight. The three replicates of each sample were then averaged to
183 one final survey spectrum. Moreover, thermograms were compiled for the total ion
184 intensities. The assignment of marker signals to chemical compounds from the survey
185 spectra were interpreted according to Leinweber et al. (2013) to obtain the relative
186 abundance of ten SOM compound classes: 1) carbohydrates, 2) phenols and lignin
187 monomers, 3) lignin dimers, 4) lipids, alkanes, alkenes, bound fatty acids and alkyl
188 monoesters, 5) alkylaromatics, 6) mainly heterocyclic N-containing compounds, 7)
189 sterols, 8) peptides, 9) suberin, and 10) free fatty acids.

190 Subsamples of oven-dried and sieved soil (2 mm) were used for determination of total
191 and hot water-extracted C and N. For determination of total C and N, 1 g of ground soil
192 was analysed with a vario Max CN Element Analyzer (elementar Analysensysteme
193 GmbH, Hanau, Germany) based on high temperature combustion at up to 1200 °C with
194 subsequent gas analysis. For hot-water extraction, 20 g soil was boiled in 40 ml
195 deionized water for 60 minutes (Leinweber et al., 1995). After filtration with pleated
196 filter (240 mm, 80 g m^{-2}) by Munktell (Falun, Sweden), extracts were analysed with a
197 DIMATOC 2000 (DIMATEC Analysentechnik GmbH, Essen, Germany) for
198 determination of hot-water extractable organic C (HWC) as well as of organic and
199 inorganic bound N, often referred to as “total nitrogen bound” (HWN). These
200 measurements of organic C and total nitrogen bound are based on the principle of
201 thermal-catalytic oxidation with subsequent NDIR detection and the principle of
202 chemiluminescence, respectively. For each sample, two replicates were analysed and
203 results were averaged for further calculations.

204 **2.4 Statistical analyses**

205 Since the soil of the study site shows high small-scale variability (LFA, 2012, personal
206 communication), sampling locations were expected to be independent enough to be
207 treated as real replicates. Especially the relatively high standard deviances of our soil
208 data corroborate this assumption.

209 All statistical analyses were run using R 2.15.2 (R Core Team, 2013). The cumulated
210 CO₂ effluxes were estimated by a bootstrap method with the function *auc.mc* of the R
211 package *flux* version 0.3-0 (Jurasinski et al., 2014). In detail, the CO₂ fluxes were
212 cumulated in 250 iterations, while for each run 25 fluxes were omitted randomly for the
213 period after tillage. For the reference period before tillage, in each iteration run 4 fluxes
214 were omitted randomly. The numbers of randomly omitted fluxes per run correspond
215 roughly to one fifth of the recorded fluxes per treatment in the respective periods. The
216 resulting data were used to calculate means and standard deviations. Tukey's HSD test
217 was applied to test for differences in means of CO₂ fluxes as well as of HWC and HWN
218 between sampling periods and treatments against a significance level of $\alpha < 0.05$. Py-
219 FIMS signals of the compound classes were tested for differences in means by Tukey's
220 HSD test against a significance level of $\alpha < 0.1$ since the number of replicates was
221 limited and the variances rather high.

222 A principal component analysis (PCA) was applied to the mass signals with significant
223 differences between the samples according to univariate Wilk's λ ($p < 0.001$) with
224 function *rda* of R package *vegan* version 2.3-0 (Oksanen et al., 2015).

225 Partial least squares regression (PLSR) was used for discrimination (Barker and Rayens,
226 2003) to maximally explore linkages between shifts in the *m/z* data by tillage and shifts
227 in CO₂ efflux. PLSR models were built using function *autopls* of the R package
228 "autopls" version 1.3 (Schmidtlin et al., 2015) with stepwise backward selection
229 combined with a 10-fold cross-validation to substantially reduce the number of
230 variables, *i.e.*, to extract the variables with the highest explanatory power. The PLSR
231 procedure was repeated 10.000 times to yield coherent results since the obtained PLSR
232 models differed widely both in the number and in the choice of variables, thus in their
233 predictive performance. Based on the performance index suggested by Bauwe et al.

234 (2015), the 500 “best” models were obtained and, finally, the mass signals which were
235 utilised more than 50 times in the latter models were extracted.

236

237 **3 Results**

238 **3.1 Soil organic carbon, nitrogen, hot-water extractable carbon and hot-** 239 **water extractable nitrogen**

240 One of the replicates in MF exhibited exceptionally low HWC and HWN values.
241 According to Dixon’s Q-test, these values were outliers (one-third and half,
242 respectively, as high as for the other replicates in MF) and thus excluded from further
243 analysis. Before tillage, the soil of all treatments had similar C and HWC contents, but
244 differences appeared between MF and BD, where the N and HWN contents were
245 slightly, though not significantly, higher in MF, resulting in significantly narrower C/N
246 and HWC/HWN ratios in MF (8.55 and 5.93, respectively) compared to BD (9.03 and
247 8.54, respectively) (Table 1). The C, N and HWC contents of all treatments were
248 changed only slightly by tillage, but the HWN content of soil in BD increased from 0.05
249 mg g^{-1} (5.6 % of N) up to 0.07 mg g^{-1} (7.4 % of N), resulting in a significant ($p < 0.05$)
250 narrowing of the HWC/HWN ratio from 8.5 down to 6.0 (Table 1).

251 **3.2 Soil CO₂ efflux**

252 Five days before the tillage operations (19 October 2012), the mean efflux rates (all in g
253 $\text{CO}_2\text{-C m}^{-2} \text{ h}^{-1}$) were 0.133 (CL), 0.192 (MF) and 0.173 (BD), with the efflux being
254 significantly lower from CL than from the amended plots MF and BD ($p < 0.05$) (Fig.
255 2). In the morning before the first tillage operation with a disc harrow (24 October), the
256 effluxes had similar magnitudes and proportions like five days before (CL = 0.147, MF
257 = BD = 0.199, all in g $\text{CO}_2\text{-C m}^{-2} \text{ h}^{-1}$). After harrowing, CO_2 -effluxes increased to 0.849
258 (CL), 0.833 (MF) and 0.479 (BD). Over the next 5.5 hours, these values declined to
259 0.602 (CL), 0.460 (MF) and 0.276 (BD) resulting in overall mean effluxes of 0.554
260 (CL), 0.481 (MF) and 0.344 (BD), with the latter being now significantly lower
261 ($p < 0.05$) than CL or MF during the measured period after harrowing. Directly before

the second tillage operation with a reversible mouldboard plough in the morning of the following day (25 October), the mean effluxes were 0.299 (CL), 0.249 (MF) and 0.290 (BD) (all in g CO₂-C m⁻² h⁻¹). Immediately after ploughing, they increased sharply up to 2.443 (CL), 2.654 (MF) and 3.347 (BD) and declined to 0.371 (CL), 0.718 (MF) and 0.223 (BD) after 4 hours, leading to overall mean effluxes of the measured period after ploughing of CL = 1.012, MF = 1.392, and BD = 1.020. Although the mean CO₂ fluxes within each treatment differed significantly ($p < 0.05$) from the other measured days only after ploughing (25 October), BD on average showed significantly ($p < 0.05$) lower fluxes than CL or MF after tillage on 24 and 29 October (Fig. 3) as well as on 1 November (CL = 0.262, MF = 0.242, BD = 0.113, all in g CO₂-C m⁻² h⁻¹) and 5 November (CL = 0.331, MF = 0.316, BD = 0.074, all in g CO₂-C m⁻² h⁻¹).

3.3 Pyrolysis-Field Ionization Mass Spectroscopy

The thermograms of total ion intensity (TII) and the Py-FIMS mass spectra of the soil samples of CL and MF taken before tillage were similar whereas the ones of BD were different from those two (Fig. 4): The TII-thermograms of CL and MF had a peak at 480 °C, but BD displayed a pronounced bimodal shape with a first volatilisation maximum at about 390 °C which was less marked in CL and MF. Furthermore, the mass spectrum of BD differed distinctly from the mass spectra of MF and CL, especially in the abundance of marker signals for carbohydrates and peptides (e.g., m/z 58, 60, 84, 69, 110, 126 and 162) were lower. Apart from this the spectra are dominated by signals for lignin mono- and dimers (e.g., m/z 150, 208, 222, 244) as well as for homologous series of alkenes and alkadienes from n -C₁₈ up (e.g., m/z 252, 264/266, 278/280, 294, 308, 322, 336, 364, 392, 406) (Fig. 4).

After discriminant function analysis with Wilk's λ , the resulting significant relative mass signals ($p < 0.001$, $n = 67$) were further explored by PCA. The first two principal components explained 78.3% and 8.3% of total variance. All treatments are well separated from each other (Fig. 5), with CL mainly in the 3rd quadrant, MF mainly in the 1st and BD spanning from the 2nd to the 4th quadrant. According to this analysis, samples from MF and BD taken before the tillage events (pre) showed the largest differences in composition. The PCA separated the samples taken at different dates (pre,

292 post and post + 4) in the treatments MF and BD, but not in CL.

293 Basic data of the Py-FI mass spectra and the proportions of compound classes are
294 compiled in Table 2. Approximately 46.9% of the TII in the mass spectra could be
295 explained by m/z signals assigned to the compound classes. Additionally, non-specific
296 low-mass signals and isotope peaks contributed 2.6% and 14.2%, respectively. Before
297 tillage, the volatized matter (VM) was highest in BD although the differences in means
298 were not significant ($p > 0.1$). However, four days after tillage VM increased to 7.1% in
299 BD and then significantly ($p < 0.05$) exceeded that in MF and CL. Such an increase
300 over time was only observed for BD, but it was not significant ($p > 0.1$). In the other
301 treatments, a temporal increase in VM occurred directly after the first tillage with disc
302 harrow.

303 The relative (Table 2) and absolute (data not shown) ion intensities of the compound
304 classes varied across treatments before tillage and changed differently after tillage. In
305 the undisturbed soil, BD had the lowest proportions of carbohydrates, heterocyclic N-
306 containing compounds and peptides and the highest proportions of lignin dimers, lipids,
307 sterols, suberin and free fatty acids. CL was characterized by higher proportions of
308 phenols and lignin monomers whereas MF ranged between BD and CL regarding the
309 proportions of these compound classes. In BD, the relative proportions of the samples
310 taken after tillage displayed significant ($p < 0.1$) increases of carbohydrates, phenols
311 and lignin monomers, alkylaromatics, heterocyclic N-containing compounds and
312 peptides while lignin dimers, lipids, sterols and free fatty acids decreased. In MF, the
313 proportion of lipids increased while carbohydrates and peptides decreased. No changes
314 were detected in the unfertilised treatment CL. The discrimination of relative mass
315 signals with PLSR to explain cumulated CO_2 efflux revealed mainly functional groups
316 from ketones and amides, peptides, carbohydrates as well as lignin building blocks and
317 fatty acids (Table 3).

318 Linear correlations were calculated to investigate relationships between HWC, HWN
319 and soil respiration as suitable indicators of SOM dynamics (Kuzyakov, 2006;
320 Leinweber et al., 1995) and the absolute signal counts of the compound classes (Fig. 6).
321 The latter was derived from Table 2 by Eq. (2).

$$CII_{abs} = \frac{TII \times CII_{rel}}{100}, \quad (2)$$

with CII_{abs} the absolute ion intensity of the respective compound class, TII the total ion intensity and CII_{rel} the proportion of the ion intensity of the respective compound class.

In MF only the ion intensities for carbohydrates were positively correlated with HWC whereas in BD more compound classes correlated with the tested indicators of SOM dynamics. Here, HWC was positively correlated with the ion intensities of lignin dimers, lipids, alkylaromatics, sterols and suberin, but no such correlation was found for carbohydrates in contrast to MF. However, HWN showed a positive correlation with carbohydrates in BD. HWN was also positively correlated to phenols and lignin monomers as well as to heterocyclic N-containing compounds but negatively correlated to free fatty acids. CO_2 efflux increased with decreasing amounts of sterols and suberin in BD.

4 Discussion

4.1 Bulk soil and hot-water extracted carbon and nitrogen

The C-, HWC-, N- and HWN-contents of the treatments showed no significant differences before tillage (Table 1), thus confirming the outcomes of other field experiments with similar fertilisers (Makádi et al., 2016; Odlare et al., 2014). However, the C- and N-contents obtained may not be representative for long-term effects of biogas digestate vs. mineral fertiliser which may also depend on soil texture (Makádi et al., 2016).

The increase in HWN in BD after tillage indicates an increase of easily mineralisable organic N which probably originates from soil biomass and lysates (Ghani et al., 2003; Leinweber et al., 1995) and implies an accelerated microbial turnover of soil organic N. This seems reasonable since the microbial community is able to adjust its structure and activity relatively fast to utilise formerly protected organic matter after exposure due to disruption of aggregates by tillage (Jackson et al., 2003; La Scala et al., 2008). Accordingly, Fiedler et al. (2015) observed a short-lived increase of HWC after the first

of two days of several tillage operations which was not found in the present study. Possibly, we did not detect it, because we took no soil samples after the first day. Overall, a single amendment with biogas digestates very likely is insufficient to initiate changes in bulk soil C- and N-levels. However, the increased HWN-levels in BD can be ascribed to a tillage promoted microbial turnover of soil organic N, confirming that the hot water extracts are a particularly sensitive approach to detect early SOM changes (Haynes, 2005).

4.2 Soil CO₂ efflux

The immediate and sharp increase of CO₂ efflux from soils just after tillage is a well-documented response and seems to be mainly driven by the release of trapped CO₂ from broken up aggregates by tillage (Reicosky et al., 1997). It is commonly suggested that a few hours afterwards, waning of this physical outgassing is accompanied by an increased soil respiration due to a better substrate supply for microorganisms from disrupted aggregates as well as increased soil aeration (Grandy and Robertson, 2007). The amounts of the observed fluxes are well in accordance with the findings of previous studies (e. g., Rochette and Angers, 1999) and can be explained both by the magnitude of the disturbance, i.e. soil comminution, and the fertilisation history of the soil (Fiedler et al., 2015).

The smaller relative efflux from BD compared to MF and CL after tillage is remarkable since before tillage the CO₂ fluxes in BD were of the same magnitude as those in MF and exceeded those in CL (Fig. 2). This becomes particularly evident when one considers the relation of cumulated CO₂ fluxes between the treatments before (19 October) and after tillage (24 – 29 October) (Fig. 3). The relatively lower CO₂ efflux from BD after tillage may have different reasons. On the one hand, the organic matter originating from the digestates is likely less available to soil microorganisms than undigested organic matter, i. e. more “recalcitrant”, since the most labile C is generally consumed in the biogas reactor (Möller, 2015). On the other hand, even a single application of organic amendment can increase aggregate stability (Grandy et al., 2002). Therefore, the resilience against disruption by tillage might be promoted, leading to a better physical protection of labile soil C not contained within digestates. As a

consequence, the effect of increased CO₂ efflux after tillage as observed in CL and MF, may have been substantially reduced by a relative shortage of labile substrate for soil respiration in BD. The proportion of carbohydrates in BD derived from Py-FIMS, as discussed below, indicates not limited, but rather low levels of available C in the soil of BD.

4.3 Pyrolysis-Field Ionization Mass Spectroscopy and synthesis

Generally, the Py-FIMS basic data and mass spectra (Fig. 4) and the proportions of compound classes (Table 2) confirm published data from this method for Luvisols in terms of relatively high shares of lignin monomers, phenols and alkylaromatics (Leinweber et al., 2009). Lignin monomers and phenols might be collectively attributed to residues of the just harvested maize. Indeed, Gregorich et al. (1996) found that these are important components of maize leaves and roots as well as the light fraction of the soil under this crop. However, the Py-FIMS data indicate differences in SOM composition between the fertilization treatments and a pronounced as well as distinct impact of tillage in the treatments MF and BD (Fig. 5).

In the spectra of samples from BD, the additional peak at 390° C in the TII-thermogram (Fig. 4) can be attributed mainly to phenols and lignin monomers which likely originated from primary organic matter residues since this relatively low volatilization temperature indicates labile and fairly undecomposed organic matter (Ludwig et al., 2015; Sleutel et al., 2011). It is reasonable to refer this organic matter to residues from the application of BD. The VM, which is an indicator of SOM content (Sorge et al., 1993) but also of its stability (Ludwig et al., 2015), was larger in BD before tillage than in MF and CL. This suggests a tendency to elevated SOM due to application of rather stable organic matter with biogas digestate. The VM increase after tillage might be explained by a general destabilization, perhaps by an enhanced SOM turnover due to an improved microbial accessibility to relatively recalcitrant residues of BD after tillage (Dao, 1998). The temporal increase in VM directly after the first tillage with disc harrow in MF and CL may indicate a similar increased accessibility of SOM. But here, the newly available SOM has been depleted quickly by microbial respiration since the microbial community is able to respond rapidly to disturbances of arable soils (Jackson

et al., 2003). In MF, this assumption is supported by the decreasing shares of carbohydrates and by significantly decreasing relative signals of m/z 17 and 18 (data not shown), which are assigned to ammonia and ammonium, pointing to a microbial immobilisation (Mengel, 1996). Accordingly, these two m/z were also selected by the PLSR as explanatory signals for CO₂ efflux (Table 3).

The compound classes of BD revealed the largest proportions of lignin dimers, lipids, sterols, suberin and free fatty acids at the expense of carbohydrates, heterocyclic N-containing compounds and peptides before tillage (Table 2). Such a SOM composition most likely reflects the cattle manure and plant residues of the biogas feedstock and their relative depletions (amides and polysaccharides) or enrichments (lignins and long-chain aliphatic compounds) during anaerobic fermentation (Möller, 2015; van Bochove et al., 1996). The pronounced tillage effect in this treatment, obvious from the increased relative signal intensities of carbohydrates, phenols and lignin monomers, alkylaromatics, heterocyclic N-containing compounds and peptides at the expense of lignin dimers, lipids, sterols and free fatty acids following tillage (Table 2), suggests the decomposition of lignin and the new formation of carbohydrates and peptides. This is in line with reports of lignin decomposition faster than that of the total SOM (Leinweber et al., 2008; Thevenot et al., 2010). Kalbitz et al. (2003) suggested that lignin-derived moieties and lipids are utilised by microorganisms at low initial availability of carbohydrates, accompanied by an accumulation of the resulting microbial metabolites like carbohydrates and peptides. This suggestion is supported on the one hand by the effect of specific lignins on soil CO₂ efflux (Table 3) since CO₂ is an indicator for microbial decomposition activity (Kuzyakov, 2006). On the other hand, a relative increase of the signals for m/z 125, 167, 185 and 203 was observed in the BD treatment (data not shown) which are assigned to the bacterial cell wall products N-acetylmuramic acid and N-acetylmuramyl-L-alanyl-D-isoglutamine (Bahr and Schulten, 1983). Furthermore, the build-up of heterocyclic N-containing compounds might also imply a relative shortage of available carbohydrates since a reduced C availability during the microbial transformation of N is suggested to promote formation of heterocyclic N instead of N immobilisation (Follett and Schimel, 1989; Gillespie et al., 2014; Schulten and Hempfling, 1992). The increased proportion of lipids at the expense of

441 carbohydrates and peptides in MF likely results from increased heterotrophic respiration
442 of labile substrates driven by enhanced microbial activity after tillage (La Scala et al.,
443 2008; Zakharova et al., 2014). The minor changes in SOM compounds in CL might be a
444 consequence of the wider HWC/HWN ratio compared to MF and BD since it indicates a
445 lower availability of labile N for microbial utilisation (Mengel, 1996). However, the
446 total C/N ratios were not critical for microbial activity (Table 1) (Kuzyakov et al.,
447 2000).

448 The positive linear correlation of HWC with lignin dimers, lipids, alkylaromatics,
449 sterols and suberin in BD (Fig. 6) indicates a reasonable linkage between the dynamic
450 organic C fraction (as indicated by HWC) and the quantity of applied biogas digestate
451 (as indicated by lignin dimers, lipids, alkylaromatics, sterols and suberin). At the same
452 time, the microorganisms in BD may have been short in available labile C since there
453 was no significant ($p > 0.05$) correlation between HWC and carbohydrates. In contrast,
454 a significant and positive correlation was observed between HWC and carbohydrates in
455 MF (Fig. 6). This linkage was previously described by Leinweber et al. (1995) and
456 attributed to microbial biomass (Ghani et al., 2003) and labile soil C (Sparling et al.,
457 1998).

458 Interestingly, HWN correlated positively with carbohydrates in BD. Since the major
459 part of carbohydrates in soils originate from microorganisms and their residues (Gunina
460 and Kuzyakov, 2015), this may suggest a metabolic coupling between carbohydrates
461 and HWN because many N-cycling processes are mediated microbially (Isobe and
462 Ohte, 2014). This idea is supported by the negative correlation between HWN and free
463 fatty acids, which also hints at a coupling of the dynamic N pool with microbial activity
464 in BD. Actually, free fatty acids are known as a major carbon source during nitrogen
465 immobilisation by microbial anabolism (Kirchmann and Lundvall, 1993).

466 In BD, the cumulated CO₂ efflux and the amounts of sterols were negatively correlated
467 (Fig. 6). This supports the suggestion of Heumann et al. (2011, 2013) that sterols may
468 have an inhibitory effect on microorganisms of the N cycle. Furthermore, Negassa et al.
469 (2011) reported a significant inhibition of the urease activity with increasing sterol
470 proportions in agro-industrial byproducts. Since microbial activity affects heterotrophic

soil respiration (Kuzyakov, 2006), increased amounts of sterols as they are typically found in biogas digestates (Leinweber, 2015, unpublished Py-FIMS data) likely delay the decomposition and, thus, may slow down soil respiration. However, since the amounts of sterols decreased significantly after tillage in DB (Table 3), the actual sterol contribution to reduced CO₂-efflux in BD relative to the other treatments cannot be ascertained by the present data set.

Our data and analyses suggest a short-term induction of enhanced microbial N-turnover by tillage under fertilisation with biogas digestates. This is supported by the results of each of the used methods and their cross-validation, i.e., (i) HWN as an indicator for labile N increased, (ii) lignins, ammonia and ammonium were discriminated as explanatory variables for cumulated CO₂ efflux by PLSR, (iii) Py-FIMS data point at an increase of N-containing compounds along with the decomposition of lignins, and finally, (iv) significant correlation exist among data sets from these methods (Fig. 6).

In MF, the depletion of HWC was linked to decreasing amounts of carbohydrates, certainly due to increased microbial respiration, though no significant correlation with CO₂ efflux was found. No modifications were detected in CL where the absence of amendment may have led to a relative shortage of labile N as indicated by the higher HWC/HWN-ratio which possibly prevented an enhanced microbial activity.

5 Conclusions

Combining Py-FIMS as a sensitive technique to detect differences and alterations of specific compound classes of SOM with classical methods like hot-water extraction and measurements of soil CO₂ efflux allowed us to gain a better understanding of short-term SOM turnover after tillage operations. After tillage, SOM composition of the investigated soil changed in the temporal scale of days and the changes varied significantly under different types of amendment. Particularly obvious were the turnover of lignin-derived substances and the depletion of carbohydrates due to soil respiration. Thus, in BD, the SOM turnover was relatively fast, questioning the suggested recalcitrance of biogas digestates as stable leftovers of the anaerobic fermentation. Since we found indications for inhibitory effects of sterols on the CO₂

501 efflux, which were previously reported in three independent studies on parameters of
502 the N-cycle, their long-term impact on SOM stocks should be examined more closely.
503 Therefore, future investigations should address the short- and long-term turnover of
504 SOM following various amendments, especially with the relatively new biogas
505 digestates.

506

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719 Table 1. Means and standard deviations of soil organic carbon (C), nitrogen (N), C/N ratio, hot-water extractable carbon (HWC) and
720 nitrogen (HWN) and HWC/HWN ratio before (Pre), after (Post) and four days after tillage (Post + 4). Different letters in each column
721 indicate significant differences (Tukey's HSD test, $p < 0.05$) in means. Additionally, significant changes within a treatment (BD, biogas
722 digestate; MF, mineral fertiliser; CL, control) are highlighted in bold.

Treatment	Date	C (mg g ⁻¹)	N (mg g ⁻¹)	C/N	HWC (mg g ⁻¹)	HWN (mg g ⁻¹)	HWC/HWN
BD	Pre	8.4 ± 0.0	0.9 ± 0.0 ^b	9.0 ± 0.1 ^a	0.44 ± 0.02	0.05 ± 0.00 ^{bc}	8.5 ± 0.1^a
	Post	8.5 ± 0.1	1.0 ± 0.0 ^{ab}	8.8 ± 0.3 ^{ab}	0.44 ± 0.03	0.07 ± 0.01 ^{ab}	6.1 ± 0.4^b
	Post + 4	8.4 ± 0.0	1.0 ± 0.0 ^{ab}	8.7 ± 0.0 ^{ab}	0.40 ± 0.02	0.07 ± 0.01 ^{abc}	6.0 ± 0.4^b
MF	Pre	8.7 ± 0.3	1.0 ± 0.0 ^a	8.5 ± 0.2 ^b	0.44 ± 0.05	0.08 ± 0.00 ^{ab}	5.9 ± 0.8 ^b
	Post	8.5 ± 0.3	1.0 ± 0.0 ^{ab}	8.5 ± 0.1 ^b	0.42 ± 0.04	0.09 ± 0.02 ^a	4.9 ± 0.7 ^b
	Post + 4	8.6 ± 0.3	1.0 ± 0.0 ^a	8.5 ± 0.2 ^b	0.39 ± 0.00	0.07 ± 0.01 ^{abc}	5.5 ± 0.5 ^b
CL	Pre	8.5 ± 0.2	1.0 ± 0.0 ^{ab}	8.8 ± 0.2 ^{ab}	0.50 ± 0.10	0.06 ± 0.02 ^{abc}	8.9 ± 1.3 ^a
	Post	8.6 ± 0.2	1.0 ± 0.0 ^{ab}	8.8 ± 0.0 ^{ab}	0.48 ± 0.04	0.06 ± 0.01 ^{bc}	8.8 ± 0.8 ^a
	Post + 4	8.5 ± 0.0	1.0 ± 0.0 ^{ab}	8.7 ± 0.1 ^{ab}	0.40 ± 0.03	0.04 ± 0.00 ^c	9.6 ± 0.3 ^a

Table 2. Total ion intensity (TII), percentage of matter volatilised in pyrolysis (VM), and relative contribution of soil organic matter compound classes to the TII as detected by Py-FIMS in the treatments (CL, control; MF, mineral fertiliser; BD, biogas digestate) close before (Pre), after (Post) and four days after tillage (Post + 4) with standard deviations. Different letters in a column of each treatment indicate significant differences (Tukey's HSD test, $p < 0.1$) in means of the different dates towards tillage. Additionally, treatments with significant changes are highlighted in bold.

Treatment	Date	TII (10^6 counts mg^{-1})	VM (%)	Relative proportions of compound classes (% TII)*										
				CHYDR	PHLM	LDIM	LIPID	ALKYL	NCOMP	STEROL	PEPTI	SUBER	FATTY	Sum
BD	Pre	44.3 \pm 11.5	5.2 \pm 1.3	3.7 \pm 1.8^a	9.8 \pm 3.8^a	3.4 \pm 1.4	5.3 \pm 1.0^a	11.9 \pm 1.2	1.8 \pm 0.8^a	1.6 \pm 0.7^a	4.3 \pm 1.2^a	0.1 \pm 0.1	0.5 \pm 0.2^a	42.3 \pm 5.4^a
	Post	40.3 \pm 19.3	4.7 \pm 1.3	5.6 \pm 0.3^{ab}	13.3 \pm 0.8^{ab}	2.5 \pm 0.4	4.1 \pm 0.1^b	12.5 \pm 0.7	2.8 \pm 0.2^b	0.7 \pm 0.2^b	5.5 \pm 0.3^{ab}	0 \pm 0.1	0.2 \pm 0.1^b	47.3 \pm 0.9^{ab}
	Post + 4	35.1 \pm 3.0	7.1 \pm 1.2	6.2 \pm 0.3^b	14.4 \pm 0.3^b	1.9 \pm 0.2	3.9 \pm 0.1^b	13.2 \pm 0.1	3.2 \pm 0.2^b	0.6 \pm 0^b	5.9 \pm 0.2^b	0 \pm 0	0.2 \pm 0^b	49.4 \pm 0.7^b
MF	Pre	34.2 \pm 3.4	3.9 \pm 1.1	5.6 \pm 0.9	11.4 \pm 0.7	2.9 \pm 0.4	4.6 \pm 0.4^a	12.2 \pm 0.9	2.7 \pm 0.2	1 \pm 0.4	5.4 \pm 0.7	0 \pm 0	0.3 \pm 0.3	46.0 \pm 0.3
	Post	39.1 \pm 5.2	4.6 \pm 1.0	4.6 \pm 0.2	10.5 \pm 0.6	3.5 \pm 0.2	5.1 \pm 0.1^{ab}	12.4 \pm 0.3	2.3 \pm 0.1	1.2 \pm 0.2	4.8 \pm 0.2	0 \pm 0	0.1 \pm 0.1	44.5 \pm 0.8
	Post + 4	46.5 \pm 15.8	4.2 \pm 0.5	4.3 \pm 1.0	10.3 \pm 1.6	3.3 \pm 0.5	5.4 \pm 0.4^b	12.6 \pm 0.5	2.2 \pm 0.5	1.2 \pm 0.3	4.5 \pm 0.4	0 \pm 0.1	0.3 \pm 0.1	44.2 \pm 2.8
CL	Pre	41.5 \pm 15.5	3.6 \pm 0.6^a	5.5 \pm 0.3	14.3 \pm 0.4	2.2 \pm 0.8	4.3 \pm 0.1	13.6 \pm 0.4	3.1 \pm 0.2	0.6 \pm 0	5.4 \pm 0.2	0 \pm 0	0.2 \pm 0.2	49.2 \pm 0.9
	Post	41.2 \pm 7.8	4.7 \pm 0.4^b	5.6 \pm 0.3	14.4 \pm 0.2	1.8 \pm 0.1	4.5 \pm 0.2	13.9 \pm 0.1	3.1 \pm 0.1	0.6 \pm 0.1	5.4 \pm 0.3	0 \pm 0	0.3 \pm 0.1	49.6 \pm 0.6
	Post + 4	47.9 \pm 14.8	3.2 \pm 0.5^a	5.6 \pm 0.5	14.4 \pm 0.6	2.5 \pm 0.8	4.3 \pm 0	13.7 \pm 0.5	3.1 \pm 0.2	0.6 \pm 0.1	5.3 \pm 0.2	0 \pm 0	0.1 \pm 0.1	49.5 \pm 1.3

728 *CHYDR, carbohydrates with pentose and hexose subunits; PHLM, phenols and lignin monomers; LDIM, lignin dimers; LIPID, lipids,
729 alkanes, alkenes, bound fatty acids, and alkyl monoesters; ALKY, alkylaromatics; NCOMP, mainly heterocyclic N-containing compounds;
730 STEROL, sterols; PEPTI, peptides; SUBER, suberin; FATTY, free fatty acids.

731 Table 3. Results of iterative partial least square regression for cumulated CO₂ efflux as
732 dependent variable and m/z data of all treatments and sampling times as explaining
733 variables.

m/z	Molecule/compound class
17/18	Ammonia/Ammonium
31	$[M+H]^+$ of formaldehyde
34	H ₂ S
43	C ₂ H ₃ O from ketones/amides and C ₃ H ₇ propyl
46	Formic acid
55	C ₃ H ₃ O from ketones/amides
57	C ₃ H ₅ O from ketones/amides and C ₄ H ₉ butyl
73	Propanamide
83	C ₅ H ₉ N from peptides
85	C ₄ H ₅ O ₂ from carbohydrates
91	Fragment from peptides
98/99	Carbohydrates
206, 222, 230/231, 246, 254, 258	Lignins
296, 299, 337, 418, 424	Fatty acids (C _{19:1} , C _{19:0} , C _{22:2} , C _{28:3} , C _{28:0})

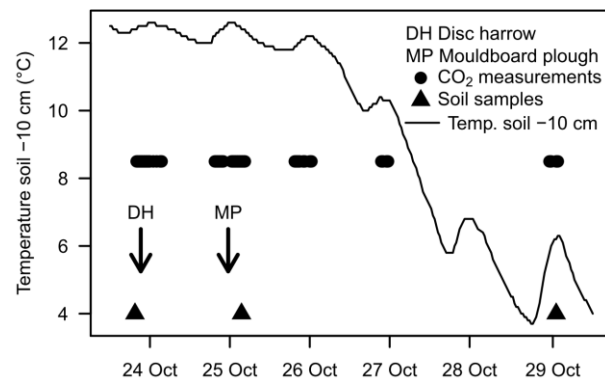


Figure 1. Timeline of the soil sampling and the CO₂ measurements in relation to the tillage events. Additionally, soil temperature in 10 cm depth is plotted, recorded every 30 minutes with an automated meteorological station (DALOS 535, F&C, Gülzow, Germany).

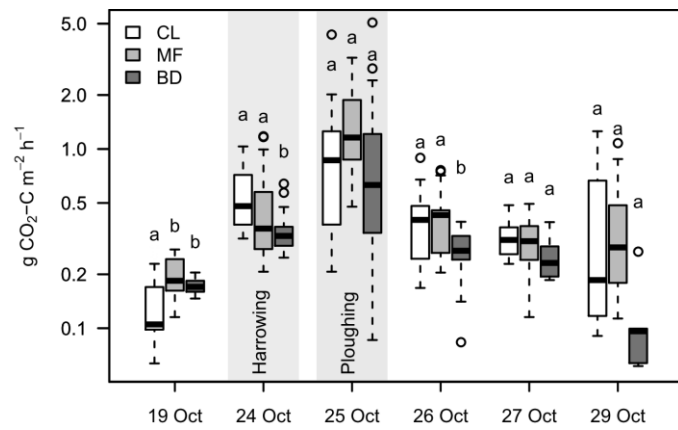


Figure 2. Soil CO₂ efflux and time of tillage operations (harrowing down to 10 cm depth and ploughing down to 30 cm depth). Note that for the days of tillage (24 and 25 October) only the fluxes after tillage (distinguished by light grey backgrounds) are included in order to get a better attribution of the tillage effect. Different letters indicate significant differences (Tukey's HSD test, $p < 0.05$) in mean fluxes of the treatments (CL, control; MF, mineral fertiliser; BD, biogas digestate) for each measurement day.

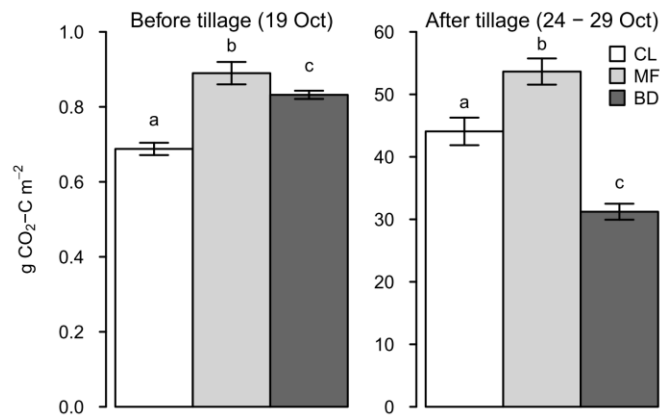
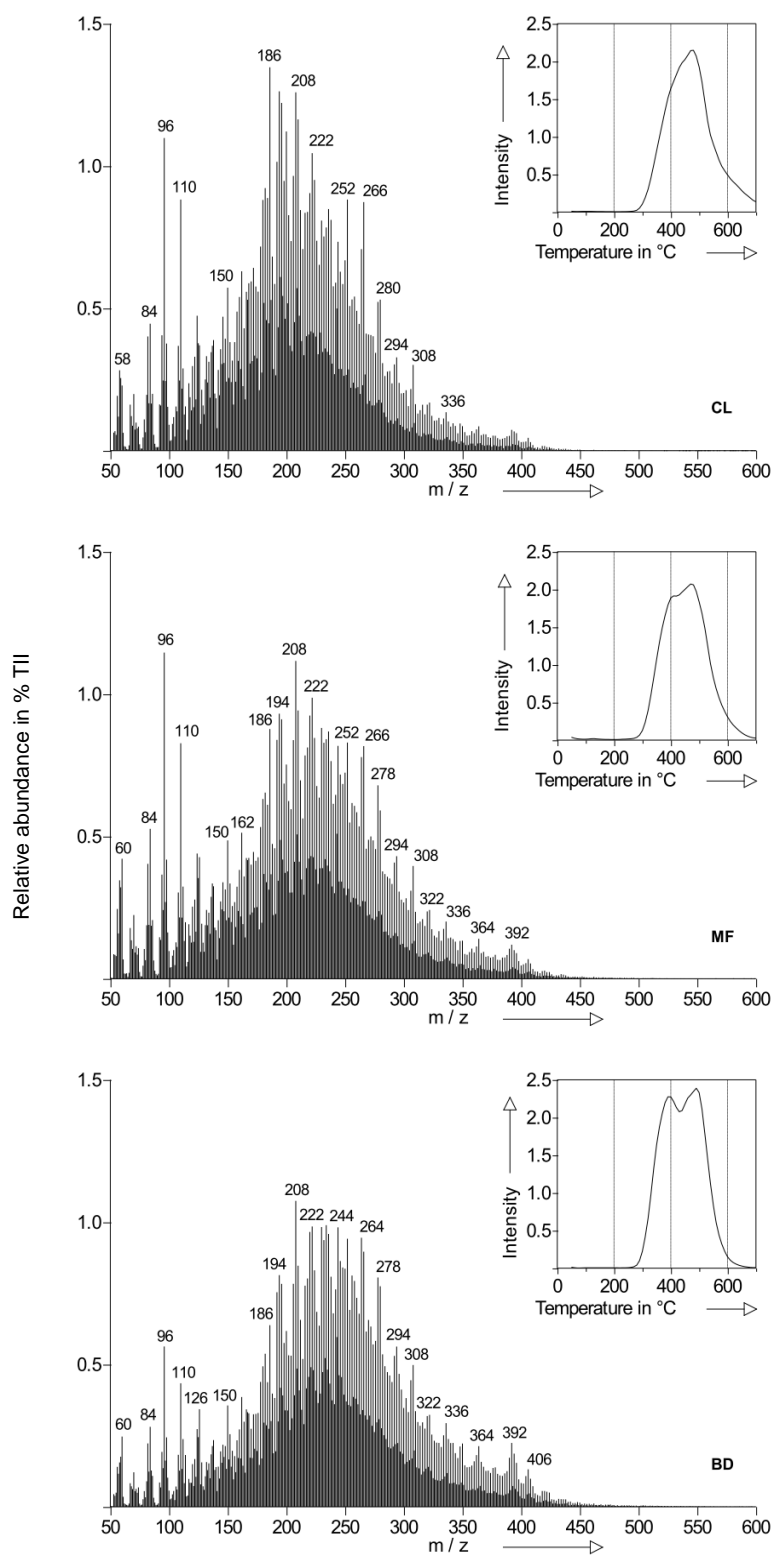


Figure 3. Cumulated soil CO₂ effluxes on a day before (19 October, between 7 a.m. and 1 p.m.) and the period (24 October, 7 a.m. – 29 October, 1 p.m.) tillage. Different letters indicate significant differences (Tukey's HSD test, *p* < 0.05) in means of the cumulated fluxes of the treatments (CL, control; MF, mineral fertiliser; BD, biogas digestate) before and after, respectively. Error bars represent the standard deviation of interpolation by bootstrapping after 250 iteration runs.



757

758 Figure 4. Thermograms of total ion intensity (TII, inserts upper right) and summed pyrolysis-
 759 field ionization mass spectra of the treatments (CL, control; MF, mineral fertiliser; BD,
 760 biogas digestate) before tillage.

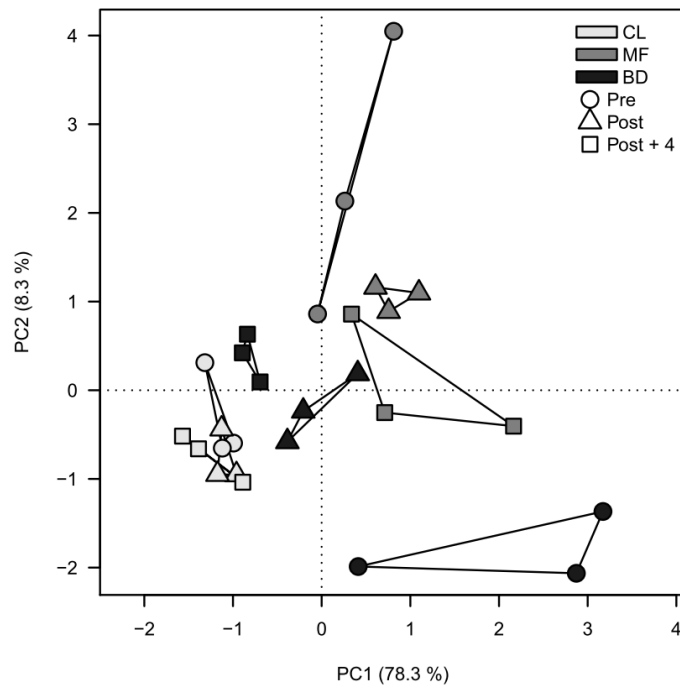


Figure 5. Principal component analysis of mass signals with significant differences according to Wilks' λ . Treatments (CL, control; MF, mineral fertiliser; BD, biogas digestate) and sampling times (pre-tillage, post-tillage and post-tillage + 4 days) are depicted by different colours and symbols, respectively. Since the areas integrated by the corresponding three sampling points do not overlap for the fertilised treatments, significant distinctions and changes of relative SOM composition can be assumed before and after tillage, respectively.

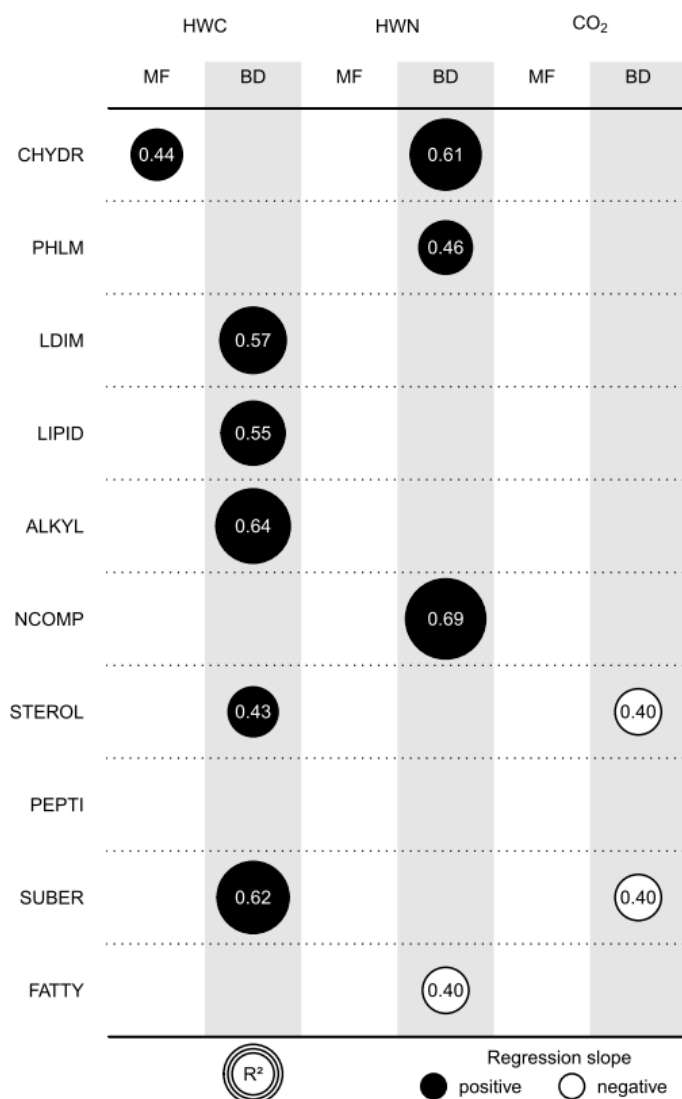


Figure 6. Significant ($p < 0.05$) linear correlations between absolute signal counts of the compound classes (for explanation of abbreviations see Table 2) and hot-water extractable carbon (HWC), hot-water extractable nitrogen (HWN) and soil respiration (CO₂), respectively, with the corresponding coefficients of determination (R², which are also indicated by the diameters of the circles) and direction of regression slopes, derived from the three soil sampling dates. No significant correlations were observed for CL and thus omitted in the figure.