

1 **Tillage-induced short-term soil organic matter turnover**
2 **and respiration**

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10

11 **Abstract**

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

29 SOM composition in CL was unaffected by tillage. Our analyses provide strong
30 evidence for significant short-term SOM changes due to tillage in fertilised soils.

31

32 **1 Introduction**

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

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

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

59 impacts of tillage on SOM and its turnover may help to avoid adverse effects for plant
60 growth (Franzluebbers et al., 1994).

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

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

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

89

90 2 Materials and methods

91 2.1 Study site

92 The study site is located in northeast Germany in the ground moraine of the
93 Weichselian glacial period at 53° 48' 35" N and 12° 4' 20" E (elevation 10 m) within a
94 gently rolling relief. The soil is a stagnic luvisol (IUSS Working Group WRB, 2006)
95 with sandy loam texture (sand = 63 %, silt = 26 %, clay = 11 %) overlying bedrock of
96 till. The top soil (0-30 cm) has an organic carbon content of $8.5 \text{ mg g}^{-1} \pm 0.2$ (mean \pm
97 standard deviation, $n = 9$), pH of 7.4 ± 0.9 ($n = 3$) and bulk density of $1.51 \text{ g cm}^{-3} \pm 0.08$
98 ($n = 3$), measured according to Fiedler et al. (2015). The climate is characterized by
99 maritime influence with annual averages of 8.8° C temperature and 557 mm total
100 precipitation for the 30-year-period from 1985 until 2014 (LFA, 2015). The experiment
101 was conducted on a field which has been cultivated with maize (*Zea Mays* L.), cultivar
102 'Atletico', as feedstock for a biogas plant. Before our study period, during other trials,
103 winter wheat (*Triticum aestivum* L.) followed by maize were grown on the field.

104 We compared three fertiliser treatments: CL – without fertiliser (control), MF – with
105 mineral fertiliser, and BD – with biogas digestate. The size of the three experimental
106 plots was 6 by 30 m each. In both fertilised treatments, equal overall amounts of plant-
107 available N were applied (160 kg ha^{-1}) on 26 April 2012. The mineral fertiliser calcium
108 ammonium nitrate was top-dressed whereas the biogas digestate was injected into the
109 soil down to 10 cm depth with a track width of 25 cm. Following the research facility
110 for agriculture and fisheries (LFA) of the federal state of Mecklenburg-Western
111 Pomerania, Germany (2012, personal communication), a mineral fertiliser equivalent of
112 70% of total N in the biogas digestates (229 kg N ha^{-1}) was assumed. The BD for this
113 single application originated from anaerobic fermentation of 91% cattle slurry, 7% rye
114 groats and 2% maize silage; it had pH 8.1, and 3.8% C, 0.5% total N and 0.3% $\text{NH}_4\text{-N}$
115 in undried material. During the cropping season 2012, maize was grown according to
116 conventional agricultural practice.

117 Sixteen days after harvest of the maize (8 October 2012), the field site was first tilled

118 with a disc harrow ‘Väderstad Carrier 300’ down to 10 cm depth (24 October, about
119 9.15 a.m.) and then with a reversible mouldboard plough ‘Överum CX 490’ down to 30
120 cm depth on the subsequent day (25 October, about 11.30 a.m.).

121 **2.2 CO₂ concentration measurement and estimation of CO₂ efflux**

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

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

$$140 \quad f = \frac{MpV}{RTA} \frac{dc}{dt} 10^6, \quad (1)$$

141 with f the CO₂ flux (g m⁻² h⁻¹), M the molar mass of CO₂ (g mol⁻¹), p the air pressure
142 (Pa), V the chamber volume (m³), R the gas constant (J mol⁻¹ K⁻¹), T the temperature
143 inside the chamber (K), A the area covered by the chamber (m²), and dc/dt the CO₂
144 concentration change over time (ppm h⁻¹). The minimum proportion of data points to be
145 kept for regression analyses was 70 % of a concentration measurement. This allowed

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

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

162 **2.3 Soil sampling and analyses**

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

171 For Py-FIMS, the freeze-dried samples were finally ground and homogenized by a
172 planetary ball mill. Then, about 2 g were transferred into a Petri dish with a spatula and
173 three crucibles were filled by drawing them across. These subsamples of about 5 mg
174 were thermally degraded in the ion source (emitter: 4.7 kV, counter electrode -5.5 kV)

175 of a double-focusing Finnigan MAT 95 mass spectrometer (Finnigan, Bremen,
176 Gemany). The samples were heated in a vacuum of 10^{-4} Pa from 50 °C to 700 °C, in
177 temperature steps of 10 °C over a time period of 15 minutes. Between magnetic scans
178 the emitter was flash heated to avoid residues of pyrolysis products. The Py-FIMS mass
179 spectra of each sample were gained by the integration of 65 single scans in a mass range
180 of 15 – 900 m/z . Ion intensities were referred to 1 mg of the sample. Volatile matter was
181 calculated as mass loss in percentage of sample weight. For plotting, the three replicates
182 of each sample were then averaged to one final survey spectrum. Moreover,
183 thermograms were compiled for the total ion intensities. The assignment of marker
184 signals to chemical compounds from the survey spectra were interpreted according to
185 Leinweber et al. (2013) to obtain the relative abundance of ten SOM compound classes:
186 1) carbohydrates, 2) phenols and lignin monomers, 3) lignin dimers, 4) lipids, alkanes,
187 alkenes, bound fatty acids and alkyl monoesters, 5) alkylaromatics, 6) mainly
188 heterocyclic N-containing compounds, 7) sterols, 8) peptides, 9) suberin, and 10) free
189 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 of soil were boiled in 40 ml
195 deionized water for 60 minutes (Leinweber et al., 1995). After filtration with pleated
196 filters (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 All statistical analyses were run using R 2.15.2 (R Core Team, 2013). The cumulated
206 CO₂ effluxes were estimated by a bootstrap method with the function *auc.mc* of the R
207 package *flux* version 0.3-0 (Jurasinski et al., 2014). In detail, the CO₂ fluxes were
208 cumulated in 250 iterations, while for each run 25 fluxes were omitted randomly for the
209 period after tillage. For the reference period before tillage, in each iteration run 4 fluxes
210 were omitted randomly. The numbers of randomly omitted fluxes per run correspond
211 roughly to one fifth of the recorded fluxes per treatment in the respective periods. The
212 resulting data were used to calculate means and standard deviations. Tukey's HSD test
213 was applied to test for differences in means of CO₂ fluxes as well as of HWC and HWN
214 between sampling periods and treatments against a significance level of $\alpha < 0.05$. Py-
215 FIMS signals of the compound classes were tested for differences in means by Tukey's
216 HSD test against a significance level of $\alpha < 0.1$ since the number of replicates was
217 limited and the variances rather high.

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

221 Partial least squares regression (PLSR) was used for discrimination (Barker and Rayens,
222 2003) to explore linkages between shifts in the *m/z* data by tillage and shifts in CO₂
223 efflux. PLSR models were built using function *autopls* of the R package 'autopls'
224 version 1.3 (Schmidtlein et al., 2015) with stepwise backward selection combined with
225 a 10-fold cross-validation to substantially reduce the number of variables, *i.e.*, to extract
226 the variables with the highest explanatory power. The PLSR procedure was repeated
227 10.000 times to yield coherent results since the obtained PLSR models differed widely
228 both in the number and in the choice of variables and, thus, in their predictive
229 performance. Based on the performance index suggested by Bauwe et al. (2015), the
230 500 'best' models were obtained and, finally, the mass signals which were utilised more
231 than 50 times in the latter models were extracted.

232

233 **3 Results**

234 **3.1 Soil organic carbon, nitrogen, hot-water extractable carbon and hot-** 235 **water extractable nitrogen**

236 One of the replicates in MF exhibited exceptionally low HWC and HWN values.
237 According to Dixon's Q-test, these values were outliers (one-third and half,
238 respectively, as high as for the other replicates in MF) and thus excluded from further
239 analysis. Before tillage, the soil of all treatments had similar C and HWC contents, but
240 differences appeared between MF and BD, where the N and HWN contents were
241 slightly higher in MF, resulting in narrower C/N and HWC/HWN ratios in MF (8.5 and
242 5.9, respectively) compared to BD (9.0 and 8.5, respectively) (Table 1). The C, N and
243 HWC contents of all treatments changed only slightly after tillage, but the HWN
244 content of soil in BD increased significantly ($p < 0.05$) from 0.05 mg g^{-1} (5.6 % of N)
245 up to 0.07 mg g^{-1} (7.4 % of N), resulting in a significant ($p < 0.05$) narrowing of the
246 HWC/HWN ratio from 8.5 down to 6.0 (Table 1).

247 **3.2 Soil CO₂ efflux**

248 Five days before the tillage operations (19 October 2012), the mean efflux rates (all in g
249 CO₂-C m⁻² h⁻¹) were 0.133 (CL), 0.192 (MF) and 0.173 (BD), with the efflux being
250 significantly lower from CL than from the amended plots MF and BD ($p < 0.05$) (Fig.
251 2). In the morning before the first tillage operation with a disc harrow (24 October), the
252 effluxes had similar magnitudes and proportions like five days before (CL = 0.147, MF
253 = BD = 0.199, all in g CO₂-C m⁻² h⁻¹). After harrowing, CO₂-effluxes increased to 0.849
254 (CL), 0.833 (MF) and 0.479 (BD). Over the next 5.5 hours, these values declined to
255 0.602 (CL), 0.460 (MF) and 0.276 (BD) resulting in overall mean effluxes of 0.554
256 (CL), 0.481 (MF) and 0.344 (BD), with the latter being now significantly lower
257 ($p < 0.05$) than CL or MF during the measured period after harrowing. Directly before
258 the second tillage operation with a reversible mouldboard plough in the morning of the
259 following day (25 October), the mean effluxes were 0.299 (CL), 0.249 (MF) and 0.290
260 (BD) (all in g CO₂-C m⁻² h⁻¹). Immediately after ploughing, they increased sharply up to
261 2.443 (CL), 2.654 (MF) and 3.347 (BD) and declined to 0.371 (CL), 0.718 (MF) and

262 0.223 (BD) after 4 hours, leading to overall mean effluxes of the measured period after
263 ploughing of CL = 1.012, MF = 1.392, and BD = 1.020. Although the mean CO₂ fluxes
264 within each treatment differed significantly ($p < 0.05$) from the other measured days
265 only after ploughing (25 October), BD on average showed significantly ($p < 0.05$) lower
266 fluxes than CL or MF after tillage on 24 and 29 October (Fig. 3) as well as on 1
267 November (CL = 0.262, MF = 0.242, BD = 0.113, all in g CO₂-C m⁻² h⁻¹) and 5
268 November (CL = 0.331, MF = 0.316, BD = 0.074, all in g CO₂-C m⁻² h⁻¹).

269 **3.3 Pyrolysis-Field Ionization Mass Spectrometry**

270 The thermograms of total ion intensity (TII) and the Py-FIMS mass spectra of the soil
271 samples of CL and MF taken before tillage were similar whereas the ones of BD
272 differed markedly from those two (Fig. 4): The TII-thermograms of CL and MF had a
273 peak at 480 °C, but BD displayed a pronounced bimodal shape with a first volatilisation
274 maximum at about 390 °C which was less marked in CL and MF. Furthermore, the
275 mass spectrum of BD differed distinctly from the mass spectra of MF and CL,
276 especially the abundance of marker signals for carbohydrates and peptides (e.g., m/z 58,
277 60, 84, 69, 110, 126 and 162) was lower. Apart from this the spectra are dominated by
278 signals for lignin mono- and dimers (e.g., m/z 150, 208, 222, 244) as well as for
279 homologous series of alkenes and alkadienes from n -C₁₈ up (e.g., m/z 252, 264/266,
280 278/280, 294, 308, 322, 336, 364, 392, 406) (Fig. 4).

281 After discriminant function analysis with Wilk's λ , the resulting significant relative
282 mass signals ($p < 0.001$, $n = 67$) were further explored by PCA. The first two principal
283 components accounted for 78.3% and 8.3% of total variance. All treatments are well
284 separated from each other (Fig. 5), with CL mainly in the 3rd quadrant, MF mainly in
285 the 1st and BD spanning from the 2nd to the 4th quadrant. According to this analysis,
286 samples from MF and BD taken before the tillage events (pre) showed the largest
287 differences in composition. The PCA separated the samples taken at different dates (pre,
288 post and post + 4) in the treatments MF and BD, but not in CL.

289 Basic data of the Py-FI mass spectra and the proportions of compound classes are
290 compiled in Table 2. Approximately 46.9% of the TII in the mass spectra could be

291 explained by m/z signals assigned to the compound classes. Additionally, non-specific
292 low-mass signals and isotope peaks contributed 2.6% and 14.2%, respectively. Before
293 tillage, the volatized matter (VM) was highest in BD and increased from 5.2 to 7.1%
294 during the days after tillage. Such an increase over time was only observed for BD, but
295 it was not significant ($p > 0.1$). In the other treatments, a temporal increase in VM
296 occurred directly after the first tillage with disc harrow.

297 The relative (Table 2) and absolute (data not shown) ion intensities of the compound
298 classes varied across treatments before tillage and changed differently after tillage. In
299 the undisturbed soil, BD had the lowest proportions of carbohydrates, heterocyclic N-
300 containing compounds and peptides and the highest proportions of lignin dimers, lipids,
301 sterols, suberin and free fatty acids. CL was characterized by higher proportions of
302 phenols and lignin monomers whereas MF ranged between BD and CL regarding the
303 proportions of these compound classes. In BD, the relative proportions of the samples
304 taken after tillage displayed significant ($p < 0.1$) increases of carbohydrates, phenols
305 and lignin monomers, alkylaromatics, heterocyclic N-containing compounds and
306 peptides while lignin dimers, lipids, sterols and free fatty acids decreased. In MF, the
307 proportion of lipids increased while carbohydrates and peptides decreased. No changes
308 were detected in the unfertilised treatment CL. The discrimination of relative mass
309 signals with PLSR to explain cumulated CO₂ efflux revealed mainly functional groups
310 from ketones and amides, peptides, carbohydrates as well as lignin building blocks and
311 fatty acids (Table 3).

312 Linear correlations were calculated to check relationships between HWC, HWN and
313 soil respiration as indicators of SOM dynamics (Kuzyakov, 2006; Leinweber et al.,
314 1995) and the absolute signal counts of the compound classes (Fig. 6). The latter was
315 derived from Table 2 by Eq. (2).

$$316 \quad CII_{abs} = \frac{TII \times CII_{rel}}{100}, \quad (2)$$

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

319 In MF, the ion intensities for carbohydrates were positively correlated with HWC ($R^2 =$

320 0.44), whereas, in contrast, no such a correlation was found in BD. However, HWN
321 showed a positive correlation with carbohydrates in BD ($R^2 = 0.61$). Further, CO_2 efflux
322 increased with decreasing amounts of sterols in BD ($R^2 = 0.40$).

323

324 **4 Discussion**

325 **4.1 Bulk soil and hot-water extracted carbon and nitrogen**

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

331 The increase in HWN in BD after tillage indicates an increase of easily mineralisable
332 organic N which probably originates from soil biomass and lysates (Ghani et al., 2003;
333 Leinweber et al., 1995) and implies an accelerated microbial turnover of soil organic N.
334 This seems reasonable since the microbial community is able to adjust its structure and
335 activity relatively fast to utilise formerly protected organic matter after exposure due to
336 disruption of aggregates by tillage (Jackson et al., 2003; La Scala et al., 2008).
337 Accordingly, Fiedler et al. (2015) observed a short-lived increase of HWC after the first
338 of two days of several tillage operations which was not found in the present study.
339 Possibly, we did not detect it, because we took no soil samples after the first day.
340 Overall, a single amendment with biogas digestates very likely is insufficient to initiate
341 changes in bulk soil C- and N-levels. However, the increased HWN-levels in BD can be
342 ascribed to a tillage promoted microbial turnover of soil organic N, confirming that the
343 hot water extracts are a particularly sensitive approach to detect early SOM changes
344 (Haynes, 2005).

345 **4.2 Soil CO_2 efflux**

346 The immediate and sharp increase of CO_2 efflux from soils just after tillage is a well-
347 documented response and seems to be mainly driven by the release of trapped CO_2 from

348 broken up aggregates by tillage (Reicosky et al., 1997). It is commonly suggested that a
349 few hours afterwards, waning of this physical outgassing is accompanied by an
350 increased soil respiration due to a better substrate supply for microorganisms from
351 disrupted aggregates as well as increased soil aeration (Grandy and Robertson, 2007).
352 The amounts of the observed fluxes are well in accordance with the findings of previous
353 studies (e. g., Rochette and Angers, 1999) and can be explained both by the magnitude
354 of the disturbance, i.e. soil comminution, and the fertilisation history of the soil (Fiedler
355 et al., 2015).

356 The smaller relative efflux from BD compared to MF and CL after tillage is remarkable
357 since before tillage the CO₂ fluxes in BD were of the same magnitude as those in MF
358 and exceeded those in CL (Fig. 2). This becomes particularly evident when we consider
359 the relation of cumulated CO₂ fluxes between the treatments before (19 October) and
360 after tillage (24 – 29 October) (Fig. 3). The relatively lower CO₂ efflux from BD after
361 tillage may have different reasons. On the one hand, C originating from the digestates is
362 likely less available to soil microorganisms compared to undigested organic matter, i. e.
363 more ‘recalcitrant’, since the most labile C is generally consumed in the biogas reactor
364 (Möller, 2015). On the other hand, even a single application of organic amendment can
365 increase aggregate stability (Grandy et al., 2002). Therefore, the resilience against
366 disruption by tillage might be promoted, leading to a better physical protection of labile
367 soil C not contained within digestates. As a consequence, the effect of increased CO₂
368 efflux after tillage as observed in CL and MF may have been substantially reduced by a
369 relative shortage of labile substrate for soil respiration in BD.

370 **4.3 Pyrolysis-Field Ionization Mass Spectrometry and synthesis**

371 Generally, the Py-FIMS basic data and mass spectra (Fig. 4) and the proportions of
372 compound classes (Table 2) confirm published data from this method for Luvisols in
373 terms of relatively high proportions of lignin monomers, phenols and alkylaromatics
374 (Leinweber et al., 2009). Lignin monomers and phenols might be collectively attributed
375 to residues of the just harvested maize. Indeed, Gregorich et al. (1996) found that these
376 are important components of maize leaves and roots as well as of the light fraction of
377 the soil under this crop. Overall, the Py-FIMS data indicate differences in SOM

378 composition between the fertilization treatments and a pronounced impact of tillage in
379 the treatments MF and BD (Fig. 5).

380 In the spectra of samples from BD, the additional peak at 390° C in the TII-thermogram
381 (Fig. 4) can be attributed mainly to phenols and lignin monomers which likely
382 originated from primary organic matter residues since this relatively low volatilization
383 temperature indicates labile and fairly undecomposed organic matter (Ludwig et al.,
384 2015; Sleutel et al., 2011). It is reasonable to refer this organic matter to residues from
385 the application of BD. VM as well as TII, which are indicators of SOM content (Sorge
386 et al., 1993) and also of its stability (Ludwig et al., 2015), were larger in BD than in MF
387 and CL before tillage (Table 2). This suggests a tendency to elevated SOM due to
388 application of organic matter with biogas digestate. The increase in VM after tillage
389 might be explained by a general destabilization, perhaps by an enhanced SOM turnover
390 due to an improved microbial accessibility to relatively recalcitrant residues of BD after
391 tillage (Dao, 1998). The temporal increase in VM directly after the first tillage with disc
392 harrow in MF and CL may indicate a similarly increased accessibility of SOM. But
393 here, the newly available SOM has been depleted quickly by microbial respiration since
394 the microbial community is able to respond rapidly to disturbances of arable soils
395 (Jackson et al., 2003). In MF, this assumption is supported by the decreasing proportions
396 of carbohydrates and by significantly decreasing relative signal intensities of m/z 17 and
397 18 (data not shown), which are assigned to ammonia and ammonium, pointing to a
398 microbial immobilisation (Mengel, 1996). Accordingly, these two m/z were also
399 selected by the PLSR as explanatory signals for CO₂ efflux (Table 3).

400 The compound classes of BD revealed the largest proportions of lignin dimers, lipids,
401 sterols, suberin and free fatty acids at the expense of carbohydrates, heterocyclic N-
402 containing compounds and peptides before tillage (Table 2). Such a SOM composition
403 most likely reflects the cattle manure and plant residues of the biogas feedstock and
404 their relative depletions (amides and polysaccharides) or enrichments (lignins and long-
405 chain aliphatic compounds) during anaerobic fermentation (Möller, 2015; van Bochove
406 et al., 1996). The pronounced tillage effect in this treatment, obvious from the increased
407 relative signal intensities of carbohydrates, phenols and lignin monomers,
408 alkylaromatics, heterocyclic N-containing compounds and peptides at the expense of

409 lignin dimers, lipids, sterols and free fatty acids following tillage (Table 2), suggests the
410 decomposition of lignin and the new formation of carbohydrates and peptides. This is in
411 line with reports of lignin decomposition faster than that of the total SOM (Leinweber et
412 al., 2008; Thevenot et al., 2010). Kalbitz et al. (2003) suggested that lignin-derived
413 moieties and lipids are utilised by microorganisms at low initial availability of
414 carbohydrates, accompanied by an accumulation of the resulting microbial metabolites
415 like carbohydrates and peptides. Recently, Rinkes et al. (2016) also found that
416 decomposers may break down lignin to acquire C for their metabolism in the absence of
417 available labile C. This suggestion is supported on the one hand by the effect of specific
418 lignins on soil CO₂ efflux (Table 3) since CO₂ is an indicator for microbial
419 decomposition activity (Kuzyakov, 2006). On the other hand, a relative increase of the
420 signals for *m/z* 125, 167, 185 and 203 was observed in the BD treatment (data not
421 shown) which are assigned to the bacterial cell wall products N-acetylmuramic acid and
422 N-acetylmuramyl-L-alanyl-D-isoglutamine (Bahr and Schulten, 1983). Furthermore, the
423 build-up of heterocyclic N-containing compounds might also imply a relative shortage
424 of available carbohydrates since a reduced C availability during the microbial
425 transformation of N is suggested to promote formation of heterocyclic N instead of N
426 immobilisation (Follett and Schimel, 1989; Gillespie et al., 2014; Schulten and
427 Hempfling, 1992). The increased proportion of lipids at the expense of carbohydrates
428 and peptides in MF likely results from increased heterotrophic respiration of labile
429 substrates driven by enhanced microbial activity after tillage (La Scala et al., 2008;
430 Zakharova et al., 2014). The minor changes in SOM compounds in CL might be a
431 consequence of the wider HWC/HWN ratio compared to MF and BD since it indicates a
432 lower availability of labile N for microbial utilisation (Mengel, 1996). However, the
433 total C/N ratios were not critical for microbial activity (Table 1) (Kuzyakov et al.,
434 2000).

435 A significant ($p > 0.05$) and positive correlation was observed between HWC and
436 carbohydrates in MF. This linkage was previously described by Leinweber et al. (1995)
437 and attributed to microbial biomass (Ghani et al., 2003) and labile soil C (Sparling et
438 al., 1998). In contrast, this correlation was not apparent in BD. This corroborates the
439 assumption that microorganisms in BD may have been short in available labile C.

440 Interestingly, HWN correlated positively with carbohydrates in BD. Since the major
441 part of carbohydrates in soils originates from microorganisms and their residues
442 (Gunina and Kuzyakov, 2015), this may suggest a metabolic coupling between
443 carbohydrates and HWN because many N-cycling processes are mediated microbially
444 (Isobe and Ohte, 2014).

445 Increased amounts of sterols are typically found in biogas digestates (Leinweber, 2016,
446 unpublished Py-FIMS data). In BD, the cumulated CO₂ efflux and the amount of sterols
447 was negatively correlated. This supports the suggestion of Heumann et al. (2011, 2013)
448 that sterols may have an inhibitory effect on microorganisms of the N cycle and, thus,
449 may slow down soil respiration. However, since the amounts of sterols decreased
450 significantly after tillage in BD (Table 3), the actual sterol contribution to reduced CO₂-
451 efflux in BD relative to the other treatments cannot be ascertained by the present data
452 set.

453 Our data and analyses suggest a short-term induction of enhanced microbial N-turnover
454 by tillage in soils amended with biogas digestates; possible co-occurring with the
455 decomposition of lignin as C source due to a relative shortage of carbohydrates. This is
456 supported by the results of each of the used methods, i.e., (i) HWN as an indicator for
457 labile N increased, (ii) lignins, ammonia and ammonium were discriminated as
458 explanatory variables for cumulated CO₂ efflux by PLSR and (iii) Py-FIMS data point
459 at an increase of N-containing compounds along with decomposition of lignins and
460 formation of carbohydrates and peptides.

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

466 **4.4 Limitations**

467 Although the relatively small sampling areas around the bases in each treatment plot
468 might suggest a 'pseudo-replication' in soil sampling, we have evidence suggesting a

469 very high spatial variability in the soil, which alleviates this problem: in a master thesis
470 on spatial variability, Jacobs (2014) revealed that N₂O fluxes from the soil of the study
471 site show very high small-scale variability well below the meter scale. Therefore, we
472 assume ‘real’, i.e., independent replicates, though the comparison *between* the
473 treatments should be done carefully because of possibly rather small differences. Due to
474 the, thus, potentially lowered influence of spatial variability, our sampling design might
475 have biased our results towards the detection of even small temporal changes *within* the
476 treatments. Because we are mainly interested in the impact of tillage, this limitation is
477 not interfering with our findings.

478

479 **5 Conclusions**

480 Combining Py-FIMS as a sensitive technique to detect differences and alterations of
481 specific compound classes of SOM with classical methods like hot-water extraction and
482 measurements of soil CO₂ efflux allowed us to gain a better understanding of short-term
483 SOM turnover after tillage operations. After tillage, SOM composition of the
484 investigated soil changed in the temporal scale of days and the changes varied
485 significantly under different types of amendment. Particularly obvious were the
486 turnover of lignin-derived substances and the depletion of carbohydrates due to soil
487 respiration. Thus, in BD, the SOM turnover was relatively fast, questioning the
488 suggested recalcitrance of biogas digestates as stable leftovers of the anaerobic
489 fermentation. Since we found indications for inhibitory effects of sterols on the CO₂
490 efflux, which were previously reported in three independent studies on parameters of
491 the N-cycle, their long-term impact on SOM stocks should be examined more closely.
492 Therefore, future investigations should address the short- and long-term turnover of
493 SOM following various amendments, especially with the relatively new biogas
494 digestates.

495

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508

509 **References**

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708 Table 1. Means and standard deviations of soil organic carbon (C), nitrogen (N), C/N ratio, hot-water extractable carbon (HWC) and
 709 nitrogen (HWN) and HWC/HWN ratio before (Pre), after (Post) and four days after tillage (Post + 4). Different letters in each column
 710 within treatments (BD, biogas digestate; MF, mineral fertiliser; CL, control) indicate significant differences (Tukey's HSD test, $p < 0.05$)
 711 in means.

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 ± 0.1	0.9 ± 0.0	9.0 ± 0.1	0.44 ± 0.02	0.05 ± 0.00 ^a	8.5 ± 0.1 ^a
	Post	8.5 ± 0.1	1.0 ± 0.0	8.8 ± 0.3	0.44 ± 0.03	0.07 ± 0.01 ^b	6.1 ± 0.4 ^b
	Post + 4	8.4 ± 0.6	1.0 ± 0.0	8.7 ± 0.0	0.40 ± 0.02	0.07 ± 0.01 ^b	6.0 ± 0.4 ^b
MF	Pre	8.7 ± 0.3	1.0 ± 0.0	8.5 ± 0.2	0.44 ± 0.05	0.08 ± 0.00	5.9 ± 0.8
	Post	8.4 ± 0.3	1.0 ± 0.0	8.5 ± 0.1	0.42 ± 0.04	0.09 ± 0.02	4.9 ± 0.7
	Post + 4	8.6 ± 0.2	1.0 ± 0.0	8.5 ± 0.1	0.31 ± 0.14	0.06 ± 0.01	5.0 ± 0.8
CL	Pre	8.5 ± 0.2	1.0 ± 0.0	8.8 ± 0.2	0.50 ± 0.10	0.06 ± 0.02	8.9 ± 1.3
	Post	8.6 ± 0.2	1.0 ± 0.0	8.8 ± 0.0	0.48 ± 0.04	0.05 ± 0.01	8.8 ± 0.8
	Post + 4	8.5 ± 0.0	1.0 ± 0.0	8.7 ± 0.1	0.40 ± 0.03	0.04 ± 0.00	9.6 ± 0.3

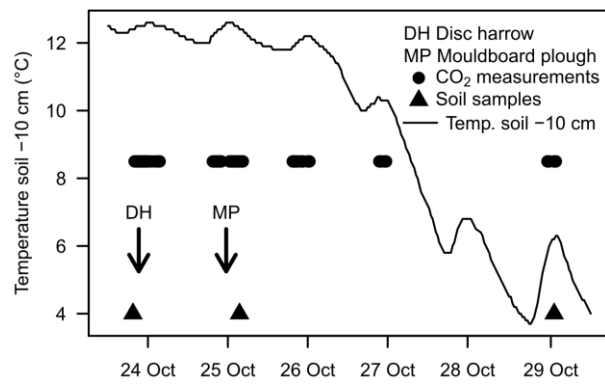
712 Table 2. Total ion intensity (TII), percentage of matter volatilised in pyrolysis (VM), and relative contribution of soil organic matter
 713 compound classes to the TII as detected by Py-FIMS in the treatments (CL, control; MF, mineral fertiliser; BD, biogas digestate) close
 714 before (Pre), after (Post) and four days after tillage (Post + 4) with standard deviations. Different letters in a column within each treatment
 715 indicate significant differences (Tukey's HSD test, $p < 0.1$) in means of the different dates towards tillage. Additionally, treatments with
 716 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 ± 11.5	5.2 ± 1.3	3.7 ± 1.8^a	9.8 ± 3.8^a	3.4 ± 1.4	5.3 ± 1.0^a	11.9 ± 1.2	1.8 ± 0.8^a	1.6 ± 0.7^a	4.3 ± 1.2^a	0.1 ± 0.1	0.5 ± 0.2^a	42.3 ± 5.4^a
	Post	40.3 ± 19.3	4.7 ± 1.3	5.6 ± 0.3^{ab}	13.3 ± 0.8^{ab}	2.5 ± 0.4	4.1 ± 0.1^b	12.5 ± 0.7	2.8 ± 0.2^b	0.7 ± 0.2^b	5.5 ± 0.3^{ab}	0 ± 0.1	0.2 ± 0.1^b	47.3 ± 0.9^{ab}
	Post + 4	35.1 ± 3.0	7.1 ± 1.2	6.2 ± 0.3^b	14.4 ± 0.3^b	1.9 ± 0.2	3.9 ± 0.1^b	13.2 ± 0.1	3.2 ± 0.2^b	0.6 ± 0^b	5.9 ± 0.2^b	0 ± 0	0.2 ± 0^b	49.4 ± 0.7^b
MF	Pre	34.2 ± 3.4	3.9 ± 1.1	5.6 ± 0.9	11.4 ± 0.7	2.9 ± 0.4	4.6 ± 0.4^a	12.2 ± 0.9	2.7 ± 0.2	1 ± 0.4	5.4 ± 0.7	0 ± 0	0.3 ± 0.3	46.0 ± 0.3
	Post	39.1 ± 5.2	4.6 ± 1.0	4.6 ± 0.2	10.5 ± 0.6	3.5 ± 0.2	5.1 ± 0.1^{ab}	12.4 ± 0.3	2.3 ± 0.1	1.2 ± 0.2	4.8 ± 0.2	0 ± 0	0.1 ± 0.1	44.5 ± 0.8
	Post + 4	46.5 ± 15.8	4.2 ± 0.5	4.3 ± 1.0	10.3 ± 1.6	3.3 ± 0.5	5.4 ± 0.4^b	12.6 ± 0.5	2.2 ± 0.5	1.2 ± 0.3	4.5 ± 0.4	0 ± 0.1	0.3 ± 0.1	44.2 ± 2.8
CL	Pre	41.5 ± 15.5	3.6 ± 0.6^a	5.5 ± 0.3	14.3 ± 0.4	2.2 ± 0.8	4.3 ± 0.1	13.6 ± 0.4	3.1 ± 0.2	0.6 ± 0	5.4 ± 0.2	0 ± 0	0.2 ± 0.2	49.2 ± 0.9
	Post	41.2 ± 7.8	4.7 ± 0.4^b	5.6 ± 0.3	14.4 ± 0.2	1.8 ± 0.1	4.5 ± 0.2	13.9 ± 0.1	3.1 ± 0.1	0.6 ± 0.1	5.4 ± 0.3	0 ± 0	0.3 ± 0.1	49.6 ± 0.6
	Post + 4	47.9 ± 14.8	3.2 ± 0.5^a	5.6 ± 0.5	14.4 ± 0.6	2.5 ± 0.8	4.3 ± 0	13.7 ± 0.5	3.1 ± 0.2	0.6 ± 0.1	5.3 ± 0.2	0 ± 0	0.1 ± 0.1	49.5 ± 1.3

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

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

<i>m/z</i>	Molecule/compound class
17/18	Ammonia/Ammonium
31	[<i>M+H</i>] ⁺ 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})

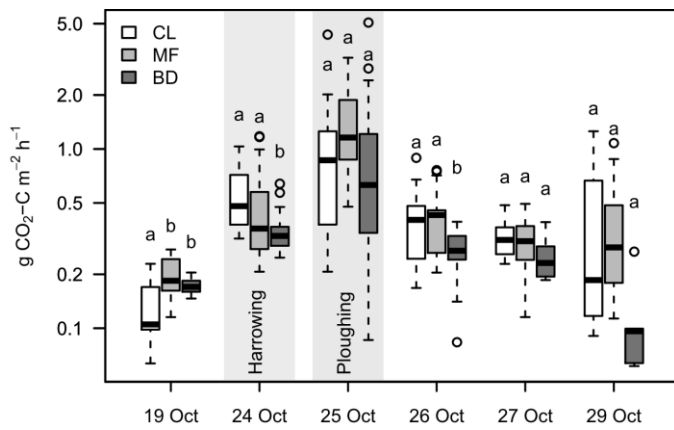


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724

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

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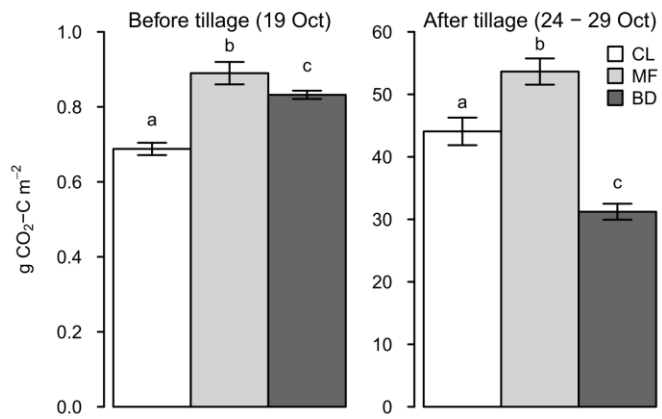


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730

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

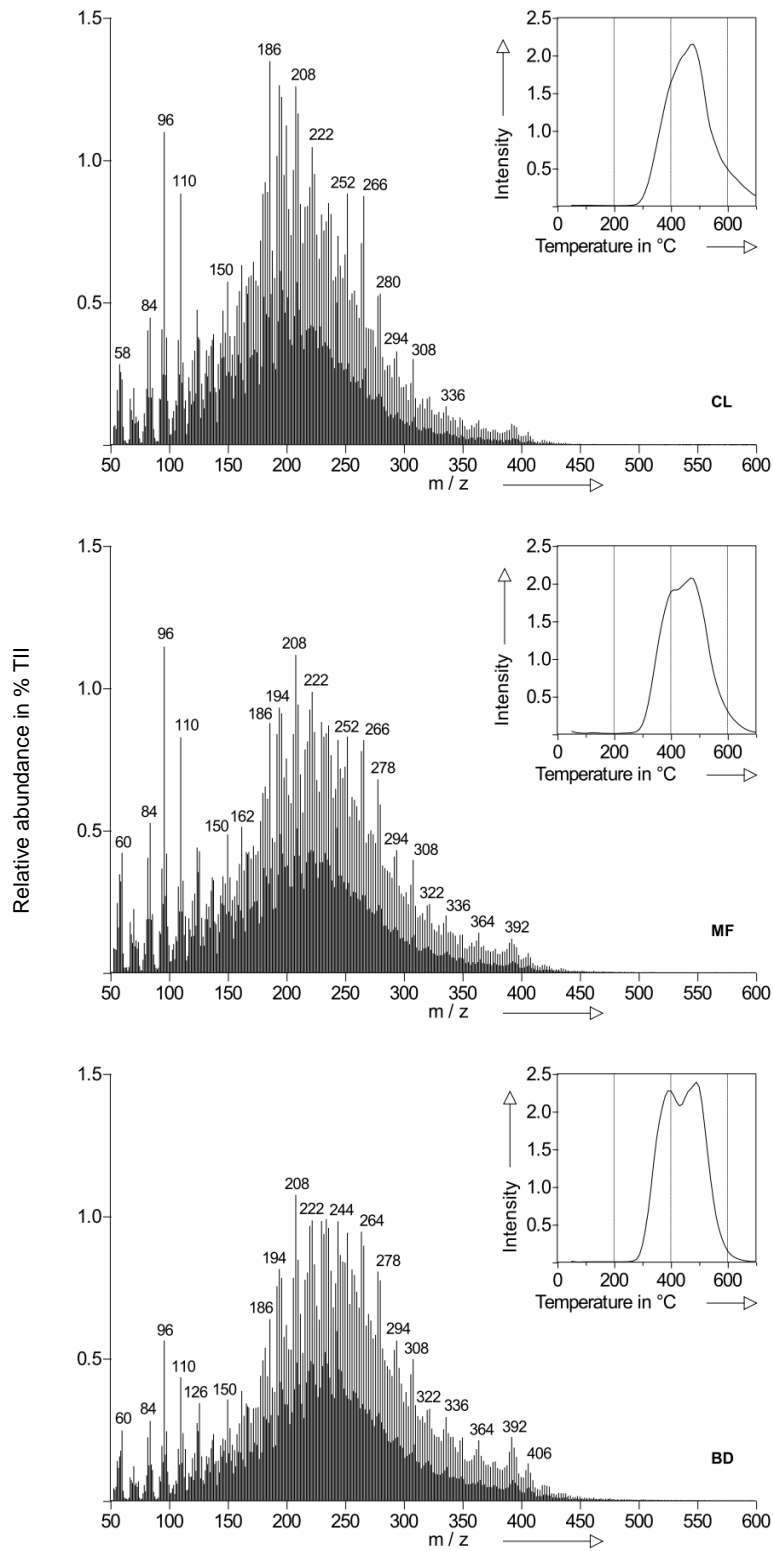
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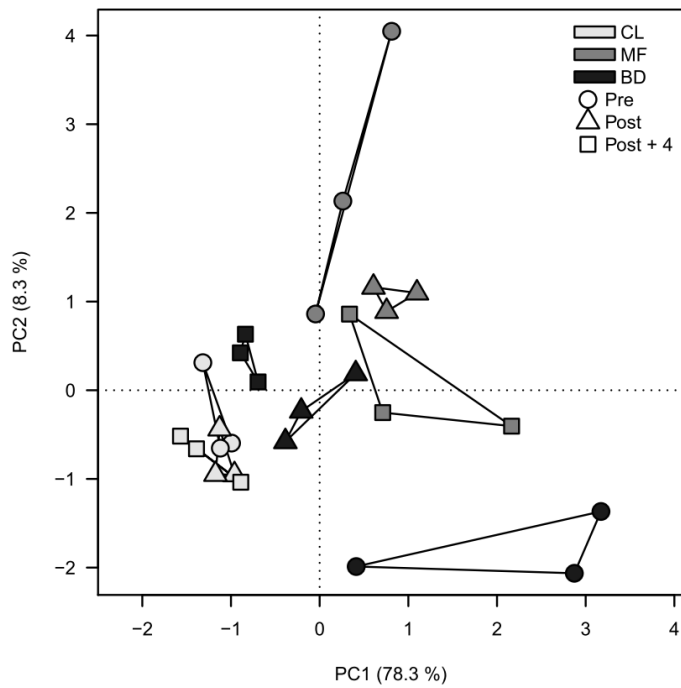
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740 Figure 3. Cumulated soil CO₂ effluxes on a day before (19 October, between 7 a.m. and
 741 1 p.m.) and the period (24 October, 7 a.m. – 29 October, 1 p.m.) tillage. Different letters
 742 indicate significant differences (Tukey's HSD test, $p < 0.05$) in means of the cumulated
 743 fluxes of the treatments (CL, control; MF, mineral fertiliser; BD, biogas digestate) before and
 744 after, respectively. Error bars represent the standard deviation of interpolation by
 745 bootstrapping after 250 iteration runs.



746

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



750

751

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

758