

1 CROP YIELD, WEED INFESTATION AND SOIL FERTILITY RESPONSES TO
2 CONTRASTED PLOUGHING INTENSITY AND MANURE ADDITIONS IN A
3 MEDITERRANEAN ORGANIC CROP ROTATION

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17 **Abstract**

18 Conservation agriculture and organic farming are two alternative strategies that aim to improve
19 soil quality and fertility in arable cropping systems through reducing tillage intensity,
20 maintaining soil cover and increasing nutrient recycling, using farmyard and green manures.
21 However, these practices can increase weed infestation or decrease nutrient availability. The
22 objectives of this study were to evaluate the effects of tillage type (mouldboard vs. chisel
23 ploughing), fertilization and green manure on soil parameters (SOC, N, bulk density, carbon
24 stocks, and soil microbial biomass C_{mic} and N_{mic}), weed abundance and crop yields in a four-
25 year rotation of spelt, chickpea, winter wheat and lentil in the Mediterranean region (Catalonia,
26 Spain). Tillage and green manure did not affect crop yields or weed biomass, although during
27 the last year of the experiment, plots with mouldboard ploughing had less weed biomass and
28 higher lentil biomass. Fertilization was the most important factor, increasing the cereal yields,
29 SOC, N and soil microbial biomass (C_{mic} and N_{mic}) content of the soil. However, fertilization did
30 not favour chickpea and lentil crops because weed competition limited legume crop growth.
31 Overall, there was a loss of SOC and a reduction of carbon stocks over the four years of the trial
32 in the soil because of the deep soil tillage (25 cm) and low crop productivity irrespective of
33 tillage type. In contrast, N content increased in all of the plots and was enhanced by fertilization.
34 The use of chisel plough stratified the distribution of SOC and N in the surface layers (0-10
35 cm). Both C_{mic} and C_{mic}/SOC ratio increased in fertilized treatments, suggesting an increased
36 lability of SOC. The application of more stabilized organic matter may be a better practice to
37 build up soil organic matter and to maintain crop yields in organic farming systems.

38

39 **Keywords:** chisel plough; carbon stock; amendments; microbial biomass; cover crop

40

41 1. INTRODUCTION

42 Soils play a key role in agricultural systems because they represent the basis of food production
43 (Fließbach et al., 2007). However, most arable soils are prone to degradation, mainly caused by
44 intensive soil use (Gadermaier et al., 2012). Crop rotation, cover crops and reduced or no tillage
45 practices aim to improve soil quality in arable cropping systems. Farmyard manure and green
46 manure (organic fertilizers) can also contribute to soil fertility and quality. While most of these
47 practices are used in organic farming cropping systems, the adoption of reduced tillage practices
48 is not widespread in such systems (Gadermaier et al., 2012). The increase of weed infestation
49 and the limited availability of N mainly at the beginning of the growing season are probably the
50 main problems that reduced tillage pose to organic farmers (Gadermaier et al., 2012; Peigné et
51 al., 2007; Sans et al., 2011). On the other hand, reduced tillage is highly suited to conserve soil
52 fertility and prevent erosion (Berner et al., 2008; Gadermaier et al., 2012) by enhancing soil
53 organic carbon (SOC) content, microbial activity and soil structure (Mäder and Berner, 2012;
54 Peigné et al., 2013).

55 Cover crops can also contribute to the accumulation of organic matter in the upper soil layer and
56 they can reduce weed infestation (Hobbs et al., 2008; Masilionyte et al., 2017). However, the
57 use of cover crops must consider the possible consequences of competition for nutrients and
58 water with cash crops (Plaza-Bonilla et al., 2017).

59 Crop production in organic farms is often limited by the lack of nitrogen. In such farms nitrogen
60 inputs are needed to restore the amount of N depleted by crops (Fließbach et al., 2007). The use
61 of organic fertilizers, in one hand, is an effective way to increase soil organic matter content
62 (Alvarez, 2005) and N availability (Krauss et al., 2010; Lal, 2009; Maltas et al., 2013). On the
63 other hand, suitable crop rotations containing legumes are fundamental to produce surpluses in
64 N budgets (Gadermaier et al., 2012). However, the residue from a cover crop rich in legume
65 species is often mineralised very fast, and nutrients can be released before the demands of the

66 subsequent cash crop (Pang and Letey, 2000) and thus be lost or used by weeds. Therefore, the
67 use of cover crops for supplying N to crops must be adapted to the reduced tillage systems
68 (Peigné et al., 2007). In consequence, it is considered of great interest to gain knowledge on the
69 N dynamics after the introduction of green manures and reduced tillage practices in organic
70 arable cropping systems.

71 Links between C and N cycling are important to understand N supply in arable systems. The
72 application of organic manures, and reducing tillage intensity can increase the SOC in topsoil,
73 improve soil physical and biological properties and lead to reduced carbon losses or even to
74 increased soil carbon storage in the soil (Cooper et al., 2016; Gattinger et al., 2012). In addition,
75 soil microbiological activity is of primary importance in organic farming because N supply is
76 mainly dependent on the degradation of soil organic matter by soil micro-organisms (Vian et al.,
77 2009). In this case, and because of their high sensitivity, C and N in soil microbial biomass can
78 be used as indicators of changes in soil owing to management in the short term (Fließbach et al.,
79 2007).

80 Few experiments integrate reduced tillage into organic farming systems, and most of them are
81 performed in temperate climates (Berner et al., 2008; Krauss et al., 2010; Peigné et al., 2007;
82 Pekrun et al., 2003). So far, in Mediterranean climates reduced tillage practices have been
83 studied only in conventional systems (Kassam et al., 2012; López-Garrido et al., 2014; Ward et
84 al., 2012), and thus there is a lack of long term reduced tillage studies in organic systems. The
85 low organic matter content with poor soil structure of the Mediterranean arable soils and the
86 climatic constraints that limit plant growth during summer may constrain the chances to
87 improve soil quality by means of reduced tillage and green manures (Kassam et al., 2012;
88 Romanyà and Rovira, 2011; Hernanz et al, 2009).

89 Our aims were to study the effects of reduced tillage, farmyard manure and green manure (cover
90 crop) on crop yields, weed abundance and soil organic C stocks and N availability. To address

91 these aims we set in 2011 a mid-term experiment that was monitored during a four-year rotation
92 of spelt (*Triticum spelta* L., 2011-12), chickpea (*Cicer arietinum* L., spring 2013), winter wheat
93 (*Triticum aestivum* L., 2013-14) and lentil (*Lens culinaris* Medik., spring 2015).

94 We hypothesized that a) the lower disturbance of the soil profile by reduced tillage plus the
95 addition of farmyard and green manures contribute to an increase, or at least maintain SOC and
96 N stocks. These changes, combined with the increased stability of the soil system, b) will
97 increase microbial biomass and N availability; and c) will allow a sustainable crop performance
98 in reduced tillage organic crops.

99

100 2. MATERIALS AND METHODS

101 2.1. Site conditions

102 In November of 2011, a midterm field experiment was initiated in Gallecs (41°33'31.9"N
103 2°11'59.5"E), a peri-urban agricultural area of 753 ha situated 15 km north of Barcelona
104 (Catalonia, Spain). Gallecs has a Mediterranean climate; the mean annual temperature and
105 precipitation are 14.9 °C and 647 mm, respectively. At the beginning of the experiment, the soil
106 properties of the field were evaluated. On average, the mineral fraction consisted of 43.3 ±
107 6.9 % sand, 26.9 ± 4.7 % loam and 29.7 ± 3.7 % clay; the texture was classified as loamy-clay
108 (Soil Survey Staff, 1998); the soil type was Haplic Luvisol (IUSS Working Group WRB, 2015);
109 the average soil organic matter was 1.5 ± 0.1 % (Walkley-Black); and the pH (H₂O) was 8.1 ±
110 0.1.

111 2.2. Field experiment

112 The trial consisted of a four-year crop rotation in a strip-split-block design of three factors (with
113 two levels each): tillage system (mouldboard ploughing (P) vs. chisel (C)), fertilization
114 (composted farmyard manure (+F) vs. no fertilizer (-F)) and green manure (with green manure

115 (+G) vs. no green manure (-G)). The factors were arranged with tillage treatments laid out in
116 strips; fertilization was applied in perpendicular strips across the experiment, and the tillage
117 strips were split into subplots for the green manure treatment. In total, 32 plots measuring 13 m
118 × 12 m were established, comprising four replicates of each treatment (Figure 1). The field had
119 been under organic management for five years prior to the trial establishment, with a typical
120 dryland Mediterranean crop rotation that alternated winter cereals and legumes in spring for
121 human consumption. The crop rotation of this trial consisted of spelt (2011–2012), chickpea
122 (2013), winter wheat (2013-2014) and lentil (2015) (Figure 2).

123 Two tillage systems were used: a mouldboard plough (P) (soil inversion at 25 cm depth) plus a
124 rotary harrow (5 cm depth), and a chisel plough (C) (no soil inversion at 25 cm depth) plus a
125 rotary harrow (same as for the mouldboard plough). The fertilization treatment (+F) consisted of
126 partially composted farmyard manure, composed of cattle manure and plant residues, obtained
127 without managing and controlling the process, by gradually accumulating the material that was
128 seasonally available, according to the normal practice used in the area. In consequence, the
129 composted manure had a variable composition. The manure was applied every year before
130 sowing the main crop. The total amount of manure applied each year differed in relation to the
131 nutrient availability in the fertilizer and the nutritional demands of each crop (Table 1). The
132 organic fertilizers were mixed in the soil by means of a chisel or mouldboard plough in
133 accordance with the tillage treatment. In September 2012 and 2014, cover crops (+G) were
134 sown in the corresponding 16 plots, consisting of a mixture of oat (*Avena sativa* L.), white
135 mustard (*Sinapis alba* L.), bitter vetch (*Vicia ervilia* (L.) Willd.) and common vetch (*Vicia*
136 *sativa* L.) (Table 1). At the end of March of the following year, cover crops (as well as the
137 weeds developing in –G treatment) were incorporated into the soil as green manure by disc
138 harrowing.

139 Weeds were not controlled during the first year of the crop rotation due to an extremely
140 prolonged rainy period that prevented the mechanical post-emergence weeding. In the second

141 year of the rotation, weeds were controlled with an inter-row cultivator adapted to pass between
142 the seeding rows of chickpea. The third year of the rotation, weeds were controlled with a flex-
143 tine harrow during the wheat crop season. Finally, the last year of the rotation, lentil was
144 established poorly because of drought and was outcompeted by weeds despite the manual
145 removal of lamb's quarters individuals (*Chenopodium album* L.), which was the most important
146 weed during the lentils' growth (Table 1).

147 2.3. Weed and crop assessment

148 Crop density was evaluated every year once the crop plants were well-established. The
149 individuals were counted in a sample 0.5 m long, comprising two crop lines in four replicates in
150 each plot.

151 Before crop harvest, four permanent square frames of 1 m² were randomly established, one in
152 each quarter of the plot, to assess weed and crop aboveground biomass. The total aboveground
153 biomass of weeds and crop was harvested in each frame and oven-dried at 60 °C for 48 h. The
154 aboveground biomass of green manure and weeds was also evaluated during the green manure
155 period. Grain crop yield was assessed in the inner 9 m × 8 m of each plot by a plot combine
156 each year (except for lentils). The straw of the crops was not removed from the field and was
157 incorporated with the stubble into the soil by disc harrowing at 10 cm deep. The spelt straw was
158 chopped by a hammer straw chopper before being incorporated

159 2.4. Soil sampling and analyses of SOC, N, bulk density and carbon stocks

160 In November 2011 and 2015, the soil was studied at four depths: from 0 to 10 cm, from 10 to
161 20 cm, from 20 to 30 cm and from 30 to 40 cm. The first two depths were sampled in all of the
162 plots, whereas the two deepest soil layers were sampled only in plots with farmyard manure and
163 green manure with mouldboard ploughing and with chisel ploughing (P + F + GM and C + F +
164 GM). To study soil bulk density, 3 soil cores of 6.2 cm diameter and 10 cm deep were extracted

165 in each soil layer at each plot. Soil samples were oven-dried at 90-100 °C for 48 h. Soil bulk
166 density was calculated according to the following formula: Bulk density (g cm^{-3}) = dry soil
167 weight (g) / core volume (cm^3).

168 To study total soil organic carbon (SOC) and total nitrogen content (N), 20 soil cores of 2.5 cm
169 of diameter were systematically extracted every 2 meters of distance in each plot. Each set of 20
170 cores extracted at each plot and depth constituted a sample. Soil samples were kept in plastic
171 bags, properly labelled, in a fridge at 4 °C until analysis. Samples were air dried and sieved on a
172 2 mm mesh. A minimum amount of 50 g dried soil was prepared for SOC and N analysis, and
173 the rest was separated for the soil microbial analyses (see below section 2.5). Total carbon and
174 total nitrogen were analysed through dry combustion with a LECO© Truspec CHNS analyser
175 (Bremner, 1996). The Walkley-Black procedure/ISO 14235 was finally chosen to indirectly
176 estimate the soil organic carbon (SOC) due to the high proportion of carbonates.

177 Based on the soil bulk density and SOC, carbon stocks were calculated according to the
178 following formula (Lee et al., 2009): Soil carbon stock (g m^{-2}) = soil carbon content
179 (mg g^{-1}) \times depth of soil layer (m) \times area (m^2) \times bulk density (g cm^{-3}) $\times 10^6$.

180 2.5. Soil microbial biomass analyses

181 All of the soil microbial analyses were carried out on moist soil samples adjusted to a water
182 content corresponding to 40–50 % of maximum water retention capacity. The soil microbial
183 biomass (C_{mic} and N_{mic}) was estimated using chloroform fumigation extraction (CFE) following
184 Vance et al. (1987). CFE was done in triplicate on 20 g (dry matter) subsamples that were
185 extracted with 80 ml of a 0.5 M K_2SO_4 solution. Total organic carbon (SOC) in soil extracts was
186 determined by infrared spectrometry after combustion at 850°C. Total nitrogen (N) was
187 measured subsequently in the same sample by chemoluminescence. The soil microbial biomass
188 was then calculated according to the formula: C_{mic} ($\mu\text{g g}^{-1}$ oven dry soil) = EC/k_{EC} , where EC =
189 (SOC in fumigated samples - SOC in control samples) and $k_{\text{EC}} = 0.45$ (Joergensen, 1996). N_{mic}

190 ($\mu\text{g g}^{-1}$ oven dry soil) = EN/k_{EN} , where $\text{EN} = (\text{N extracted from fumigated samples} - \text{N}$
191 $\text{extracted from control samples})$ and $k_{\text{EN}} = 0.40$ (Joergensen and Mueller, 1996).

192 2.6. Statistical analyses

193 The individual and combined effects of the type of tillage (P vs. C), fertilization (+F vs. -F) and
194 green manure (+G vs. -G) on crop yields (spelt, chickpea, winter wheat), lentil aboveground
195 biomass and weed aboveground biomass were evaluated using linear mixed effects models. For
196 spelt crop, the factor of green manure was not analysed because the green manure crop was
197 implemented after it. The weed biomass was introduced in the models as a covariate to evaluate
198 the effect of weeds on grain yields (or crop biomass, when yield was not available). Tillage,
199 fertilization and green manure were used as fixed factors, and the block was introduced as a
200 random factor. The normality of residuals was verified using the Shapiro-Wilk test, and
201 homoscedasticity was assessed using Bartlett's test. To meet the normality and
202 homoscedasticity requirements, we used logarithmic or square root transformation on the data
203 when necessary. The same statistical procedure was followed to analyse the effects of tillage,
204 fertilization, green manure and depth of the soil layers and the interaction between the factors on
205 the following soil parameters: SOC, N, soil bulk density, carbon stocks, and soil microbial
206 biomass (C_{mic} and N_{mic}). The changes in soil quality indicators over the 4-year rotation were also
207 studied, comparing soil samplings carried out twice during the experiment ($\Delta = t_f - t_i$). The first
208 analysis was performed at the beginning of the trial, representing the initial status of the soil (t_i),
209 and the second analysis was performed at the end of the experiment (t_f). All the analyses were
210 performed in R version 3.2.2 (R Development Core Team, 2015) using the package lme4 (Bates
211 et al., 2015) for linear mixed effects model fitting.

212

213 3. RESULTS

214 3.1. Crop yields and weed biomass

215 No differences in the density (individuals/m²) of the established crops were found between
216 treatments in the first two years (spelt and chickpea), although the establishment of winter
217 wheat and lentil differed according to the type of tillage and the presence or not of green manure
218 the previous year (wheat) or months (lentil). Wheat establishment was significantly higher in
219 plots with mouldboard ploughing and no green manure compared to chisel (T (P vs. C) × G (+G
220 vs. -G): p = 0.009). More plants of lentil emerged in plots with no green manure in general, and
221 in plots with green manure, crop emergence was significantly higher in plots with mouldboard
222 ploughing ((T (P vs. C) × G (+G vs. -G): p = 0.04).

223 The winter wheat crop had the highest yields (3200 ± 280.08 kg ha⁻¹), followed by spelt (2328
224 ± 100.51 kg ha⁻¹) and chickpea (384 ± 65.38 kg ha⁻¹). Lentil did not produce grain because
225 extended drought dramatically affected both flowering and fruiting. Cereal yields were
226 significantly higher in plots with fertilization; both the spelt and winter wheat yields were
227 higher in plots with farmyard manure (Table 2 and Figure 3). Legumes did not follow the same
228 trend; the chickpea yield and lentil biomass did not vary in relation to fertilization. Regarding
229 the effects of the type of tillage and the incorporation of cover crops as green manure, crop
230 yields did not vary significantly, with the exception of lentil biomass. The lentil biomass was
231 significantly higher in plots that underwent mouldboard ploughing (Table 2 and Figure 3).

232 The effect of tillage on aboveground weed biomass varied over time. Although no significant
233 differences were found in the first two crops in the rotation, the aboveground weed biomass was
234 significantly lower in plots tilled with mouldboard ploughing than in plots tilled with chisel
235 ploughing during wheat and lentil crop. The incorporation of the cover crop as green manure did
236 not affect weed biomass during subsequent crops of chickpea (in the same year) and winter
237 wheat (in the following year). However, in the fourth year (during the lentil crop), weed

238 biomass was significantly higher in plots in which cover crops had been incorporated into the
239 soil prior to lentil seeding. No statistically significant interaction between factors were found,
240 with the exception of a significant lower weed biomass in plots with fertilization and
241 mouldboard ploughing in the spelt crop (Table 2).

242 The results showed that the weed biomass did not affect spelt and winter wheat grain yield
243 (slope for the effect of weed biomass on spelt yield: 1.60 ± 4.17 , $p = 0.7$ and slope for the
244 effect of weed biomass on winter wheat yield: -6.54 ± 26.99 , $p = 0.8$). In contrast, chickpea
245 yield and lentil biomass correlated negatively with weed biomass (slope for the effect of weed
246 biomass on chickpea yield: $p < 0.001$ and slope for the effect of weed biomass on lentil
247 biomass: $p = 0.003$).

248 Green manure biomass did not differ between treatments in 2013 or 2015. The analysis of the
249 effect of the green manure on weed abundance and on the crop yield of the subsequent crop
250 demonstrates that cover crop was effective in controlling weeds during its growing season but
251 not the following year. The effect of green manure on the control of weed biomass was
252 statistically significant (+G vs. -G: $p < 0.001$ in 2013 and 2015).

253 3.2. Changes in SOC and N during the four years of the experiment

254 Overall, SOC decreased significantly (t_f vs. t_i ; $p < 0.001$) in all of the treatments over the 4-year
255 rotation of the experiment, with the exception of the soil layer between 0 to 10 cm deep in plots
256 with chisel plough and fertilization. In contrast, N content increased across all the treatments (t_f
257 vs. t_i ; $p < 0.001$) (Table 3 and Figure 4). The highest SOC losses occurred at superficial soil
258 layers (0 to 10 cm) of plots without fertilization. SOC decreases were significantly higher at
259 deeper soil layers (10 to 20 cm) of plots with chisel plough (C) than of plots with soil layers
260 inversion using mouldboard ploughing (P) (Table 4). Although no significant interaction was
261 found between the type of tillage and fertilization, our results showed that SOC content at 0 to
262 10 cm was maintained over the 4-year rotation in plots with chisel and fertilization (Table 3 and
263 Figure 4).

264 Regarding the changes in N content, the highest increases occurred in plots with fertilization
265 (Table 3). The type of tillage also affected ΔN ; plots with chisel ploughing had higher increase
266 than plots with mouldboard ploughing (Table 4 and Figure 4). However, this significant
267 increase in N_t content occurred at the top soil layer of plots with chisel and fertilization, as
268 indicated by the significant interaction between fertilization, tillage and soil layer (Table 4).
269 Green manure did not show any effect. No significant differences were found in ΔSOC and
270 ΔN_{tot} over the 4-year rotation of the trial according to the presence of green manure.

271 Overall, the C:N ratio of the soil decreased by 32 % after the four years (t_f vs. t_i ; $p < 0.001$), and
272 there was a significant interaction between tillage and fertilization, indicating a higher C:N ratio
273 in plots with fertilization and reduced tillage compared to plots with mouldboard ploughing,
274 irrespective of the soil layer (Table 4).

275 3.3. Bulk density and carbon stocks after four years of reduced tillage and organic 276 inputs

277 After four years of the experiment, soil bulk density did not vary significantly in relation to the
278 different experimental factors. Deeper soil layers had a higher bulk density than surface layers,
279 but this pattern was not associated with the type of tillage or the organic fertilizer inputs, such as
280 composted farmyard manure and green manure (Table 5).

281 Carbon stocks, assessed from the SOC content and the soil bulk density of soil samples in
282 different soil layers, were significantly higher in plots fertilized with composted farmyard manure
283 and were higher at deeper soil layers from 10 to 20 cm (Table 5), although this is mainly
284 associated with higher bulk density. Furthermore, there was a significant interaction with the type
285 of tillage and green manure; higher carbon stocks were detected in plots with chisel and green
286 manure. The effect of the treatments at different soil layers showed some significant results as
287 well. Carbon stocks were higher at deeper soil layers in plots with fertilization, and the plots with
288 mouldboard ploughing presented lower carbon stocks at superficial soil layers (Table 5).

289 The diachronic analyses of carbon stocks over the 4-year rotation at four different soil layers (0 to
290 10 cm, 10 to 20 cm, 20 to 30 cm and 30 to 40 cm) in relation to the tillage (P +F + GM and C + F
291 + GM) indicate that carbon stocks were significantly lower in deeper soil layers (soil layer 20 to
292 30 cm vs. superficial soil layers: $p < 0.001$; and 30 to 40 cm vs. superficial soil layers: $p < 0.001$).

293 Overall, carbon stocks decreased after four years, irrespective of the soil layer ($p = 0.01$), and the
294 negative effect of soil layer inversion using mouldboard ploughing was only statistically
295 significant in the two upper soil layers (0 to 10 and 10 to 20 cm, $p < 0.001$).

296 3.4. Changes in soil microbial biomass

297 Soil microbial biomass (assessed as the C_{mic} and N_{mic}) was significantly higher in plots with
298 farmyard manure (Table 6 and 7). Furthermore, soil microbial biomass was lower at deeper soil
299 layers, and the significant interaction with fertilization reflects differences in C_{mic} and N_{mic} in
300 fertilized and unfertilized plots (Table 7). Superficial soil layers showed greater differences
301 between fertilized and plots without fertilization in C_{mic} and N_{mic} , compared to soil layers at 10
302 to 20 cm. Plots with mouldboard ploughing showed similar C_{mic} at 0-10 cm depth and at 10 to

303 20 cm depth; conversely, plots with chisel ploughing showed significantly higher microbial
304 biomass at superficial soil layers compared to the deeper soil layers (Table 6 and Figure 5). The
305 highest C_{mic} was observed in superficial layers (0 to 10 cm) in plots with farmyard manure and
306 chisel ploughing (Figure 5). N_{mic} did not vary significantly between soil layers in interaction
307 with tillage, and C_{mic} and N_{mic} were not significantly affected by the presence or absence of
308 green manure (Table 6 and 7).

309 The comparison of C_{mic} and N_{mic} between superficial and deeper soil layers in relation to the
310 tillage (plots P +F + GM vs. plots C + F + GM) indicate that both C_{mic} and N_{mic} were decreased
311 in deeper soil layers (20 to 30 cm C_{mic} : $p < 0.001$, N_{mic} : $p < 0.001$ and 30 to 40 cm C_{mic} : $p < 0.001$,
312 N_{mic} : $p < 0.001$), although no significant differences were found in relation to tillage (data not
313 shown).

314 The differences in C_{mic} and N_{mic} between the first and last year of the trial (ΔC_{mic} and ΔN_{mic}) did
315 not vary in relation to the individual factors (tillage, fertilization and green manure). C_{mic}
316 increased overall after the four years of the trial (t_f vs. t_i : $p < 0.001$). Significant interactions were
317 found between fertilization, tillage and soil depth, indicating higher increases of C_{mic} in plots
318 with chisel plough (T: P vs. C: $p < 0.001$) and fertilization (F: + vs. -: $p < 0.001$) at 0 to 10 cm and
319 decreases in the 10 to 20 cm layer (depth 10 to 20 vs. 0 to 10 cm: $p < 0.001$). In contrast, plots
320 with mouldboard ploughing did not show significant changes in C_{mic} at different soil depths.

321 The N_{mic} decreased, in general, in all the plots after the four years of the trial (t_f vs. t_i : $p < 0.001$),
322 but the highest losses of N_{mic} were at superficial soil layers (depth 10 to 20 vs. 0 to 10 cm:
323 $p < 0.001$). Additionally, there was a significant interaction between the year and the type of
324 tillage, indicating lower N_{mic} values in the last year in plots with chisel (T: P vs. C: $p = 0.02$);
325 this was associated with the superficial layers, although no significant interactions were found
326 (data not shown).

327 The C_{mic}/SOC ratio increased in all of the plots after the four years of the experiment (t_f vs. t_i :
328 $p < 0.001$). Furthermore, the C_{mic}/SOC after the four years of the experiment varied significantly
329 with soil depth, and this factor also interacted significantly with the fertilization and the type of
330 tillage (Table 7). We found the highest ratio at the superficial layers in plots with chisel plough
331 and no fertilization compared to plots with chisel plough and no fertilization at deeper soil
332 layers (Table 7 and Figure 5).

333

334 4. DISCUSSION

335 4.1. Crop yields and weed biomass

336 Our study reveals that fertilization is the most important factor affecting crop yields, particularly
337 during the cereal cropping period. Organic systems rely upon the use of organic fertilizers and
338 amendments that typically release nutrients (especially N) at a slower rate compared with
339 mineral fertilizers. Nitrogen inputs are critical to the productivity of these systems, and the
340 application of farmyard manure seems to be effective to maintain cereal yields (Fließbach et al.,
341 2007; Maltas et al., 2013). Conversely, the grain yield of chickpea and aboveground biomass of
342 lentil were not increased by fertilization. In general, legumes do not need supplemental N
343 fertilization (Clayton et al., 2003) because they can obtain a significant proportion of its N by
344 symbiotic nitrogen fixation (Walley et al., 2005).

345 The type of tillage had no significant effects on grain yields of cereals (spelt and winter wheat)
346 and chickpea. Other studies under Mediterranean conditions obtained similar results (López-
347 Garrido et al. 2014). However, many studies from temperate regions reveal lower crop yields in
348 systems with no soil layer inversion by chiselling (Cooper et al., 2016) because of a
349 combination of a shortage of nutrients and competition from weeds (Mäder and Berner, 2012;
350 Peigné et al., 2013). Indeed, the lower biomass of lentil in plots with reduced tillage can be
351 explained by the higher weed biomass under these conditions.

352 The positive effect of fertilization and mouldboard ploughing in controlling weeds in spelt and
353 winter wheat highlights the importance of both factors in enhancing the competitive ability of
354 crops. Weed abundance did not affect significantly spelt and winter wheat grain yield,
355 indicating that the crop was able to suppress the growth of weeds to a point where their effect
356 on crop growth was negligible. In contrast, the effect of weed biomass on chickpea yields and
357 lentil crop biomass was statistically significant, indicating a strong negative correlation between
358 weeds and legume crops. The growth of weeds was significantly enhanced by fertilization

359 during legume crops and, consequently, they significantly reduced the growth of chickpea and
360 lentil. Some studies indicated that lentil is very vulnerable to weed competition because of its
361 short stature, slow establishment, and limited vegetative growth (Ahmadi et al., 2016). The high
362 amount of weed biomass in chickpea and lentil irrespective of the treatment can be related to the
363 inadequate post-emergence weed control. Our results indicated that mouldboard ploughing
364 increased weed control and consequently lentil crop biomass. Therefore, improving weed
365 management in legume crops is critical to their feasibility in organic farming because of the
366 high susceptibility of such crops to weed competition.

367 Although we expected a negative or neutral effect of green manures on weed abundance, green
368 manure increased weed abundance during the subsequent lentil crop. The extremely weak
369 growth of lentil as a result of drought may have reduced the competitive ability of the crop and
370 promoted weed growth. These results call for a careful evaluation of the insertion of cover crops
371 in Mediterranean crop rotations (Plaza-Bonilla et al. 2017).

372 4.2. Changes in SOC, carbon stocks and N change during the experiment?

373 The amount of SOC stored in the soil is determined by the balance production of organic matter
374 by plants and decomposition of organic matter by soil organisms. Each of these processes is
375 controlled by physical, chemical, and biological factors (Guo and Gifford, 2002). In organic
376 arable cropping systems, the intensity of soil disturbance, the farmyard manure and green
377 manure fertilization are overriding factors that determine the amounts of SOC and N and their
378 pattern of distribution in the soil profile (Gattinger et al., 2012). Some authors have indicated
379 that SOC is enhanced by reduced tillage practices after several years (Mäder and Berner, 2012;
380 Peigné et al., 2013). However, other studies were unable to demonstrate such a positive effect
381 (Berner et al., 2008). Our study shows losses of SOC irrespective of the ploughing intensity,
382 indicating that Mediterranean low input farming systems may reduce SOC content and
383 consequently soil carbon stocks. It is interesting to note that such losses were lower in plots with

384 chisel than in plots with mouldboard ploughing. Similar to other studies, reduced tillage
385 stratified SOC and consequently soil carbon stocks and microbial biomass concentrated in the
386 upper layers especially in fertilized plots (Berner et al., 2008, Cooper et al., 2016, Gadermaier et
387 al., 2012). It is worthy to highlight that soil inversion by mouldboard ploughing reduces
388 carbon stocks in the topsoil mainly in unfertilized soils while it increases SOC at deeper layers.

389 As the SOC losses also occurred in reduced tillage treatments, they must relate to other aspects
390 of organic farming practices. Crop productivity is one of the main drivers of carbon stocks in
391 arable systems. Both carbon stocks and crop productivity may be enhanced by crop fertilization
392 practices (Johnston et al., 2009). The cereal grain yield even in our fertilized plots was less than
393 half that of conventional systems in the region (Ministerio de Agricultura y Pesca, Alimentación
394 y Medio Ambiente, 2009), indicating a low plant productivity in comparison to neighbouring
395 cereal monocultures. This may explain SOC losses throughout the soil profile. Moreover, low
396 productivity of legume crops as compared to cereals may further contribute to decrease soil
397 organic matter in such crop rotations. These SOC losses may be partly compensated by the
398 addition of farmyard manure. In these experimental systems, organic fertilization was crucial to
399 maintain SOC level and to enhance cereal crop productivity, but it reduced productivity in
400 legume crops. This suggests in one hand nutrient limitation for cereal productivity and on the
401 other hand a negative effect of organic fertilization in rotations including legumes. As the use of
402 fresh, unstabilized materials may induce the mineralization of native SOC stocks (Molina-
403 Herrera and Romanyà, 2015; Romanyà et al., 2012), the addition of more stabilized composted
404 organic materials may have contributed to building up SOC stocks.

405 There is a broad support in the literature for the positive effects of cover crops on SOC (Poeplau
406 and Don, 2015). However, our results suggest that the incorporation of crop residues with low
407 C:N ratio, such as those from legumes, into the soil can accelerate SOC decomposition,
408 although other studies show positive responses on SOC levels in response to legumes (Beedy et
409 al., 2010). The lack of response of green manure in our experiment may have been due to the

410 general low plant productivity in the experimental area or lack of effect over short time-spans
411 (Biederbeck et al., 1998).

412 N content was clearly enhanced after the 4-year rotation in all the plots. Our results show that N
413 increase was significantly higher with the incorporation of farmyard manure, and the highest
414 increase occurred in plots with reduced tillage. Increased N levels after adding manures have
415 also been reported by other authors (Krauss et al., 2010; Maltas et al., 2013). In contrast, we did
416 not find any significant effect of the incorporation of green manure on the increase of the N,
417 indicating that the effect of applying farmyard manure was more important. Slight increases of
418 N amount in unfertilized plots can be attributed to N fixation or to atmospheric deposition (Pang
419 and Letey, 2000), which in the area may be as high a 15-22 kg ha⁻¹ year⁻¹ (Vallejo et al., 2005).
420 In our experimental site in Gallecs this value can be especially high because of its proximity to
421 urban areas (highways, industry, etc.) (Ochoa-Hueso et al., 2011).

422

423 4.3. Changes in soil microbial biomass and N availability

424 Reduced tillage caused a stratification of soil microbial biomass in the soil profile, which
425 parallels total SOC content. In agreement with previous studies (Vian et al., 2009), our results
426 on microbial biomass (C_{mic} and N_{mic}) indicated that shifting from conventional to reduced tillage
427 modifies crop residue distribution in the soil profile and environmental conditions for soil
428 micro-organisms. Increased organic residues in top layers may go along with a decrease in the
429 turnover rate of the SOC that may increase N immobilization and produce N shortages for crops
430 (Pekrun et al., 2003; Vian et al., 2009).

431 In our experiment, the increase of C_{mic} after four years of trial can be mainly explained by the
432 addition of manures. The addition of labile sources of SOC promotes soil microbial activity and
433 consequently an increase of microbial biomass (Molina-Herrera and Romanyà, 2015; Fließbach

434 and Mäder, 2000). Reduced tillage has also been found to increase microbial biomass in surface
435 soils, although its effects have been found to be much stronger when combined with
436 fertilization. These increases, however, have not been related to increases in N availability.
437 Indeed, some studies in temperate climates reported a decrease of N availability for the crop
438 under reduced tillage due to lower mineralization rates (Berner et al., 2008; Peigné et al., 2007).

439 The decrease of N_{mic} that occurred in all treatments after four years of trial coincided with a 32 %
440 decrease in the C:N ratio (see section 3.2). A low C:N ratio indicates an increased degree of
441 humification (Bayer et al., 2002). Humified organic matter strongly holds N in highly
442 recalcitrant forms and is thus unavailable to soil microbiota. In our experiment, low N
443 availability was indicated by the decreased N_{mic} . N mobilization in such soils may involve
444 destabilization of soil organic matter and its subsequent mineralization (Clarholm et al., 2015).
445 This may coincide with increases in fungi and Gram (+) bacteria as has been reported by other
446 authors studying organically managed minimum tillage farming systems (Sun et al., 2016).

447 The C_{mic}/SOC ratio can indicate the soil microbial efficiency of conversion of organic matter to
448 microbial biomass and the stabilization of SOC by the soil mineral fractions (Sparling, 1992). In
449 our mid-term trial, the loss of SOC in all the plots coincides with the increase of the C_{mic}/SOC
450 ratio, which indicates that the microorganisms are integrating a greater proportion of soil
451 organic matter.

452 5. CONCLUSIONS

453 Farmyard manure is the main factor affecting crop yields and weed biomass, as well as soil
454 fertility and quality. Organic fertilization is crucial to sustain cereal yields, but can also exert a
455 negative effect on legume crops by increasing the competitive effects of weeds. Although
456 farmers are concerned that reduced tillage could reduce the already low crop yields under
457 organic farming by increasing weed pressure and delaying nutrient mineralization, we have
458 found that the concerns are unfounded. The tillage system does not have a consistent negative
459 effect on yields, and the increased weed control of mouldboard plough only occurs in the mid-
460 to long-term. The implementation of green manure in dryland areas requires a careful redesign
461 of the cropping system. Although applying green manure could alleviate some fertility and
462 weed control issues, we have not found positive effects on crop yields.

463 In the Mediterranean region of Spain, soils have low N availability and the organic fertilization
464 might not be enough to maintain SOC content. Future research should explore the effects of
465 applying more stabilized organic matter, which may be a better practice for the enhancement of
466 soil quality and the build-up of soil organic matter in the soil.

467 ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

468 The authors wish to acknowledge the efforts of all researchers who participated in this
469 experiment. We sincerely thank the people involved in field activities, particularly Alejandro
470 Pérez-Ferrer for technical assistance and Salvi Safont for his willingness and experience in
471 running the machinery needed to perform the field management.

472 Funding: We thank the economic support of the Ministry of Economy and Competitiveness
473 through the National Institute of Agrarian and Food Research and Technology (INIA), part of
474 the CORE Organic Plus funding bodies, which in turn are partners of FP7 ERA-Net and
475 financed by the European Commission through projects TILMAN-ORG and FERTILCROP,
476 which allowed this work to be carried out. This research has also been partially funded by the
477 Department of Agriculture, Livestock, Fisheries and Food of Catalonia (projects 2011 AGECE
478 001, 2012 AGECE 00027, 53 05007 2015) and by a fellowship from the Spanish Ministry of
479 Education, Culture and Sports to the first author.

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