

This is a repository copy of Impact of carbonates on the mineralisation of surface soil organic carbon in response to shift in tillage practice.

White Rose Research Online URL for this paper: http://eprints.whiterose.ac.uk/142195/

Version: Accepted Version

Article:

Mehra, P., Sarkar, B. orcid.org/0000-0002-4196-1225, Bolan, N. et al. (2 more authors) (2019) Impact of carbonates on the mineralisation of surface soil organic carbon in response to shift in tillage practice. Geoderma, 339. pp. 94-105. ISSN 0016-7061

https://doi.org/10.1016/j.geoderma.2018.12.039

Article available under the terms of the CC-BY-NC-ND licence (https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/4.0/).

Reuse

This article is distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial-NoDerivs (CC BY-NC-ND) licence. This licence only allows you to download this work and share it with others as long as you credit the authors, but you can't change the article in any way or use it commercially. More information and the full terms of the licence here: https://creativecommons.org/licenses/

Takedown

If you consider content in White Rose Research Online to be in breach of UK law, please notify us by emailing eprints@whiterose.ac.uk including the URL of the record and the reason for the withdrawal request.



eprints@whiterose.ac.uk https://eprints.whiterose.ac.uk/

1 IMPACT OF CARBONATES ON THE MINERALISATION OF SURFACE SOIL

2 ORGANIC CARBON IN RESPONSE TO SHIFT IN TILLAGE PRACTICE

3 Promil Mehra^{1,2*}, Binoy Sarkar^{2,3}, Nanthi Bolan^{4,5}, Saikat Chowdhury⁶, Jack Desbiolles⁷

4 ¹Elizabeth Macarthur Agricultural Institute, Department of Primary Industries, NSW, Australia

- ²Future Industries Institute, University of South Australia, Mawson Lakes, South Australia 5095,
 Australia,
- ³Department of Animal and Plant Sciences, The University of Sheffield, Western Bank, Sheffield,
 8 S10 2TN, UK
- ⁴University of Newcastle, Newcastle, NSW, Australia.
- ⁵Global Centre for Environment Remediation (GCER), University of Newcastle, NSW, Australia.
- ⁶Department of Soil Science, Sher-e-Bangla Agricultural University, Dhaka-1207, Bangladesh
- ¹² ⁷Agricultural Machinery Research and Design Centre, University of South Australia, Mawson Lakes,
- 13 South Australia 5095, Australia.

14

* Corresponding author: Promil Mehra; E-mail:

Promil.Mehra@mymail.unisa.edu.au

15 Highlights

16	•	Overall C mineralisation was higher under CT (20.1%) than NT (9.9%) system
17	٠	Tillage shift reduced the hydrophobic SOM components by 19.3% than NT system
18	•	The half-life of soil labile C was 6-12 and 5-7 days at 22 and 37°C, respectively
19	•	Carbonate C started mineralising after interaction with crop residue mulch
20		

22 Abstract

The inorganic soil C pool is a major source of CO₂ emission into the atmosphere along with 23 the soil respiratory CO₂ fluxes but is comparatively less studied than the organic C 24 mineralisation processes. This study aims to understand how soil available carbonates 25 influence the soil C dynamics under different tillage, mulching and temperature regimes. A 26 90-day incubation experiment was conducted by adding calcite nodules to soils (10% w/w) 27 collected from an agricultural field maintained with or without 5 t ha⁻¹ mulching under no-till 28 29 (NT) or conventional tillage (CT) systems. Environmental Scanning Electron Microscope (ESEM) examination indicated greater morphological changes in the calcite nodules 30 incubated with CT than NT soils. Soil samples incubated with calcite and mulching recorded 31 6.3% greater CO₂ evolution than the un-mulched condition. Under the CT system, the overall 32 CO₂ emission rate was higher in the control treatment (43%), followed by a combined 33 treatment of 5 t ha⁻¹ mulch + CaCO₃ (10% w/w) (29.2 %), 5 t ha⁻¹ mulch only treatment 34 (27.9%), and 10% CaCO₃ (w/w) (16.5%) treatment, with a rise in incubation temperature 35 36 from 22°C to 37°C. Kinetic model calculations for CO₂ emission indicated a greater half-life 37 of easily mineralisable C pools in the NT system at 22°C. Microbial biomass carbon (MBC) results further verified that the high temperature and disturbed soil conditions limit the 38 availability of soil MBC under the CT systems, indicating a higher decomposition rate. 39 40 Eventually, these results indicated that agricultural management practices, including tillage shift, explicitly influence the different functional components of soil organic matter (SOM). 41

42 Keywords: Tillage, Mulching, Kinetic decomposition model, Carbonates, Microbial Biomass
43 Carbon, Carbon Sequestration

44

46 1. Introduction

More than 48% of Earth's land area contains a significant amount of inorganic carbon (C), 47 mostly found in arid and semi-arid regions (Lal, 2009). This inorganic soil C pool is a major 48 source of CO₂ emission into the atmosphere along with the soil respiratory CO₂ flux (Lal, 49 2009; Lorenz and Lal 2018; Sanderman, 2012). Many studies estimated that soil respiration is 50 the second largest C flux after the emission due to combustion of fossil fuels (Quéré et al., 51 52 2009), contributing about 52-60 Gt of C between the terrestrial ecosystem and atmosphere (Hanson et al., 2000; Kuzyakov, 2006; Lal, 2004). The majority of the studies concerning soil 53 54 CO₂ fluxes have stated that CO₂ are emitted from soils mainly due to the microbial respiration (Kuzyakov, 2006; Zhang et al., 2010). During this process, organic matter (OM) present in 55 the soil is converted to CO_2 by the microbial action. The gaseous CO_2 , thus formed may 56 dissolve in soil water and form carbonic acid (H₂CO₃) (Eq. 1). Later, when H₂CO₃ reacts with 57 soil carbonates (CaCO₃), it results in the formation of bicarbonates (HCO₃⁻), and then again 58 may dissociate to release CO_2 from the soil system (Eq. 2 and 3). 59

60

61 $H_2CO_3(aq) + CaCO_3(g) \rightarrow Ca^{2+}(aq) + 2HCO_3^{-}(aq)$ (Eq. 2)

$$HCO_{3}(aq) \rightarrow CO_{2}(g) + OH^{-}(aq) \qquad \dots (Eq. 3)$$

The CO₂ emission from soil is a continuous process taking place through soil microbial (heterotrophic) and root (autotrophic) respirations, which increases the CO₂ concentration in the soil pores, and ultimately releases into the atmosphere (Bolan et al., 2003). However, calcareous soils (pH>8) contain a large amount of inorganic C including calcium bicarbonate and carbonate. The release of CO₂ from these inorganic C sources may contribute significantly in the total emissions and overestimate the release of CO₂ due to soil organic carbon (SOC) decomposition during the respiration measurement.

Recent investigations revealed that soils under continuous no-tillage (NT) system may be 70 prone to problems such as soil compaction, nutrient stratification, and the emergence of 71 stubble- or soil-borne diseases and herbicide-resistant weeds. Most of these problems are 72 prevalent in the surface layer of soils, and highlight the limitations of NT system (Argent et 73 al., 2013; Walker, 2012). Study conducted by Barbera et al. (2012) indicates that reduced 74 tillage frequency and increased cropping intensity increased the proportion of soil inorganic 75 76 carbon (SIC) relative to total soil C. The authors also emphasised that such increase in SIC in the reduced tillage system were particularly observed at the surface soil layer, where crop 77 78 residues accumulate due to reduced soil disturbances (Barbera et al., 2012). The crop residues might lead to increased base cation (Ca and Mg) inputs to the surface soil, 79 consequently could enhance the precipitation of CaCO₃ (Barbera et al., 2012). However, the 80 81 mechanism involved in this processes is not fully clear.

The above situations sometime encourage the farmers to adopt a shift in their tillage system, 82 i.e., from NT to conventional tillage (CT). Under calcareous soil conditions, any shift in the 83 management practices (e.g., tillage shift) may become the probable reason for the 84 redistribution of natural carbonate materials. Therefore, on exposure to the soil organic matter 85 (SOM) the redistributed soil carbonates may undergo different physical, chemical and 86 biological processes. It could be hypothesised that the dissolution of carbonates might occur 87 because of the redistribution of carbonates, which may affect the emission of CO₂ fluxes 88 89 from such soils. It could also be hypothesised that the dissolution of naturally occurring carbonates in calcareous soils would depend on the prevailing soil temperature, thus would 90 affect the total soil respiration when amended with organic inputs. The variation in 91 92 temperature would be common during the growth period of a field crop from sowing to the maturity. Therefore, this study aims to determine the effect of naturally occurring carbonates 93 (CaCO₃) on CO₂ emission from soils under different tillage management practices. The 94

95 specific objectives are: (i) to evaluate the effect of carbonate addition, temperature and 96 mulching on basal respiration and microbial biomass carbon (MBC) in the soil, (ii) to 97 determine the influence of different carbonate addition rates and temperature regimes on the 98 decomposition rate of soil added plant residues as mulching, and (iii) to characterise the 99 components of SOM based upon functional groups (e.g., hydrophobic and hydrophilic 100 organic constituents) as impacted by tillage practices and mulch addition.

101 2. Materials and Methods

102 2.1 Site description and experimental design

103 This study was conducted at the Roseworthy Campus (34°32'15"S 138°41'25"E) of the University of Adelaide from April 2014 to May 2015. The experimental site had a history of 104 more than 14 years of rain-fed and continuous NT cropping system. However, April 2013 105 106 onwards, CT was introduced. In the first cropping season (2013-2014), two levels (0 and 5 t ha⁻¹) of mulching were applied manually using barley (Hordeum vulgare L) residues, along 107 with maintaining bare grounds as the control (0 t ha⁻¹) treatment. In the following cropping 108 season (2014), two levels of mulching were attained by leaving a full height and mid-height 109 of standing wheat (Triticum aestivum) crop stubbles after harvesting. These represented a 110 follow-on practice of applying 0 and 5 t ha⁻¹ mulching, respectively. Eighteen plots (10 m x 111 1.6 m) were arranged in a split plot randomised block design with three replications, and 112 tillage systems (NT and CT) were set as the main treatments. No-tillage (NT) treatment was 113 114 achieved by direct drilling of wheat seeds into unploughed soils, and CT treatment was achieved by using the same seed drill following two full disturbances up to a depth of ~15-20 115 cm as per local traditional practice. 116

117 2.2 Soil sampling

Soil samples from the above-mentioned plots (experiments in the current study involved only
0 and 5 t ha⁻¹ mulch treatments) were collected by a hand auger after a week of the tillage

operation in May 2014. Following collection, all the visually available plant materials and 120 debris were discarded. All the collected soil samples were kept at 5°C for the stabilisation of 121 the microbial activity. The experimental field soil was a Brown Chromosol (Isbell, 2016), and 122 characterised as sandy-loam in texture (64.4% sand, 8.1% silt and 27.5% clay) (Jones, 2001). 123 The soil was strongly alkaline in (pH = 8.2-9.5), and slightly to moderately saline (EC =124 0.255 dS m⁻¹) in nature (Mahmoud et al., 1978; Carmo et al., 2016) Selected physico-125 chemical properties of the experimental soil (an Alfisol according to the USDA soil 126 taxonomic classification) are listed in Table 1 and 2. The mean annual maximum and 127 128 minimum temperatures at the site were 23.5°C and 9.6°C, respectively, with an annual precipitation of 371.2 mm (2014). 129

130 2.3 Soils carbonate measurement and X-ray diffraction

The-carbonate content in soil samples was determined by the titration method (Horváth et al., 131 2005), and the naturally occurring carbonate nodules were handpicked from the soil surface 132 of the field site under the respective set of treatments after the tillage operation. These 133 carbonate nodules were later pooled together to make one single carbonate sample. 134 Afterwards, the collected carbonate nodules were cleaned of soil materials, dried, and 135 characterised by using X-ray diffraction (XRD). Finely ground (<50 µm) and well 136 homogenized carbonate material was pressed in a stainless steel sample holder, and XRD 137 patterns were obtained using CuK α radiation ($\lambda = 1.540598$ Å) on a PANalytical Empyrean 138 diffractometer equipped with PIXcel^{3D} detector (Malvern Panalytical Ltd., Royston, UK). The 139 diffractometer was operated at 40 kV and 40 mA between 9° to 90° 20 at a step size of 0.013°. 140

141 **2.4** Incubation experiment

Emission of C as impacted by carbonates addition was studied by incubating soil samples for 90 days under two different temperature conditions at 22 ± 1 °C and 37 ± 1 °C. These two temperatures represented the average temperature conditions prevailing during the sowing

and maturity stages of the crop (barley or wheat) grown at the experimental site. Field moist 145 soil samples (50 g; passed through a 2 mm sieve) were mixed with two levels (0 and 10 % 146 w/w) of the carbonate nodules (< 2 mm granule size) in Schott bottles. To verify the 147 dissolution of carbonates during the incubation experiment, 50 g of washed sand was also 148 mixed with the carbonate materials having different combinations of the control treatments as 149 listed in Table 3, and incubated under similar environmental conditions. At the end of 150 151 incubation, exchangeable cations (Na, Ca, Mg and K) in the carbonate-amended samples were analysed using inductively coupled plasma optical emission spectroscopy (ICP-OES) 152 153 (Model 5300V, PerkinElmer, Inc., Waltham, MA, USA).

Vials containing 20 ml of 1M NaOH was placed within the Schott bottles of the incubation experiment to trap the CO₂ evolved from each soil sample. The CO₂ evolution was thus monitored for 0, 2, 4, 6, 8, 10, 30, 50, 70, and 90 days of the incubation. Over the incubation period, CO₂ was trapped in the NaOH solution, and the residual amount of alkali was back titrated against 0.5M HCl following adding 2 to 5 drops of 1M BaCl₂.

During each of the alkali-replacement occasions, suitable levels of oxygen were maintained 159 in the Schott bottles by opening the stopper briefly. The moisture content of soil samples was 160 maintained constant at 60% water holding capacity (water held in the soil between the field 161 capacity and the permanent wilting point), and deionised water was added where needed. For 162 each set of soil tests, a blank solution of NaOH (without soil as a control) was incubated and 163 titrated. A different set of samples was prepared independently (as control) and in 164 combination with sand, soil (from the CT and NT systems), mulch and carbonates at both the 165 temperatures (22°C and 37°C) (Table 3). Each treatment was replicated three times. The total 166 CO₂ produced was calculated using Eq. 4 (Bloem et al., 2005): 167

168
$$F_i = \left(\frac{MW * (V_b - V_s) * M * 1000}{DW * 2}\right)$$
(Eq. 4)

Where, 'F_i ' is the total CO₂ produced (mg CO₂-C kg⁻¹) at different intervals '*i*' (*i* = 0, 2, 4, 6, 8, 10, 30, 50, 70, 90 days of incubation); 'MW' is the molar mass of C (12 g mol⁻¹); 'V_b' is the volume of HCl for blank titration (L); 'V_s' is the volume of HCl for sample titration (L); 'M' is the concentration of HCl (0.5M); 'DW' is the dry weight of the soils (kg), and '2' is the factor that accounts for the fact that two OH⁻ are consumed by one CO₂. The converting factor from g to mg is 1000.

The cumulative CO₂ emission (C_{cum}) during the incubation was calculated using Eq. (5), which was calculated for each treatment combination using mean CO₂ mineralisation rates (n=3).

177
$$C_{cum} = \sum F_i$$
(Eq. 5)

178 2.5 Kinetic models for CO₂ evolution

179 First-order (Eq. 6, Murwira et al., 1990) and two-component first-order (Eq. 7, Molina et al.,
180 1980) kinetic models were used to calculate the decomposition rate of soil C affected by
181 carbonate addition.

182 First-order model:
$$C_{min} = C_1 (1 - e^{-k_1 t})$$
(Eq. 6)

183 Two-component first-order model: $C_{min} = C_2 e^{-k_2 t} + C_3 e^{-k_3 t}$ (Eq. 7)

Where, C_{min} is the cumulative amount of CO₂-C mineralised after time t (mg C kg⁻¹ soil); C₁ is the initial easily mineralisable C (mg C kg⁻¹ soil); 't' is the incubation period (days); k₁, k₂, k₃ are the rate constants (per day). The parameter C₁ is an initial amount of easily mineralisable C (mg C kg⁻¹ soil) recovered at hour 0; C₂ and C₃ represent the readily mineralisable and slowly mineralisable C pools, respectively (mg C kg⁻¹ soil).

Eq. (6) and (7) were fitted using the non-linear regression estimation using SigmaPlot[®]
version 12.0 (Systat Software Inc., San Jose, CA, USA). The half-life (t_{1/2}) of mineralisation
was calculated using Eq. (8):

192
$$t_{1/2} = \frac{\ln(2)}{k_i} = \frac{0.693}{k_i}$$
(Eq. 8)

Where, k_i is the rate of either rapidly (k_1 in Eq. 6 and K_2 in Eq. 7) or slowly (K_3 in Eq. 7) 193 decomposing C fraction. In this study, $t_{1/2}$ was calculated only for the easily mineralisable 194 phase (C_2) because calculating the same for the slower phase (C_3) is subjected to uncertainty. 195 Therefore, $t_{1/2}$ for pool C₃ was not estimated in this study, as there was not enough 196 information about its connectivity to C₂. 197

2.6 Morphology of carbonate granules 198

To examine the morphological structure of the carbonate materials, visible carbonate nodules 199 from the incubated soils (after 90 days) were picked with a tweezer, cleaned of soil materials, 200 dried, and scanned using a Quanta 450 FEG Environmental Scanning Electron Microscope 201 (ESEM) (FEI Company, Hillsboro, OR, USA). The ESEM images were taken in high 202 vacuum mode at a 20 kV accelerating voltage using an Everhart-Thornley Detector (ETD). 203 The energy dispersive X-ray analysis (EDXA) spectra were also acquired from the selected 204 area on the samples. A moderately representative analysis was achieved by averaging 205 elemental data obtained by scanning 25 randomly selected carbonate particles. 206

207 2.7

Soil C functional groups

After termination of the incubation experiment, functional groups in soils were studied using 208 Fourier transform Infrared (FTIR) spectroscopy (Cary 600 series FTIR spectrometer, Agilent 209 Technologies, Santa Clara, CA, USA). FTIR samples were prepared by mixing the dried soil 210 sample with KBr (FTIR grade 99%, Sigma Aldrich) at a rate of 1% (w/w). Samples were 211 finely ground in an agate mortar and pressed into a sheer slice using a hydraulic press (100 212 KPa for 10 min) to obtain pellets for further analysis. FTIR spectra over the 4,000–400 cm^{-1} 213 range were obtained using KBr background, and each sample was scanned 64 times at a 214 resolution of 4 cm⁻¹. The FTIR spectral interpretation was done for two different absorbance 215 bands based on hydrophobic (C - H) and hydrophilic (C = 0) groups. Previous studies 216

(Capriel et al., 1995; Cosentino et al., 2006; Šimon et al., 2009) demonstrated that tillage
could significantly alter the hydrophobic and hydrophilic components of SOM.

Hydrophilic fractions are represented by carboxyl- and hydroxyl groups, and are affected due to changes in aromatic groups (C = O). The C - H bands occur at 3000–2800 cm⁻¹, and the C = O bands occur at 1740–1600 cm⁻¹ region in the spectra (Doerr et al., 2000; Ellerbrock et al., 2005). Areas of the absorption bands of the hydrophobic and hydrophilic groups in the FTIR spectra were integrated using Resolutions Pro version 5.0, spectrometer software (Agilent Technologies, Santa Clara, CA, USA), and they were defined as intensities. The amounts of respective groups were calculated from the area beneath the peaks.

226 2.8 Microbial biomass carbon (MBC)

Microbial biomass carbon (MBC) was estimated by the fumigation-extraction method (Vance et al., 1987). Fumigated and non-fumigated soils were extracted with 50 ml of 0.5 M K₂SO₄ by shaking at 200-revolution min⁻¹ for 30 min in an end-over-end shaker. Afterwards, samples were centrifuged at 4500 RPM for 15 min before filtration. The extracted organic C in the clear filtrates was measured by a TOC analyser (Shimadzu Corp. Kyoto, Japan).

232 **2.9** Statistical analysis

The cumulative CO₂ emission was calculated for each treatment (tillage, mulch and carbonates, n = 3). Soil CO₂ emission rates at different temperatures were analysed separately for each soil by using analysis of variance (ANOVA) technique with the help of statistical software CPCS-1 (Cheema and Singh, 1990). When the effects of soil temperature and amount of carbonates on soil C emission were significant (p<0.05), the means and interaction effects of treatment were separated using the F-protected least significant differences (LSD) test, at the probability level p<0.05 (Webster, 2007).

240 **3. Results and Discussion**

241 **3.1** Carbonate characterisation and morphological properties

The carbonate content of the experimental soil was ~17.7% in the 0-10 cm surface layer 242 (Table 1). Visually, the carbonate nodules were of different shapes and sizes, distributed 243 above and below the surface soil layer at the experimental site. The XRD profile of the 244 carbonate nodules indicated that they were dominated by calcite (CaCO₃) (60%), followed by 245 246 quartz (35%), and traces of dolomite and sylvine (Fig. 1). The distinguishing diffraction reflections for calcite appeared at 20 values 23.11°, 29.46°, 36.04°, 39.48°, 43.24°, 47.6°, 247 248 48.58° and 60.14°, respectively, that corresponded for d-values of 3.85, 3.03, 2.49, 2.28, 2.09, 1.91, 1.87 and 1.54 Å, respectively. The most intensive reflection for calcite was found at 2θ 249 = 29.46° (3.03 Å). The XRD results thus confirmed that the naturally occurring carbonate 250 materials present in the experimental soil was dominated by calcite mineral (Hirmas et al., 251 2012). 252

253 Carbonate materials can occur in soils in different shapes of the particles, such as hardpans, nodular or pisolitic layers, and mottled layers (Milnes and Hutton, 1983; Ahmad et al., 2015). 254 A micro-scale observation under ESEM indicated that the carbonate materials collected from 255 the experimental site of this study were mostly needle-shaped (Fig. 2). This kind of shape of 256 the calcite micro-particles could be attributed to the occurrence of higher biological activities 257 near the soil surface (Ahmad et al., 2015), and the biological activities of soils are highly 258 responsive to a change in tillage operations. It was also suggested that calcite micro-particles 259 in an alkaline soil, as examined in the current study, would largely influence the surface soil 260 261 structure, especially near the air-filled pores (Del Campillo et al., 1992; Ramnarine et al., 2012). Therefore, it was further interesting to examine the morphological 262 changes of the calcite materials due to a change in tillage operations at the experimental site. 263 264 ESEM micrographs indicated that the carbonate nodules found in CT plots were slightly

more porous with smaller and thinner sizes of the needle-like structures than those found in NT plots (**Fig. 2**). These micro-morphological differences in particles could drive variable rates of calcite dissolution, and thus might affect the CO₂ evolution from soils.

The differential dissolution hypothesis was tested by re-examining the carbonate nodules 268 through their EDX elemental analyses following a soil incubation experiment (as described in 269 Section 2.4). The ratio of the intensities of Ca-K_{α}:Si-K_{α} spectra was used as the dissolution 270 signature. Results indicated that NT treatment did not enable a significant dissolution of the 271 carbonate nodules at both the temperatures (22° and 37°C) studied (Fig. 3b & d). Similarly, 272 CT treatment also did not indicate any considerable carbonate dissolution at 22°C (Fig. 3a). 273 In all these three cases as shown in Fig 4a, b, &d, Ca-K_{α}:Si-K_{α} ratios were about 9:1. 274 Interestingly, such ratio was reversed with a value of 1:3 in the case of CT treatment 275 (Fig. 3c), indicating a significant dissolution of the carbonate nodules in soils. Therefore, 276 micro-morphological features of carbonate nodules found in the CT system (more porous, 277 smaller and thinner needle-like structures), as stated earlier, might have favoured the 278 carbonate dissolution at a semi-arid type temperature $(37^{\circ}C)$. 279

A second line of evidence behind the enhanced carbonate dissolution in soils under CT 280 treatment at 37°C, and subsequent accumulation of Ca²⁺ in the incubated soils, was provided 281 by the ICP-MS analysis of exchangeable cations in the incubated soil samples. These 282 incubated soil samples were dominated by Ca^{2+} followed by Mg^{2+} , Na^{2+} and K^+ in all the 283 treatments (Table 4). The incubated soil samples of CT treatment at 37°C temperature 284 showed a greater Ca:Mg ratio than that under NT treatments both for native and added 285 286 amount of carbonates (Table 4). Additionally, higher Ca:Mg ratios at 37°C than 22°C were observed under CT treatment, which was another indication of carbonate dissolution as a 287 result of the positive entropy change in the system. The elevated temperature might have 288

enhanced the surface reactions and mass transfer that was probably responsible not only for
carbonate dissolution, but also for the subsequent C and Ca releases from those soils (Ahmad
et al., 2015).

292 **3.2** Effect of temperature and carbonate addition on C mineralisation

The cumulative soil C mineralisation (over 90 days incubation) was significantly (p<0.05) 293 influenced by the change in tillage practices, and more pronounced results were observed at 294 an elevated temperature (Table 5). The overall C mineralisation was comparatively higher 295 under CT (20.1%) than NT (9.9%) system at 22°C and 37°C, respectively (Table 5). 296 Contrarily, the control treatments (sand incubated with or without carbonate materials 297 described as LS₁, LS₂, HS₁, HS₂ in **Table 3**) showed negligible emission of CO₂ at both the 298 temperatures (22° and 37°C), indicating little to no-sign of carbonate dissolution. The 299 difference in emissions from soils added with carbonate and mulch singly and as together, 300 i.e., combined, indicated that carbonates could trigger C mineralisation after interacting with 301 the crop residue when applied as mulch, otherwise carbonate itself might not undergo a 302 significant dissolution. In particular, this interactive effect was found more profound in the 303 soil samples of CT than NT system as shown in Fig. 5. The overall impact of temperature and 304 CaCO₃ (0% w/w) on the mineralisation of soil C was non-significant. The CO₂ emission 305 306 increased significantly (p < 0.05) when the additional carbonate material (10% (w/w)) was added to the soil samples (Fig. 4b, d). Therefore, the added carbonates (10% w/w) resulted in 307 a higher emission of CO₂ from the soil at 37°C than 22°C under both CT (47.8% emission) 308 and NT (24% emission) systems (Fig 5b, d). Particularly, the CO₂ emission from the soil 309 samples treated with mulching and carbonates, i.e., (5 t ha^{-1} mulch + 10% w/w carbonates) 310 were 51.3% and 38.4% in the CT and NT systems, respectively, due to the temperature rise 311 (Fig. 4b, d). 312

The impact on mineralisation was more notable under the combined effect of mulch (5 t ha⁻¹) 313 and carbonate (10% w/w) (Fig. 4). Results indicated that the added carbonate itself did not 314 contribute to CO_2 emission by dissolution (Fig. 5), but the extra CO_2 produced from soil in 315 the presence of carbonates compared to its absence suggested a positive priming effect of 316 carbonates on SOM mineralisation. Some studies reported that crop residue return into soil 317 systems, particularly when incorporated in soil surface, has the potential to enhance the 318 319 decomposition of native SOM ("positive priming") via supporting the microbial activity (Guenet et al., 2010; Qiu et al., 2016). Presumably, the extra CO₂ production could be 320 321 attributed to the increase in microbial activity and chemical hydrolysis of CaCO₃ caused by an increase in carbonate, which might also increase the soil pH. Aye et al. (2017) suggested 322 that higher pH conditions facilitate positive C priming. It was also postulated by 323 Fontaine et al. (2003) that due to the difference in pH levels, there would be a difference in 324 the competition for the nutrient uptake and energy consumption between SOC and fresh 325 organic matter-degrading microorganisms, resulting in a difference in the priming effect. At 326 higher temperature conditions, carbonate dissolution may occur directly through changes 327 either in biotic/abiotic processes or indirectly through the products of SOC decomposition 328 (Ahmad et al., 2015). 329

The results of this study are in strong agreement with the report by Ahmad et al. (2014) who 330 found a significant positive correlation between the soil derived C at different temperature 331 conditions (20° and 40°C). Ahmad et al. (2014) also found that at 40°C the soil derived C 332 was increased by 59% more than the cumulative C release at 20°C. The release of CO₂ due to 333 334 the dissolution of carbonate sources, may depend on the rate of proton (H⁺) addition in soils, which is expected to be faster under intensive agriculture operations such as excessive tillage, 335 irrigation and application of heavy doses of nitrogenous fertilisers (Ahmad et al., 2015; 336 337 Suarez et al., 2000; Tamir et al., 2011). Ahmad et al. (2015) also reported that soil inorganic carbon (SIC) stocks are dynamic, which change significantly with time and depend onclimate, land-use change and other management practices.

340 In addition, the soil samples belonging to the CT system without the mulching treatment showed a higher C mineralisation rate (5.7% and 26% greater emission at 22 and 37°C, 341 respectively) than the NT system, which might be due to the addition of carbonates (10% 342 w/w) (Fig. 4b, d). These results might be occurred due to the priming effect caused by the 343 addition of carbonates (10% w/w), which might have enhanced the decomposition of native 344 SOM after having been exposed as a result of the CT system. The combined effect of 345 mulching (5 t ha⁻¹) and carbonates (10% w/w) was observed through an increase in CO_2 346 emissions by 7.3% and 17.4% in the soil of the CT system at 22 and 37°C, respectively. 347 According to Rangel-Castro et al. (2005) the microbial communities are more active in the 348 limed soils resulting in the greater utilization of the plant exuded C compounds in the soil. 349 Statistical analysis indicates a significant (p<0.05) interactions occur only at 37°C between 350 351 tillage x carbonate; tillage x carbonate x mulching (Table 5). The interactive relationship between SOM and carbonate hints about the change in carbonate equilibrium and microbial 352 activity, which were caused due to the alteration in soil pH (Acosta-Martinez and Tabatabai, 353 2000; Bertrand et al., 2007). Saviozzi et al. (1999) also reported that much larger fraction of 354 mineralized C was found under the CT system than NT, which may occur due to the higher 355 potential of the microbes to oxidise the SOM. 356

The trends of the C mineralisation curves as shown in **Fig. 4a,b,c,d** are almost similar under all the treatments. Particularly, the trend indicated by the soil samples of the CT system treated with mulch (5 t ha⁻¹) and carbonates (10% w/w) at 37°C showed higher (i.e., 2621 mg CO₂-C Kg⁻¹) cumulative emission compared to all other set of treatments even with the samples placed at 22°C. Therefore, the assumption of carbonate dissolution cannot be ignored, though it is not measured directly in this study, and it demands further investigation.
The interaction between carbonates and SOM depends upon the presence of weak and strong
acids released by SOM. The dissolution of carbonates by weak acids (carbonic acid) results
in the sequestration of 1 mole of CO₂ Eq. (9), whereas dissolution by strong acids (HNO₃)
results in the emission of 1 mole of CO₂ for each mole of carbonate Eq. (10) (Page et al.,
2009).

$$CaCO_3 + H_2O + CO_2 \rightarrow Ca^{2+} + 2HCO_3^{-}$$
(Eq. 9)

369
$$CaCO_3 + 2HNO_3 \rightarrow Ca^{2+} + 2NO_3^- + H_2O + CO_2$$
(Eq. 10)

370 Previous studies reported similar results and confirmed that soil organic acids are responsible for the dissolution of carbonates (Hamilton et al., 2007; Oh and Raymond, 2006). Some 371 reports also emphasised that CO₂ evolved from soil during such incubation experiments could 372 373 be caused by the change in biological activities as well as from the acidification effect, i.e., through strong acids (Jia et al., 2006; Wang et al., 2010). Tamir et al. (2011) reported that 374 dissolution of carbonates could contribute up to 30% in the total CO₂ emission. According to 375 376 the US EPA, carbonate dissolution is the net source of CO₂ emission when applied as lime on agricultural fields (EPA, 2016). US EPA estimated that about 62% of the CaCO₃ is dissolved 377 by carbonic acid (H₂CO₃), and 38% of CaCO₃ is dissolved by nitric acid (HNO₃). 378

379

3.3 Carbon mineralisation dynamics

The C mineralisation kinetics was studied by non-linear regression analyses of the evolved CO₂-C from the different treatment samples using (Eq. 6 and 7). The two-component firstorder decay equation gave a better fit for all the C decomposition data compared to the single component first-order decay model (**Table 6**). The correlation coefficient (R^2) values of model fitting were higher (i.e., R^2 >0.98) in all the cases of the two-component model than the single component first-order model ($R^2 = 0.97$ to 0.98) (**Table 6**). The sizes of both the decomposition pools, i.e., C₂ (easily mineralisable, i.e., labile) and C₃ (recalcitrant) as estimated by Eq. (7), were very different from each other, where easily mineralisable C (C₂) was significantly greater than the slowly decomposing C fraction (C₃) (**Table 6**). Specifically, the decomposing fractions of C₂ from the soil samples of the CT system were higher at 37°C than 22°C. Resulting with an increase of 43.5% in C₂ from the control samples (i.e., C₁ and C₅) at 37°C followed by 29.2% from C₄ and C₈ (combined treatment, i.e., 5 t ha⁻¹ + 10% (w/w) CaCO₃), 27.9% from C₃ and C₇ (mulch only treatment, i.e., 5 t ha⁻¹) and 16.5% from C₂ and C₆ (added 10% (w/w) carbonate only treatment) than at 22°C (**Table 6 and Fig. 6**).

Notably, the half-life values of the easily mineralisable decomposing fractions as estimated 394 395 from the two-component kinetic model ranged from 6 to 12 days and 5 to 7 days in both the tillage systems at 22°C and 37°C, respectively (Table 5). These results indicated that under 396 the CT system at a higher temperature, microbial attack on C substrates (mulch and 397 carbonates) was more prominent than the NT system. The rate constant (k₂) was 398 proportionally opposite of the predicted half-life value under respective treatments, i.e., 399 tillage, mulch and temperature (**Table 6**). Soil samples incubated with carbonate (10% w/w) 400 significantly increased the fractions of readily mineralisable organic matter, i.e., C₂, resulting 401 likely from the chemical hydrolysis of carbonate, which increased the microbial activity and 402 C mineralisation (Fuentes et al., 2006; Neale et al., 1997). The half-life values at 22°C under 403 NT system were comparatively higher than CT, indicating that the soils of NT system would 404 sequester more SOC than CT soil despite of different soil environmental conditions. 405

406 3.4 Effect of incubation temperature and carbonate addition on microbial biomass 407 carbon (MBC)

408 Microbial biomass C (MBC) was measured after the termination of the incubation, and it was 409 found that MBC decreased significantly (p<0.05) when the temperature of incubation 410 increased from 22°C to 37°C (**Table 7**). The decrease in MBC in CT (42.3%) system was 411 more than under NT (36.2%) system at 22°C compared to at 37°C. In particular, at 37°C

MBC in the samples incubated with carbonates (0% and 10%) was lower by 26.4% and 412 46.6%, respectively, than the MBC of samples at 22°C. It was reported by some of the 413 414 studies that the application of carbonate materials to soil changes the soil microbial biomass, dynamics and diversity (Acosta and Tabatabai, 2000; Sherrod et al., 2005). Statistically, the 415 mulching (5 t ha⁻¹) treatment had significant (p < 0.05) impact on the soil MBC at both the 416 temperatures compared to the un-mulched treatment (Table 7 and Fig. 7). The overall MBC 417 418 after termination of the incubation experiment was lower by 47.6 and 30.5% under unmulched and mulched conditions, respectively, at 37°C than 22°C temperature (Table 7). 419 420 These results apparently suggested that higher temperature conditions would have suppressed the microbial growth. However, the lower MBC at the terminal stage of incubation might 421 occur due to the more rapid substrate depletion, and low substrate availability than at the 422 early stage at higher temperature conditions, which perhaps was not sufficient to support the 423 microbial growth at the terminal stage (Li et al., 2015). Schimel and Mikan (2005) reported 424 that higher temperature conditions were responsible for the shifts in microbial community. 425 Zogg et al. (1997) reported that dominating microbial populations had a greater ability to 426 metabolise the substrates at a higher temperature, but they did not use these substrates at a 427 lower temperature. Previous reports suggested that microbial biomass is the principal source 428 of soil enzymes, which are comparatively higher in the soil from cooler and wetter regions 429 than warmer and dry regions (Allison, 1973; Spain et al., 1983). Therefore, further research is 430 431 needed to unravel the effect of carbonate addition and mulching on the alternation of soil microbial communities and their substrate use preferences under various temperature and 432 tillage regimes. 433

A significant (p<0.05) interaction (tillage x mulching x carbonate) effect was observed for the MBC only at lower temperature (22°C). No significant interaction effect was observed in the soil samples applied with 10% (w/w) carbonates incubated at 37°C (Table 7). These results might be attributed to the increased soil pH resulting from the chemical hydrolysis of
CaCO₃. At a higher soil pH, the proton consumption capacity increases the soil metabolism
that creates a favourable condition for prokaryotes to grow, but limits the fungal growth
(Bertrand et al., 2007; Haynes and Mokolobate, 2001). Some researchers also reported an
increase in MBC due to an increase in the soil carbonate content (Bezdicek et al., 2003;
Fornara et al., 2011), while contrasting results were reported by Biasi et al. (2008) indicating
no effect of carbonate addition on soil MBC.

444 3.5 Hydrophobic and hydrophilic components

The FTIR analysis results of the incubated soil samples indicated that functional groups in 445 NT soils were significantly (p < 0.05) dominated by hydrophobic components as compared to 446 CT soils (Fig. 8). The hydrophobic components of SOM were lower by 19.3% in the 447 incubated soils of the CT system than NT system (Fig. 8a). The difference in hydrophilic 448 components of SOM from these two tillage systems were statistically non-significant 449 (P>0.05) (Fig. 8). Capriel (1997) previously reported that poor agricultural management 450 451 practices, such as extensive tillage practices, might decrease the organic C content accompanied 452 by a decline in hydrophobicity, and cause a decrease in microbial biomass and soil aggregate stability. 453

454 In this study, the effect of carbonate addition (10% w/w) to soils on the selected hydrophobic and hydrophilic component bands could not be resolved as such from the respective FTIR 455 spectra. The IR signals of the added carbonate were extremely strong as opposed to the 456 organic component bands, which made the separation of hydrophobic and hydrophilic 457 components challenging in the carbonate-added soils. However, the mulching treatment had a 458 significant (p<0.05) effect on the hydrophobic and hydrophilic components of the soil. 459 Results showed that mulched soils had higher intensities of hydrophobic (15%) than 460 hydrophilic (12.8%) components, and both these contents were higher than un-mulched 461

462 conditions (Fig. 8a,b). A significant (p<0.05) interactive effect of tillage and mulching
463 treatments on the hydrophobic and hydrophilic components of soils was also observed. These
464 results are consistent with previous findings that the applied organic inputs (e.g., cellulose,
465 hemicellulose, proteins, lignin and lipids) in the form of crop residues would predominantly
466 contain hydrophobic components which undergo a lesser microbial decomposition than
467 hydrophilic components (e.g., cellulose, hemicellulose, proteins).

468 Statistical analysis also indicated a significant (p < 0.05) interactive effect (tillage x mulch x temperature) among treatments for the hydrophobic components of the soil samples. These 469 470 results further highlight that, irrespective of the higher hydrophobic components in the crop residue, at lower temperature the hydrophobic component became more sensitive to tillage 471 and mulching practices than higher temperature. Spaccini et al. (2002) concluded that when 472 hydrophobic group-rich substances (aliphatic (C-H) groups) were applied during soil 473 management practices, it improved the biological stability of SOM (Rumpel and Kögel, 474 2011), and thus mitigated CO₂ emissions from agricultural soils. Results confirmed that the 475 soil of the present study is rich in soil hydrophobic components (aliphatic (C–H) groups) and 476 played an important role in the accumulation of organic material in the soil particles, 477 confirmed the findings of others (Harper et al., 2000; Kubát and Lipavský 2006; McKissock 478 et al., 2003; Piccolo and Mbagwu 1999; Šimon et al., 2009). 479

480 **3.6** Conclusions

The tillage shift from the NT to CT showed the potential to alter the soil organic C dynamics and morphology of naturally occurring carbonate nodules in soils. Unlike NT, the CT system showed a positive priming effect for the mineralisation of SOM. The overall rate of C mineralisation was higher under the CT than NT system at both 22°C (by 20.1%) and 37°C (by 9.9%) temperatures. Similar trends of C mineralisation in response to temperatures were 486 observed under both the mulched and un-mulched conditions, and with or without carbonate487 addition to the soil.

488 The decomposing pool of SOM under NT system had a higher half-life value than the CT system; these values were higher at 22°C than 37°C. Therefore, the high temperature 489 condition exacerbated the microbial activity with more prominent effect under the CT than 490 NT system. This concurrently decreased the MBC contents under the CT system by 43.9 and 491 46.9% than the NT system when soils were treated with mulch (5 t ha⁻¹) and carbonates (10% 492 w/w), respectively. When considering the functional group based characterisation of SOM, 493 494 only hydrophobic components were significant, and they were found 19% lower in the soils of the CT than NT system. 495

Future investigation is needed using isotopically labelled lime (CaCO₃) in order to distinguish CO₂ emissions either from the organic or inorganic pools of soil C. Furthermore, in-situ experiments at multiple locations are needed to phase out the temporal and spatial variabilities in such research.

- 500
- 501

502 Abbreviations	502	Abbre	viations
-------------------	-----	-------	----------

- 503 C Carbon
- 504 C_{cum} Cumulative CO₂ emission
- 505 C_{min} Cumulative amount of CO₂-C mineralised after time t
- 506 CT Conventional tillage
- 507 ESEM Environmental Scanning Electron Microscope
- 508 ETD Everhart–Thornley Detector
- 509 EDXA Energy dispersive X-ray analysis
- 510 FTIR Fourier transform Infrared

- 511 ICP-OES Inductively coupled plasma optical emission spectroscopy
- 512 MBC Microbial biomass carbon
- 513 NT Not-tillage
- 514 OM Organic matter
- 515 SOM Soil Organic matter
- 516 SOC Soil organic carbon
- 517 SIC Soil inorganic Carbon
- 518 XRD X-ray diffraction
- 519

520 Acknowledgements

The first author is thankful to the University of South Australia, Future Industry Institute for providing a scholarship to carry out the PhD (2013-2017) research work. The authors also thank the Commonwealth Government of Australia for providing funding under the Research Training Program (RTP) of the Department of Education and Training in support of PhD research.

527 **References**

- Acosta-Martinez, V., Tabatabai, M., 2000. Enzyme activities in a limed agricultural soil.
 Biology and Fertility of Soils 31, 85-91.
- Ahmad, W., Singh, B., Dalal, R.C., Dijkstra, F.A., 2015. Carbon dynamics from carbonate
 dissolution in Australian agricultural soils. Soil Research 53, 144-153.
- Ahmad, W., Singh, B., Dijkstra, F.A., Dalal, R.C., Geelan-Small, P., 2014. Temperature sensitivity and carbon release in an acidic soil amended with lime and mulch. Geoderma 214–215, 168-176.
- Allison, F.E., 1973. Soil organic matter and its role in crop production. Developments in Soil
 Science 3. Elsevier Publishing Company, Amsterdam.
- Argent, S., Wixon, A., Dang, Y., 2013. Farmers thoughts about CTF in Australia's northern
 grain growing region, Proceedings of the First International Controlled Traffic Farming
 Conference, Toowoomba, 25-27.
- Aye, N. S., Butterly, C. R., Sale, P. W. G. and Tang, C., 2017. Residue addition and liming
 3950 history interactively enhance mineralization of native organic carbon in acid soils', 3951
 Biology and fertility of soils, 53 (1) 61-75.
- Barbera, V., Poma, I., Gristina, L., Novara, A., Egli, M., 2012. Long-term cropping systems
 and tillage management effects on soil organic carbon stock and steady state level of C
 sequestration rates in a semiarid environment. Land Degradation and Development 23, 82–
 91.
- Bertrand, I., Delfosse, O., Mary, B., 2007. Carbon and nitrogen mineralization in acidic,
 limed and calcareous agricultural soils: apparent and actual effects. Soil Biology and
 Biochemistry 39, 276-288.
- Bezdicek, D., Beaver, T., Granatstein, D., 2003. Subsoil ridge tillage and lime effects on soil
 microbial activity, soil pH, erosion, and wheat and pea yield in the Pacific Northwest, USA.
 Soil and Tillage Research 74, 55-63.
- 553 Biasi, C., Lind, S.E., Pekkarinen, N.M., Huttunen, J.T., Shurpali, N.J., Hyvönen, N.P., Repo,
- 554 M.E., Martikainen, P.J., 2008. Direct experimental evidence for the contribution of lime to
- 555 CO₂ release from managed peat soil. Soil Biology and Biochemistry 40, 2660-2669.
- Bloem, J., Hopkins, D.W., Benedetti, A., 2005. Microbiological methods for assessing soilquality. CABI Publishing, Wallingford.
- Bolan, N.S., Adriano, D.C., Curtin, D., 2003. Soil acidification and liming interactions with nutrientand heavy metal transformationand bioavailability. Advances in Agronomy 78, 215-272.
- Buysse, P., Goffin, S., Carnol, M., Malchair, S., Debacq, A., Longdoz, B., Aubinet, M., 2013.
 Short-term temperature impact on soil heterotrophic respiration in limed agricultural soil samples. Biogeochemistry 112, 441-455.
- Capriel, P., 1997. Hydrophobicity of organic matter in arable soils: influence of management.
 European journal of soil science 48, 457-462.
- Capriel, P., Beck, T., Borchert, H., Gronholz, J., Zachmann, G., 1995. Hydrophobicity of the
 organic matter in arable soils. Soil Biology and Biochemistry 27, 1453-1458.

- 567 Carmo, D.L. do, Silva, C.A., Lima, J.M. de, Pinheiro, G.L., Carmo, D.L. do, Silva, C.A.,
- Lima, J.M. de, Pinheiro, G.L., 2016. Electrical Conductivity and Chemical Composition of Soil Solution: Comparison of Solution Samplers in Tropical Soils. Rev. Bras. Ciência do
- 570 Solo 40. https://doi.org/10.1590/18069657rbcs20140795
 - 571 Cheema, H., Singh, B., 1990. CPCS1: A computer programs package for the analysis of 572 commonly used experimental designs. Punjab Agricultural University, Ludhiana.
 - 573 Chowdhury, S., Farrell, M., Bolan, N., 2014. Priming of soil organic carbon by malic acid addition
 574 is differentially affected by nutrient availability. Soil Biology and Biochemistry 77, 158-169.
 - 575 Cosentino, D., Chenu, C., Le Bissonnais, Y., 2006. Aggregate stability and microbial 576 community dynamics under drying–wetting cycles in a silt loam soil. Soil Biology and 577 Biochemistry 38, 2053-2062.
 - 578 Del Campillo, M., Torrent, J., Loeppert, R., 1992. The reactivity of carbonates in selected 579 soils of southern Spain. Geoderma 52, 149-160.
 - 580 Dinel, H., Schnitzer, M., Mehuys, G., 1990. Soil lipids: origin, nature, content, 581 decomposition, and effect on soil physical properties. Soil biochemistry 6, 397-429.
 - Doerr, S., Shakesby, R., Walsh, R., 2000. Soil water repellency: its causes, characteristics and
 hydro-geomorphological significance. Earth-Science Reviews 51, 33-65.
 - Ellerbrock, R., Gerke, H., Bachmann, J., Goebel, M.-O., 2005. Composition of organic matter
 fractions for explaining wettability of three forest soils. Soil Science Society of America
 Journal 69, 57-66.
 - EPA (2016). Inventory of U.S. Greenhouse Gas Emissions and Sinks: 1990–2015, EPA 430P-17-001. U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, Washington, DC.
 - Fontaine, S., Mariotti, A., Abbadie, L., 2003. The priming effect of organic matter: a question
 of microbial competition? Soil Biology Biochemistry 35:837–843
 - 591 Fornara, D., Steinbeiss, S., McNamara, N., Gleixner, G., Oakley, S., Poulton, P., Macdonald,
 - A., Bardgett, R.D., 2011. Increases in soil organic carbon sequestration can reduce the global
 warming potential of long-term liming to permanent grassland. Global Change Biology 17,
 1925-1934.
 - Fuentes, J.P., Bezdicek, D.F., Flury, M., Albrecht, S., Smith, J.L., 2006. Microbial activity
 affected by lime in a long-term no-till soil. Soil and Tillage Research 88, 123-131.
- 597 Guenet, B., C. Neill, G. Bardoux, and L. Abbadie. 2010. Is there a linear relationship between 598 priming effect intensity and the amount of organic matter input? Applied Soil Ecology 46 (3):
- 599 436-442.
- Hamilton, S.K., Kurzman, A.L., Arango, C., Jin, L., Robertson, G.P., 2007. Evidence forcarbon sequestration by agricultural liming. Global Biogeochemical Cycles 21.
- Hanson, P.J., Edwards, N.T., Garten, C.T., Andrews, J.A., 2000. Separating root and soil
 microbial contributions to soil respiration: A review of methods and observations.
 Biogeochemistry 48, 115-146.
- Harper, R., McKissock, I., Gilkes, R., Carter, D., Blackwell, P., 2000. A multivariate
 framework for interpreting the effects of soil properties, soil management and landuse on
 water repellency. Journal of Hydrology 231, 371-383.

- Haynes, R., Mokolobate, M., 2001. Amelioration of Al toxicity and P deficiency in acid soils
 by additions of organic residues: a critical review of the phenomenon and the mechanisms
 involved. Nutrient cycling in agroecosystems 59, 47-63.
- Hirmas, D.R., Platt, B.F., Hasiotis, S.T., 2012. Determination of calcite and dolomite content
- 612 in soils and paleosols by continuous coulometric titration. Soil Science Society of America 613 Journal 76, 1100-1106
- 613 Journal 76, 1100-1106.
- Horváth, B., Opara-Nadi, O., Beese, F., 2005. A simple method for measuring the carbonate
 content of soils. Soil Science Society of America Journal 69, 1066-1068.
- Isbell, R., 2016. The Australian soil classification. CSIRO publishing.
- Jia, B., Zhou, G., Wang, Y., Wang, F., Wang, X., 2006. Effects of temperature and soil
 water-content on soil respiration of grazed and ungrazed Leymus chinensis steppes, Inner
 Mongolia. Journal of Arid Environments 67, 60-76.
- Jones, B.J., 2001. Laboratory Guide for Conducting Soil Tests and Plant Analysis. CRC Press
 LLC, 2000 N.W, Boca Raton, Florida 33431.
- Kubát, J., Lipavsky, J., 2006. Steady state of the soil organic matter in the long-term field
 experiments. Plant, Soil and Environment-UZPI (Czech Republic).
- Kuzyakov, Y., 2006. Sources of CO₂ efflux from soil and review of partitioning methods.
 Soil Biology and Biochemistry 38, 425-448.
- Lal, R., 2004. Soil carbon sequestration impacts on global climate change and food security.science 304, 1623-1627.
- Lal, R., 2009. Soil degradation as a reason for inadequate human nutrition. Food Security 1, 45-57.
- Li, H., Yang, Q., Li, J., Gao, H., Li, P., Zhou, H., 2015. The impact of temperature on
 microbial diversity and AOA activity in the Tengchong Geothermal Field, China. Sci. Rep. 5,
 17056.
- Lorenz, K., Lal, R., 2018. Soil Carbon Stock. In: Lorenz, K., Lal, R. (Eds.), Carbon
 Sequestration in Agricultural Ecosystems. Springer International Publishing, Cham, pp. 39–
 136.
- Mahmoud, S. A. Z., El-Sawy, M., Ishac, Y. Z., El-Safty, M. M., 1978. The Effects of Salinity
- and Alkalinity on the Distribution and Capacity of N_2 -Fixation by Azotobacter in Egyptian Soils. Ecological Bulletins, 99-109.
- McKissock, I., Gilkes, R., Van Bronswijk, W., 2003. The relationship of soil water
 repellency to aliphatic C and kaolin measured using DRIFT. Soil Research 41, 251-265.
- Milnes, A., Hutton, J., 1983. Calcretes in Australia, Soils: an Australian viewpoint. CSIRO,
 Division of Soils, CSIRO: Melbourne.
- Molina, J., Clapp, C., Larson, W., 1980. Potentially mineralizable nitrogen in soil: the simple
 exponential model does not apply for the first 12 weeks of incubation. Soil Science Society of
 America Journal 44, 442-443.
- 645 Murwira, H., Kirchmann, H., Swift, M., 1990. The effect of moisture on the decomposition 646 rate of cattle manure. Plant and Soil 122, 197-199.
- Neale, S., Shah, Z., Adams, W., 1997. Changes in microbial biomass and nitrogen turnover in
 acidic organic soils following liming. Soil Biology and Biochemistry 29, 1463-1474.

- 649 Oh, N.H., Raymond, P.A., 2006. Contribution of agricultural liming to riverine bicarbonate 650 export and CO₂ sequestration in the Ohio River basin. Global Biogeochemical Cycles 20.
- Page, K.L., Allen, D.E., Dalal, R.C., Slattery, W., 2009. Processes and magnitude of
 CO₂, CH₄, and N₂O fluxes from liming of Australian acidic soils: a review. Soil
 Research 47, 747-762.
- Piccolo, A., Mbagwu, J.S., 1999. Role of hydrophobic components of soil organic matter in
 soil aggregate stability. Soil Science Society of America Journal 63, 1801-1810.
- Le Quéré, C., Raupach, M.R., Canadell, J.G., Marland, G., Bopp, L., Ciais, P., Conway, T.J., Doney, S.C., Feely, R.A., Foster, P. 2009. Trends in the sources and sinks of carbon dioxide.
- Doney, S.C., Feely, R.A., Foster, P. 2009. Trends in the sources and sinks of carbonNat. Geosci. 2, 831.
- Qiu, Q., L. Wu, Z. Ouyang, et al. 2016. Priming effect of maize residue and urea N on soilorganic matter changes with time. Applied Soil Ecology 100:65-74.
- Ramnarine, R., Wagner-Riddle, C., Dunfield, K., Voroney, R., 2012. Contributions of
 carbonates to soil CO₂ emissions. Canadian Journal of Soil Science 92, 599-607.
- 663 Rangel-Castro, J.I., Killham, K., Ostle, N., Nicol, G.W., Anderson, I.C., Scrimgeour, C.M.,
- Ineson, P., Meharg, A., Prosser, J.I., 2005. Stable isotope probing analysis of the influence of
- liming on root exudate utilization by soil microorganisms. Environmental Microbiology 7,828-838.
- Rumpel, C., Kögel-Knabner, I., 2011. Deep soil organic matter—a key but poorly understood
 component of terrestrial C cycle. Plant Soil 338, 143–158.
- 669 Sanderman, J., 2012. Can management induced changes in the carbonate system drive soil
- 670 carbon sequestration? A review with particular focus on Australia. Agriculture, Ecosystems671 & Environment 155, 70-77.
- Saviozzi, A., Biasci, A., Riffaldi, R., Levi-Minzi, R., 1999. Long-term effects of farmyard
 manure and sewage sludge on some soil biochemical characteristics. Biology and fertility of
- 674 soils 30, 100-106.
- Schimel, J.P., Mikan, C., 2005. Changing microbial substrate use in Arctic tundra soils
 through a freeze-thaw cycle. Soil Biology and Biochemistry 37, 1411-1418.
- Sherrod, L., Peterson, G., Westfall, D., Ahuja, L., 2005. Soil organic carbon pools after 12
 years in no-till dryland agroecosystems. Soil Science Society of America Journal 69, 1600-1608.
- Šimon, T., Javůrek, M., Mikanova, O., Vach, M., 2009. The influence of tillage systems on
 soil organic matter and soil hydrophobicity. Soil and Tillage Research 105, 44-48.
- Spaccini, R., Piccolo, A., Conte, P., Haberhauer, G., Gerzabek, M., 2002. Increased soil
 organic carbon sequestration through hydrophobic protection by humic substances. Soil
 Biology and Biochemistry 34, 1839-1851.
- Spain, A.V., Isbell, R.F. and Probert, M.E. (1983) Organic matter contents of Australian
 soils, in Soils: An Australian Viewpoint (CSIRO, Melbourne/Academic Press, London), 551563. https://www.researchgate.net/publication/284490479_Soil_organic_matter. Available
 from: https://www.researchgate.net/publication/284490479_Soil_organic_matter. Available
 Sep 08 2017].
- 689 Suarez, D.L., 2000. Impact of agriculture on CO₂ as affected by changes in inorganic carbon,
- 690 In: Lal, R., Kimble, J.M., Eswaran, H., Stewart, B.A. (Eds.), Global climate change and
- 691 pedogenic carbonates. (CRC/Lewis Publishers: Boca Raton, FL, USA), 257–272.

- Tamir, G., Shenker, M., Heller, H., Bloom, P.R., Fine, P., Bar-Tal, A., 2011. Can Soil
 Carbonate Dissolution Lead to Overestimation of Soil Respiration? Soil Science Society of
- 694 America Journal 75, 1414-1422.
- Vance, E.D., Brookes, P.C., Jenkinson, D.S., 1987. An extraction method for measuring soilmicrobial biomass C. Soil Biology and Biochemistry 19, 703-707.
- Walker, S., 2012. Capturing opportunities and overcoming obstacles for Australian agronomyrelated to weed management, Proceedings 16th Australian Agronomy Conference, 14-18.
- Wang, X., Li, X., Hu, Y., Lv, J., Sun, J., Li, Z., Wu, Z., 2010. Effect of temperature and
 moisture on soil organic carbon mineralization of predominantly permafrost peatland in the
 Great Hing'an Mountains, Northeastern China. Journal of Environmental Sciences 22, 1057-1066.
- Webster, R., 2007. Analysis of variance, inference, multiple comparisons and sampling
 effects in soil research. European journal of soil science 58, 74-82.
- Wershaw, R.L., 2004. Evaluation of conceptual models of natural organic matter (humus)from a consideration of the chemical and biochemical processes of humification.
- 706 Zhang, N., Xing-Dong, H.E., Yu-Bao, G.A.O., Yong-Hong, L.I., Hai-Tao, W., Di, M.A.,
- 707 Zhang, R., Yang, S., 2010. Pedogenic carbonate and soil dehydrogenase activity in response
- to soil organic matter in Artemisia ordosica community. Pedosphere 20, 229–235.
- Zogg, G.P., Zak, D.R., Ringelberg, D.B., White, D.C., MacDonald, N.W., Pregitzer, K.S.,
 1997. Compositional and functional shifts in microbial communities due to soil warming.
- 711 Soil Science Society of America Journal 61, 475-481.
- 712

714 Figures



715

716 717

Fig. 1 X-ray diffraction pattern of naturally available carbonate material identified as predominantly calcite (CaCO₃) mineral.

718



719

720Fig. 2ESEM images of incubated carbonate (CaCO3) nodules from mulch-amended

721 soils at 500 nm resolution) under CT and NT systems.



EDX spectra of carbonate (CaCO₃) nodules incubated at 22°C (top row) and Fig. 3 37°C (bottom row) with mulch amended soils under CT and NT systems.



734Fig. 4Cumulative CO2-C emissions from soils amended with carbonates (10% w/w)735and mulch (5 t ha⁻¹) compared to controlled conditions at different736temperatures (22 and 37°C) under different tillage systems. Error bars737represent standard errors of means, n = 3 (after subtracting the cumulatively738released CO2-C in respective treatment from the control). Treatment symbols739are described in Table 2.







Fig. 6 The carbonate effect on the cumulative decomposition of SOM present in the soils of different tillage system as best described by two-component first-order
exponential (Eq. 7). (Treatment symbols are described in Table 2 which are under NT (no-tillage) and CT (conventional tillage) system. Vertical bars are standard errors; n = 3)

-





Fig. 7 Changes in soil microbial biomass carbon (MBC) after 90 days of incubation.
Tillage systems (CT= Conventional tillage; NT= No-tillage) treated with
different levels of mulch (S0= 0 t ha⁻¹; S5= 5 t ha⁻¹) and carbonates (0% and
10% w/w) (Vertical bars on columns indicate standard errors).





Fig. 8 Average FTIR spectral intensities for (a) hydrophobic and (b) hydrophilic organic components in soil samples. Intensities are derived from 3000 to 2800 cm⁻¹ and 1740 to 1600 cm⁻¹ area of the IR absorption bands for hydrophobic and hydrophilic groups, respectively (Columns indicated by same letters do not differ significantly (P<0.05). Vertical bars on columns indicate standard errors).

782 Tables

783Table 1. Baseline data (year 2013, before tillage shift) for the soil physical and

		Total number of	
Properties	Unit	samples (n)	$\mathbf{Mean} \pm \mathbf{SD}^*$
Soil Texture		6	Sandy clay Loam
Sand	%		64.4
Silt	%		8.1
Clay	%		27.5
pH		54	7.74 ± 0.62
Electrical conductivity (EC)	dS m ⁻¹	54	0.255 ± 0.91
Bulk density (DB)	gcm ⁻³	54	1.45 ± 0.32
CaCO ₃	%	6	17.68 ± 0.05
Total N	%	54	0.23 ± 0.28
Total organic carbon (TOC)	%	54	1.68 ± 0.12
Cation exchange capacity (CEC)	cmol kg ⁻¹	6	28 ± 0.02

784 chemical properties (0–30 cm) of the experimental site

785

786 ^{*}SD: standard deviation

	1 1	1	1	1		1	e e e e e e e e e e e e e e e e e e e
Tillage	Depth	Treatment	TC (%)	TOC (%)	BD (gm cm ⁻³)	pН	Carbon Stock(t ha ⁻¹)
	0 10	No mulch	1.34 ± 0.14	1.43 ± 0.07	1.18 ± 0.56	6.65 ± 0.03	1.69 ± 0.10
	0-10	Mulch [§]	1.38 ± 0.27	1.35 ± 0.18	1.11 ± 0.33	7.46 ± 0.07	1.51 ± 0.28
СТ	10.20	No mulch	1.39 ± 0.16	1.33 ± 0.24	1.42 ± 0.52	7.49 ± 0.07	1.90 ± 0.43
CI	10-20	Mulch	1.38 ± 0.18	1.21 ± 0.17	1.33 ± 0.19	6.96 ± 0.10	1.60 ± 0.11
	20-30	No mulch	1.12 ± 0.07	0.81 ± 0.09	1.55 ± 0.50	7.11 ± 0.06	1.26 ± 0.19
		Mulch	1.12 ± 0.03	1.00 ± 0.02	1.54 ± 0.61	7.97 ± 0.08	1.54 ± 0.07
	0 10	No mulch	1.06 ± 0.09	0.83 ± 0.12	1.58 ± 0.95	7.55 ± 0.03	1.31 ± 0.21
	0-10	Mulch	1.04 ± 0.06	0.94 ± 0.11	1.57 ± 0.11	7.78 ± 0.03	1.48 ± 0.15
NT	10.20	No mulch	0.74 ± 0.14	0.85 ± 0.20	1.55 ± 0.07	8.05 ± 0.05	1.32 ± 0.35
IN I	10-20	Mulch	0.94 ± 0.04	0.72 ± 0.17	1.52 ± 0.38	8.59 ± 0.06	1.09 ± 0.28
	20 20	No mulch	0.85 ± 0.12	0.78 ± 0.10	1.36 ± 0.03	7.88 ± 0.06	1.06 ± 0.16
	20-30	Mulch	0.96 ± 0.04	0.93 ± 0.04	1.32 ± 0.51	8.43 ± 0.02	1.23 ± 0.06

787 Table 2 Soil physical and chemical properties of the experimental soil (0–30 cm) during the 2014-2015 experimental year

*Values given after ' \pm ' are standard deviation values, (n=3); [§]Mulch was applied at 5 t ha⁻¹ rate in all cases.

Temperature	Symbol	Treatment Combinations
	LS ₁	Sand (50 g)
	LS_2	Sand + CaCO ₃ (10%)
	N_1	$NT + M (0 t ha^{-1}) + CaCO_3 (0\% (w/w))$
	N_2	NT + M (0 t ha ⁻¹)+ CaCO ₃ (10% (w/w))
	N_3	$NT + M (5 t ha^{-1}) + CaCO_3 (0\% (w/w))$
າາ∘ຕ	N ₄	NT + M (5 t ha ⁻¹)+ CaCO ₃ (10% (w/w))
22 C	C ₁	$CT + M (0 t ha^{-1}) + CaCO_3 (0\% (w/w))$
	C_2	$CT + M (0 t ha^{-1}) + CaCO_3 (10\% (w/w))$
	C ₃	$CT + M (5 t ha^{-1}) + CaCO_3 (0\% (w/w))$
	C ₄	$CT + M (5 t ha^{-1}) + CaCO_3 (10\% (w/w))$
	HS ₁	Sand (50 g)
	HS_2	Sand + CaCO ₃ (10%)
	N_5	$NT + M (0 t ha^{-1}) + CaCO_3 (0\% (w/w))$
	N_6	$NT + M (0 t ha^{-1}) + CaCO_3 (10\% (w/w))$
	N_7	NT + M (5 t ha ⁻¹) + CaCO ₃ (0% (w/w))
37°C	N_8	$NT + M (5 t ha^{-1}) + CaCO_3 (10\% (w/w))$
57 C	C 5	$CT + M (0 t ha^{-1}) + CaCO_3 (0\% (w/w))$
	C ₆	$CT + M (0 t ha^{-1}) + CaCO_3 (10\% (w/w))$
	C ₇	$CT + M (5 t ha^{-1}) + CaCO_3 (0\% (w/w))$
	C 8	$CT + M (5 t ha^{-1}) + CaCO_3 (10\% (w/w))$

Table 3 Treatment symbols of samples incubated at different temperatures

790 LS1– Sand incubated at low temperature (22°C); LS2– Sand incubated with CaCO₃ with 10% (w/w)

at 22 °C; HS1– Sand incubated at high temperature (37°C); HS2– Sand incubated with CaCO₃ with 10% (w/w) at 37°C; NT– No-tillage soil; CT– conventional tillage soil; M – Mulching @ 0 t ha⁻¹ (control) and 5 t ha⁻¹; CaCO₃ @ 0% and 10% (w/w)

	T 'II	CaCO ₃ Exchangeable Cation Percentage [*]					Exchangeable Ratio	
1 emperature	Tillage	(% w/w)	Na	Mg	K	Ca	Ca:Mg	
	СТ	0	0.003	0.026	0.009	0.193	7.5 (0.054/0.007) [¶]	
22°C	CI	10	0.002	0.024	0.012	0.125	5.1 (0.035/0.007)	
22 C	NT	0	0.003	0.028	0.009	0.197	7.1 (0.055/0.008)	
	191	10	0.003	0.027	0.008	0.182	6.6 (0.051/0.008)	
	СТ	0	0.003	0.026	0.010	0.212	8.1 (0.060/0.007)	
2700		CI	CI	10	0.002	0.025	0.013	0.147
57 C	NT	0	0.003	0.028	0.010	0.266	5.3 (0.041/0.008)	
		10	0.003	0.027	0.010	0.224	8.2 (0.063/0.008)	

797 *Exchangeable Cation Percentage is the ratio of exchangeable cation $(\text{cmol} (p^+) \text{ kg}^{-1})$ divided by CEC

798

of the soil (28 cmol (p^+) kg⁻¹; Table 1).

799 [¶]Number in parenthesis are ratio of exchangeable Ca^{2+} and Mg^{2+} in cmol (p⁺) kg⁻¹.

801	Table 5 Cumulative release of CO ₂ –C during the incubation of soil with and without
802	carbonates at two different temperatures (22 and 37°C) (after subtracting the
803	cumulatively released CO ₂ –C under treatments from the control)

Decomintion		Cumulative er			
Description		(mg CO ₂ -C	LSD (P<0.05)		
		22°C	37°C	22°C	37°C
Tillaga(A)	СТ	1965.0 (14.2)	2286.3 (14.5)	101.1	131.5
Tillage (A)	NT	1636.1 (15.8)	2081.3 (24.4)	101.1	
Mulching (B)	0	1702.2 (14.0)	2154.8 (18.6)	120.5	133.4
$(t ha^{-1})$	5	1889.9 (16.0)	2212.9 (20.3)	120.3	
Carbonate (C)	0	1637.1 (13.1)	2088.7 (19.5)	1615	142.5
(% w/w)	10	1964.1 (16.9)	2278.9 (19.4)	104.3	
A*B				NS	NS
A*C				NS	201.6
B*C				NS	NS
A*B*C				NS	126.5

804 Numbers in parentheses are the standard errors of the means; n = 3; P<0.05

805Table 6Parameters of single and two components first-order exponential decay equations describing the decomposition data806 $(C_{min} = cumulative CO_2-C mineralised (mg C kg^{-1} soil); C_1 = potentially mineralisable C (mg C kg^{-1} soil) recovered at hour 0;807<math>C_2 = easily (rapid)$ decomposable carbon (mg C kg^{-1} soil); C_3 = the second slower decomposition pool (mg C kg^{-1} soil); k_1, k_2808and k_3 are rate constants (per day), and $t_{1/2} = time (days)$; (Values in parentheses are standard error, n = 3).

Temn (°C)	Treatment	eatment Single component-first order model		Two component first-order model					
Temp (°C)	code	K ₁	R ²	C_2	\mathbf{K}_2	C ₃	K ₃	R ²	t _{1/2} (days)
	N1	0.061 (0.007)	0.978	952.12 (147.92)	0.06 (0.09)	792.82 (167.09)	0.06 (0.22)	0.989	12
	N2	0.064 (0.012)	0.972	1241.18 (221.49)	0.06 (0.06)	317.23 (146.09)	0.18 (0.20)	0.990	12
	N3	0.068 (0.026)	0.979	1102.31 (134.11)	0.06 (0.05)	975.68 (115.45)	0.06 (0.76)	0.989	12
2200	N4	0.056 (0.011)	0.971	1189.59 (295.13)	0.06 (0.08)	104.29 (106.68)	0.57 (0.24)	0.988	12
22°C	C1	0.129 (0.016)	0.978	1316.33 (409.74)	0.10 (0.07)	126.11 (161.52)	0.59(0.30)	0.980	7
	C2	0.133 (0.014)	0.978	1752.76 (105.36)	0.11 (0.39)	327.84 (105.84)	0.13 (0.21)	0.981	6
	C3	0.120 (0.013)	0.978	1582.77 (174.88)	0.11 (0.06)	305.25 (106.12)	0.81 (0.20)	0.985	6
	C4	0.094 (0.013)	0.981	1681.87 (214.41)	0.12 (0.06)	385.04 (106.05)	0.24 (0.31)	0.985	6
	N5	0.937 (0.011)	0.977	1472.15 (262.84)	0.12 (0.07)	157.71 (173.12)	0.87(0.05)	0.986	6
	N6	0.094 (0.013)	0.981	1502.02 (261.17)	0.13 (0.07)	162.11 (161.06)	0.07(0.06)	0.986	5
	N7	0.093 (0.014)	0.977	1395.14 (304.20)	0.13 (0.07)	368.90 (142.13)	1.17 (0.06)	0.987	5
2500	N8	0.104 (0.017)	0.970	1586.06 (279.81)	0.16 (0.09)	569.30 (161.03	0.31 (0.03)	0.985	4
37 C	C5	0.115 (0.013)	0.986	1888.25 (345.87)	0.10 (0.05)	159.86 (185.04)	0.09 (0.25)	0.996	7
	C6	0.100 (0.015)	0.982	2041.17 (134.48)	0.12 (0.06)	338.12(159.97)	0.10 (0.19)	0.995	6
	C7	0.095 (0.011)	0.984	2024.45 (145.48)	0.10 (0.06)	373.91(159.21)	0.10(0.08)	0.996	7
	C8	0.106 (0.016)	0.976	2172.59 (208.77)	0.14 (0.06)	437.33(198.40)	0.11(0.04)	0.992	5

813	Table 7	Effect of temperature on soil microbial biomass carbon at the end of
814		incubation (90 days) as influenced by carbonate and mulching treatments
815		under different tillage systems

Description	Μ	icrobial Biomas (mg C kg ⁻	LSD (p<0.05)			
		22°C	37°C	22°C	37°C	
Tillaga (A)	СТ	45.74 (2.22) [§]	26.41 (2.17)	6 5 5	0 10	
Thage (A)	NT	61.12 (2.50)	38.99 (1.27)	0.55	0.48	
Mulching (B)	0	51.77 (2.45)	27.12 (1.49)	NS≠	6.18	
$(t ha^{-1})$	5	55.10 (2.27)	38.28 (1.95)	IND [*]		
Carbonate (C)	0	41.16 (2.71)	30.29 (1.69)	8 07	6 1 1	
(% w/w)	10	65.70 (2.01)	35.11 (1.74)	8.07	0.44	
	A*B			4.55	5.64	
Interactions	A*C			NS	NS	
interactions	B*C			3.31	NS	
	A*B*C			10.48	NS	
8				+ 12	NT	

[§]Numbers in parentheses are the standard errors of the means (n=3); $^{\neq}$ NS: Not significant.