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1 Increasing organic stocks in agricultural soils: knowledge gaps

2 and potential innovations.

3

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21 Key words

22 Carbon storage, carbon sequestration, carbon storage potential, agricultural practices, 4 per

23 1000 initiative

24 Abstract

25 Recent initiatives, such as the United Nations declaring 2015 as the International Year of 26 Soils and the French « 4 per 1000 » initiative call attention on soils and on the importance of 27 maintaining and increasing soil organic matter stocks for soil fertility and food security, and 28 for climate change adaptation and mitigation. We stress that soil organic carbon storage (i.e. 29 an increase of soil organic carbon stocks) should be clearly differentiated from soil organic 30 carbon sequestration, as the latter assumes a net removal of atmospheric CO₂. Implementing 31 management options that allow increasing soil organic carbon stocks at the local scale raises 32 several questions, which are discussed in this article: how can we increase SOC stocks, at 33 which rate and for how long; where do we prioritize SOC storage; how do we estimate the 34 potential gain in C and which agricultural practices should we implement? We show that 35 knowledge and tools are available to answer many of these questions, while further research 36 remains necessary for others. A range of agricultural practices would require a re-assessment 37 of their potential to store C and a better understanding of the underlying processes, such as no 38 tillage and conservation agriculture, irrigation, practices increasing below ground inputs, 39 organic amendments, and N fertilization. The vision emerging from the literature, showing 40 the prominent role of soil microorganisms in the stabilization of soil organic matter, draw the 41 attention to more exploratory potential levers, through changes in microbial physiology or soil 42 biodiversity induced by agricultural practices, that require in-depth research.

43 **1- Introduction**

The 4 per 1000 initiative aims at increasing the organic matter content of soils, with a special focus on agricultural land, in order to contribute to food security, adaptation to climate change, and mitigation of climate change (http://4p1000.org). The first two aims of the 47 initiative are based on common knowledge regarding the central role of soil organic matter 48 (SOM) in soil fertility and soil water retention (Lal, 2008). Thus SOM indirectly contributes 49 to agro-ecosystem productivity, and hence to food security. Soil organic matter also provides 50 agro-ecosystems with the ability to adapt to a changing climate with less frequent and regular 51 precipitation and more extreme rainfall, with related erosion problems (Chenu et al., 2000; 52 Pan et al., 2009). The third aim of the initiative, regarding mitigation, is based on quantitative 53 data on soil organic carbon (SOC) pools (Jobbagy and Jackson, 2000) and fluxes (Le Quéré et 54 al., 2015) showing that small changes in world SOC stocks could aggravate or mitigate the 55 global greenhouse gas (GHG) effect, as early suggested by Balesdent and Arrouays (1999) 56 and developed for example in recent articles (Chambers et al., 2016; Lal, 2016; Minasny et 57 al., 2018; Minasny et al., 2017; Paustian et al., 2016; Soussana et al., 2017).

58 Accounting for soil carbon as part of the GHG assessment may be subject of 59 misunderstanding (Minasny et al., 2018). Two terms are often used interchangeably: carbon 60 sequestration and carbon storage, which can sometimes lead to confusion. Here, according to 61 Olson et al. (2014), we define *Carbon sequestration* as "the process of transferring CO_2 from 62 the atmosphere into the soil of a land unit, through plants, plant residues and other organic 63 solids which are stored or retained in the unit as part of the soil organic matter (humus). 64 Retention time of sequestered carbon in the soil (terrestrial pool) can range from short-term 65 (not immediately released back to atmosphere) to long-term (millennia) storage.". 66 Sequestration can therefore be quantified for a given duration. Twenty years is often chosen 67 (IPCC, 2006). *Carbon storage* is broader as it is defined as the increase in SOC stocks over 68 time in the soils of a given land unit, not necessarily associated with a net removal of CO_2 69 from the atmosphere. For example adding the available manure resources on a given 70 agricultural field rather than spreading it homogenously over the landscape may locally 71 increase SOC stocks (where manure has been added), but not increase the associated CO_2

72 removal from the atmosphere at the landscape scale. While storing organic carbon for long 73 times is preferable in terms of GHG mitigation, labile fractions of SOC (e.g. with residence 74 times of months to years) are essential in terms of soil fertility (their mineralization provides 75 nutrients to plants), of soil physical condition (aggregate stability largely depends on labile C, 76 (e.g., Angers and Mehuys, 1989; Cosentino et al., 2006), and of soil biodiversity (labile 77 organic matter being the trophic resource of organisms). Hence it is desirable to increase 78 stocks of both labile and stable forms of organic matter. In any case, the time horizon at 79 which SOC storage or SOC sequestration are being considered should be specified. Here, we 80 consider both organic carbon storage and sequestration and will use the term soil carbon 81 storage when no assumption is made on a net atmospheric CO₂ removal.

82

83 Increasing organic matter in soils via management practices not only encompasses soil carbon 84 related questions, but also agronomic and environmental dimensions, as well as sociological, 85 economical and ethical ones. These will not be considered here, while we do not disregard 86 their importance, e.g., Aubert et al. (2017). Moreover, mitigating GHG emissions by 87 increasing SOC stocks should not be regarded as a way to compensate for CO_2 emissions due 88 to the combustion of fossil fuel nor for N₂O or CH₄ emissions related to agricultural activities 89 and hence allow to continue business as usual, but rather as an additional lever in the portfolio 90 of options that countries can consider to reduce their agricultural GHG emissions (Wollenberg 91 et al., 2016).

92 Implementing management options that allow increasing soil organic carbon stocks at the 93 local scale raises several questions: how can we increase SOC stocks, at which rate and for 94 how long? Where do we prioritize SOC storage? How do we estimate the potential gain in 95 carbon and which agricultural practices should we implement? In this overview, we will 96 consider the knowledge available to answer these questions and several related knowledge97 gaps, and propose potential innovations.

98

99 **2. SOC stocks result from a balance between inputs and outputs**

100 If the OC inputs to a soil become larger than the OC outputs by mineralization or erosion,

101 then its SOC stock will increase. SOC stock evolution can be described as follows:

102
$$dC/dt = I(t) - k(t).C$$
 (1)

where I is OC inputs and k is the rate of C loss (i.e., the probability to be lost in the
interval dt, by mineralization, erosion or leaching). Assuming that OC inputs and C loss rates
are constant over time, SOC stock displays a steady-state value,

)

106
$$C^* = I/k$$
 (2)

107 Let's assume that either input or loss rate is altered due to a change in land use or land 108 management. The SOC stock will evolve out of steady state for a certain period, to eventually 109 reach the new equilibrium value. This is illustrated in Figure 1. When considering a soil, 110 except well-documented plots for which records of SOC stocks over time are available, it is 111 not easy to determine *a priori* if the OC stock of this soil is at equilibrium with the OC inputs, 112 or somewhere between two equilibria. It explains why, even if annual OC inputs are constant 113 in a given period, SOC stocks can increase or decrease during that period. This phenomenon 114 may explain for example the changes of SOC stocks observed in French forest soils. SOC 115 stocks in mineral soils (0-40 cm) were monitored between 1993 and 2012 in 102 plots across France and increased on average by 0.035 kgC $m^{-2} y^{-1}$ (Jonard et al., 2017): SOC stocks were 116 117 probably not yet at equilibrium at the start of the monitoring. Furthermore the C accumulation 118 rate was found to decline with stand age (Jonard et al., 2017), what could be interpreted as 119 getting closer to an equilibrium between the soil C stock and C input. This result among

others stresses the need to have good constraints on the soil past land-uses when studying its OC stock evolution. However, in the context of a continuously changing climate SOC values at equilibrium may also continuously change, although these aspects will not be considered here.

124

125

Figure 1: Increase in SOC stocks following changes in land-use or management practices
(increased OC inputs or decreased OC outputs. 1. Carbon storage in 20 years. 2. Maximum C
storage. Mean monthly variations of SOC stocks are presented.

129

130 If we consider that the loss rate is constant over time, an increase in OC inputs will result in 131 SOC stock accrual. Such an increase can be obtained either by increasing C inputs from the 132 vegetation (increase in net primary production or increase in residue return) or by increasing 133 exogenous organic matter addition (manure, organic wastes, organic amendments...).

134 The reduction of C outputs (i.e., a decrease in the decay rate k) can be achieved by reducing 135 SOC mineralization by soil micro-organisms or SOC erosion. The role of microorganisms as 136 drivers of soil C cycling, storage and sequestration in soil is not conceptually new, but is 137 increasingly acknowledged as crucial (Dungait et al., 2012; Lehmann and Kleber, 2015; 138 Schimel and Schaeffer, 2012). Microorganisms contribute both to the biodegradation and 139 mineralisation of soil organic substrates, and to the genesis of new organic metabolites. Their 140 action could be viewed as decreasing C storage through the mineralisation of SOM, but 141 increasing the residence time of C as their metabolites exhibit a high affinity for the 142 protecting mineral phases (Cotrufo et al., 2013; Kallenbach et al., 2015; Miltner et al., 2012). 143 The breakdown and biosynthesis rates of the various biochemical components of OM are 144 determined by the microbial community dynamics and by their functional traits. These rates

145 are limited by physical accessibility of substrate to microbes or to their enzymes and by the 146 micro-habitat conditions (oxygen, pH, water content, nutrient resources) (e.g. Juarez et al., 147 2013b; Pinheiro et al., 2015; Ruamps et al., 2011). As such, any agricultural practice altering 148 the soil physical structure or affecting the microbe resources and the environmental conditions 149 can modify the mineralisation rate of SOC. Regarding erosion, it is established that the 150 downslope transport of SOC in the landscape might redistribute it to sites where it persists 151 longer that it would have in its original location (Berhe et al., 2012; Chaopricha and Marin-152 Spiotta, 2014; Quinton et al., 2010). The relative effects of the loss of SOC from eroded areas, 153 the loss of C during transportation and its accumulation in depositional areas on the global 154 carbon budget are still under debate (Sanderman and Berhe, 2017; Wang et al., 2017; Yue et 155 al., 2016). While erosion may create a C sink (Berhe et al., 2007), it remains a major soil 156 degradation process, not compatible with sustainable food security and environmental quality 157 (Sanderman and Berhe, 2017).

158 **3. By how much, at which rate and for how long can SOC stocks**

159 **be increased?**

160

161 The **carbon storage potential** of a given soil unit may be defined as the maximum gain in 162 soil OC stock attainable under a given climate and a given timeline (e.g. time required to 163 attain a new equilibrium or a given time period, such as 20 y for IPCC) (Figure 1). Similarly, 164 the carbon sequestration potential of a given soil would be the maximum gain in SOC 165 allowing a net removal of CO₂ from the atmosphere under a given climate and for a specified 166 timeline. From current knowledge of SOM dynamics, we can infer the magnitude and kinetics 167 of SOC change as related to yearly carbon inputs to the soil and pedoclimatic conditions. This 168 knowledge is synthesized in several models of SOC dynamics (see the review of models by

169 (Campbell and Paustian, 2015). In Table 1 we calculated for a few representative situations 170 the increase in plant material input or the decrease in decay rates that are required to increase 171 SOC by 4 per 1000 per year during 20 years, i.e., increase soil C by +8% after 20 years, using 172 the model RothC 26.3 (Coleman and Jenkinson, 2014). Typically, the magnitude of the 173 relative changes in plant C inputs or decay rates to reach the target stands in the range of 15 to 174 25% (Table 1). It is noticeable that the maximum C gain is much higher than the gain in 20 175 years: from 1.6 times higher in light-textured tropical soil where OC turnover is rapid, to 3.0 176 times higher in cool, clayey soils where OM turnover is slowest. Similarly, differences 177 between environments regarding the required OM input increment typically depends on (i) the 178 differences in mineralization kinetics, and (ii) the initial C content, since the calculation is 179 based on a *relative* increase in SOC. Around these general features, other inputs than plant 180 material, such as composted amendments, are expected to have a higher yield in SOC (see 181 section 5); in case of progressive increase in inputs, e.g., through the positive feedback of 182 SOC on net primary production, SOC increase will be slower.

183

184 Soil organic matter dynamics models have been developed in the 1970's and 1980's based on 185 long-term experiments in either temperate or tropical agricultural environments. Their 186 parameters have been calibrated so as to fit observed C changes over decades under controlled 187 C inputs or management practices. The major difficulties encountered in the use of these 188 model predictions at the local scale concern: (i) the initial state of soil carbon, which can be 189 under steady or non-steady state depending on past conditions (see above discussion in 190 section 2); (ii) the difficulty in initializing accurately the size of the SOC pools (Luo et al., 191 2016), in particular those with long turnover times such as for example the "passive" pool in 192 the Century model having turnover times of several centuries (Parton et al., 1988) and the 193 "inert" pool, of the RothC model with residence times of several thousands of years

194 (Jenkinson and Rayner, 1977); (iii) the estimate of the actual C inputs to the soil; (iv) a 195 generally poor accounting of soil types besides their clay content; (v) the impact of practices 196 on decay rates of SOC (the management practices currently simulated in SOC models being 197 limited and SOC models do not simulate the effects of innovative cropping systems such as 198 associated crops or agroforestry); and (v) the lack of consideration of deep soil layers. As a 199 result, models parameterization may be still rough concerning important factors driving SOC 200 dynamics. Furthermore, model's linearity (i.e., amounts of SOC formed on the long-term 201 assumed to be proportional to inputs) has been questioned.

202

203 Hassink (1997) suggested that soils have a finite capacity to protect organic matter from 204 mineralization, i.e., a finite capacity to store carbon for decades or more, which was termed 205 the carbon saturation capacity. In this concept, which was expanded by Six et al. (2002) and 206 then by Beare et al. (2014), long residence times of organic matter are essentially due to fine 207 sized minerals (<20 µm), clay minerals and sesquioxides, that provide protection by organo-208 mineral interactions (physico-chemical protection) or reduced accessibility of organic 209 compounds to decomposers or oxygen to decomposers (physical protection). The abundance 210 of the $< 20 \,\mu m$ size fraction would determine the amount of C that can be stored for decades 211 to centuries, in association with this fraction.

212

If we assume a linear relationship between C inputs and SOC stocks at steady state (as assumed by almost all soil C dynamic models, Figure 2a), the only limitation for SOC stock increase is the amount of OC inputs that can be provided. Several authors challenged the concept that an extra C input would always produce a similar SOC stock increase (Stewart et al., 2007). Their alternative referred to two concepts. The first concept assumes a saturation behaviour towards C inputs, C inputs becoming less and less efficient as the soil is

219 approaching its saturation capacity (Figure 2b). Here the saturation concept was expanded to 220 the total soil organic carbon, contrary to the original proposal of Hassink (1997). This 221 alternative view allows explaining the results of the few studies showing little or no increase 222 of SOC stocks following increased OC inputs. However, there is little or no difference 223 between the linear and saturation relationships for most of field data (Stewart et al., 2007). 224 The second concept is the so-called "priming effect", which has been evidenced in deep soil 225 layers: when SOC mineralization is limited by the energy supply to microorganisms, 226 increased C inputs of fresh material may accelerate old SOC mineralization (Fontaine et al., 227 2007). Whatever the considered formalism, establishing which factors are playing on 228 dSOC/dI remains largely an open question. Establishing quantitatively the SOC saturation 229 limit for fine particles associated organic matter and for bulk soil organic matter, if it exists, is 230 also still a debated scientific issue.

231

Figure 2: (a) Relationship between C inputs and SOC stocks at steady state for two different soils assuming a linear relationship between C inputs and SOC stocks; (b) Relationship between C inputs and SOC stocks at steady state assuming a saturation behaviour for the bulk soil organic matter. (sd= saturation deficit. Figure adapted from Stewart et al., 2007).

4. Where to store carbon? Are some soils or soil horizons better

- 238 targets than others?
- 239

Increasing SOC stocks is not necessarily simple or even possible at all locations. Obviously, it can be more difficult to increase C inputs at some places due to limited access to necessary resources such as fertilizer or water. Using a proportion of actual SOC (4 per 1000) to name

243 the so-called initiative and not an actual SOC amount, implicitly expresses the need to adapt 244 the effort to the climate-dependency of C sequestration costs, which are, for instance, much 245 higher in water-limited and hot areas than in cool moist climates. Soils that have the higher 246 carbon storage potential (i.e., that have SOC stocks well below an estimated SOC stock under 247 favourable practices) could be prioritized. They also exhibit the faster storage rate (Fig. 1). As 248 illustrated in Table 1, for a given increase in C inputs different soils can present different SOC 249 stock increases in relation with soil properties, i.e. the efficiency of the storage may vary with 250 the decay rate of organic matter (k in eqn. 1). In the examples of Table 1, a given additional 251 yearly carbon input, leads to higher additional C stocks in temperate situations compared to 252 tropical ones and in clayey soils compared to sandy ones.

253

254 For a given soil, different horizons can be targeted. Subsoil horizons have lower SOC 255 concentration (Jobbagy and Jackson, 2000), and thus their SOC storage potential, i.e. the 256 difference between present and potential stocks, would be higher than topsoil. Furthermore, 257 the contribution of belowground inputs (roots) to SOC are much higher than aboveground 258 residues (e.g. Balesdent et al., 2017; Rasse et al., 2005; Rumpel and Kogel-Knabner, 2011). 259 An option to increase the efficiency of C inputs to the soil can therefore be to place C inputs 260 preferentially towards deep soil layers where the storage potential is large and their 261 mineralization rates may be lower. Indeed, certain soil types exhibit deep organic rich layers, 262 i.e. chernozems, vertisols and more generally black soils (Jobbagy and Jackson, 2000). These 263 are characterized by medium to fine textures and developed under grassland vegetation, i.e. 264 characterized by perennial deep rooting systems. The high potential of deep horizons for SOC 265 storage was quantified by a meta-analysis of studies tracking the incorporation of plant residues into the soil profile on the basis of the natural ¹³C labelling technique (Balesdent et 266 267 al., 2017). This work showed that the global mean residence time of SOC is approximately

268 four times higher in the subsoil (30-100 cm depth) than in the topsoil (0-30 cm) (Figure 3). 269 The analysis of world soil radiocarbon profiles also provides evidence for both the long-term 270 stabilization of C in deep horizons of such soils, as well as the deep incorporation of active C 271 by bioturbation and rooting (Mathieu et al., 2015). However, the balance between increased 272 OC inputs to subsoil and destabilization of pre-existing SOC at depth due to priming effects 273 remains uncertain. While the occurrence of a priming effect induced by roots and their 274 rhizodeposits has been widely demonstrated (e.g. reviews by Cheng et al., 2014; Kuzyakov, 275 2002), very few estimates of the priming are available *in situ*, in conditions corresponding to 276 the subsoil (e.g., Shahzad et al., 2015). Another process that warrants thorough estimation is 277 the burial of topsoil organic matter by anecic earthworms and its consequences in terms of 278 SOC storage and persistence (e.g., Arrouays and Pelissier, 1994; Don et al., 2008).

279

280 Another way to increase OC inputs to the subsoil is deep ploughing. Not very common, this 281 practice can be performed occasionally to break the hard pan of Podzols in cropped soils or 282 as a preparation measure of soil before afforestation (Alcantara et al., 2017). The SOC rich 283 topsoil is buried at 60-120 cm depth while the SOC poor subsoil is brought to the surface. It 284 was found to affect SOC storage in two ways : the buried topsoil material decomposed more 285 slowly than the reference topsoil material and new SOC accumulated in the initially C poor 286 new topsoil (Alcantara et al., 2017). As a result, after 36-48 year, the whole soil profile SOC 287 stock was larger in agricultural deep ploughed soils than in reference situations (Alcantara et 288 al., 2016). While very informative in terms of process understanding, this practice might not 289 be applicable nor desirable everywhere.

Figure 3. A meta-analysis of natural ¹³C labelling technique in cropped soils shows that the residence time of SOC is approximately four times higher in the subsoil (30-100 cm depth) than in the topsoil (0-30 cm). Balesdent et al. (2017).

294

295 Potential positive feedbacks should also be considered when identifying the best fields or 296 areas where to implement SOC storing practices. In soils with an initially low OC content, the 297 build-up in SOC would ameliorate soil fertility which would in turn increase plant production 298 and then C inputs to the soil (e.g. Sanderman et al., 2017). OC-poor soils are also more prone 299 to erosion and increasing their SOC content would contribute also to reduce soil erosion by 300 improving their aggregate stability. The increase in SOC stocks in C-poor soils can therefore 301 trigger a positive feedback loop. Indeed, a voluntary action designed to increase SOC stocks 302 of C-poor soils has the potential to initiate a virtuous cycle and such soils should be 303 considered in priority given the importance of the expected benefits.

304

5. Practically, how to estimate the SOC storage potential?

306

307 The carbon storage potential of a soil may be defined as the maximum gain in soil OC stock 308 attainable under a given climate, soil type and timeline (e.g. time required to attain a new 309 stock after IPCC time period: 20 y, or a new equilibrium) (Figure 1). In the previous sections, 310 we have given some qualitative insights on how SOC stocks could be increased but no 311 quantitative indications on storage potential. As presented in Figure 1, there is a transient 312 period between the two steady-states. To quantify SOC accrual rates, one should be able to 313 determine the difference between steady-state 1 and steady-state 2, and the trajectory between 314 the two. This remains a major research question.

316 To estimate SOC changes, the IPCC developed a tiered approach depending on the spatial 317 scale of the project or study and the data available. Tier 1 corresponds to very large scale 318 approaches, with default SOC stocks values for eco-regions and average SOC stock changes 319 values (soil carbon change factors) for changes in land-use, management or organic input 320 applied to a given surface area over a time period of 20 years for the 0-30 cm depth (IPCC, 321 2006). The Tier 2 approach is similar but uses data specific to a state or region. For example, 322 a Tier 2 approach has been used to estimate the potential of agricultural practices to mitigate 323 GHG emissions and to store C in soils of Canada (VandenBygaart et al., 2008) and of 324 mainland France (Pellerin et al., 2013). Tier 2 SOC stock change factors are still missing for 325 many regions, soil type, and management practices, calling for meta-analyses (Söderström et 326 al., 2014). However, in some agricultural regions, agronomists have for long established 327 reference SOC stocks values (Hénin and Dupuis, 1945) that allow estimating the reachable 328 SOC content of a given soil according to the most common practices (Bayer et al., 2006; 329 Saffih-Hdadi and Mary, 2008). The Tier 3 approach, which is either based on a 330 comprehensive acquisition of field data or on the use of models, has seldom been applied at 331 large scales, although is the basis of the United States estimate of its soil related agricultural 332 GHG emissions (Milne et al., 2007; Ogle et al., 2010). Indeed, SOC dynamics models are a 333 priori good candidates to estimate the potential gain of organic carbon following land-use or 334 agricultural practices changes (to determine the new steady-state value as well as the temporal 335 trajectory to reach it). However, they require to be fully validated and properly represent land 336 use management effects relevant to the study area.

Another possible methodology is based on the use of available SOC stocks data at the territory to the regional scale, i.e. what may be called a data-driven approach. Stolbovoy and Montanarella (2008) calculated the carbon storage potential for cultivated soils in EU by

subtracting the average present SOC stock, for each soil typological unit, from the maximum SOC content observed for that soil typological unit, both numbers being obtained from the 1:1,000,000 European soil spatial data set (JRC, 2003). Lilly and Baggaley (2013) applied this method to Scotland, i.e. at a finer resolution. The same approach could be developed at the scale of small regions, provided a soil map is available as well as sufficient data on SOC stocks.

346 Estimates of the storage potential of SOC with very long residence time is more difficult to 347 provide as there exists to date no method to estimate the size of the pluri-decadal/ pluri-348 centennial persistent SOC. As a result, the only way to quantitatively estimate the potential of 349 soils to store additional SOC with residence times of decades to centuries with changes in 350 management is to use models to estimate the change in the size of pools with high residence 351 times (e.g. the Passive pool in Century model with a turnover time of 400-2000 y, (Parton et 352 al., 1987). Designing a method that allows determining the concentration in pluri-decadally 353 persistent SOC would be very helpful to progress in the estimate of SOC storage potential, 354 but the various attempts towards this goal using hydrolysis or oxidation methods have been 355 questioned (Chenu et al., 2015; Greenfield et al., 2013; Lutfalla et al., 2014). Indeed, it would 356 allow providing direct measures to assess the storage potential of various management 357 techniques. In addition, several authors have proposed estimates of SOC storage potentials 358 based on the carbon saturation deficit approach (Angers et al., 2011; Wiesmeier et al., 2014, 359 McNally et al., 2017). However, these estimates have to date neither been compared to 360 modelling ones nor to actual data. In practice, the methods available to estimate the SOC 361 storage potential of a soil are the tiered ones proposed in the IPCC methodology, and future 362 research should aim at comparing them with the carbon saturation approach.

6. Which practices can be implemented to increase SOC stocks?

Towards innovative soil carbon management practices.

366

367 Management practices can influence SOC stocks by either increasing C inputs to soil or 368 decreasing SOC losses (Figure 4). These practices have been extensively reviewed at global 369 (e.g., Conant et al., 2016; Paustian et al., 2016; Smith et al., 2008; Stockmann et al., 2013), or 370 national or regional scales (e.g., Pellerin et al., 2017; VandenBygaart et al., 2008). An 371 examination of the literature suggests that management practices are not always documented 372 for the different regions where they are used (e.g. there are more published studies on the 373 effect of agroforestry on SOC in tropical than in temperate areas) which calls for more 374 systematic meta-analyses for the different pedo-climatic contexts. Reasons for the observed 375 variability of the effects of a given practice are not always identified (e.g. effect of tillage, see 376 below). Here we focus on knowledge gaps, and hence research needs, for innovative SOC 377 management practices, in the light of recent studies in soil ecology and biogeochemistry.

378

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Figure 4. Levers associated with agricultural practices that may influence SOC stocks: (1) increasing primary production (e.g. crop rotations, agroforestry, cover crops), (2) increasing biomass return to soil e.g. crop residue return), (3) importing organic wastes to soil (manures, composts..), (4) avoiding fires, (5) grassland management (fertilization, grazing), (6) decreasing biodegradation and mineralisation rates (no tillage, water management), (7) decreasing erosion rates (e.g. cover crops, no tillage, hedges).

386

388 Category 1: Assessments, balances or re-evaluation required.

389

390 No-tillage and conservation agriculture

391 Tillage is generally considered to increase SOC mineralization due to the mechanical and 392 rain-induced disruption of soil aggregates and the consequent release of CO₂. Therefore no-393 tillage, i.e. direct seeding implementation has been considered as a suitable practice to 394 increase/maintain SOC stocks compared to so-called conventional tillage, i.e. mouldboard 395 ploughing or inversion tillage. The results of recent global meta-analyses and reviews confirm 396 that SOC stocks increase in the upper soil layers (0-15 or 0-20 cm) with no-tillage 397 implementation, but shows that it has on average a low to non-significant effect on SOC 398 stocks over 30 cm depth or deeper (Angers and Eriksen-Hamel, 2008; Haddaway et al., 2017; 399 Luo et al., 2010; Meurer et al., 2018; Powlson et al., 2014; Powlson et al., 2016; Virto et al., 400 2012; West and Post, 2002) as shown in Table 2. Additional SOC storage is even less 401 pronounced when other techniques are considered, such as chisel, harrow or disk (Meurer et 402 al., 2018; West and Post, 2002). Hence when reducing soil tillage, there may be an additional 403 SOC storage in superficial soil layers, but no or little SOC sequestration for the land unit 404 considered if the whole soil profile is considered. This seems to be particularly the case in 405 humid and temperate conditions (e.g., Dimassi et al., 2014; VandenBygaart et al., 2010) as 406 opposed to drier climates such as the semi-arid Canadian Prairies (VandenBygaart et al., 407 2010) or the Mediterranean regions (Blanco-Moure et al., 2013), where significant beneficial 408 effects of no-till relative to mouldboard ploughing are observed. However, the origin of this 409 variability and the underlying processes have not yet been explained (Luo et al., 2010; Meurer 410 et al., 2018; Virto et al., 2012) nor thoroughly studied. Helgason et al. (2014) showed that under the cool and moist climatic conditions of Eastern Canada, the decomposition of ¹³C 411 412 barley residues was the same whether the residues were incorporated or not, whereas under

413 the semi-arid conditions of the Canadian Prairies, decomposition was greater when residues 414 were incorporated than left at the surface. Decomposition would be limited at the soil surface 415 due to drier conditions. Dimassi et al. (2014) also show that the response of SOC to no tillage 416 is dependent on climate, and in particular precipitation, with a greater response in drier 417 conditions. Changes in micro-environmental conditions induced by ploughing seem to be the 418 main mechanisms controlling the effects of tillage on SOC dynamics (Dimassi et al., 2014; 419 Oorts et al., 2007). Overall, these results also cast doubts on the direct mechanical effect of 420 tillage on SOC mineralization and raise concerns about the relations between physical 421 protection and tillage, in agreement with other studies suggesting that physical protection of 422 organic would only take place at very fine spatial scales (< 100 μ m) (e.g., (Juarez et al., 423 2013a). Part of SOC stock differences induced by conversion to no tillage can also be 424 explained by C inputs changes induced by no tillage implementation (Virto et al., 2012).

425

426 Conservation agriculture encompasses a range of cropping systems that propose alternative 427 management practices aiming at maintaining or improving the sustainability of agricultural 428 production, which rely on three pillars: reduced tillage, permanent soil cover, with the use of 429 cover crops and diversified rotations. In its simplest form, conservation agriculture often 430 refers to no-till systems which we covered in the previous paragraph. In its more complex 431 forms it comprises no-tillage with diversified rotations and cover crops which are conducted 432 between successive crops as well as in association with the cash crop. A recent meta-analysis 433 showed that, in a tropical context, such conservation agriculture cropping systems had the 434 potential to store additional carbon while with a large variability and with cases where no 435 increase in SOC stocks was measured (Powlson et al., 2016). Recent field studies (Autret et 436 al., 2016) and meta-analyses (Poeplau and Don, 2015) have clearly shown the potential of 437 cover crops to increase SOC stocks relative to their absence (Autret et al., 2016; Poeplau and

438 Don, 2015). Hence the potential of no-tillage to store SOC is limited while it is much larger 439 when cover crops are associated with no-tillage, i.e. in conservation agriculture. In a study 440 where C inputs and SOC stocks have either been measured or modelled, increases in OC 441 inputs due to alternative management were sufficient to explain the observed SOC stocks 442 changes (Autret et al., 2016). A similar observation was made in agroforestry systems 443 (Cardinael et al., 2015a; Cardinael et al., 2018). In addition, in a meta-analysis of the effects 444 of no tillage on SOC stocks increased OC inputs were the only factor explaining additional 445 SOC storage under not till (Virto et al., 2012). All together, these observations suggest that 446 increasing inputs is probably the best option to increase SOC stocks compared than 447 decreasing outputs by mineralisation through no tillage. This assumption however requires 448 further studies.

449 In addition to providing additional C inputs to the soil, the use of cover crops also involves 450 some diversification of the quality of the C inputs. The influence of C input quality on SOC 451 storage is still a matter of debate (Schmidt et al., 2011). Field studies suggest that the use of 452 legumes either as cover crops (e.g., Boddey et al., 2010) or as intercrop (e.g. Martins et al., 453 2012) is particularly efficient in increasing SOC in no tillage systems. This would be 454 consistent with the idea that higher-quality residues are more efficiently utilized by the soil 455 microflora, resulting in greater production of microbial by-products and SOC formation 456 (Cotrufo et al., 2013).

457

458 Irrigation.

459 Several practices affect different components of the overall carbon balance. Fertilization 460 (Ladha et al., 2011), liming (Paradelo et al., 2015) and irrigation (Trost et al., 2013; Zhou et 461 al., 2016) increase primary production and thus increase inputs to soil, modify plant rooting 462 (fertilization and irrigation), and accelerate C and N mineralization. Their net effect on SOC

463 stocks is hence highly variable, and likely depends on local conditions. For example, from the 464 temperature and moisture dependence of SOM decay rates in current models such as RothC, 465 summer irrigation versus summer drought may increase yearly mineralization by as much as 466 50% in cool to warm regions. The meta-analysis performed by Trost et al. (2013) showed that 467 the effects of irrigation on SOC stocks depended on the climate and initial soil organic carbon 468 content. Irrigation had strong positive effects of SOC stocks in desert soils, positive ones in 469 semi-arid areas, and no consistent trend was observed in humid areas. While irrigation may 470 have similar effects on SOC decomposition in all situations, its effects on primary production 471 are likely to be much higher in arid and semi-arid areas compared to humid regions with dry 472 summers. Deep root irrigation is a practice which effect on SOC stocks warrants evaluation as 473 it may increase soil moisture in the vicinity of roots in the subsoil but not in the organic 474 matter rich topsoil, hence allowing to increase plant growth and OC inputs to soil, but have 475 limited effects on SOC mineralization. In the context of forecasted climate changes, the 476 effects of irrigation on SOC stocks and dynamics particularly clearly require more 477 assessments and research.

478

479 Increasing below-ground inputs.

480 Below ground OC inputs (roots and associated inputs) contribute more to soil carbon as 481 compared to above ground inputs (Balesdent and Balabane, 1992; Kätterer et al., 2011; 482 Menichetti et al., 2015; Rasse et al., 2005). This is ascribed to its different chemical nature 483 and because the C contained in fine roots, root hairs, associated mycorrhizae and root 484 exudates would enter the soil directly in sites (small pores, microoaggregates), where it would 485 be stabilized by adsorption or physical protection (Rasse et al., 2005). This would suggest that 486 management practices that increase below ground C inputs would be particularly efficient in 487 enhancing SOC stocks. Increasing C belowground inputs to soil can be achieved through 488 cropping deep rooting crop varieties (Kell, 2012), deep-rooting perennials (Carter and 489 Gregorich, 2010), and agroforestry (Cardinael et al., 2018; Peichl et al., 2006). Plant breeding 490 should therefore assess the C storage potential of crop genotypes that have a high levels of 491 root biomass or rhizodeposition, and assess the cost and benefits of photosynthate allocation 492 to roots vs harvested organs (Kell, 2012). As previously mentioned (see section 4), the trade-493 offs between increased below ground inputs and priming effect need to be assessed.

494

495 Organic amendments

496 While a considerable amount of literature has been devoted to studying the effects of organic 497 fertilizers and amendments on soil organic carbon contents and stocks, synthesis and 498 assessments are still limited by a general poor characterization of the organic inputs, 499 especially in the case of compost and manure, generally limited to their C content, C/N ratio 500 and pH (e.g. (Maillard and Angers, 2014). Methods have been developed to characterize the 501 decomposability of these organic materials, based on a biochemical characterization of the 502 organic amendments and short term incubations (e.g. Lashermes et al. 2009) that can be used 503 to parametrise SOC dynamics models (Peltre et al., 2012), but these methods are not 504 widespread yet. A re-estimate of the contribution of organic fertilizers and amendments to 505 long-term soil carbon, would help optimizing the use and the processing of organic wastes.

506

507 The influence of residue quality on long-term SOC is still a matter of debate. Many 508 convergent studies have now revealed that the most labile and easy-degradable compounds 509 contribute more to SOM on the long-term than so-called "recalcitrant" materials (e.g., lignin-510 rich), especially in clayey soils (Cotrufo et al. 2013). Three explanations have been proposed: 511 long-lasting SOM are essentially derived from microbial material (Kallenbach et al., 2015; 512 Miltner et al., 2012); easily degradable substrates are processed with a high microbial carbon

use efficiency (Wieder et al., 2014); soluble compounds migrate in soil between mineral surfaces, where they can be protected. Since the quality of organic amendments is often estimated from short-term incubations (Lashermes et al., 2009), the extrapolation to long-term could be counter-intuitive. Such products should be described at least by two parameters in the frame of C models.

518

519 Organic residues and wastes can be applied to soil, either as fresh organic matter, or after 520 composting, methanisation or even pyrolysis. An assessment of these pathways of organic 521 residues processing would require to compare their effects on soil organic carbon and 522 nitrogen on the basis of the same initial amount of "fresh" organic matter, which is seldom 523 performed. For example, Cardinael et al. (2015b), using a long term bare fallow experiment, 524 showed that the effect of fresh vs composted straw on SOC stocks after was the same after 52 525 years, showing here that there was no benefit of composting in terms of CO₂ removal from 526 the atmosphere. Similarly, Thomsen et al. (2013) have shown that the retention of C over 527 decades to centuries appears to be similar whether the initial turnover of plant biomasses 528 occurs in the soil, in the digestive tract of ruminants, in an anaerobic reactor, or in a 529 combination of the latter two. Sector scale budgets of C, but also of the associated N and P 530 are needed.

531

532 Managing soil nitrogen

The role of nitrogen input on SOC storage and sequestration is still debated. Nitrogen availability has two opposite effects on SOC stocks. On the one hand, N can increase primary production and thus increase the amount of above and below ground litter added to soil, which can result in increased SOC (e.g. Campbell et al., 2000). In this case, the availability of nitrogen can be a limiting factor to additional SOC storage, as discussed by van Groenigen et

538 al. (2017). On the other hand, increased N availability may also accelerate the rate of 539 biodegradation of both litter and indigenous soil organic matter (Melillo et al., 1982; Recous 540 et al., 1995) and thereby lead to enhanced loss of SOC. The balance between these processes 541 seems to depend on the ecosystem considered. In a meta-analysis, nitrogen fertilization was 542 found to reduce the rate at which SOC is declining in agricultural soils worldwide (Ladha et 543 al., 2011), i.e. it promoted SOC storage. Lu et al., (2011) observed a 3.48 % relative increase 544 of SOC stocks with N fertilization in agricultural soils in a meta-analysis with 340 paired 545 observations. However, grasslands receiving high nitrogen fertilization may have lower OC 546 content than less fertilized ones (Soussana et al., 2004). Lu et al. (2011) concluded from their 547 meta-analysis that N stimulation of SOC storage primarily occurred in plant pools and less in 548 soil pools. The small magnitude of the effect of N addition on SOC stocks was explained by 549 the higher stimulation of above ground biomass production than that of belowground biomass 550 while, as described previously above ground biomass contributes less to soil carbon compared 551 to below ground biomass. Furthermore, the dataset gathered by Lu et al. (2011) showed that 552 N addition stimulated soil organic matter mineralization. They suggested that earth system 553 models need to treat soil OC inputs from aboveground and belowground sources differentially 554 for soil C storage in response to N deposition and fertilization.

555

Regarding stabilization of organic matter, obviously, old SOM is N-rich, and soil proteinaceous material belong to pools of SOM with decadal or centennial turnover times (Bol et al., 2009). The role of proteinaceous compounds on SOM sorption and stabilization on the long term has been hypothesised (Kleber et al., 2007), but the quantitative impact of N input on the long term C stabilization still requires quantitative assessments. Kirkby et al. (2014) demonstrated that the "stable" organic C pool, defined in their study as the SOC fine fraction (< 0.4 mm) was increased with N additions, due to two processes: more fine-sized 563 SOC was formed from the added fresh organic matter, i.e. there was more litter 564 decomposition, but also less old organic matter was lost, i.e. less priming effect occurred (less 565 microbial nutrient mining) (Kirkby et al., 2014). Indeed, microorganisms were shown in other 566 studies to meet their nutrient requirements by mining N from stable SOM by inducing a 567 priming effect (Chen et al., 2014; Derrien et al., 2014).

Assessing the role of nitrogen on SOC storage, and the same comment applies to phosphorus, requires research differentiating its effect on primary production and its allocation between above and below ground biomass, litter decomposition, priming effect and long term SOC stabilization.

572

573 Category 2. More speculative, but exciting research findings, to be tested

574

575 Plant secondary metabolites

576 Northup et al. (1998) illustrated the production of polyphenol-rich litters as an example of 577 fitness, enhancing ecosystem productivity through several mechanisms, including the 578 inhibition of soil bacterial mineralization of C and N, maximizing N recovery by mycorrhizae 579 and soil organic matter. The effect of plant secondary metabolites on biotic regulation of 580 SOM degradation remains to be investigated.

581

582 Mineral amendments

Fine cristallized-minerals are undoubtedly considered as the first factor of C stabilization in soils (Mathieu et al., 2015). Extremely high SOC stabilization is found in andosols (Torn et al., 1997) and is explained by the presence of very-fine aluminosilicates called allophanes, which are derived from volcanic glasses. Adding fine minerals to soils is not a common management practice. Although some soils have been ameliorated for a long time by addition of clay-rich minerals (e.g., marls) the effects of this management practice on CO_2 balance remains questionable due to the large amounts needed and the related energy consumption to transport them. Basile-Doelsch et al. (2015) developed a new paradigm of co-stabilization of OM with the poorly-crystallized minerals that result from the alteration of primary minerals. In the light of this work, alumino-silicates such as those present in basalt rocks, which are sometimes used as amendments of base-poor soils (Gilmann et al., 2002), or clay refuses from bauxite processing (Churchman et al., 2014) could be tested as OM stabilizers.

595

596 *Manipulating microbial physiology.*

597 Several organic cropping systems, characterized by a diversified rotation including legume 598 cover crops, exhibited similar or higher SOC stocks than their conventional counterparts, 599 while fresh OC inputs to soil were not higher and tillage was more frequent (Autret et al., 600 2016; Gregorich et al., 2001; Syswerda et al., 2011) (a process not represented in Figure 4). 601 Kallenbach et al. (2015) recently showed that in an organic cropping system, soil 602 microorganisms had a higher carbon use efficiency and higher growth rates than under the 603 reference conventional system. As suggested by the authors, this should result in more 604 microbial necromass being formed per unit of C input. Microbial necromass represents a 605 significant fraction of soil organic matter and a major constituent of SOM stabilized in the 606 long term (Cotrufo et al., 2013; Grandy and Neff, 2008), which would explain the increased 607 or preserved SOC stocks cited above. The carbon use efficiency depends on the type of 608 microorganisms (i.e. fungi and actinomycetes vs bacteria, oligotrophs vs copiotrophs), and on 609 the quality of organic inputs (compound providing more available energy and with lower C:N 610 ratio are assimilated with a higher carbon use efficiency). The effects of cropping practices 611 such as cover crops, reduced fertilization, or organic fertilization on the carbon use efficiency

of microorganisms remain to be studied as well as the consequences of such changes in terms

of SOC stocks.

614

615 Managing soil biodiversity

616 A range of studies have shown that increasing the diversity of soil organisms and plants can 617 result in greater SOC stocks and more stabilized organic carbon. Plant diversity increases 618 SOC stocks and the magnitude of SOC storage is related to the abundance of fine roots 619 (Lange et al., 2015; Steinbeiss et al., 2008). Regarding the effects of earthworms on SOC 620 stocks, very contrasted results have been observed (Blouin et al., 2013) and a meta-analysis 621 showed that, in the short term, they increase SOC mineralization (Lubbers et al., 2013). In 622 fact, earthworms would have two opposite effects on SOC stocks, at different time scales. 623 They simultaneously increase the mineralization of both fresh and old soil organic matter (by 624 fragmentation, by their own respiration and their stimulation of soil microorganisms), and 625 incorporate fresh residues into aggregates, i.e., their casts (e.g. (Bossuyt et al., 2005)) and 626 bury carbon at depth (e.g., (Schon et al., 2015) which would increase their stabilization. The 627 simultaneous occurrence of these processes that impact SOC at different time scales has been 628 demonstrated in incubation experiments (Lubbers et al., 2017; Zhang et al., 2013).

629 A similar debate has taken place concerning mycorrhizae (Verbruggen et al., 2013), which 630 were found to increase the mineralization of litter (Cheng et al., 2012) in the short term, while 631 increasing soil aggregation and thus presumably the stabilization of organic matter in the long 632 term (Verbruggen et al., 2016), with opposite effects on SOC stocks depending on the time 633 scale of observation and the relative importance of the two processes (Verbruggen et al., 634 2013). These results, along with the demonstration that soil organic matter with decadal 635 residence time is mostly microbial (microbial necromass and metabolites, (Liang and Balser, 636 2008; Miltner et al., 2012), suggest that while increasing the abundance and diversity of decomposers will increase decomposition rates of organic matter, it may result in increased SOC stocks, and/or in a higher proportion of the SOC having long residence times. A recent study by Sanderman et al. (2017) shows that increased productivity due to different rotations in a long term experiment was associated with increased SOC stocks after 40 years, but decreased turnover time of SOC, which supports the idea that increased microbial activity promotes carbon storage.

643

644 These findings call for further research on the effects of agricultural practices that have 645 positive effects on the abundance and diversity of soil organisms in order to analyse the 646 consequences on SOC stabilization. SOC dynamics in intensive cropping systems could be 647 revisited: such systems may have higher C inputs to the soil than natural ecosystems, thanks 648 to their very high productivity and the return of crop remains to the soil, but lower soil C 649 content. The much higher decay rates of SOM in cropped systems (e.g. (Arrouays et al., 650 1995) are not fully explained by tillage nor N inputs. These intensive cropping systems are 651 also characterized by decreased soil biodiversity, especially mycorrhizal and invertebrates, 652 due to the effects of the concurrent plant diversity reduction (monocultures or simple 653 rotations) and pesticides use. However, when comparing different cropping systems or land 654 uses it is difficult to disentangle the effects of fresh OC inputs to soil from that of modified 655 trophic network and decomposers communities or modified environmental conditions.

656

657 **7. PERSPECTIVE**

658

The vision emerging from recent studies on soil organic matter dynamics and on the processes explaining its persistence show that there is still a need to appraise or reappraise

661 and understand the effects of cropping systems and practices on SOC storage and 662 sequestration, and that there is potential for innovation. Long term experiments, which are 663 indispensable, cannot however cover the huge diversity of management options available to 664 farmers. A participatory approach is then needed, which faces the difficulty to measure 665 reliably SOC stock changes at the field scale over only a few years, a time scale relevant to 666 the farmer (Perez et al., 2007). To this regard, since the residence time of SOM under the 667 tropics is *ca.* four times shorter than under temperate climates, and the effects of management 668 thus measurable much faster, medium-term experiments in tropical countries could provide 669 results of general interest even concerning colder climates, and should be clearly encouraged 670 (Milne et al., 2016). Besides, as mentioned in the introduction, the selection of management 671 practices to increase SOC stocks cannot be made solely on criteria based on the potential SOC 672 storage or sequestration. An increase in NPP can be obtained through irrigation or higher 673 addition of mineral fertilizers, which may compromise the sustainability of resources (water 674 use) and have adverse environmental impacts (altered water quality due to nitrate leaching, a 675 negative GHG balance, the increase in soil OC being offset by increased N₂O and CH₄ 676 emissions (e.g. Schultz et al., 2009). SOC sequestration in agricultural soils must thus be 677 envisioned in a much broader perspective than considering only the global carbon cycle. 678 Furthermore, the feasibility of SOC storing management practices may be limited, such as for 679 instance, increasing crop residues return to the soil can be socially and economically very 680 difficult (e.g., (Naudin et al., 2011). While a process-oriented approach shows the need to 681 reappraise or test a wide range of practices for their ability to sequester carbon in soils and for 682 the permanence and vulnerability of the storage, a much broader approach of these practices, 683 including environmental, agricultural, social and economic evaluations, is also needed to 684 ensure a sustainable management of agricultural soils.

685 The 4 per 1000 initiative promotes carbon storage in soils. Its Scientific and Technical 686 Committee made it clear that the aim is to increase SOC stocks compared to business as 687 usual, with no numerical target value (www.4p1000.org). The initiative remains very 688 ambitious, with its threefold objective of contributing to food security, to climate change 689 adaptation and to mitigation of climate change and with its commitment to the UN 690 Sustainable Development Goals. It has the merit of challenging the scientific community, and 691 in particular the soil organic matter scientific community, asking to clarify concepts and 692 vocabulary and make them known broadly, asking for quantitative estimates of the current 693 state of soil organic resources and of SOC storage potential in a wide variety of pedoclimatic 694 contexts, requiring to position SOC storage questions in a much broader perspective, and 695 revealing gaps in knowledge that need to be explored. The 4 per 1000 initiative is thereby 696 very stimulating for research.

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- 1144 contrasting mechanisms: A meta-analysis. Agriculture, Ecosystems and Environment 228, 70-81.
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- 1147
- 1148 **Tables captions**
- 1149 Table 1. Indicative model calculations of required changes in either plant material C input to
- 1150 the soil or mean mineralization rates, to reach a relative increment of SOC by +8% in twenty
- 1151 years (+4 per 1000 per year). Prediction using the RothC 26.3 default model parameters of
- 1152 SOC dynamics applied to A horizons.
- 1153

- 1154 Table 2. Effect of no tillage compared to full inversion tillage or mouldboard ploughing, i.e.
- 1155 conventional tillage) on SOC stocks reported by meta-analyses. In the dataset from West and

1156 Post (2002) pairs of plots may also differ in the rotation, 22 cm is the average depth sampled.

- 1157 The dataset from Meurer et al. 2018 is a sub-set of that of Haddaway et al. 2017.
- 1158

1159 **Figures cations**

- 1160 Figure 1: Schematic increase in SOC stocks following changes in land-use or management
- 1161 practices (increased OC inputs or decreased OC outputs). 1. Carbon storage in 20 years. 2.
- 1162 Maximum C storage. Mean monthly variations of SOC stocks are figured.

1163

- Figure 2: (a) Relationship between C inputs and SOC stocks at steady state for two different soils assuming a linear relationship between C inputs and SOC stocks; (b) Relationship between C inputs and SOC stocks at steady state assuming a saturation behaviour. (Figure adapted from Stewart et al., 2007).
- 1168
- Figure 3. A meta-analysis of natural abundance of 13 C in cropped soils shows that the residence time of SOC is approximately four times higher in the subsoil (30-100 cm depth) than in the topsoil (0-30 cm). (Balesdent et al. 2017).
- 1172

Figure 4. Levers associated with agricultural practices that may influence SOC stocks: (1) increasing primary production (e.g. crop rotations, agroforestry, cover crops), (2) increasing biomass return to soil crop residue return), (3) importing organic wastes to soil (manures, composts..), (4) avoiding fires, (5) grassland management (fertilization, grazing), (6) decreasing biodegradation and mineralisation rates (no tillage, water management), (7) decreasing erosion rates. 1181 Table 1. Indicative model calculations of required changes in either plant material C input to the soil or mean mineralization rates, to reach a

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1183 dynamics applied to A horizons.

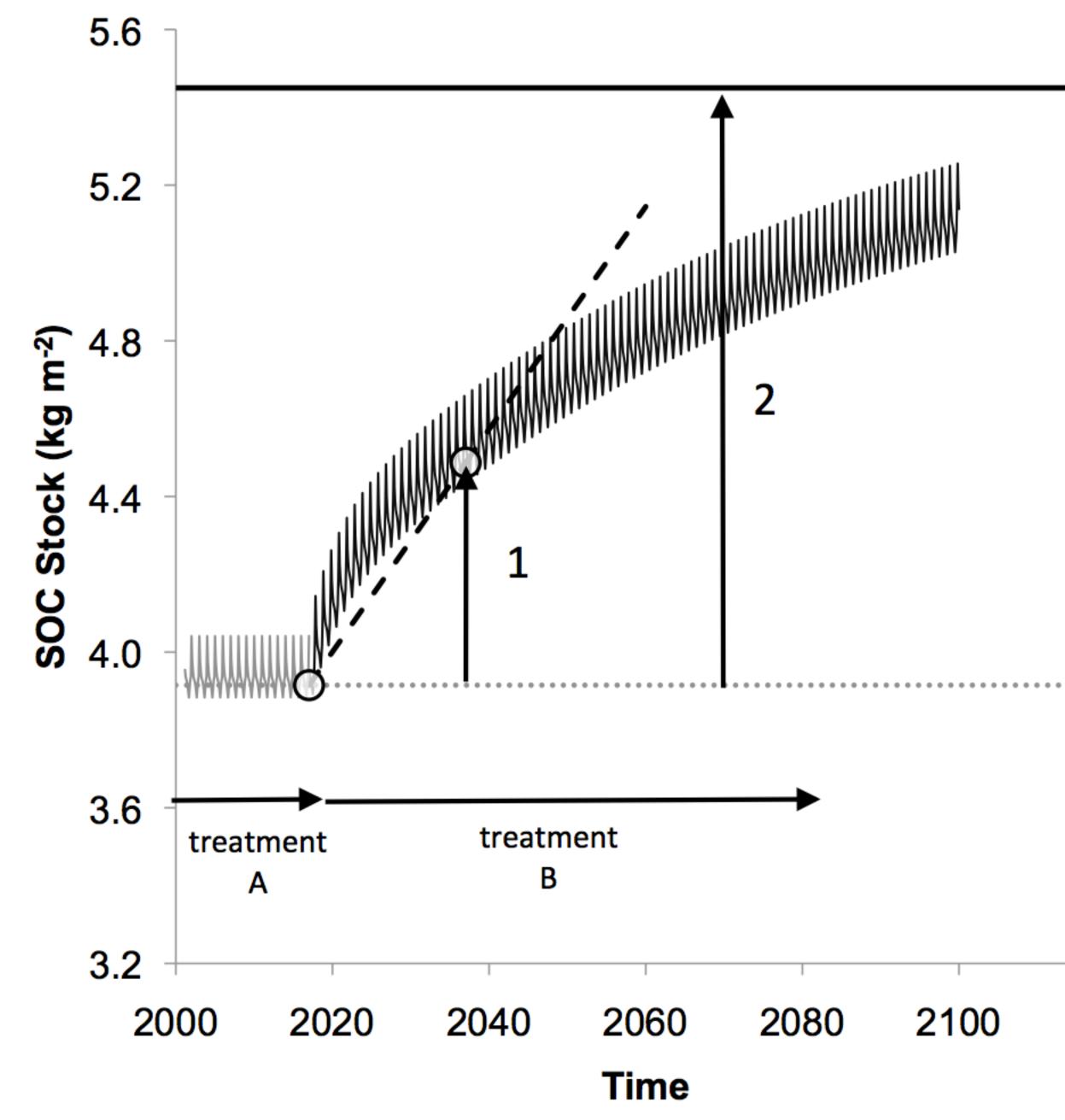
		case 1 temper. crops, sandy	case 2 temper. crops, clayey	case 3 tropical crops, sandy	case 4 tropical crops, clayey	case 5 temper. forest, sandy	case 6 tropical forest, clayey
Pedo-climatic conditions		10	12	24	24	12	24
MAT (°C) Clay (%)		12 5	40	24 5	24 40	12 5	24 40
Proportion of resistant material in carbor	n input	0.41	0.41	0.41	0.41	0.80	0.80
Inert Organic C / kg m ⁻²		0.4	0.8	0.4	0.8	0.4	0.8
Initial practice A	т	2	F	2	2	4	4
SOC (equilibrium)/ kg m ⁻²	1	3	5	2	3	4	4
Yearly carbon input/ kg m ⁻² yr ⁻¹	II	0.268	0.305	0.424	0.411	0.315	0.531
Average decay rate of SOC inputs (IOM excluded) / yr^{-1}		0.103	0.073	0.265	0.187	0.088	0.166

Practice B reaching the 4 per 1000

Fractice B reaching the 4 per 1000	III =						
SOC increase after 20 years / kg m ⁻²	I*0.004*2 0	0.24	0.40	0.16	0.24	0.32	0.32
(i) by increasing carbon inputs only:							
Additional C input/ kg m ⁻² yr ⁻¹	IV	0.064	0.088	0.070	0.080	0.060	0.089
Relative increase in C input	$\mathbf{V} = \mathbf{I}\mathbf{V}/\mathbf{I}\mathbf{I}$	24%	29%	17%	19%	19%	17%
Equilibrium SOC practice B/ kg m ⁻²		3.62	6.22	2.26	3.43	4.69	4.54
<i>(ii) by decreasing SOC decomposition rates only :</i>							
Relative decrease in SOC decomposition rate	S	-21%	-25%	-16%	-17%	-17%	-15%
Equilibrium SOC practice B / kg m ⁻²		3.70	6.43	2.29	3.47	4.75	4.58

Table 2 Effect of no-tillage (NT) compared to full inversion tillage or mouldboard ploughing, i.e. conventional tillage (FIT), on SOC stocks reported by meta-analyses. In the dataset from West and Post (2002) pairs of plots may also differ in the rotation, 22 cm is the average depth sampled. The dataset from Meurer et al. 2018 is a sub-set of that of Haddaway et al. 2017.

Climata	numbor	number	depth	Duration of	SOC stock NT-	SOC stock NT-
		of pairs	considered	trials	FIT	FIT
zone	of sites	of plots	(cm)	(years)	(kg C m^{-2})	$(\text{kg C m}^{-2} \text{ y}^{-1})$
any		93	0-22	≥5	0.62 ± 0.16	0.048
any	23	47	0-100	≥5	0.49	0.032
any	29	69	0-60	any	-0.02	
any	37	92	0-30	≥5	0.34	0.022
boreo-	29		0-30	> 10	0.46 ± 0.19	
temperate	14		0-150	≥10	0.15 ± 0.34	
boreo-		46	0-30	> 10	0.42 ± 0.18	0.023
temperate		11	0-60	≥10	0.15 ± 0.22	< 0.01
	any any any boreo- temperate boreo-	zoneof sitesany23any29any37boreo-29temperate14boreo-14	Climatenumberof pairszoneof sitesof plotsany93any2347any2969any3792boreo-2914temperate1446	Climatenumberof pairsconsideredzoneof sitesof plots(cm)any930-22any23470-100any29690-60any37920-30boreo-290-30temperate140-150boreo-460-30	Climatenumber of sitesof pairsconsideredtrialszoneof sitesof plots(cm)(years)any930-22 ≥ 5 any23470-100 ≥ 5 any29690-60anyany37920-30 ≥ 5 boreo-290-30 ≥ 10 boreo-140-150 ≥ 10	$\begin{array}{c c c c c c } Climate & number \\ considered & frials & FTT \\ \hline of pairs & considered & trials & FTT \\ \hline of plots & (cm) & (years) & (kg C m^{-2}) \\ \hline any & 93 & 0-22 & \geq 5 & 0.62 \pm 0.16 \\ \hline any & 23 & 47 & 0-100 & \geq 5 & 0.49 \\ \hline any & 29 & 69 & 0-60 & any & -0.02 \\ \hline any & 37 & 92 & 0-30 & \geq 5 & 0.34 \\ \hline boreo- & 29 & 0-30 & \geq 5 & 0.34 \\ \hline boreo- & 14 & 0-150 & -100 & 0.46 \pm 0.19 \\ \hline cumperate & 14 & 0-150 & -100 & 0.42 \pm 0.18 \\ \hline boreo- & 46 & 0-30 & \geq 10 & 0.42 \pm 0.18 \\ \hline \end{array}$



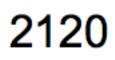
Equilibrium Treatment B

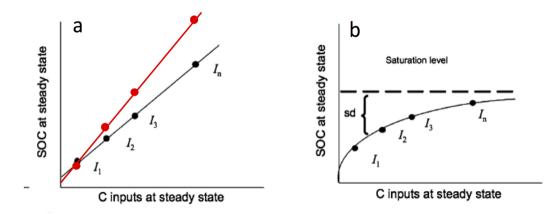
— Treatment B

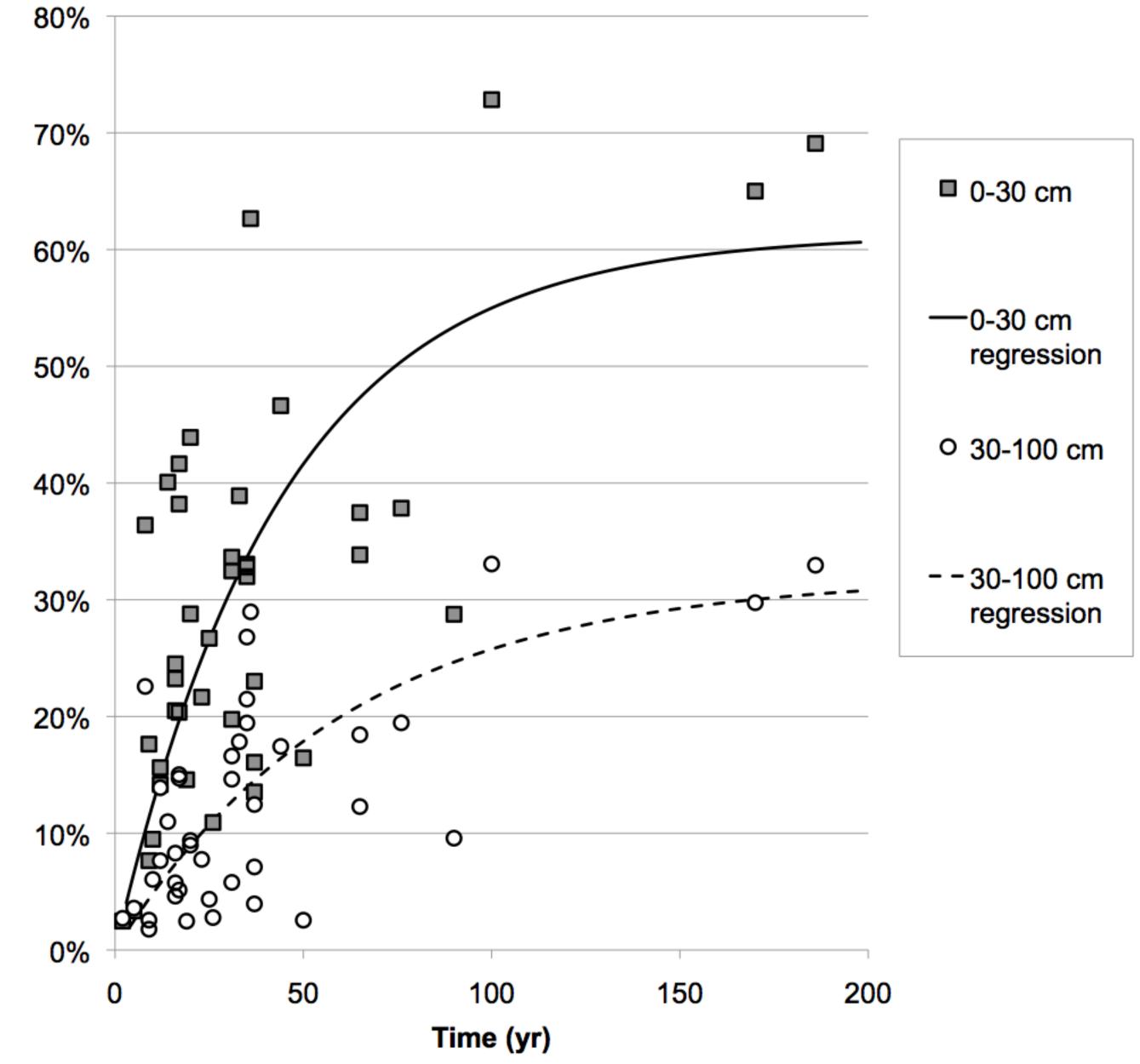
– Linear interpolation at 20 yr

— Treatment A

······ Equilibrium Treatment A







Proportion of new C

1 Table 1. Indicative model calculations of required changes in either plant material C input to the soil or mean mineralization rates, to reach a

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