

Detectability of degradable organic matter in agricultural soils by thermogravimetry

David Tokarski^{1,2*}, Jana Šimečková³, Jiří Kučerík⁴, Karsten Kalbitz², Michael Scott Demyan⁵, Ines Merbach⁶, Dietmar Barkusky⁷, Joerg Ruehlmann⁸, and Christian Siewert⁹

¹ LKS–Landwirtschaftliche Kommunikations- und Servicegesellschaft mbH, August-Bebel Str. 6, 09577 Niederwiesa, Germany

² Dresden University of Technology, Institute of Soil Science and Site Ecology, Pienner Str. 19, 01737 Tharandt, Germany

³ Mendel University Brno, Department of Agrochemistry, Soil Science, Microbiology and Plant Nutrition, Zemědělská 1, 613 00 Brno, Czech Republic

⁴ Brno University of Technology, Institute of Chemistry and Technology of Environmental Protection, Purkyňova 118, 612 00 Brno, Czech Republic

⁵ School of Environment and Natural Resources, The Ohio State University, 2021 Coffey Road, Columbus, Ohio 43210 USA

⁶ Helmholtz-Centre for Environmental Research – UFZ, Department Community Ecology–Experimental Research Station, Hallesche Str. 44, 06246 Bad Lauchstädt, Germany

⁷ Leibniz Centre for Agricultural Landscape Research (ZALF), Agricultural Landscape Data Centre, Research Station, Eberswalder Str. 84, 15374 Müncheberg, Germany

⁸ IGZ – Leibniz Institute of Vegetable and Ornamental Crops, Theodor-Echtermeyer-Weg 1, 14979 Grossbeeren, Germany

⁹ Technical University Berlin, Institute of Ecology, Chair of Soil Conservation, Ernst-Reuter Platz 1, 10587 Berlin, Germany

Abstract

Sustainable agricultural land use requires an assessment of degradable soil organic matter (SOM) because of its key function for soil fertility and plant nutrition. Such an assessment for practical land use should consider transformation processes of SOM and its sources of different origin. In this study, we combined a 120-day incubation experiment with thermal decay dynamics of agricultural soils altered by added organic amendments. The aim was to determine the abilities and limits of thermal analysis as a rapid approach revealing differences in the degradability of SOM. The carried out experiments based on two independent sampling sets. The first sample set consisted of soil samples taken from non-fertilized plots of three German long-term agricultural field experiments (LTAEs), then artificially mixed with straw, farmyard manure, sheep faeces, and charcoal equal to 60 Mg ha⁻¹ under laboratory conditions. The second sample set based on soil samples of different treatments (e.g., crop type, fertilization, cultivation) in LTAEs at Bad Lauchstädt and Müncheberg, Germany. Before and after the incubation experiment, thermal mass losses (TML) at selected temperatures were determined by thermogravimetry indicating the degradability of organic amendments mixed in soils. The results confirmed different microbial degradability of organic amendments and SOM under laboratory conditions. Thermal decay dynamics revealed incubation-induced changes in the artificial soil mixtures primarily at TML around 300°C in the case of applied straw and sheep faeces, whereas farmyard manure showed mainly changes in TML around 450°C. Charcoal did not show significant degradation during incubation, which was confirmed by TML. Detailed analyses of the artificial soil mixtures revealed close correlations between CO₂-C evolution during incubation and changes in TML at 300°C with R² > 0.96. Results of the soils from LTAEs showed similar incubation-induced changes in thermal decay dynamics for fresh plant residues and farmyard manure. We conclude that the practical assessment of SOM could be facilitated by thermal decay dynamics if modified sample preparation and evaluation algorithms are used beyond traditional peak analysis.

Key words: artificial soil mixtures / field experiments / microbial degradation / organic fertilizers / soil organic matter / thermal decay dynamics

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1 Introduction

Soils consist of different biological, organic and mineral components (Totsche et al., 2010) and support the primary production of food, fibers, animal feed, and fuel (Weil and Brady, 2016). Soil organic matter (SOM) is commonly recognized as the most crucial component of soils determining its physical,

chemical and biological properties and ecosystem productivity (Gregorich et al., 2015). SOM is of great importance for the global carbon cycle as a very large store of terrestrial carbon, which is vulnerable to climate change (Field et al., 2007; Conant et al., 2011). The permanent transformation and min-

* Correspondence: D. Tokarski; e-mail: david.tokarski@lks-mbh.com



eralization of SOM is dependent on temperature, moisture, soil texture, its composition and other factors (von Lützow et al., 2006; Shen et al., 2009). The primary sources of SOM are decomposed plant residues (Weil and Brady, 2016), while in agricultural soils, organic fertilizers are also a major component (e.g., straw, farmyard manure and charcoal). Organic fertilizers are frequently applied to increase the SOM content, improve biological activity, nutrient availability, soil structure, chemical properties, and crop yields (Haynes and Naidu, 1998; Bending and Turner, 1999; Körschens et al., 2013; Schröder et al., 2016).

The biological transformation of organic amendments applied to soils is regulated by their chemical composition (Johnson et al., 2007), physical structure (Prescott, 2010), soil texture and quantity as well. They can consist of easily biodegradable or stabilized organic carbon or both (Sarma et al., 2017). For example, straw as a biodegradable organic amendment is decomposed relatively rapidly by microorganisms which is reflected in high degradation rates (Powlson et al., 2011; Hansen et al., 2016). In contrast, farmyard manure contains both biodegradable and stabilized organic carbon and has longer turnover rates in soil environments (Körschens et al., 1994; Haynes and Naidu, 1998; Li et al., 2018a). Another frequently used fertilizer is charcoal, which is characterized by its superior stability in soils compared to other organic amendments (Glaser et al., 2002; Kuzyakov et al., 2009; Li et al., 2018b). The assessment of such organic amendments in SOM found increasing attention in the last years, because of their influence on soil organic carbon (SOC) stability and biological transformation processes in soil environments (Mohanty et al., 2011; Plante et al., 2011; Kučerík et al., 2018). The complexity of SOM which results from different sources (Ferreiras et al., 2006; Kätterer et al., 2014), different transformation mechanisms and environmental controls of SOM stabilization (Franko and Merbach, 2017) makes the development of methods for assessing biological degradability a challenging task. Recently, artificial mixing of soils with organic substances under laboratory conditions (model experiments) were proposed to substitute previous attempts to develop quality indicators and recovery rates for SOM (Fernández-Gálvez et al., 2012; Jin et al., 2016; Nguyen et al., 2016; Tokarski et al., 2018). However, they are characterized by limited applicability to agricultural practice. Other authors prefer long-term agricultural field experiments (LTAEs) to investigate the long-term impact of SOM on plant nutrition, crop yield, and climate change and to focus on practical issues (Körschens et al., 2013; Dignac et al., 2017). However, these experiments are very expensive, long-lived and may not provide necessary answers to farmer's current questions about the assessment of short-term changes of SOM content, fertilizers and soil management strategies. Therefore, the assessment of the biodegradability of SOM remains an unsolved task (Sánchez et al., 2008).

Two simple analytical approaches and their interrelationship have been thoroughly discussed in the past: (1) soil respiration as an indicator of microbial stability (Plante et al., 2011; Siewert et al., 2012; Peltre et al., 2013; Pronk et al., 2013) and (2) thermal analysis techniques (e.g., thermogravimetry, differential thermal analysis and differential scanning calorimetry)

for rapid determination of soil properties and SOM stability (Siewert, 2004; Lopez-Capel et al., 2005; Plante et al., 2009; Gregorich et al., 2015; Siewert and Kučerík, 2015; Kučerík et al., 2016; Kristl et al., 2016; Tokarski et al., 2018; Kučerík et al., 2018; Soucémarianadin et al., 2018).

Measuring microbial respiration by degradation of SOM during incubation experiments offers a valuable but very time consuming way to characterize SOM (Paul et al., 2006; Mohanty et al., 2011; Peltre et al., 2013; Nguyen et al., 2016; Schiedung et al., 2016; Xu et al., 2017) and its interactions with minerals (Pronk et al., 2013). This method provides information about both stabilized and biodegradable fraction of soil organic carbon that is available in soils to heterotrophic organisms (Hopkins, 2007). The long-lasting and expensive experimental procedure, however, limit its application for agriculture practice.

Thermal analysis was used to investigate the biological stability of SOM, but provided contradictory results in the assessment of SOC transformation processes (Otero et al., 2002; Peltre et al., 2013; Kučerík and Siewert, 2014; Barros et al., 2016; Schiedung et al., 2017). Nevertheless, the consideration of natural soils not influenced by human activities and gentle soil sample preparation with standardized water content opened new opportunities, e.g., for soil property prediction (organic carbon, nitrogen, and clay content) and for monitoring microbial degradation of SOM (Siewert, 2001; Siewert, 2004; Siewert et al., 2012; Kučerík et al., 2016). Tokarski et al. (2018) detected SOM components in soils independent of clay content using thermal decay dynamics recorded by thermogravimetry. Several authors recommend a consideration of the nature and thermal stability of SOM associated with clay (Plante et al., 2005; Hassink, 1997) because it might affect its microbial degradability. However, these findings could not answer questions to what extent the degradability of SOM and its components such as organic amendments can be determined considering the content of SOC, clay and factors that regulate SOM accumulation.

This study focuses on the detectability of changes in thermal decay dynamics caused by differences in microbial degradation of SOM in laboratory incubation experiments. The aim of this study was to discover and validate temperature ranges with specific characteristics of the microbial degradability of SOM and organic fertilizers in soils with different clay contents using dynamics of thermal mass losses.

2 Material and methods

The thermal decay dynamics of soils from two independent sample sets were recorded before and after 120 days of incubation under laboratory conditions. First sample set based on three soils from non-fertilized plots of different long-term agricultural field experiments (LTAEs) which were spiked with different organic amendments under laboratory conditions. Second sample set focuses on soil samples from LTAEs with different organic long-term fertilization and cultivation techniques.

2.1 Description of the used soil samples and experimental design

2.1.1 Characteristics of experimental sites

For the study soils were used from three different LTAEs in Germany. The first site is located at the Helmholtz Centre for Environmental Research (UFZ) in Bad Lauchstädt (Saxony-Anhalt, 51°24'N, 11°53'E) with a mean annual precipitation of 481 mm and a mean temperature of 8.9°C on a silty loam soil developed in loess with a clay content of around 210 g kg⁻¹ soil (Franko and Merbach, 2017). The soil is classified as a Haplic Chernozem (WRB). The second site is situated at the Leibniz Institute of Vegetable and Ornamental Crops (IGZ) in Grossbeeren (52°21'N, 13°19'E, Brandenburg) with a mean annual precipitation of 521 mm and a mean temperature of 8.4°C (Rühlmann, 2009). The soil is a silty sand with a clay content of around 55 g kg⁻¹ soil and classified as an Arenic-Luvisol (WRB). The third site belongs to the Leibniz Centre for Agricultural Landscape Research (ZALF) in Müncheberg (52°30'N, 14°6'E, Brandenburg) and had a mean annual precipitation of 525 mm and a mean temperature of 8.6°C (Barkusky, 2009). The soil is a loamy sand with a clay content of around 50 g kg⁻¹ soil and classified as an Albic Luvisol (WRB).

2.1.2 Soil samples

Artificial mixtures with organic amendments under laboratory conditions

For the investigation of artificial mixtures of soils with organic amendments, samples of non-fertilized plots of LTAEs in Bad Lauchstädt (Static Fertilization Experiment, established 1902, 16 g SOC kg⁻¹), Grossbeeren (Static Fertilization Experiment, established 1989, 8 g SOC kg⁻¹ soil), and Müncheberg (Nutrition Increase Experiment, established 1963, 5 g SOC kg⁻¹ soil) were used. Detailed description of the LTAEs were given by Barkusky (2009), Rühlmann (2009), and Körschens and Pfefferkorn (1998). These soil samples were mixed with straw (ST), farmyard manure (FYM), sheep faeces (SF), and charcoal (CC) under laboratory conditions (see details in Tokarski et al., 2018). Each soil was spiked with an equivalent of 60 Mg ha⁻¹ of fresh matter (1.3–7.5 g C kg⁻¹ soil) of all four amendments ($n = 12$, see Tab. 1). The added quantity of organic amendments represents the highest fertilization rates in these LTAEs (Körschens et al., 2013).

Table 1: Basic properties of added straw (ST), farmyard manure (FYM), sheep faeces (SF), and charcoal (CC) and expected changes in carbon (C) content by adding 60 Mg ha⁻¹ fresh matter of organic amendments.

Type of organic amendments		ST	FYM	SF	CC
Dry matter content (%)		86	23	35	80
carbon content in dry mass (g kg ⁻¹)		402	413	357	706
Added quantity of organic amendments (fresh matter)	Mg ha ⁻¹ OA ^a	predicted increase in carbon content (g C kg ⁻¹ soil)			
	60	+4.6	+1.3	+1.7	+7.5

^aOA: Organic amendments.

Long-term agricultural field experiments (LTAEs)

This sample set consisted of soils from different treatments of LTAEs in Bad Lauchstädt and Müncheberg with different long-term organic fertilization and cultivation treatments.

From Bad Lauchstädt we used soil samples of two LTAEs. One LTAE was started in 1983 as Incremental Manure Experiment (V494) to study the impact of high quantities of farmyard manure on yield and soil properties. It includes four different quantities of farmyard manure: 0, 50, 100, and 200 Mg ha⁻¹ y⁻¹ (factor A, four levels) applied to corn and bare fallow (factor B, two crop rotations) with two field repetitions (8 treatments, 16 plots, details see in Körschens and Pfefferkorn, 1998). Samples were taken from bare fallow and corn treatments without application of farmyard manure (non-fertilized control, 20–23 g SOC kg⁻¹ soil) and with highest application rate of FYM (200 Mg farmyard manure ha⁻¹ y⁻¹ or 40–46 g SOC kg⁻¹ soil). In total, we analyzed eight samples from this LTAE (2 fertilizer levels × 2 crop rotations × 2 field repetitions).

The second LTAE was established in 1988 as the Fallow Experiment (V505a) with four field repetitions in order to investigate the impact of (1) mechanical tillage (mechanical bare fallow), (2) herbicide application (chemical bare fallow), (3) combination of mechanical and herbicide bare fallow, and (4) succession of weed flora (self-greening) (Franko and Merbach, 2017) on soil properties. The sampling for this study was carried out on treatments with mechanical bare fallow (18 g SOC kg⁻¹ soil) and with succession of weed flora (self-greening) (27 g SOC kg⁻¹ soil) only. A total of eight samples was collected and investigated (2 treatments × 4 field replications).

The LTAE in Müncheberg is designated as V140 and focuses on the influence of different mineral and organic fertilizers on yield and soil fertility. It was established in a full randomized block design in 1963. The LTAE consist of 8 field repetitions for treatments with different mineral nitrogen levels (40 to 200 kg ha⁻¹ y⁻¹), organic fertilization with farmyard manure (4.8–12.8 Mg ha⁻¹ dry matter every third year) and with straw (4.0 Mg ha⁻¹ dry matter every second year) (Barkusky, 2009). The sample set consisted of four repetitions and included treatments with non-fertilization (6 g SOC kg⁻¹ soil), with mineral nitrogen fertilization (6 g SOC kg⁻¹ soil), with high application of farmyard manure (7 g SOC kg⁻¹ soil), and with straw application (7 g SOC kg⁻¹ soil) (4 plots × 4 replications = 16 samples).

Samples were taken in the second year after straw incorporation, in the first year after application of farmyard manure and after yielding potatoes.

2.2 Sampling and sample preparation

All soil samples were taken in autumn 2015 from the selected treatments as a mixed sample (≈ 30 cores were mixed to gain one composite sample) at a depth of 0–25 cm. The soil samples were immediately gently air dried and sieved to pass a 2-mm screen. In order to create the same conditions of moisture equilibrations (comparable contents of bound water), the subsequent sample preparation included storing at 76% relative humidity for at least two weeks (at 22°C) in desiccators above saturated NaCl (see details in Siewert, 2001).

For the investigations of the artificial soil mixtures, the organic amendments were ground to 0.2 mm particle size (Retsch Ultra Centrifugal Mill ZM 200) after air-drying and, as with the soil samples, stored at 76% relative humidity. After adding organic amendments to the soils, the mixtures were immediately shaken for 2 hours in an airtight glass container at room temperature (22°C), and prior to thermogravimetric analyses again conditioned at 76% relative air humidity for 2 weeks (Tokarski et al., 2018).

2.3 Incubation experiments

A RESPIROCOND-system (NORDGREEN INNOVATIONS, Sweden) with 96 vessels was used for the incubation experiment. The measurement of CO_2 is based on changed electrical conductivity of a 10 mL solution of 0.6 M potassium hydroxide by absorbing CO_2 in hermetically closed 250-mL vessels.

Depending on initial SOC content and expected level of CO_2 respiration, 20 or 40 g of soils of both sample sets (artificial soil mixtures and soils from LTAEs) in two analytical replications were rewetted under laboratory conditions to 60% of their field water retention capacity (determined at $p_F = 1.8$) just before starting the monitoring of CO_2 -respiration at a constant temperature of 25°C. Monitoring of CO_2 -absorption started immediately after remoistening of soil samples and were repeated every 30 min with prolongation of the time interval to one measurement per hour during 120 days of incubation. The evaluation started with the entire data, but the measurements of the remoistened samples in the first 2.5 hours were excluded for better comparability after full temperature adjustment. It includes the transformation of the respiration rate into g CO_2 -C per kg soil and g CO_2 -C per g SOC.

2.4 Thermogravimetric analysis (TG)

The TG analyses were carried out in two analytical replicates for each sample before and after the incubation using a Mettler-Toledo TGA/SDTA 851e device. The air-dried soil sample of 0.8–1.0 g were placed in a ceramic pan and heated with a rate of 5°C min^{-1} from 25°C to 950°C. The sample mass was recorded every 4 seconds or one measurement for 0.3°C temperature increase. During the analytical procedure, the sam-

ple furnace was purged with an air stream enriched by 76% relative humidity at 22°C with a flow rate of $\approx 200 \text{ mL min}^{-1}$. The primary evaluation started with recalculation of mass losses to 1 g of soil and with reduction of data density to one mean thermal mass loss (TML) per 10°C temperature increase. The thermogravimetric profiles are presented as differential TG (DTG) curves, i.e., the first derivative of the TML. TML is usually given with lower and upper temperature limit. For example, $\text{TML}_{290-300}$ describes TML from 290°C to 300°C.

2.5 Organic carbon content determination

The organic carbon (OC) contents of the artificial soil mixtures with organic amendments were determined in duplicate from the incubated and non-incubated samples by dry combustion with LECO TruMac CN analyser at an accredited laboratory (LKS mbH, Niederwiesa, Germany) using standard procedures (ISO, 1996).

2.6 Statistical analysis

At the beginning of the statistical analysis, nonparametric tests were performed to confirm the normal distribution and the lack of interdependence between the factors. Furthermore, a multifactorial ANOVA was carried out in order to consider the influence of two soil types (factor A), three types of organic amendments (factor B) before and after incubation (factor C) on measured parameters (incubation experiments: g CO_2 -C per kg soil; thermal mass losses: mg per g soil in 10°C temperature increase; OC content: g C per kg soil). In addition, the results were verified by paired t-tests and modified ANOVA analyses.

The significance levels ($p < 0.001$, $p < 0.01$ or $p < 0.05$) are given in the text. The Tukey HSD test was applied to compare selected means from main and combination effects. Linear correlation analyses were performed to describe the relationships between TML and CO_2 -C evolution. Presented significant data have a probability of at least of 95% ($R^2 > 0.6$). All statistical analyses were carried out using STATISTICA® software (version 12.0) or Microsoft Excel® (2013). All tests were repeated in R-statistics (version 3.2.1) for validation of the results.

3 Results

3.1 Incubation-induced changes in artificial soil mixtures with organic amendments

Figure 1 indicates increasing cumulative CO_2 -C evolution with time in soils spiked with different organic amendments ($p < 0.001$ by Tukey-HSD test; Tab. 2a). The non-treated soils showed the lowest CO_2 -C evolution without significant differences between sites ($p > 0.05$, data not shown) and without differences to samples spiked with CC and FYM. The CO_2 -C evolution for all amendments increased in following order: non-treated soil \leq CC \leq FYM $<$ SF $<$ ST. A significant influence of the sites (clay content) was only detectable after the

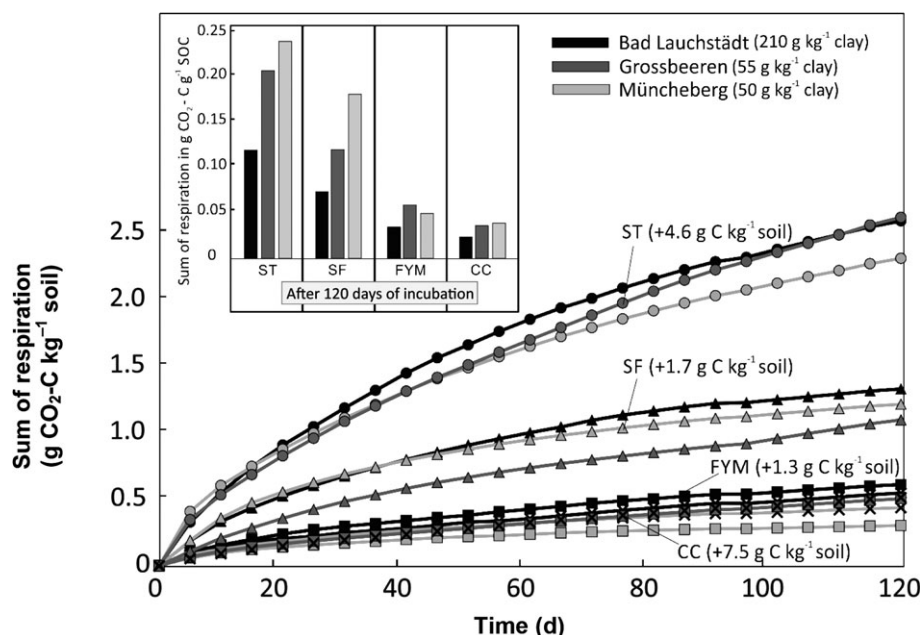


Figure 1: Dynamics of CO₂-C evolution per kg soil of non-fertilized soils in long-term field experiments in Bad Lauchstädt (black), Grossbeeren (dark grey), and Müncheberg (pale grey) each spiked with 60 Mg ha⁻¹ fresh matter of straw (ST), sheep faeces (SF), farmyard manure (FYM), and charcoal (CC). The small inset shows the CO₂-C evolution per g SOC after 120 days of incubation.

Table 2: Multifactorial ANOVA for model experiments.^a

(a) CO ₂ -C evolution (g g ⁻¹ SOC) after 120 days of incubation			
Factors	D.F.	F	p
Soil type (A)	2	64.0	0.000***
Organic amendments (B)	3	219.8	0.000***
Soil type × organic amendments (A × B)	6	11.2	0.000***
(b) Incubation-induced changes in soil organic carbon content			
Factors	D.F.	F	p
Soil type (A)	2	1580.6	0.000***
Organic amendments (B)	3	236.2	0.000***
Before/after incubation (C)	1	63.8	0.000***
Soil type × organic amendments (A × B)	6	0.5	0.826
Soil type × before/after incubation (A × C)	2	0.7	0.531
Organic amendments × before/after incubation (B × C)	3	14.7	0.000***
Soil type × organic amendments × before/after incubation (A × B × C)	6	0.4	0.842

^aIn the table are given: the degrees of freedom (D.F.), the variance ratio (F) and the probability level ($p < 0.001^{***}$) to assess the changes of organic carbon content depending on soil, organic amendment and incubation. A: Bad Lauchstädt, Müncheberg and Grossbeeren, B: straw, farmyard manure, sheep faeces, charcoal, C: before and after 120-days incubation.

calculation of CO₂-C evolution per g SOC ($p < 0.001$, Tab. 2a). In this regard, higher CO₂-C evolution in soils of Müncheberg and Grossbeeren with added ST and SF was observed in comparison to Bad Lauchstädt (Fig. 1, small inset).

Figure 2 presents OC contents determined by elemental analyses before and after 120 days of incubation. As an example, soils in Bad Lauchstädt (BL) characterized by an initial SOC content of 16.1 g kg⁻¹ (dotted black line). The application of ST (adding of 4.6 g C kg⁻¹ soil) should increase the OC content approximately to 20.7 g C kg⁻¹ soil. The measured OC content was 21.8 g C kg⁻¹ soil (black column in Fig. 2; $p < 0.001$). The 120-day incubation of the soil with added ST decreased the OC content by 3.1 g C kg⁻¹ soil to 18.7 g C kg⁻¹ soil (dashed black column, $p < 0.001$). The increase in OC content after the addition of organic amendments was significant in all cases (Tokarski et al., 2018), while the reduction by incubation was significant only for ST, FYM and SF (Fig. 2, Tab. 2b).

The dynamics of TML of the non-treated soil in Bad Lauchstädt were distinguished from the soil in Müncheberg by higher TML (Fig. 3). This difference corresponds to differences in clay content and carbon accumulation of both soils. Adding straw increased the TML on both sites at temperatures between 250°C and 500°C and with a peak at $\approx 330^\circ\text{C}$ ($p < 0.001$). Incubation reduced the TML in same temperature range with a peak at $\approx 330^\circ\text{C}$ ($p < 0.01$). In temperature ranges below 200°C, peak shifts appear to be dependent on soil type. However, TML in these temperature ranges is not discussed as part of SOM in the literature, and the bound water in the air-dried soil samples has not been investigated. For this reason, these changes will not further discussed in this study.

The addition of organic amendments resulted mainly in changing dynamics of TML in temperature interval from 200°C to 500°C with individual peaks (Fig. 4a). For example, ST or SF showed a clear peak in TML at $\approx 330^\circ\text{C}$ ($p < 0.01$), whereas FYM decayed continuously in a wide temperature range between 200 and 500°C. In contrast, CC application caused the highest increase of TML at higher temperature around 500°C. Incubation-induced changes are highest for ST and SF in the same temperature range as before incubation $\approx 330^\circ\text{C}$, $p < 0.01$;

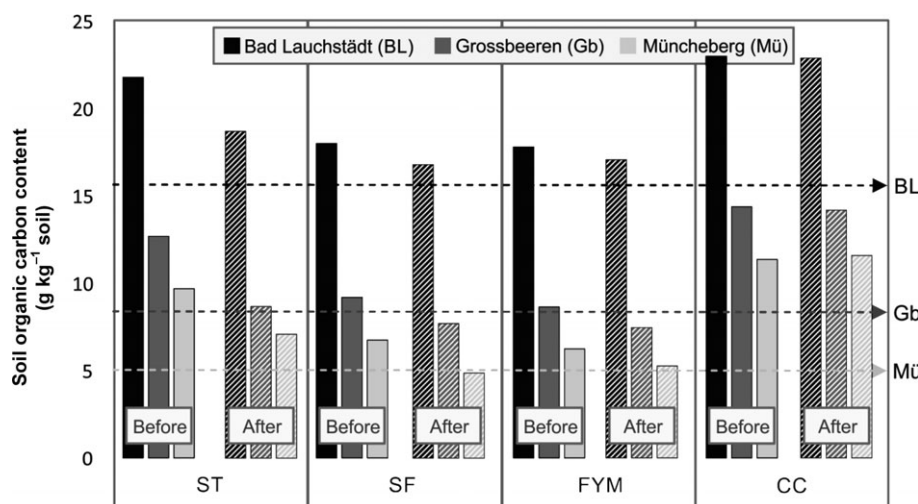


Figure 2: Organic carbon content in artificial mixtures of non-fertilized soils in long-term field experiments in Bad Lauchstädt (BL, black), Grossbeeren (Gb, dark grey), and Müncheberg (Mü, pale grey) each spiked with 60 Mg ha⁻¹ fresh matter of straw (ST), sheep faeces (SF), farmyard manure (FYM), and charcoal (CC) before and after 120 days of laboratory incubation. Horizontal dotted lines indicate the initial soil organic carbon contents of non-treated soils from LTAE-plots without fertilization.

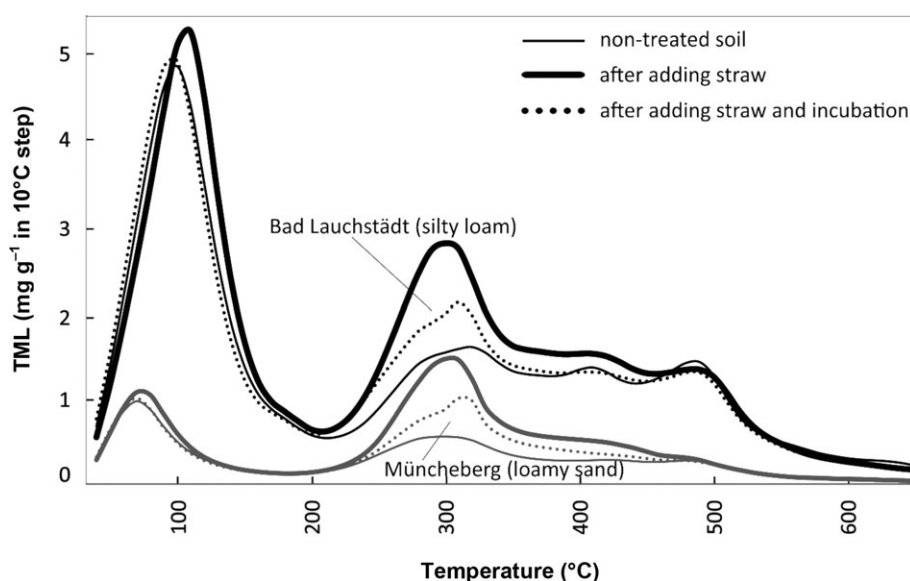


Figure 3: Dynamics of thermal mass losses (TML) for artificial mixtures of soils from selected sites with added straw (60 Mg ha⁻¹ fresh matter or 4.6 g C kg⁻¹ soil) before incubation (bold solid lines) and after incubation (dotted lines) compared to non-treated soils (thin solid lines).

Fig. 4b). FYM was degraded in larger temperature interval, but with a reduced mass loss intensity. The effects of CC were occurred mainly above 450°C (not significant).

In addition, correlation analyses of the artificial soil mixtures confirmed close relationships between the measured CO₂-C evolution and the incubation-induced changes in TML (differences in TML before and after incubation). For example, CO₂-C evolution during incubation experiments correlates with TML at 300°C ($R^2 = 0.96$) (similarly as in Kučerik and Siewert, 2014) and with TML at 410°C ($R^2 = 0.95$).

3.2 Incubation induced changes in soils from LTAEs

In all treatments with application of farmyard manure (FYM), we found the highest CO₂-C evolution ($p < 0.05$ by Tukey-HSD test) in both LTAEs in Bad Lauchstädt (Fig. 5a) and Müncheberg (Fig. 5b). Plant residues from corn (Bad Lauchstädt, V494) and weed flora succession (self-greening, Bad Lauchstädt, V505a) showed minor differences compared to FYM, but higher CO₂-C evolution when compared to non-fertilized and bare fallow treatments.

In Müncheberg, the treatments without fertilization and with mineral nitrogen (N) application indicated lowest values compared to samples with FYM ($p < 0.001$) and straw ($p < 0.05$ compared to non-fertilized plots only). Nevertheless, a site influence (clay content) was verified by higher values in Müncheberg compared to Bad Lauchstädt ($p < 0.001$, Fig. 5, small insets).

We found significantly larger changes in TML between 200 and 500°C for FYM with corn compared to bare fallow (Fig. 6a). Incubation had less influence on TML, which varied with the investigated temperature range. Therefore, minor changes occurred in treatments with FYM and corn in TML at $\approx 330^\circ\text{C}$ (no significant), while a significant reduction after incubation can only be observed at $\approx 450^\circ\text{C}$ ($p < 0.001$). Self-greening produced larger TML between 200 and 550°C (with a peak at $\approx 330^\circ\text{C}$) compared to mechanical bare fallow (Fig. 6b). Incubation led to a reduction in TML mainly at $\approx 330^\circ\text{C}$ ($p < 0.01$) for self-greening. In treatments with mechanical fallow, the incubation-induced changes were particularly visible in TML at $\approx 450^\circ\text{C}$ (increase, $p < 0.001$).

ments with mechanical fallow, the incubation-induced changes were particularly visible in TML at $\approx 450^\circ\text{C}$ (increase, $p < 0.001$).

In Figure 7a, samples with FYM (black solid line) are characterized by larger TML between 250 and 450°C compared to non-fertilized treatments (dotted grey line). Incubation reduced the influence of FYM (Fig. 7b) in TML with two peaks at $\approx 390^\circ\text{C}$ ($p < 0.01$) and at $\approx 450^\circ\text{C}$ ($p < 0.05$). The addition of straw (grey solid line, Fig. 7a) did not cause an increase in TML compared to the non-fertilized treatments (dotted grey

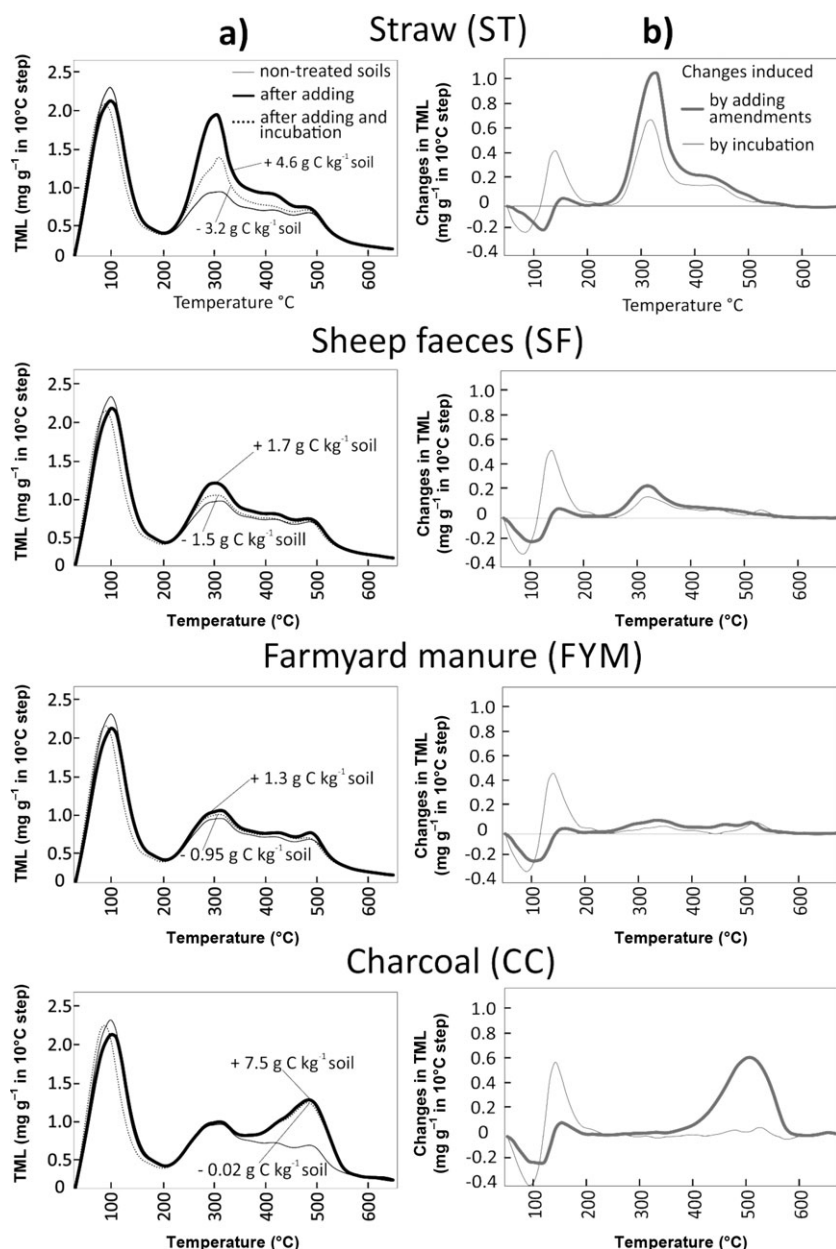


Figure 4: (a) Means of thermal mass losses (TML) of non-treated soils (black thin solid lines) presented as mean values of all sites (Bad Lauchstädt, Grossbeeren, Müncheberg) and artificial soil mixtures presented as mean values of all sites before incubation (black bold solid lines) and after incubation (black dotted lines). (b) Means of changes in dynamics of TML of all sites presented as differences between mixtures and non-treated soils before incubation (grey bold solid lines) and of artificial soil mixtures presented as differences between non-incubation and incubation (grey thin solid lines). Numbers show the amounts of added carbon to soils (+ value) and the mineralized carbon after 120 days of incubation (– value) presented as means of all sites

line, Fig. 7a), whereas the incubation reduced the TML at $\approx 380^\circ\text{C}$ ($p < 0.05$) only (Fig. 7b). In case of N and non-fertilization, no significant changes in TML before and after incubation were found.

Correlation analyses of the soils from LTAEs revealed close relationships between $\text{CO}_2\text{-C}$ evolution in incubation experiments and incubation-induced changes in TML. The highest linear coefficient of correlation was found for $\text{CO}_2\text{-C}$ evolution

with TML at 340°C ($R^2 = 0.75$), at 430°C ($R^2 = 0.79$) and for TML at 500°C ($R^2 = 0.81$).

4 Discussion

The estimated order in the increase of $\text{CO}_2\text{-C}$ evolution after adding organic amendments to soils (artificial soil mixtures; Fig. 1) confirms literature data about the amendment-specific biodegradability in soils (charcoal < farmyard manure < sheep faeces < straw) (Atkinson et al., 2010; Guenet et al., 2010; Grunwald et al., 2016; Hansen et al., 2016; Sarma et al., 2017; Teutscherova et al., 2017; Li et al., 2018a). Aside from mineralization during incubation, the added organic amendments increased the OC content in soils (Tab. 2b). Dynamics of TML mirrored these changes in OC content caused by both adding amendments (Tokarski et al., 2018) and their incubation in soils (Figs. 2 and 3). Main differences in $\text{CO}_2\text{-C}$ evolution and OC content between sites (LTAEs) can be explained with interdependency between content of SOC and clay (Hassink, 1997; Körschens and Pfefferkorn, 1998; Barkusky, 2009; Rühlmann, 2009; Franko and Merbach, 2017). Similar results can be found in the inset of Fig. 1, where microbiological degradation is expressed in incubation experiments in g $\text{CO}_2\text{-C}$ per g SOC. However, a dependence of the biological degradation of the added organic amendments on the clay content of the soil is not proved. Because the $\text{CO}_2\text{-C}$ evolution per kg soil was very similar at all sites (LTAEs, Fig. 1), we conclude that a clay-dependent mineralization from organic amendments can be concealed by the established clay-dependent organic carbon accumulation in soils or by carbon protection mechanisms. These considerations challenge the assessment of the biodegradability of SOM.

In the carried out experiments with both sample sets, the recording of thermal decay dynamics reveal changes in SOM by the addition of organic fertilizers to different soils in temperature ranges between 200 and 550°C . Microbiological degradation

changes TML in same temperature ranges (Figs. 4, 6, and 7). This temperature area is known for thermal decomposition of organic matter (Plante et al., 2009; Méndez et al., 2013; Pallasser et al., 2013).

Biodegradability of organic amendments is a factor determining SOM quality and should be verifiable by incubation and thermogravimetric experiments. In our experiments, straw (in artificial soil mixtures) for example showed an effect on

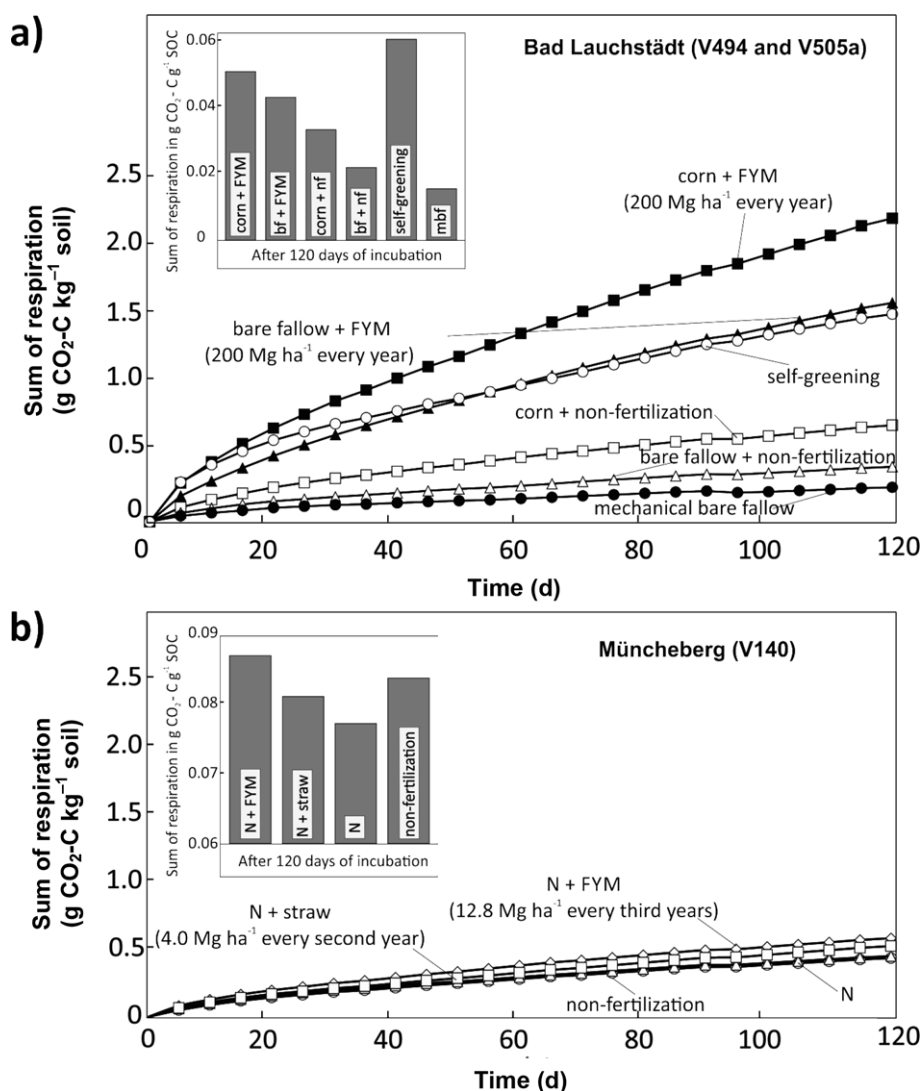


Figure 5: Dynamics of CO₂-C evolution per kg soil in incubation experiments with soils of different fertilization treatments from three long-term agricultural field experiments in (a) Bad Lauchstädt and (b) Müncheberg. The small inset shows the CO₂-C evolution per g SOC after 120 days of incubation. FYM = farmyard manure; bf = bare fallow; nf = non-fertilization; mbf = mechanical bare fallow; N = nitrogen.

CO₂-C evolution and incubation-induced changes in TML at $\approx 330^\circ\text{C}$. Plante et al. (2011) and Siewert et al. (2012) identified biodegradable SOM primarily in temperatures below 400°C . However, the incubation of soils of the LTAE in Müncheberg with long-term straw application (soils from LTAEs, Fig. 7) did not show large effects compared to straw in artificial soil mixtures. These results, however, can be explained with the high degradability of straw (Powelson et al., 2011, Hansen et al., 2016), with its low application rate (4 Mg ha^{-1} every second year), and with sampling of soils in the second year after straw application.

The LTAEs in Bad Lauchstädt did not contain any treatments with straw. However, corn and succession of weed flora (self-greening) seem to have similar impact as straw on both CO₂-C evolution and dynamics of TML with focus on temperatures $\approx 300^\circ\text{C}$ (Fig. 6). If one considers the mineral nitrogen

fertilization in the LTAE Müncheberg as a factor which promotes plant growth and the quantity of degradable plant residues in soils (Gregorich et al., 1996; Mohanty et al., 2013), similar changes can be observed as for straw (Fig. 7).

Summarizing these results, TML at $\approx 300^\circ\text{C}$ seems to be an indicator for biodegradable organic residues in agricultural soils (Kučerik et al., 2013).

Furthermore, this indicator is close to TML for predicting carbon contents (e.g., TML320–330; Siewert, 2004), which reflects a clay-dependent carbon accumulation. For this reason, TML $\approx 300^\circ\text{C}$ as an indicator for biodegradable components can be influenced by clay dependent organic carbon accumulation and requires a separate evaluation to distinguish freshly added carbon (organic amendments) from clay-dependent accumulated carbon.

The addition of sheep faeces (artificial soil mixtures) led to minor changes in CO₂-C evolution and in dynamics of TML compared to straw. This can be explained by lower quantity of added carbon and lower dry matter content (Tokarski et al., 2018). However, the incubation-induced changes in thermal decay dynamics were observed in larger temperature ranges with less pronounced focus on TML at $\approx 300^\circ\text{C}$. These specifics could indicate a mixture of both biodegradable (e.g., fresh forage) and stabilized organic components in result of its origin (e.g., digestion).

Farmyard manure in artificial soil mixtures caused even smaller changes in CO₂-C evolution compared to straw and sheep faeces. The repeated application of farmyard manure in LTAEs showed a higher influence with different impacts on CO₂-C evolution in Müncheberg and Bad Lauchstädt. A lower effect in artificial soil mixtures can be explained by the small quantity of added carbon and as a result of the lower dry matter content compared to straw, for example. The site-dependent influence on CO₂-C evolution of soils from LTAEs may be caused by the different quantities of added fertilizers (Bad Lauchstädt: 200 Mg ha^{-1} per year; Müncheberg: 12 Mg ha^{-1} every three years).

In both sample sets, changes in dynamics of TML caused by the addition and incubation of farmyard manure are located at the same temperature interval of 200 to 500°C . A missing

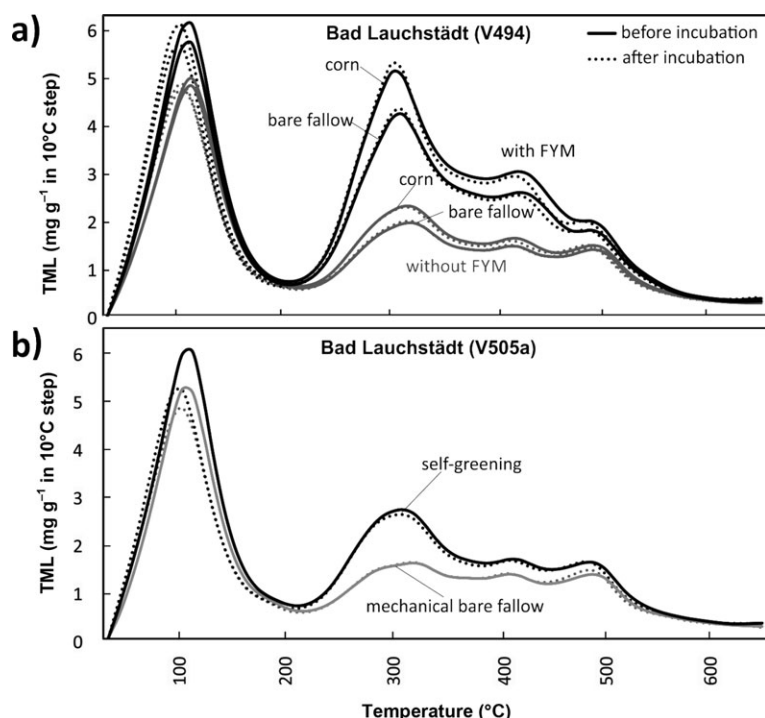


Figure 6: Dynamics of thermal mass losses (TML) for selected treatments of (a) V494 and (b) V505a in Bad Lauchstädt presented as mean values before (solid lines) and after incubation (dotted lines). FYM = farmyard manure.

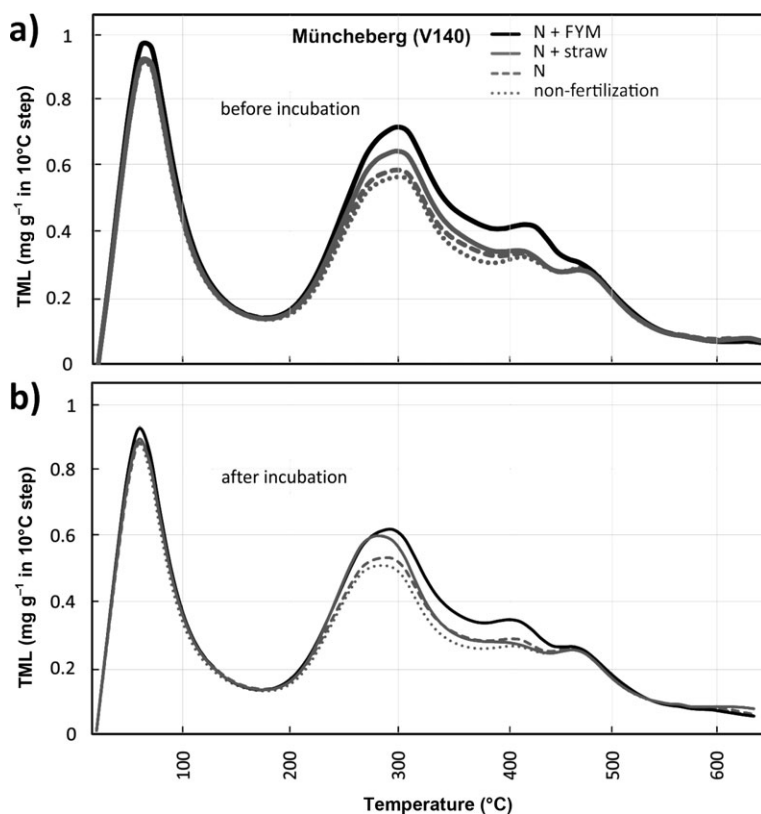


Figure 7: Dynamics of thermal mass losses (TML) for selected treatments of V140 in Müncheberg presented as mean values (a) before and (b) after incubation. FYM = farmyard manure, N = nitrogen.

emphasis on TML $\approx 300^\circ\text{C}$ may result from a lower proportion of biodegradable components due to digestion and humification processes during storage of this fertilizer (Quatmane et al., 2000; Sánchez et al., 2008). This special feature of farmyard manure reflects a better comparability with SOM characteristics compared to other organic fertilizers (Haynes and Naidu, 1998; Lima et al., 2009). This challenges the detection of farmyard manure using thermal decay dynamics (Tokarski et al., 2018) and underlines the necessity of distinguishing between different SOM components for their assessment in land use. It provokes again questions to what extent organic amendments and clay content influence carbon accumulation in soils (Palm et al., 2014).

Charcoal as an example for black carbon is distinguished from other organic amendments by higher thermal stability (Leifeld, 2007; Plante et al., 2009; Cimò et al., 2014) and low biological degradability (Atkinson et al., 2010; Cayuela et al., 2014; Grunwald et al., 2016; Sarma et al., 2017).

This particularity of charcoal explains the lack of significant changes in $\text{CO}_2\text{-C}$ evolution notwithstanding the high quantity of added carbon. Nevertheless, charcoal seems to be traceable in artificial soil mixtures using TML above 450°C (Tokarski et al., 2018).

The different levels of correlation coefficients between $\text{CO}_2\text{-C}$ evolution and TML for both artificial soil mixtures and soils from LTAEs can be explained by the differing proportion of added, degraded or accumulated organic components of SOM (Kučerík et al., 2016; Tokarski et al., 2018). Studies by Peltre et al. (2013) showed similar trends in changing diagnostic temperatures which were explained by different protective mechanisms of SOM and their interaction with soil minerals.

In summary, a combined evaluation of thermogravimetric analyses before and after incubation seems to provide information about biodegradation processes of SOM. However, overlapping TML's caused by organic amendments (e.g., fresh residues or fertilizers) and SOM (clay-dependent accumulated carbon) requires adopted evaluation approaches. A possible approach could be the use of thermal mass losses in larger predefined temperature ranges (Kučerík et al., 2018) which can combine traditional fractionation of SOM with modern approaches such as density fractionation and mass spectroscopy for SOM quality determination (Wiesmeier et al., 2014; Schiedung et al., 2017).

5 Conclusion

In contrast to conclusions of Schiedung et al. (2017) about biological stability is not reflected in

thermo-oxidative fractions, this study hints on a detectability of microbial degradation processes via recording of thermal mass losses in two independent experiments. However, these conclusions are based on methods for the assessment of thermal decay dynamics that go beyond the application of traditional peak analysis. Suitable reference objects are needed to compensate for the variety of unknown overlapping thermal degradation processes and to develop necessary evaluation algorithms. The conditioning of air-dried soil samples at comparable humidity and the content of bound water or clay in soil samples should be considered as a prerequisite to detect the interactions between thermal and biological degradability of SOM and its components. Such sample preparation may support the indirect distinction between soil organic carbon and organic carbon of fresh plant residues, organic fertilizers or other origin (e.g., charcoal) for the future assessment of SOM.

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