1 Multi-functional assessment of soil health under Conservation Agriculture in Cambodia

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28 Abstract

As a response to the worldwide challenge raised by soil degradation, Conservation 29 Agriculture (CA) was proposed to help restoring the three main soil functions, i.e. carbon 30 transformation, nutrient cycling and structure maintenance. However, there is still a lack of 31 integrative studies that assess the overall impact of CA on soil health. To fill the gap, 32 33 Biofunctool[®], a set of in-field indicators, was developed to monitor changes in soil biological functioning. In this study, Biofunctool® was used to assess the impact of a conventional 34 35 tillage (CT) and three CA annual-based cropping systems on soil health on a Cambodian Oxisol. Eight indicators related to the three soil functions were monitored and integrated 36 into a Soil Quality index (SQI), i.e. the Biofunctool[®] Index. Overall, we found that soil health 37 was twice higher under the CA treatments than under CT treatment. Although it was similar 38 39 in the three CA treatments, the contribution of each soil function to the soil health diverged. An analysis of soil carbon dynamics also showed that CA support short-term soil organic 40 carbon stabilization compared to CT. This study demonstrates that Biofunctool® is a robust, 41 42 relevant, time-and cost-effective in-field assessment tool that can be used in multiple ways 43 including cropping system management, capacity building of local stakeholders, and policy 44 dialogue.

45 Introduction

In agriculture, the soil system has historically been seen as a medium for food production, 46 while it is also a source of further supporting, regulating and cultural services which are 47 crucial for human well-being (Adhikari and Hartemink, 2016). However, this system is widely 48 jeopardized and especially in Asia, where Montanarella et al. (2016) showed that soils are 49 50 under pressure for commodities production (i.e., maize, cassava) generating soil erosion, soil 51 organic carbon (SOC) depletion, and nutrient imbalance. These threats are confirmed in Cambodia where in 2008, 43% of the territory was estimated to be degraded due to 52 intensification of agriculture after forest clearance, and that degradation affected almost 25 53 % of the population living on degraded areas (Bai et al., 2008). Under this context, there is a 54 need to promote sustainable agricultural management, to limit soil degradation and to 55 56 improve soil functioning.

57 As a response, it is recognized that Conservation Agriculture (CA) may strengthen a large set of soil ecosystem services (Palm et al., 2014). CA is based on three technical principles which 58 59 are (i) minimum soil disturbance, (ii) retention of crop and cover crop residues and (iii) use of diversified cropping patterns (FAO, 2014; Séguy et al., 2006). CA was promoted for providing 60 multiple beneficial effects on soil physical (Indoria et al., 2017; Patra et al., 2019), biological 61 (Lienhard et al., 2013; Mathew et al., 2012; Souza et al., 2018) and chemical properties (Ivy 62 63 et al., 2017; Parihar et al., 2018; Ranaivoson et al., 2017). Amongst soil chemical properties, soil organic carbon (SOC) was widely studied under CA, due to its potential to adapt farming 64 systems to climate change and variability, and mitigate the effects of climate change through 65 carbon sequestration (Lal, 2013). Globally, these studies allowed to provide process-based 66 67 analysis of the soil physical, biological and/or chemical compartments, as affected by CA

68 practices. However, such analyses do not seem sufficient to propose consistent soil health69 assessments.

Soil health was defined by Kibblewhite et al., (2008) as the capacity of a soil to produce a 70 good quantity and quality food and fibre together with the delivery of other ecosystem 71 72 services. However in most studies in the literature, all variables used to assess soil health are 73 treated without proper consideration of their role along the soil health causal chain. Indeed, 74 there is often no consideration of the cause/consequence relation between soil properties, 75 soil functions and soil ecosystem services (Ivy et al., 2017; Lienhard et al., 2013; Thierfelder and Wall, 2012), while the realization of soil properties leads to the expression of soil 76 functions which allows a soil to provide ecosystem services (Kibblewhite et al., 2008; Su et 77 al., 2018). Also, many of the published studies do not, or weakly, consider the interactions 78 79 between the different soil compartments (e.g. Das et al., 2014), which should be at the heart of soil health assessments (Karlen et al., 1997; Kibblewhite et al., 2008; Rinot et al., 80 81 2019). These classical approaches are also usually based on the accumulation of distinct soil 82 properties measurements (e.g. soil organic carbon, soil biodiversity...). The lack of consensus 83 on this causal chain, the different interaction between soil properties and the addition of separated soil health indicators lead to different considerations of the components of soil 84 systems which may lead to misleading conclusions on soil functioning assessment. To fill this 85 86 gap, integrative approaches based on the results of soil physical-biological-chemical interactions should be implemented (Kibblewhite et al., 2008; Vogel et al., 2018; Rinot et al., 87 2019). Finally, assessments should be easily transferable to smallholder farmers, 88 89 development practitioners and land managers who are the first beneficiaries of soil health 90 (Idowu et al., 2008), but most studies rely on laboratory tools, protocols, and complicated

91 data-analysis interpretation which may limit the further dissemination of new practices
92 (Bünemann et al., 2018).

Thoumazeau et al. (2019a) proposed Biofunctool[®], an operational framework to address soil 93 94 health assessment and its quantification in a holistic manner, taking into consideration soil component interactions. Biofunctool® does not address nor evaluate soil mechanisms, but 95 96 proposes a methodology to assess the impact of agricultural practices on soil health by 97 studying three main soil functions identified by Kibblewhite et al. (2008), namely (i) carbon 98 transformation, (ii) nutrient cycling and (iii) structure maintenance. Biofunctool® consists in a core-set of 10 integrative, in-field, and low-tech indicators that may easily be transferred 99 to land managers. In previous studies, Biofunctool® was applied and validated over a 100 101 gradient of soil disturbance in Thailand, on rubber plantations (Thoumazeau et al., 2019b). In 102 addition, part of the Biofunctool[®] set, two indicators (i.e. POXC and SituResp[®]) may provide further indications on soil carbon dynamics (mineralisation vs. stabilization, see Hurisso et 103 al., 2016) which have a particular interest under the current environmental context (Lal, 104 105 2013).

106 The aim of our study is to make an integrative and quantified assessment of several CA-107 based cropping systems on soil health. To do so, the Biofunctool[®] set of indicators was used to assess the impact of contrasted agricultural practices on soil health in a long-term 108 109 experiment in Cambodia uplands. Biofunctool[®] indicators were grouped according to the three main soil functions and finally integrated into a Biofunctool® Index. The impact of CA 110 vs. CT cropping system on soil functions, indexes and short-term SOC dynamics were 111 112 analysed. The potential applications of the Biofunctool[®] set are finally discussed and further 113 methodological perspectives are proposed.

114 2) Materials and methods

115 **2.1)** Site description and experimental design

The experiment is located at the Bos Khnor experimental station that belongs to the General 116 Directorate of Agriculture (GDA), Bos Khnor Commune, Chamkar Leu District, Kampong 117 118 Cham province, in Cambodia (latitude 12°12'30" N, longitude 105°19'07"E, 118m elevation, 119 no slope). The history of the station was described in Hok et al. (2015). Soil is made of 68.2% 120 clay, 30.3% silt and 1.5% sand at 0-10 cm depth, and is classified as a Ferralsol or Red Oxisol 121 in the FAO and USDA soil classification, respectively. According to the Köppen classification, the climate at the experimental site is Aw with rainfall concentrated during the wet season 122 (May to November). The mean annual precipitation (2009–2017) in the experimental site 123 124 was 1577 mm. The mean annual minimum and maximum temperatures were 23 °C and 32 °C respectively on the period 2009-2014 (NCEP, 2016). The experiment was implemented in 125 126 2009 by the Conservation Agriculture Service Center (CASC), Department of Agricultural 127 Land Resources Management (DALRM, GDA) under a partnership with the Centre de 128 Coopération Internationale en Recherche Agronomique pour le Développement (CIRAD). A 129 randomized block design experiment was established consisting in four treatments, three replicates with a plot dimension of 8 m × 37.5 m. The four treatments are (i) conventional 130 tillage (CT) system in which soybean (Glycine mac (L) Merr.) is cropped in annual succession 131 132 with sesame (Sesamum indicum), (ii) direct seeding mulch-based cropping system (CA) in 133 which soybean is cropped as a monoculture (CA 1), and (iii) bi-annual rotation of soybean and maize (Zea Mays) under CA management (CA 2a and CA 2b). In 2017, due to inaccurate 134 density of soybean, rice-bean (Vigna umbellata) was used (Table 1). The experiment was 135 136 designed to compare the conventional tillage management represented by one cash crop 137 per year (soybean) under plow-based management (CT), with cropping systems involving 138 different cropping pattern and biomass-C inputs under no-tillage (CA 1, CA 2a and CA 2b).

139 **2.2)** Cropping systems management

140 2.2.1) Agroecology and rotations engineering

Soybean in conventional tillage (CT) represents the standard cropping system of smallholder 141 142 farmers. Under CA 1, Stylosanthes guianensis (cv. CIAT 184) was used as cover crop and 143 seeds are broadcasted 30 days before soybean (rice-bean in 2017) maturation. S. guianensis started growing at the end of the wet season, passed the dry season and was terminated at 144 145 the end of June using a roller crimper with cutting discs. Soybean (rice-bean in 2017) was then sown mid-July. Under the bi-annual rotation (CA 2a and 2b), S. guianensis was 146 associated with maize at sowing, and S. guianensis and Sorghum bicolor seeds were 147 148 broadcasted 30 days before soybean maturation. All crops and cover crops used were grown under rainfed conditions. The cropping sequence is presented in Table 1. As a result of those 149 150 cropping patterns, CA treatments receive annually from 2.5 to 3 times more biomass-C 151 inputs (above-ground biomass resulting from main crops and cover crops) than CT (Table 1).

152 2.2.2) Agricultural practices

Tillage for CT treatment consists in disc ploughing to a 15–20 cm depth prior soybean cultivation. Soybean, rice-bean in 2017, and maize were sown with a no-till planter (Fitarelli or Vence Tudo). Under CA management, crop residues of the main crops and cover crops are left on the soil surface after the harvest. In case of poor development of the cover crops during the dry season, sorghum, pearl millet (*Pennisetum typhoides*) and/or sunn-hemp (*Crotalaria juncea*) are intercropped for 60 to 75 days with *S. guianensis* to increase the biomass-C inputs early in the wet season.

Since 2009, thermo phosphate (16% P_2O_5 , 31% CaO and 16% MgO, 200 kg.ha⁻¹) has been applied in March followed by potassium chloride (KCl, 0-0-60, 50 kg.ha⁻¹) mid-May. From

162 2009 to 2013, inorganic fertilization was based on the use of urea (46-0-0, 50 kg.ha⁻¹ at 163 sowing on soybean and maize, and 100 kg.ha⁻¹ for maize 25 days after sowing). N and P 164 fertilization was modified in 2014. Since that, a basal fertilizer is applied at sowing on 165 soybean (100 kg.ha⁻¹ of 18-46-0) and maize (150 kg.ha⁻¹ of 16-20-0) and a top-dressing with 166 urea is added on maize (100 kg.ha⁻¹). Fertiliser inputs are detailed in supplementary reading 167 1.

168 **2.3)** Soil sampling and analysis

169 2.3.1) Biofunctool® indicators

170 Biofunctool[®] consists in a core-set of ten functional indicators that directly assess three main 171 soil functions: carbon transformation, nutrient cycling and soil structure maintenance (Thoumazeau et al., 2019a). However, due to on-field rodents destruction, two indicators of 172 the core-set, based on *in situ* incubation could not be analysed i.e., bait lamina and anion 173 174 exchange membranes. Also, even though earthworms were observed, cast could very hardly 175 be differentiated to soil aggregates due to the soil type and colour. In order to avoid misleading measurements, cast indicator was not integrated in the set of measurements. 176 Notwithstanding these experimental inconveniences, Biofunctool[®] was applied as i) the bait 177 lamina is one of the less sensitive to land management and rather describe inter-plot spatial 178 heterogeneity (Thoumazeau et al., 2019b), ii) nutrient cycling function was adapted by 179 splitting the results of NH4⁺ and NO3⁻ from soil extraction, and iii) earthworm activity was 180 also indirectly integrated with other indicators such as water infiltration and aggregate 181 stability. 182

All in all, we analysed 8 indicators with (1) for the carbon transformation function: Permanganate oxidizable carbon (POXC, (Weil et al., 2003)) and basal soil respiration

(SituResp[®], (Thoumazeau et al., 2017)), (2) for the nutrient cycling function, available ammonium (NH_4^+) and nitrates (NO_3^-) from soil extraction with 1M KCl, and (3) for the soil structure maintenance function: surface aggregates at 0-2 cm depth (AggSurf) and soil aggregates at 2-10 cm depth (AggSoil) (Herrick et al., 2001), water infiltration (Beerkan) (Lassabatère et al., 2006) and VESS at 0-30 cm depth (Guimarães et al., 2011).

Soil samples were collected in November 2017 and the sampling was done at 0-10 cm depth (except for the VESS). Three sampling points (inner-replicates) were collected per plot representing 36 soil samples for the Biofunctool[®] analysis (except for the VESS indicator with only one replicate per plot collected).

194 2.3.2) Soil physico-chemical analysis

195 In addition to Biofunctool® indicators, further soil analysis were undertaken in the laboratory. Soil bulk density was sampled at each sampling points and measured by the core 196 197 method (Blake and Hartge, 1986). Sub-samples of 2 mm sieved bulk soils were finely ground (<150 mm) and analysed for total C and N concentrations by dry combustion method (Van 198 Moort and De Vries, 1970) using an elemental CHN analyser (Thermo Flash 2000). P 199 concentrations were measured with the P Olsen method (Olsen et al., 1954), and finally pH 200 was measured in water, using a 1:3 ratio (Table 2). All the analysis were implemented in 201 202 Eco&Sols laboratory, Montpellier, France.

203 2.4) Statistical analysis

Statistical analysis were computed using R software (R Development Core Team, 2008). Each Biofunctool[®] indicator was first studied separately using a linear-mixed effects model (package lme4, (Bates et al., 2015)). Treatment was defined as fixed factor and replicates (plots and inner-replicates) as random factors. After checking the normality of the model's

residuals and homoscedasticity of variances' residuals, ANOVAs were run using the car
package (Fox and Weisberg, 2011). This was followed by post-hoc mean comparisons, using
Tukey with adjustment Bonferroni (Hothorn et al., 2008). As the VESS was sampled at 0-30
cm, a weighted score average was calculated and based on 0-10 cm depth only.

After studying each indicator separately, they were computed within a Principal Component 212 213 Analysis (PCA) (FactomineR package, (Lê et al., 2008)) based on the mean of their three replicates (except for NO₃⁻, see Figure 2). The last step of analysis consisted in calculating the 214 Biofunctool[®] index, for which the methodology was defined by Obriot et al. (2016) and 215 Thoumazeau et al. (2019a). This indicators' aggregation followed by scorings have already 216 been handled by many authors (Armenise et al., 2013; Askari and Holden, 2015; Ngo-217 218 Mbogba et al., 2015; Yu et al., 2018). In our case two adaptations to the original scoring 219 methodology of Obriot et al. (2016) and Thoumazeau et al. (2019a) were computed. First, concerning the scoring function of the VESS indicator, it was rather considered as an 220 optimum at a score of 2.5 than following "the less the better" response curve. According to 221 222 expert opinion, it was agreed that a highly friable soil corresponded to a disaggregated soil 223 and thus could not be associated to an optimum. Then, in the study, a statistical PCA variable 224 weighting was implemented to provide the same weight to each soil function. This allowed 225 to study the absolute contribution of each function to the total index, rather than focusing 226 only on relative evolution along the treatment studied. After calculation of the index, a variance analysis of the contribution of each soil function to the final score was run using 227 228 one-way ANOVA.

The crossed-analysis of POXC and SituResp[®] was implemented following the conceptual framework proposed by Hurisso et al. (2016), based on the distribution of residuals of the linear regression (Im) between POXC and SituResp[®]. Repartition of model's residuals

between treatments was assessed using one-way ANOVA followed by a post-hoc mean comparison test, using HSD function (de Mendiburu, 2017). In addition, several t-test were performed to assess if the mean value of residuals per treatment was statistically different than 0. The "0 baseline" representing a state of equilibrium between mineralization (negative values) and short-term SOC stabilization (positive values).

237 **<u>3) Results</u>**

238 **3.1)** Impact of Conservation Agriculture on soil functioning

3.1.1) Impact of Conservation Agriculture on the three soil functions

All the indicators were sensitive to the agricultural practices studied, except the visual structure evaluation (VESS) and nitrate concentration (NO_3^{-}) (Table 3). The other six sensitive indicators showed significant higher values under CA compared to CT.

For carbon transformation indicators, POXC (C labile) and SituResp[®] (basal soil respiration) 243 244 values were three times higher in CA 1 when compared with CT. The evaluation of C 245 dynamics (stabilization vs. mineralisation), using regression residuals between values of POXC and SituResp[®], showed a gradual increase from CT to CA 1 (monoculture) to bi-annual 246 rotation (CA 2a and CA 2b). CT showed a significant C mineralization pattern (on average -247 248 292.72) (Figure 1; supplementary readings 2). By contrast, among CA treatments, soil under CA 2b exhibited a short-term SOC stabilization (p<0.05) when no significant impact was 249 250 observed under CA 1 and CA 2a.

For the structure maintenance function, results showed that soil of CT treatment tended to be less structured (score of VESS = 1.3), significantly less stable (AggSurf and AggSoil) and with a significant lower infiltration rate of water (2 times) compared to CA treatments. Also, for each treatment, an opposite pattern of aggregate stability with soil depth was observed.

255 It increased with depth for CT treatment (score increasing of 0.8) while it decreased for CA (-

256 0.7 score for CA 1 and CA 2a, -1.6 score for CA 2b).

- For the nutrient cycling function, only NH_4^+ concentrations significantly differed between treatments. In CA treatments, NH_4^+ was almost two times higher than in the CT treatment (on average 15 mg.kg⁻¹ vs 8.3 mg.kg⁻¹).
- 260 3.1.2) Impact of Conservation Agriculture on global soil health

261 In order to gather all the functional parameters, a principal component analysis (PCA) was 262 undergone (Figure 2). The first and second PCA axes represented 45.7% and 19.5% of the 263 total variability respectively. The PCA differentiated CA and CT and the difference was mainly related to three indicators linked to the soil functions studied with POXC (C transformation), 264 265 NH4⁺ (nutrient cycling), and AggSurf (soil structure). The Biofunctool[®] index values for CA treatments had average score of 0.64 (p<0.05), which is about twice the score of CT 266 267 treatment (Figure 3). Carbon transformation function was the most contributing function 268 explaining the differences in the index. Its contribution was more than two times higher in 269 the CA treatments.

3.2) Impact of rotation on soil functioning

3.2.1) Impact of rotation on the three soil functions

The indicators of carbon transformation function, POXC (C labile) and SituResp[®] did not differ between the three CA treatments (Table 3). Only CA 2b showed a significant C stabilisation dynamic (p=0.049) (Figure 1). For the two other CA treatments, although the regression mean residuals were positive, they were not significant (p>0.05) (Figure 1).

For the nutrient cycling function, NO_3^- concentrations appeared higher in CA 2a and CA 2b (Table 3). However, due to high data variability, these differences were not significant. No difference was noted in the NH_4^+ concentrations between the three CA treatments.

For the structure maintenance, no difference was found between the three CA treatments for VESS and aggregate stability, except for water infiltration which was almost two times higher under CA 1 than under CA 2b (p<0.05) (Table 3).

282 3.2.2) Impact of rotation on global soil health

The Biofunctool[®] index values were not significantly different for the three CA, but the contribution of each function to the index differed (Figure 3). The analysis of relative contributions to the Biofunctool[®] index show that CA 1 and CA 2b have a rather similar structure with (i) carbon transformation function contributing the most to the index (41-39%), (ii) soil structure maintenance (35-33%), and (iii) nutrient cycling function contributing the less (24-28%). Under CA 2a, functions were more evenly distributed, with relative contribution of the three functions reaching around one third of the final index.

290 **<u>4</u>**) Discussion

This study allowed to assess soil health under conservation agriculture, following a multifunctional approach, taking into account the interactions between the different soil

compartments based on a consistent set of soil indicators previously selected. The integration of all indicators in a multivariate analysis enabled to understand how soil functions are impacted by contrasted agricultural practices under a tropical climate on a clayey Oxisol.

297 **4.1)** Impact of Conservation Agriculture on soil health

4.1.1) Impact of CA on carbon transformation function

299 The increase of POXC confirms the measurements of Hok et al. (2018) on the same 300 experimental trial, who found more labile carbon under CA systems at 0-10 cm depth. On a 301 similar experiment in Brazil, Sá et al. (2014) also observed on average two times more POXC 302 under the no-till system up to 20 cm when compared with plough-based management. For soil respiration measurements, SituResp® values tended, or were significantly higher under 303 CA, thus showing an higher soil microbial activity linked to the improvement of 304 305 microorganisms habitat and the increase in soil labile carbon (Balota et al., 2004; Wang et 306 al., 2003). When integrating POXC and SituResp[®], CT and CA treatments follow a dynamic in 307 line with the results of Hurisso et al. (2016) i.e. CT tends to mineralize fresh organic carbon, when CA treatments tend to stabilize C inputs. Also, the results follow the trends of the 308 current literature highlighting the potential for carbon accumulation under CA management 309 310 systems (Lal, 2015; Powlson et al., 2016), mainly due to increased carbon inputs on superficial horizons (Fujisaki et al., 2018; Virto et al., 2012). 311

4.1.2) Impact of CA on the nutrient cycling function

Soil total nitrogen is higher under CA systems than CT with significant difference when comparing CT with CA 2a and CA 2b (Table 2). This trend is also observed for available NH_4^+ and NO_3^- . This result may be linked to the higher activities of decomposers and microbial

316 communities under CA when compared with CT (Baudoin et al., 2009). Hok et al. (2018), on the same experiment, emphasized that the β -glucosidase and aryl-sulfatase activities are 317 significantly higher under CA 2a and CA 2b when compared with CT at 0-5 cm depth. Indeed 318 no till practices stimulate the microbial biomass, enzyme activities and denitrification 319 processes especially in the upper soil surface (Baudoin et al., 2009; Bergstrom et al., 1998; 320 321 Rabary et al., 2008). The increase in NH₄⁺ and in some extend NO₃⁻, may be related to several factors including (i) the increase N inputs through symbiotic N₂-fixing pathways, (ii) diversity 322 323 and amount of organic inputs that may enhance soil decomposers and microbial communities activities (iii) no tillage practices that affect microbiota activities linked to the N 324 cycle (nitrifiers and denitrifiers) in the top soil (Krauss et al., 2017). In a study conducted in 325 middle-west region of Madagascar, Zemek et al. (2018) observed under low inputs rice-326 327 based cropping systems incorporating one-year long Stylosanthes quianensis fallow, a total N uptake of 225 kg.ha⁻¹, with 55% originating from the soil and 45% from the atmosphere. 328

4.1.3) Impact of CA on the structure maintenance function

330 The absence of tillage combined with presence of soil surface residues, living root systems of the cover crops during the dry season globally improved the structure maintenance function, 331 which confirms the conclusions made on the improvement of soil structure under CA 332 cropping systems (Hobbs et al., 2008; Indoria et al., 2017; Tivet et al., 2013). By contrast with 333 334 the study conducted by Castioni et al. (2018) on a Brazilian Oxisol (55% clay), VESS was less 335 sensitive to detect soil structure changes compared with aggregate stability. Thoumazeau et al. (2019b) also found that VESS was not sensitive to land management based on a 336 perturbation gradient with very contrasted land uses. In our system, the superficial layer (0-5 337 338 cm) seemed to be the main part affected by CA practices. This soil layer may not have been

339 studied precisely enough with the VESS method to raise differences between systems. In 340 order to answer this issue, methodological improvements should be proposed to refine the scoring methods and to readapt it to the studied system (Emmet-Booth et al., 2018). Then, 341 the better aggregate stability under CA is in agreement with several studies including those 342 by Nascente et al. (2015) and Ivy et al. (2017) under similar pedo-climatic conditions. Also, It 343 344 is recognized that CA-based cropping systems lead to stratification of soil aggregates and C 345 content (Mrabet, 2002; Patra et al., 2019; Tivet et al., 2013), with the highest accumulation 346 and aggregation on the surface layer. On the opposite, tillage disrupts top soil aggregates which leads to a uniform aggregates and carbon distribution. The stratification ratio, 347 calculated as AggSurf/AggSoil (Franzluebbers, 2002) ranged from 0.76 under CT to 1.42 348 349 under CA 2b. This stratification under CA can be directly attributed to the absence of soil 350 disturbance combined with higher biomass-C inputs from aboveground residues, root systems that strengthen soil aggregation in surface layers and contribute to build up a more 351 stable aggregated soil matrix (de Oliveira Ferreira et al., 2018; Indoria et al., 2017; Six et al., 352 353 2004). Despite a high variability among CA results, soil water infiltration tends to increase 354 under CA cropping systems. It is commonly recognized that water infiltration is improved 355 under no-tillage and residue cover (Powlson et al., 2011).

356 4.1.4) Global impact of CA on the soil functions

The main difference observed in terms of soil functioning was observed between conventional tillage (CT) and CA systems (CA 1, 2a and 2b). The Biofunctool[®] index showed a better soil health under CA than under CT. Therefore, in addition to the positive impact on numerous individual soil properties (Das et al., 2014; Hobbs et al., 2008; Kumar and Goh,

361 2000; Thierfelder and Wall, 2012), the multi-functional assessment of soil functions showed
362 an improvement of soil health under CA.

363 **4.2)** Impact of rotation on soil health

364 4.2.1) Impact of rotation on the three soil functions

Part of the carbon transformation function, POXC, although defined as a "soil fraction that is 365 sensitive to management" (Bongiorno et al., 2019; Culman et al., 2012), was not sensitive to 366 367 the crop rotation under CA in our case. This confirms the results of Hok et al. (2018) who 368 found similar POXC stocks in the three CA treatments in 2013 (2.5 Mg.ha⁻¹ for CA 1, 2.5 Mg.ha⁻¹ for CA 2a and 2.6 Mg.ha⁻¹ for CA 2b). Similarly, basal soil respiration did not allow to 369 370 distinguish CA treatments. Thus, even though these indicators (POXC and SituResp®) are 371 recognized to be sensitive to land management, the rotation effect was not highlighted. This result emphasized that high biomass-C inputs under CA management, root systems 372 373 deposition and rhizodeposites of crops and cover crops are predominant over the rotational 374 pattern. Despite no difference among individual indicators, when crossing POXC and SituResp®, the CA treatments seemed to reach an equilibrium between short-term SOC 375 376 mineralization and stabilization. Within the CA treatments, CA 2b was the only that showed a significant carbon stabilization. These information on carbon dynamics followed the 377 378 observation of Hok et al. (2015), who noted a higher increase in CA 2b SOC stock in 0-5 cm 379 depth in comparison with the other treatments.

No difference could be assessed between the three CA treatments for the nutrient cycling function, despite nutrient cycling is usually significantly impacted by the nature of the organic inputs and the long-term diversity of the cropping systems (Franchini et al., 2001; Pavinato and Rosolem, 2008). At the time of the soil sampling in November 2017, residues

384 on the top soil of each cropping system were at different stages of decomposition and mineralization. Under CA 2b, maize was harvested almost 4 weeks before the soil sampling. 385 Therefore, the decomposition process had started and, in addition, a new mix of cover crops 386 was sown (i.e., sorghum and sunnhemp) potentially leading to new rhizodeposites. By 387 388 contrast, under CA 1 and CA 2a, rice-bean was still under vegetative development and the 389 residues of former cover crops were already decomposed. Although this could not be highlighted by our measurements, the residues' diversity (i.e., crops and mix of cover crops) 390 391 may have provided organic inputs with different characteristics that may have impacted microbial communities build-up and turnover rate, thus differentiating kinetics of 392 decomposition processes and nutrients releases (Giacomini et al., 2003). 393 Further investigation on nutrient dynamics, as affected by rotations, should further be handled to 394 395 better understand the cycles. Also, the ion exchange membrane indicator could not be measured in this study and prevented us to conduct a complete assessment of the nutrient 396 cycling function. 397

The Beerkan indicator differentiated CA 1 and CA 2b, and the rice-bean cultivated in both plots in 2017 (CA 1 and CA 2a) may have a positive impact on water infiltration. The other indicators of structure maintenance and nutrient cycling were hardly sensitive to the rotation, therefore showing the importance of no-tillage and biomass–C inputs rather than the rotation itself.

Eventually we noted an improvement of inter-connected functions like C transformation, soil
structure maintenance, and nutrient cycling. This strengthens adaptive capacities under CA
systems.

406 4.2.2) Global impact of rotation on soil health

407 Even if the Biofunctool[®] index did not differ significantly under CA, contrasted patterns were observed. Rotation seemed to induce differences in the balance between soil functions. The 408 contributions of each function to the index were more balanced under CA 2a, with a higher 409 contribution of nutrient cycling than the others. However, the absence of significant 410 411 difference on this soil function in the index could be explained by an insufficient complexity 412 of the bi-annual rotation when compared with CA 1 where globally similar cover crops were 413 used. To answer this hypothesis, further studies with more complex cropping patterns 414 should be implemented. Also, CA 2a and CA 2b showed different patterns despite being a biannual rotation since 2009. Similar differences among a bi-annual rotation under CA systems 415 were observed on an alkaline soil in the Battambang province, Cambodia (Tivet, pers. com.). 416 The differences observed between CA 2a and CA 2b could be linked to the number of years 417 418 of the cropping pattern that has a significant impact on soil functioning despite being a biannual rotation since 2009, and/or to a legacy effect from the past use of the plots. 419

420 **4.3)** Is Biofunctool[®] adapted to annual cropping system?

Until now, the only published data on Biofunctool® came from a study in Thailand, 421 implemented over a contrasted gradient of disturbance in perennial cropping systems 422 (rubber plantations) and sandy soils (65 to 77% of sand) (Thoumazeau et al., 2019a; 2019b). 423 In our study, Biofunctool[®] was used on annual-based cropping systems in a very different 424 soil context (highly clayey red Oxisol). Globally, the Biofunctool® index was sensitive to 425 426 contrasted agricultural practices (perennial/annual, till/no-till) and the conclusions were consistent with other studies from the literature. This confirms the tools' robustness and the 427 relevance. 428

However, the Biofunctool[®] index did not raise difference between the monoculture and 429 rotations under CA systems. The impact of rotation on soil health is thus rather low 430 emphasizing that the biomass-C inputs (above-ground and below-ground) from the cover 431 crops are predominant over the rotational pattern. The indicators that could not be 432 433 implemented (Ion exchange membrane, Lamina and Cast) may have provided important information on carbon transformation or nutrient cycling function among the index. In the 434 future, and in such contexts, those Biofunctool® indicators should be modified, or better 435 protected to avoid on-field destruction. 436

437 <u>Conclusion</u>

The study was a first application of Biofunctool[®] under contrasted annual cropping systems 438 and showed to be well-adapted to an annual cropping system under tropical climate 439 conditions. The multi-functional study of soil health globally raised large differences 440 441 between tillage-based management and CA management on soil functioning. All tested 442 indicators improved under CA compared with CT (except VESS that was less sensitive to soil management), with a soil quality index twice higher under CA. These conclusions globally 443 444 confirm the trends in literature on the improvement of soil health under CA. Also, although biomass-C inputs and tillage were more important than the rotation pattern in the 445 improvement of soil health, the presence of rotation in the management pattern seemed to 446 447 induce a better balance between soil functions.

Further, Biofunctool[®] supports awareness raising of development practitioners and policy-448 makers on the negative impacts of current cultivation practices and demonstrates the 449 positive impacts of alternatives cultivation methods such as CA on soil health. After the 450 451 methodological development and the first applications in Thailand, Cambodia was another pilot country for Biofunctool[®] implementation. The Biofunctool[®] index was a good 452 453 communication tool, easy to explain to a range of stakeholders (i.e., smallholder farmers, development practitioners, and policy-makers), and thus appears to be an accurate pathway 454 455 to guide decision-making to improve cropping systems management, performances and 456 efficiency.

457 Conflict of interest

458 None.

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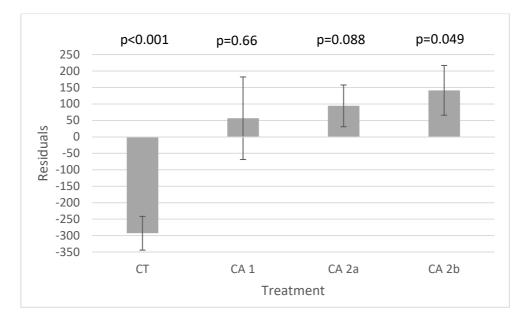


Figure 1. Mean values of regression residuals per treatment (n=9). (CT) Monoculture of soybean under conventional tillage, (CA 1) Monoculture of soybean under permanent cover crops, (CA 2a) Bi-annual rotation soybean-maize under conservation agriculture, and (CA 2b) Inversed bi-annual rotation maize-soybean under conservation agriculture. Regression was made between values of POXC and SituResp[®] (see supplementary readings 2). Residuals mean values below zero represent a trend of mineralizable soil organic C, the above-zero values reflect a trend of short-term SOC stabilization. Vertical line represents the standard error per treatment. The p-values correspond to t-test analysis of divergence from 0 (α =0.05).

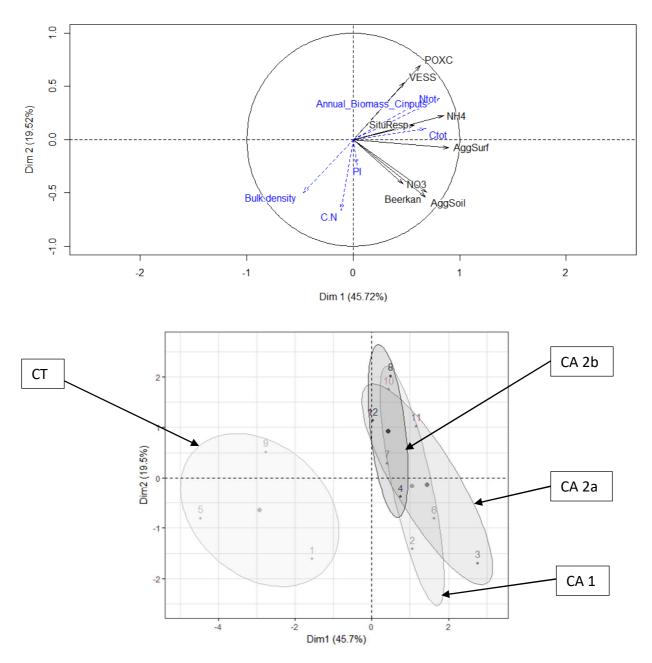
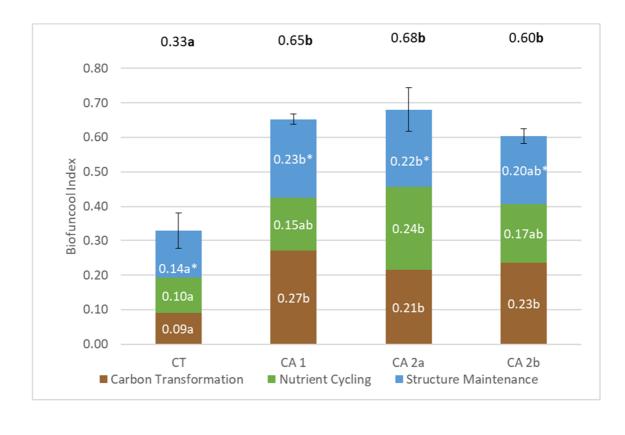


Figure 2. Principal component analysis for the impacts of contrasted cropping systems on soil health.

Top- Correlation circle. Values in blue are supplementary values, they are not used in the calculation of the PCA.

Bottom – Graph of individuals. (CT) Monoculture of soybean under conventional tillage, (CA 1) Monoculture of soybean under permanent cover crops, (CA 2a) Bi-annual rotation soybeanmaize under conservation agriculture, and (CA 2b) Inversed bi-annual rotation maize-soybean under conservation agriculture.

<u>Note:</u> NO_3^- showed extreme values probably due to the unequal repartition of residues between the different treatments. Therefore, we chose to keep them in the analysis, but as the variability was high (CV=95% and 186% for CA 2a and CA 2b respectively), the median was used to run the PCA.



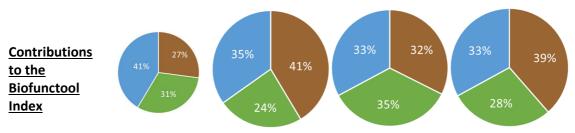


Figure 3. Biofunctool Index per treatment. (CT) Monoculture of soybean under conventional tillage, (CA 1) Monoculture of soybean under permanent cover crops, (CA 2a) Bi-annual rotation soybean-maize under conservation agriculture, and (CA 2b) Inversed bi-annual rotation maize-soybean under conservation agriculture. Standard error of the index is represented for each treatment. Below are shown the relative contribution of each of the three soil functions studied. Different letters mention significant differences at p <0.05 for Carbon Transformation and Nutrient cycling. *p<0.1 for Structure maintenance.

	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	Cumulative	Annual		
СТ	Se/Sb	Se/Sb	Se/Sb	Se/Sb	Se/Sb	Se/Sb	Se/Sb	Se/Sb	Rb	29.66	3.29		
CA 1	Mt /Sb+Brz	Brz(2009) /Sb+St	Mt /Sb+St+Sg	Mt /Sb+St	Sg+St(2012) /Sb+St+Sg	St+Sg(2013) /Sb+St+Sg	St+Sg(2014) /Sb+St+Sg	St+Sg(2015) /Sb+St+Sg	St+Sg(2016) /Rb*	73.45	8.16		
CA 2a	Mt+Cr+St/ Sb+St	Mt+Cr+St(2009) /Mz+St	Mt /Sb+St	Mt+Cr /Mz+St	Sg+St(2012) /Sb+St	St(2013) /Mz+St	St(2014) /Sb+St+Sg	St+Sg(2015) /Mz+St	St(2016) /Rb*	87.04	9.67		
CA 2b	Mt /Mz+Brz	Mt/Sb+St	Mt+Cr /Mz+St	St(2011) /Sb+St	Sg+Cr+St(2012) /Mz+St	St(2013) /Sb+St+Sg	St+Sg(2014) /Mz+St	St(2015) /Sb+St+Sg	St+Sg(2016) /Mz+Sg+Cr	90.04	10.01		

Table 1. Cropping system per treatment, cumulative and annual biomass-C inputs from 2009 to 2017. Adapted from Hok et al., (2018)

(CT) Monoculture of soybean under conventional tillage, (CA 1) Monoculture of soybean under permanent cover crops, (CA 2a) Bi-annual rotation soybean-maize under conservation agriculture, and (CA 2b) Inversed bi-annual rotation maize-soybean under conservation agriculture.

Cr: Crotolaria juncea; Mt: millet (Pennisetum typhoides Burm); St: Stylosanthes guianensis; Mz: maize (Zea mays L.); Se: sesame (Sesamum indicum); Sb: soybean (Glycine mac (L) Merr.); Brz: Brachiaria ruziziensis cv. Ruzi; Rb: rice-bean (Vigna umbellata); Sg: sorghum (Sorghum bicolor L.) left from the year in brackets. "/" indicates relay cropping with varying planting dates; "+" indicates crops planted in association (same or staggered sowing dates). * In 2017, due to inaccurate density of soybean, rice-bean (Vigna umbellata) was used.

Table 2. Soil characteristics per treatment. (CT) Monoculture of soybean under conventional tillage, (CA 1) Monoculture of soybean under permanent cover crops, (CA 2a) Bi-annual rotation soybean-maize under conservation agriculture, and (CA 2b) Inversed bi-annual rotation maize-soybean under conservation agriculture. Letters indicate significant differences according to Tuckey test. S.E stands for standard error, n=9 per treatment.

	Total Carbon* (g.kg ⁻¹)		Total Nitrogen (g.kg ⁻¹)		C/N		Inorganic Ph (g.kg	•	Bulk De (g.cn	•	pH_{water}	
Treatment	mean	S.E	mean	S.E	mean S.E		mean	S.E	mean	S.E	mean	S.E
СТ	21.3 a	0.7	1.68 a	5.4.10 ⁻²	12.7 bc 0.2		7.5.10 ⁻² ab	4.3.10 ⁻³	1.27 ns	2.9.10 ⁻²	6.02 ns	0.07
CA 1	22.6 a	0.6	1.74 a	4.8.10 ⁻²	13.0 c 0.1		8.2.10 ⁻² b	4.3.10 ⁻³	1.22 ns	2.0.10-2	6.01 ns	0.10
CA 2a	23.7 b	0.6	1.92 b	5.0.10 ⁻²	12.4 ab 0.1		7.2.10 ⁻² ab	4.7.10 ⁻³	1.18 ns	2.3.10 ⁻²	6.02 ns	0.12
CA 2b	23.6 b	0.4	1.94 b	3.7.10 ⁻²	12.2 a	0.1	6.2.10 ⁻² a	2.6.10 ⁻³	1.19 ns	3.2.10-2	5.89 ns	0.06
ANOVA	p<0.01		p<0.	p<0.001		p<0.001		01	p=0.1		p=0.6	

* The statistical analysis was made using log(Total Carbon) in order to gather all the hypothesis needed to run the ANOVA.

Table 3. Biofunctool[®] indicators per treatment. (CT) Monoculture of soybean under conventional tillage, (CA 1) Monoculture of soybean under permanent cover crops, (CA 2a) Bi-annual rotation soybean-maize under conservation agriculture, and (CA 2b) Inversed bi-annual rotation maize-soybean under conservation agriculture. The analysis was made in 0-10 cm depth, except for AggSurf (0-2 cm) and AggSoil (2-10 cm). n=9 for each treatment except for VESS where n=3 per treatment (no inner-replicate). Due to the loss of one sample, n=8 instead for CT of NO₃⁻ and NH₄⁺. Letters indicate significant differences according to Tuckey test.

	Ca	nsformatio	Structure maintenance									Nutrient cycling				
Treatment	POXC (mgC.kgsoil ⁻¹)		SituResp® (Absorbance difference)		VESS (Score)		Beerkan (ml.min ⁻¹)		AggSurf (Score)		AggSoil (Score)		NO₃ (mg.kg⁻¹)		NH4 (mg.kg ⁻¹)	
	mean	S.E	mean	S.E	mean	S.E	mean	S.E	mean	S.E	mean	S.E	mean	S.E	mean	S.E
СТ	272.1 a	51.3	0.12 a	3.2.10 ⁻²	2.1 ns	0.3	124.7 a	19.3	2.5 a	0.4	3.3 a	0.4	0.5 ns	5.7.10 ⁻²	8.3 a	0.6
CA 1	723.5 b	112.2	0.43 b	9.3.10 ⁻²	2.3 ns	0.2	263.7 b	25.6	5.4 b	0.3	4.7 b	0.5	0.5 ns	5.5.10 ⁻²	13.0 b	1.1
CA 2a	704.9 b	63.7	0.26 ab	5.5.10 ⁻²	2.5 ns	0.1	214.7 ab	40.7	5.5 b	0.2	4.8 b	0.2	2.6 ns	0.8	15.8 b	0.9
CA 2b	762.1 b	78.5	0.29 ab	6.3.10 ⁻²	2.4 ns	0.1	140.9 a	33.5	5.5 b	0.2	3.9 b	0.4	2.1 ns	1.3	14.9 b	0.8
ANOVA	ANOVA p<0.001		p=C	0.01	p=0.	4	p<0.001		p<0.001		p<0.001		p=0.1*		p<0.001	

*Based on the assumption that ANOVA is rather resistant to non-normality, an ANOVA was run for NO₃ without normality of residuals (p-value of shapiro test < 0.05)