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Review Article

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Effect of Conservation Tillage and Residue Management on Soil Organic Carbon Storage, Ecosystem Dynamics and Soil Microbial Biomass in Sub-tropical Agro-ecosystem: A Review

S. S. Dhaliwal¹, Yogesh Kumar², S. P. Singh³, Vivek⁴, Robin Kumar⁵, N. C. Mahajan⁶, S. K. Gupta⁷, Amit Kumar⁸, Mayank Chaudhary^{9*}, S. P. Singh¹⁰, S. K. Tomar¹¹ and R. K. Naresh⁴

¹Department of Soil Science, Punjab Agricultural University, Ludhiana, Punjab, India ²Department of Soil Science, ³KGK, Bareilly, ⁴Department of Agronomy, ⁹Department of GPB, ¹⁰K.V.K.Shamli, SardarVallabhbhai Patel University of Agriculture & Technology, Meerut, U.P., India ⁵Department of Soil Science, Narendra Dev University of Agriculture & Technology, Kumarganj, Ayodhya, U.P., India

⁶Department of Agronomy, Institute of Agricultural Sciences, Banaras Hindu University, Varanasi, U. P., India

⁷Department of Agronomy, Bihar Agricultural University - Sabour, Bhagalpur, Bihar, India ⁸Department of Agronomy, CCS Haryana Agricultural University – Hisar, Haryana, India ¹¹K.V.K.Belipur, Gorakhpur, Narendra Dev University of Agriculture & Technology, Kumarganj, Ayodhya, U.P., India *Corresponding author

ABSTRACT

Keywords

Ecosystem dynamics; microbial biomass, conservation tillage, straw return

Article Info

Accepted: 25 August 2019 Available Online: 10 September 2019 Investigating microbial metabolic characteristics and soil organic carbon (SOC) within aggregates and their relationships under conservation tillage may be useful in revealing the mechanism of SOC sequestration in conservation tillage systems. Crop residue retention has been considered a practicable strategy to improve soil organic carbon (SOC) but the effectiveness of residue retention might be different under varied tillage practices. The concentrations of SOC in the 0-10 cm layer were higher under no-tillage than under conventional tillage, no matter whether crop residues were retained or not. Residue retention increased SOC concentrations in the upper layers of soil to some degree for all tillage practices, as compared with residue removal, with the greatest increment of SOC concentration occurred in the 0-10 cm layer under rotary tillage, but in the 10-30 cm layer under conventional tillage. The stocks of SOC in the 0-50 cm depth increased from 49.89 Mg ha⁻¹ with residue removal to 53.03 Mg ha⁻¹ with residue retention. However, no-tillage did not increase SOC stock to a depth of 50 cm relative to conventional tillage, and increased only by 5.35% as compared with rotary tillage. Previous crop residue (S) treatments had higher SOC concentration of bulk soil (12.9%), >0.25 mm aggregate (11.3%), and <0.25 mm aggregate (14.1%) than residue removal (NS) treatments. Compared with conventional intensive tillage (CT) treatments, no tillage (NT) treatments increased MBC by 11.2%, 11.5%, and 20%, and dissolved organic carbon (DOC) concentration by 15.5%, 29.5%, and 14.1% of bulk soil, >0.25 mm aggregate, and <0.25 mm aggregate in the 0-5 cm soil layer, respectively. Compared with NS treatments, S treatments significantly increased MBC by 29.8%, 30.2%, and 24.1%, and DOC concentration by 23.2%, 25.0%, and 37.5% of bulk soil, >0.25 mm aggregate, and <0.25 mm aggregate in the 0–5 cm soil layer, respectively. Overall, straw return was an effective means to improve SOC accumulation, and soil quality. Straw return-induced improvement of soil nutrient availability may favor crop growth, which can in turn increase ecosystem C input. Tillage reduction and residue retention both increased the proportion of organic C and total N present in soil organic matter as microbial biomass. Microbial immobilization of available-N during the early phase of crops and its pulsed release later during the period of greater N demand of crops enhanced the degree of synchronization between crop demand and N supply. The maximum enhancement effects were recorded in the minimum tillage along with residue retained treatment. Furthermore, conservation tillage increased SOC in aggregates in the topsoil by improving microbial metabolic activities in the Sub-tropical Agro-ecosystem.

Introduction

Soil organic carbon (SOC) is an important soil component that plays a crucial role in soil fertility (Brar et al., 2013) environmental protection (Ghosh et al., 2018) and sustainable agricultural development (Li et al., 2018). It has therefore been regarded as the foundation of soil quality and function (Brar et al., 2013). Farmland SOC sequestration is closely related to the reduction of CO2 emissions (Poulton et the enhancement al., 2018) fertilization, the maintenance of soil structure (Sainju et al., 2009) and the promotion of microbial diversity (Fonte et al., 2012; Bhattacharyya et al., 2018) among other items. Hence, it is the decisive factor affecting the quality of cultivated land and crop yield (Hassan et al., 2016; Naresh et al., 2018).

However, the SOC content in Chinese farmland soil is generally low (Chen *et al.*, 2017) which is lower than the world average by more than 30% and that of Europe by more than 50% (Chen *et al.*, 2018).

Therefore, the improvement of the SOC content of cultivated soil has been a topic of great concern in the field of agricultural science. In addition to the influence of natural factors such as regional weather and soil conditions (Tang *et al.*, 2018; Gonçalves *et al.*, 2017) the variation in the agriculture SOC stock is most strongly affected by human activities (Ghosh *et al.*, 2018; Liang *et al.*, 2012).

The effect of management practices on farmland SOC content has been extensively investigated, and most studies have indicated that conservation farming measures (e.g., notillage, application of organic fertilizer, and straw return) not only increase the agriculture SOC stock (Liu and Zhouet al., 2017; Piccolo et al., 2018) but also improve crop yield (He et al., 2018; Bai et al., 2016). These measures

mainly increase farmland SOC content by increasing SOC input and improving soil aggregate retention (Arai *et al.*, 2013; Kuhn *et al.*, 2016).

The environmental impact on soils of straw return have been well studied, including soil water potential, temperature (Yang et al., 2016), enzyme activities (Zhao et al., 2016), soil organic matter fractions (Chen et al., 2017; Karlsson et al., 2017), soil quality and crop productivity (Hansen et al., 2017), soil greenhouse gas emissions (Zhou et al., 2017), soil chemical properties (Yu et al., 2018), and soil microbial communities (Li et al., 2017; Maarastawi et al., 2018). These results provide basic understanding in terms of how straw return may change soil carbon retention, soil quality, and soil ecosystem functions, and revealed a number of positive consequences, such as reducing soil water potential, increasing soil temperature and the activities of hydrolytic enzymes, and enhancing soil microbial functional diversity. Crop straw (i.e. wheat and rice straw) is an important source of organic C in agro-ecosystems in IGP (Liu et al., 2014). Returning crop straw to soil is an important practice to balance the C loss due to mineralization in agricultural soil (Chen et al., 2014). The SOC change rate is two times higher for straw return treatments (0.29 g kg⁻¹ yr⁻¹) than that for chemical fertilizer application only (0.14 g kg⁻¹ yr⁻¹) in paddy soils (Tian et al., 2015). Zheng et al., (2015) found that returning straw could significantly increase total organic C (TOC) content. Zhu et al., (2015) also observed that short-term (two year) crop straw return significantly increased the TOC, DOC and MBC concentrations compared to no straw return in the 0-7-cm soil layer. Crop residue return also significantly affects soil microbial community composition (Zhao et al., 2016).

Soil microorganisms play an important role in mediating changes in soil TOC via

mineralization-immobilization of soil organic matter (Breulmann et al., 2014). The process of straw decomposition is mainly mediated by soil microorganisms, and is affected by many factors including soil texture, straw quality and climate (Chen et al., 2014). Soil microbial communities respond differently to different stages crop straw decomposition of (Marschner et al., 2011): in the first stage, bacteria dominate microbial communities and fungi dominate the latter stage (Marschner et al., 2011). Naresh et al., (2017) determined that reducing tillage and maintaining surface residues in a long-term study increased soil organic C and N in the surface 2.5 cm of soil. When corn stover was returned to the soil, Clapp et al., (2000) reported a 14% increase in soil organic C in the top 15 cm, but soil organic C content decreased in the 15-30 cm depth. Similar apparent re-distributions of soil C, where increases in surface organic C generated by conservation tillage were offset by decreases in subsurface organic C content, have been documented (Ellert and Bettany, 1995).

Soil-specific responses to tillage-induced C storage were reported by Wander et al., (1998) in which carbon accretion was not apparent in all soils in that trial. Plowing was shown to move dispersed organic C from the 0-20 cm soil depth down to the 60-80 cm depth in corn plots (Romkens et al., 1999). Therefore, the objectives of this study were to examine the effects of conservation tillage crop straw return on SOC and soil microbial community composition, investigate the sensitivity of the LOCFs under short-term crop straw return in a rice—wheat cropping system in the sub-tropical agro-ecosystem in IGP and to explore an optimal management practice combination of tillage and straw return for improving the soil quality and increasing the ecosystem dynamics. The Review of the conservation tillage and residue management and its probable effects on soil organic carbon

storage, ecosystem dynamics and soil microbial biomass is discussed under the following heads;

Effect of Conservation Tillage and Residue Management on Soil Organic Carbon Storage

Soil organic carbon is a measureable component of soil organic matter. Organic matter makes up just 2–10% of most soil's mass and has an important role in the physical, chemical and biological function of agricultural soils. Organic matter contributes to nutrient retention and turnover, soil structure, moisture retention and availability, degradation of pollutants, carbon sequestration and soil resilience.

Soil carbon storage is a vital ecosystem service, resulting from interactions of ecological processes. Human activities affecting these processes can lead to carbon loss or improved storage.

Mandal *et al.*, (2012) reported that the SOC stock was highest within 0–15-cm soil and gradually decreased with increase in depth in each land use systems. In 0–15 cm depth, highest SOC stock (16.80 Mg ha⁻¹) was estimated in rice–fallow system and the lowest (11.81 Mg ha⁻¹) in the soils of guava orchard.

In 15–30 cm, it ranged from 8.74 in rice–rice system to 16.08 Mg ha⁻¹ in mango orchard. In the 30–45-cm soil depth, the SOC stock ranged from 6.41 in rice–potato to 15.71 Mg ha⁻¹ in rice–fallow system.

The total SOC stock within the 0–60-cm soil profile ranged from 33.68 to 59.10 Mg ha⁻¹ among rice-based systems, highest being in soils under rice– fallow system and the lowest for rice–rice system. The mango and guava orchard soils had 68.53 and 54.71 Mg ha⁻¹ of SOC, respectively, in the 0–90-cm soil depth.

Bhattacharyya et al., (2012) and Naresh et al., (2018) suggested that returning rice straw to fields could increase the SOC content. Moreover, higher TOC levels in the soil layers above and below the straw layer, and reflected the carbon sequestration potential of the straw returning method. This might be due to the following reasons: firstly, the straw was condensed in a limited soil space and submerged in water during the rice season, which meant that the buried straw was under a reduced environment. This would result in the decomposition of the straw being slowed down and therefore the SOC's mineralization rate (Wu et al., 2010). Secondly, some of the carbon-containing compounds in the straw were decomposed, mineralized and released as CO₂ into the atmosphere, while others were transformed into humus that accumulated in the soil, which is the main source of soil organic matter (Stockmann et al., 2013). Kuhn et al., (2016) also found that the benefit of NT compared to CT on the changes of SOC stocks varied across different soil depths. In topsoil layers (above 20 cm), NT in general had greater SOC stocks than CT but the benefit tended to decline with soil depths, and even turned to be negative in soil layers deeper than 20 cm. In addition, in each soil layer, except for the top 5 cm, the total SOC stocks generally declined with the number of years after NT adoption.

Mehra *et al.*, (2018) revealed that soils have become one of the most endangered natural resources in the world. Each year, an estimated 25–40 billion tons of fertile soil are lost globally. Hence, improving soil health through sustainable land management should be a common goal for land managers, to protect, maintain and build their most vital resource – soils. Soils are the major reservoir of C in terrestrial ecosystems, and soil C plays a dynamic role in influencing the global C cycle and climate change while regulating soil health and productivity (Singh *et al.*, 2018).

Singh et al., (2014) also found that carbon stock of 18.75, 19.84 and 23.83 Mg ha⁻¹ in the surface 0.4 m soil depth observed under CT was increased to 22.32, 26.73 and 33.07Mg ha⁻¹ in 15 years of ZT in sandy loam, loam and clay loam soil. This increase was highest in clay loam (38.8%) followed by loam (34.7%) and sandy loam (19.0%) soil. The carbon sequestration rate was found to be 0.24, 0.46 and 0.62 Mg ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ in sandy loam, loam and clay loam soil under ZT over CT. Thus, fine textured soils have more potential for storing carbon and ZT practice enhances carbon sequestration rate in soils by providing better conditions in terms of moisture temperature for higher biomass production and reduced oxidation (Gonzalez-Sanchez et al., 2012) [28]. Bhattacharya et al., (2013) reported that tillage-induced changes in POM C were distinguishable only in the 0- to 5- cm soil layer; the differences were insignificant in the 5- to 15-cm soil layer. Plots under ZT had about 14% higher POM C than CT plots (3.61 g kg⁻¹ bulk soil) in the surface soil layer.

et al., (2011)revealed Gathala that Conservation tillage generally increased SOC concentration of plow layer which is probably because conservation tillage can reduce soil disturbance, promote root development in the topsoil, and crop residue increase accumulation on the soil surface, enhancing soil aggregate stability. increase in SOC concentration can be attributed to a combination of less soil disturbance and more residues returned to the soil surface under conservation tillage (Dikgwatlhe et al., 2014). Triberti et al., (2008) reported that crop residues can significantly increase SOC concentration. Dikgwatlhe et al., (2014) also reported similar results wherein conservation tillage increased SOC concentration in the 0-5 cm top soil. They suggested that the increase may be due to the lack of residues incorporated to soil and intensive soil tillage that accelerated soil organic matter decomposition. Alvarez *et al.*, (2009) also found that NT increases SOC and total N concentrations in the first centimeters of the soil profile because NT maintains surface residues.

Naresh et al., (2015a) also found that conservation tillage practices significantly influenced the total soil carbon (TC), total inorganic carbon (TIC), total soil organic carbon (SOC) and oxidizable organic carbon (OC) content of the surface (0 to 15 cm) soil. Wide raised beds transplanted rice and zero till wheat with 100% (T₉) or with 50% residue retention (T₈) showed significantly higher TC,SOC content of 11.93 and 10.73 g kg⁻¹ in T₉ and 10.98 and 9.38 gkg⁻¹, respectively inT₈ as compared to the other treatments. Irrespective of residue incorporation/ retention, wide raised beds with zero till wheat enhanced 40.5, 34.5, 36.7 and 34.6% of TIC, TC, SOC and OC in surface soil as compared to CT with transplanted rice cultivation. Aulakh et al., (2013) showed that PMN content after 2 years of the experiment in 0-5 cm soil layer of CT system, T2, T3 and T4 treatments increased PMN content from 2.7 $mgkg^{-1} 7d^{-1}$ in control (T₁) to 2.9, 3.9 and 5.1 mgkg⁻¹ 7d⁻¹ without CR, and to 6.9, 8.4 and 9.7 mgkg^{-1} 7d⁻¹ with CR (T₆, T₇ and T₈), respectively. The corresponding increase of PMN content under CA system was from 3.6 mgkg⁻¹ 7d⁻¹ in control to 3.9, 5.1 and 6.5 mgkg⁻¹ 7d⁻¹ without CR and to 8.9, 10.3 and 12.1 mgkg⁻¹ 7d⁻¹ with CR. PMN, a measure of the soil capacity to supply mineral N, constitutes an important measure of the soil health due to its strong relationship with the capability of soil to supply N for crop growth.

Dhaliwal *et al.*, (2018) revealed that the mean SOC concentration decreased with the size of the dry stable aggregates (DSA) and water stable aggregates (WSA). In DSA, the mean SOC concentration was 58.06 and 24.2% higher in large and small macro-aggregates

than in micro-aggregates respectively; in WSA it was 295.6 and 226.08% higher in large and small macro-aggregates than in micro-aggregates respectively in surface soil layer. The mean SOC concentration in surface soil was higher in DSA (0.79%) and WSA (0.63%) as compared to bulk soil (0.52%). Kumar et al., (2018) also found that the ZTR (zero till with residue retention) (T_1) and RTR (Reduced till with residue retention) (T₃) showed significantly higher BC, WSOC, SOC and OC content of 24.5%, 21.9%, 19.37 and 18.34 gkg⁻¹, respectively as compared to the other treatments. Irrespective of residue retention, wheat sown in zero till plots enhanced 22.7%, 15.7%, 36.9% and 28.8% of BC, WSOC, SOC and OC, respectively, in surface soil as compared to conventional tillage. Simultaneously, residue retention in zero tillage caused an increment of 22.3%, 14.0%, 24.1% and 19.4% in BC, WSOC, SOC and OC, respectively over the treatments with no residue management. Similar increasing trends of conservation practices on different forms of carbon under sub-surface (15- 30 soil were observed however, the magnitude was relatively lower. Zhu et al., (2011) compared to conventional tillage (CT) and zero-tillage (ZT) could significantly improve the SOC content in cropland. Frequent tillage under CT easily exacerbate Crich macro-aggregates in soils broken down due to the increase of tillage intensity, then forming a large number of small aggregates with relatively low organic carbon content and free organic matter particles. Free organic matter particles have poor stability and are easy to degradation, thereby causing the loss of SOC Song et al., (2011).

Effect of Conservation Tillage and Residue Management on Ecosystem's Dynamics

Ecosystem Dynamics an ecosystem is a community of living organisms (plants, animals, and microbes) existing in conjunction

with the nonliving components of their environment (air, water, and mineral soil), interacting as a system. Ecosystems include both living and nonliving components. These living, or biotic, components include habitats and niches occupied by organisms. Nonliving, or abiotic, components include soil, water, light, inorganic nutrients, and weather. An organism's place of residence, where it can be found, is its habitat. A niche is often viewed as the role of that organism in the community, factors limiting its life, and how it acquires food. Producers, a major niche in all autotrophic, ecosystems, are usually photosynthetic, organisms. In terrestrial ecosystems, producers are usually green plants. Freshwater and marine ecosystems frequently have algae as the dominant producers.

Organic N mineralization from remaining residue can increase soil inorganic N concentration (Kumar et al., 2018b). Shindo and Nishio (2005) noted that ~10% of organic N existing in wheat straw was converted into microbial biomass and soil inorganic N content derived from wheat straw ranged between 1.93 and 2.37 mg N/kg. When plant residues are given back to the soil, mineralization of crop residue N contributes to the soil inorganic nitrogen pool. magnitude of this contribution is governed by quality of CRs. However, abiotic immobilization of N by CRs can decrease the content of soil mineralizable organic N. Because added inorganic N in CR is transformed into microbial nitrogen, microbial biomass nitrogen, microbial residual nitrogen, and the subsequent nitrogen remineralisations rate are enhanced by adding straw residues to the soil (Singh et al., 2017c).

However, the effects of CRs on direct inorganic N transformations to soil organic nitrogen remain unknown. There is close interaction between C and N dynamics during

the decay of plant stubbles due to the immediate assimilation of C and N by heterotrophic soil micro-flora involved in the process.

Dou et al., (2008) reported that SMBC was 5 to 8%, mineralized C was 2%, POM C was 14 to 31%, hydrolyzable C was 53 to 71%, and DOC was 1 to 2% of SOC. No-till significantly increased SMBC in the 0- to 30cm depth, especially in the surface 0 to 5 cm. Under NT, SMBC at 0 to 5 cm was 25, 33, and 22% greater for CW, SWS, and WS, respectively, than under CT, but was 20 and 8% lower for CW and WS, respectively, than under CT at the 5- to 15-cm depth. At the 15to 30-cm depth, no consistent effect of tillage was observed. Enhanced cropping intensity increased SMBC only under NT, where SMBC was 31 and 36% greater for SWS and WS than CW at 0 to 30 cm. Awale et al., (2013) also found that compared with CT, ST and NT had significantly higher SOC concentration by 3.8 and 2.7%, SOC stock by 7.2% and 9.2%, CPOM-C by 22 and 25%. Naresh et al., (2015a) also found that conservation tillage practices significantly influenced the total soil carbon (TC), total inorganic carbon (TIC), total soil organic carbon (SOC) and oxidizable organic carbon (OC) content of the surface (0 to 15 cm) soil. Wide raised beds transplanted rice and zero till wheat with 100% (T₉) or with 50% residue retention (T₈) showed significantly higher TC,SOC content of 11.93 and 10.73 g kg⁻¹ in T₉ and 10.98 and 9.38 gkg⁻¹, respectively in T₈ compared to the other treatments. Irrespective of residue incorporation/ retention, wide raised beds with zero till wheat enhanced 40.5, 34.5, 36.7 and 34.6% of TIC. TC, SOC and OC in surface soil as compared to CT with transplanted rice cultivation.

Ma *et al.*, (2016) reported that the stratification ratio (SR) of TOC was significantly higher under PRB and FB than

under TT at all depth ratios. SR was calculated from the TOC concentration at 0-5 cm divided by that at 5-10, 10-20 and 20-40, 40-60 and 60-90 cm. Up to 40 cm depth, SR did not reach the threshold value of 2. At depths greater than 40 cm, SR was >2 for PRB and FB but not for TT. The higher SR of TOC for PRB and FB suggests that conservation tillage increased TOC concentration at the soil surface (0–5 cm). Franzluebbers (2002) suggested that the SR of SOC may be a better indicator of soil health than SOC because surface SOM is absolutely essential to erosion control, water and nutrient conservation. Differences in SMBC were limited to the surface layers (0-5 and 5-10 cm) in the PRB treatment. There was a significant reduction in SMBC content with depth in all treatments. SMBC in the PRB treatment increased by 19.8%, 26.2%, 10.3%, 27.7%, 10% and 9% at 0-5, 5-10, 10-20, 20-40, 40-60 and 60-90 cm depths, respectively, when compared with the TT treatment. The mean SMBC of the PRB treatment was 14% higher than that in the TT treatment. The continuous no tillage with high standing stubbles and crop residue coverage on the soil surface in the PRB and treatments would create favorable environments for the cycling of C and formation of macro-aggregates. Moreover, POC acts as a cementing agent to stabilize macro-aggregates and protect particulate organic matter, thereby increasing TOC contents (Naresh et al., 2017).

Bijay- Singh, (2018) reported that fertilizer N, when applied at or below the level in the build-up of SOM and microbial biomass by promoting plant growth and increasing the amount of litter and root biomass added to soil. Only when fertilizer N was applied at rates more than the optimum, increased residual inorganic N accelerated the loss of SOM through its mineralization. Soil microbial life was also adversely affected at very high fertilizers rates. Optimum fertilizer

use on agricultural crops reduces soil erosion but repeated application of high fertilizer N doses may lead to soil acidity, a negative soil health trait. Application of optimum doses of all nutrients is important, but due to fundamental coupling of C and N cycles, optimization of fertilizer N management is more closely linked to build-up of SOC and soil health

Ye *et al.*, (2019) observed that particulate organic N, microbial biomass N and water-extractable organic N levels were the greatest in 0–10 cm layer under NTS treatment; and in 10–30 cm layer, the corresponding values were the highest under NPTS treatment. NPTS treatment could immobilize the mineral N in 10–30 cm layer, and reduced leaching losses into deeper soil layers (40–60 cm).

Effect of Conservation Tillage and Residue Management on Soil Microbial Biomass

Soil microbial biomass is a relatively small component of the SOM—the MBC comprises only 1-3% of total soil C and MBN is 5% of total soil N-but they are the most biologically active and labile C and N pools (Deng et al., 2000). Microbial biomass (bacteria and fungi) is a measure of living of the component mass of soil organic matter. The microbial biomass decomposes plant and animal residues and soil organic matter to release carbon dioxide and plant available nutrients. Microbial biomass represents a relatively small standing stock of nutrients, compared to soil organic matter, but it can act as a labile source of nutrients for plants, a pathway for incorporation of organic matter into the soil, and a temporary sink for nutrients. Microbial biomass is the main agent that controls the flow of C and cycling of nutrient elements in terrestrial ecosystems. The large size of the soil microbial biomass implicates it as a major during C immobilization nutrient sink

(growth) and as a source during mineralization (decay). It consists of bacteria, fungi, actinomycetes, and protozoa etc. However, fungi and bacteria are the dominant organisms both with regards to biomass and metabolic activities (Anderson and Domsch, 1973).

Important parameters of soil like soil moistures, nutritional availability in agroecosystems, and soil structure are governed by the disintegration of SOM by the soil microorganism. The soil microbial biomass (SMB) can be defined as live part of SOM. It has been projected as another helpful and important sign of soil qualities, as it is a source and pool of organically accessible nutrients and encourages the formation of soil structure and aggregation. The presence of soil microbial population in soil is possibly affected by many ecological factors like soil temperature and moistures (Debosz et al., 1999) and by soil management practices, i.e., crop residue inputs (Govaerts et al., 2007). The maintenance of crop residues is a significant aspect in exciting SMB and microbes' activities in the soil.

Dou et al., (2008) reported that SMBC was 5 to 8%, mineralized C was 2%, POM C was 14 to 31%, hydrolyzable C was 53 to 71%, and DOC was 1 to 2% of SOC. No-till significantly increased SMBC in the 0- to 30cm depth, especially in the surface 0 to 5 cm. Under NT, SMBC at 0 to 5 cm was 25, 33, and 22% greater for CW, SWS, and WS, respectively, than under CT, but was 20 and 8% lower for CW and WS, respectively, than under CT at the 5- to 15-cm depth. At the 15to 30-cm depth, no consistent effect of tillage was observed. Enhanced cropping intensity increased SMBC only under NT, where SMBC was 31 and 36% greater for SWS and WS than CW at 0 to 30 cm. The relationship between tillage and POM C in the 5- to 15-cm depth, however, was different from the surface soil. Particulate organic matter C for the above

cropping sequences at this depth was 35, 42, and 51% lower for NT than CT, but at 15 to 30 cm showed a similar pattern as in the surface soil. Liang et al., (2011) observed that in the 0-10 cm soil layer, SMBC and SMBN in the three fertilized treatments were higher than in the unfertilized treatment on all sampling dates, while microbial biomass C and N in the 0-10 cm soil layers were the highest at grain filling. Zhu et al., (2014) revealed that the Soil TOC and labile organic fractions contents were significantly affected by straw returns, and were higher under straw return treatments than non-straw return at three depths. At 0-7 cm depth, soil MBC was significantly higher under plowing tillage than rotary tillage, but EOC was just opposite. Rotary tillage had significantly higher soil TOC than plowing tillage at 7–14 cm depth. However, at 14-21 cm depth, TOC, DOC and MBC were significantly higher under plowing tillage than rotary tillage except for EOC.

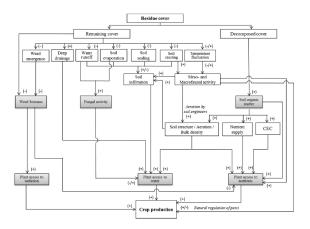
Yeboah *et al.*, (2016) reported that compared with the T and NT, NTS increased soil microbial biomass carbon by 42% and 38% in 0–30 cm depth, respectively. Root biomass was significantly increased in NTS by 47% and 54% over T and NT, respectively. Across the three years, NTS had an average grain yield of 53% and 41% higher than T and NT, respectively

Kumar et al., (2018) reported that after 2 years of the experiment, potentially mineralizable nitrogen (PMN) and microbial biomass nitrogen (MBN) content showed that in 0-15 cm soil layer T₁ and T₃ treatments increased from 6.7 and 11.8 mgkg⁻¹ in conventional tillage (T6) to 8.5, 14.4 and 7.6, 14.1 mgkg⁻¹ in ZT and RT without residue retention and 12.4, 10.6, 9.3 and 20.2, 19.1,18.2 mg kg⁻¹ ZT and RT with residue retention and CT with residue incorporation $(T_1,$ T_3 , T_5), respectively.

Add organic matter ncreased biological activity (& diversity) Decomposition Reduced soil borne diseases, parasitic Aggregation nematodes Nutrients Pore structure Harmful substances Humus and other detoxify substances Improved tilth and water storage HEALTHY PLANTS

Fig.1 Effect of SOM on soil properties and plant growth (Oshins and Drinkwater 1999)

Fig.2 Agro-ecological functions of surface crop residues. (+) and (-) signs designate positive and negative effects, respectively, adapted from Lu et al. (2000) and Turmel et al. (2014)



In 15-30 cm layer, the increasing trends due to the use of tillage crop residue practices were similar to those observed in 0-15 cm layer however, the magnitude was relatively lower. Continuous retention of crop residue resulted in considerable accumulation of PMN and MBN in 0-15 cm soil layer than unfertilized control plots.

Soils under the 200 kgNha⁻¹ (F₄), treated plots resulted in higher PMN in the 0–15 cm soil layer over those under the 120 kg Nha⁻¹ and 80 kg Nha⁻¹ treated plots. The PMN in surface soil were in the order of 200 kg Nha⁻¹ (F₄), $10.4 \text{ mgkg}^{-1} > 160 \text{ kg Nha}^{-1}$ (F₃), $9.8 \text{ mgkg}^{-1} > 120 \text{ kg Nha}^{-1}$ (F₂), $8.9 \text{ mgkg}^{-1} > 80 \text{ kg}$ Nha⁻¹ (F₁), $7.3 \text{ mgkg}^{-1} > \text{unfertilized control}$

(3.6 mgkg⁻¹). However, increase in PMN was more in surface as compared to sub-surface soil, which indicate that higher accumulation of organic carbon due to retention of crop residue was confined to surface soil. The increase in PMN in 160 kg Nha⁻¹ (F₃) and 120 kg Nha⁻¹ (F₂) treatments in surface layer was 63.3 and 59.6% over unfertilized control, while they were 25.5 and 17.9% greater over 80 kg Nha⁻¹ (F₁) treatment, respectively. Highest DOC change (28.2%) was found in ZT with residue retention (T₁) plots followed by RT with residue retention (T₃) plots (23.6%).

The use of ZT and RT with residue retention $(T_1 \text{ and } T_3)$ plots for two wheat crop cycle

increased DOC by 21.2 and 16.1% more than that of ZT and RT without residue retention and conventional tillage $(T_2, T_4 \text{ and } T_6)$, respectively. Lack of soil disturbance under ZT provides steady source of organic C substrates for soil microorganisms, which enhances their activity and accounts for higher soil MBC as compared with CT - where a temporary flush of microbial activity with tillage events results in large losses of C as CO₂ (Balota et al., 2003). Dalal et al., (1991) studied the effects of 20 years of tillage practice, CR management and fertilizer N application on microbial biomass and found that MBN was significantly affected by tillage, residue and fertilizer N individually as well as through their interaction.

Soil microbial communities possess important functions in SOC decomposition and C sequestration processes through metabolizing organic matter sources (Dong *et al.*, 2014).

On one hand, SOC decomposition is controlled by the quality and availability of organic C resources utilized by microbial communities (Dong et al., 2014). Several labile fractions suggested that (including MBC and DOC) are closely related to SOC dynamics (Helgason et al., 2010; Guo et al., 2015). On the other hand, soil microbial community and their interactions with the environment are important factors that affect SOC dynamics, and any change in soil microbial community may alter availability (Dong et al., 2014). Stewart et al., (2008) reported that soil C sequestration capacity is mainly determined by the degree of SOC protection from decomposition provided by the spatially hierarchical organization of soil aggregate structure. Moreover, microbial metabolic diversity influenced SOC directly through DOC in >0.25 mm aggregate, and directly and indirectly through DOC and MBC in < 0.25 mm aggregate under tillage and straw systems. Soil microenvironment contributes to

heterogeneous distribution of the microorganisms within aggregates (Young et al., 2008) thus leading to different effects of microorganisms on SOC within aggregates. Macro-aggregates exhibit faster turnover time micro-aggregates because aggregates are mainly formed through binding of micro-aggregates and organic amendments (Choudhury et al., (2014) therefore, macroaggregates more easily obtain fresh organic matter. Choudhury et al., (2014) also reported returning results that straw in preponderance of macro-aggregates compared micro-aggregates caused with by formation of water-stable aggregates. The presence of more stable macro-aggregates is the first condition required for C sequestration (Jha et al., 2012). Therefore, conservation tillage can be speculated to promote the accumulation of straws in the top soil layer (0-5 cm), which leads to rapid straw decomposition accompanied by microbial growth (Miltner et al., 2012). Zhang et al., reported soil microbial (2013)that communities promote the accumulation of C directly and indirectly through MBC, and the input level of microbial-derived C and MBC regulate SOC within aggregates.

Conservation tillage (CT) systems have been observed to contribute to the role of soil as a carbon sink. By minimizing soil disturbance, reduced tillage decreases the mineralization of organic matter. The result is a larger store of soil organic carbon than with conventional tillage. The latter is used to mix topsoil to recover lost nutrients, prepare the seedbed and control weeds, but has been associated with losses in SOC, which lead to a significant decline in soil quality.

Soil aggregation is an imperative mechanism contributing to soil fertility by reducing soil erosion and mediating air permeability, water infiltration, and nutrient cycling. Soil aggregates are important agents of SOC retention and protection against decomposition. Quantity and quality of SOC fractions have an impact on soil aggregation that in turn physically protect the carbon from degradation by increasing the mean residence time of carbon.

Soil management through the use of different tillage systems affects soil aggregation directly by physical disruption of the macroaggregates, and indirectly through alteration of biological and chemical factors. Crop residue plays an important role in SOC sequestration, increasing crop yield, improving soil organic matter, and reducing the greenhouse gas. Tillage reduction and residue retention both increased the proportion of soil organic matter microbial biomass. Microbial immobilization of available-N during the early phase of crops enhanced the degree of synchronization between crop demand and N supply. The maximum enhancement was reported in the minimum tillage along with residue retained treatment.

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