

The fate of primed soil carbon between biomass immobilization and respiration is controlled by nutrient availability

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▶ To cite this version:

Anne-Cécile Vain, Nancy Rakotondrazafy, Kanto Razanamalala, Jean Trap, Claire Marsden, et al.. The fate of primed soil carbon between biomass immobilization and respiration is controlled by nutrient availability. European Journal of Soil Biology, 2021, 105, pp.103332. 10.1016/j.ejsobi.2021.103332. hal-03266886

HAL Id: hal-03266886 https://hal.inrae.fr/hal-03266886v1

Submitted on 13 Jun2023

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Version of Record: https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S1164556321000686 Manuscript_543665ec9ef2f04386fe8377899db2fc

1	Whether Priming Effect generated by stoichiometric decomposition leads to
2	an extra net C loss to the atmosphere or accelerates C incorporation into the
3	microbial biomass depends on the nutrient status of soil.
4 5 6	The fate of primed soil carbon between biomass immobilization and respiration is controlled by nutrient availability.
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12	
13	Key words: Soil organic matter; Fresh organic matter; Priming effect; Microbial biomass;
14	Specific respiration
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23 ABSTRACT

A positive Priming Effect (PE) is defined as an acceleration of the decomposition of soil 24 25 organic matter (SOM) by a fresh organic matter (FOM) input. But in the literature many studies present this phenomenon as an extra loss of carbon from SOM to the atmosphere. 26 27 SOM is actually a mixture of pools with different turnover rates, and microorganisms 28 generating PE are heterotrophic. Therefore, whether PE is in fact an extra loss of C depends 29 on the targeted SOM pool (high or low turnover) and the ratio between the incorporation of the primed carbon into microbial biomass vs its mineralization. A A ¹³C-wheat residue was 30 31 added to a naturally nutrient-poor tropical soil (enriched or not with a cocktail of nutrients), 32 was incubated and submitted to two successive wheat-straw inputs with differential ¹³C 33 enrichment, in order to observe the PE of one straw on the other, and to measure the 34 specific respiration of the different carbon pools. to create a recent labelled pool of SOM 35 (supposed to have high turnover). After one week of incubation, non-labelled wheat straw 36 was added to soil with the aim to generate a stoichiometric PE on the ¹³C-enriched decomposing straw. Isotopic enrichment of respired CO2 and microbial biomass were 37 assessed to evaluate the specific respiration of the different carbon pools. In our nutrient-38 39 poor soil, nutrient enrichment intensified soil basal respiration while it lowered straw 40 mineralization. Our study showed that, fresh and primed C allocation between microbial 41 biomass and CO₂ were similar and depended on the nutrient status of the soil. We did not 42 observe any impact of freshly amended C on the fate of the previous amendment, but 43 conversely we observed an impact of the previous organic input on the decomposition rate 44 of the following one, as well as the allocation of the liberated C toward biomass rather than 45 CO₂.

46

47 *1.* Introduction

Soil organic matter (SOM) is characterized by carbon (C) of diverse forms and ages and by 48 49 diverse nutrient concentrations [1,2,3]. The decomposition of SOM pools is mainly the result 50 of the activity of heterotrophic microorganisms. The first steps of the decomposition process 51 correspond to the depolymerization of macromolecules by microbial extracellular enzymes 52 and take place in the soil solution. Molecules smaller than 600 KDa can be assimilated by microorganisms and then be allocated via the intracellular metabolism, between energy 53 generation (leading to C mineralization) and biomass synthesis (largely leading to C 54 55 stabilization [4]). It has recently been put forward that Long-term stabilized SOM mainly 56 corresponds to microbial-derived organic matter (OM) that is protected from enzymatic activities by mineral associations [5]. In this way, microbial biomass synthesis contributes to 57 58 the long-term C stabilization in soils [6,7,8,9]. C stabilization in the soil is, therefore, linked to organic matter mineralization [10,11]. 59

60 The supply of fresh organic matter (FOM) to the soil may stimulates the microbial mineralization decomposition of SOM by the so-called priming effect (PE) phenomenon [12]. 61 62 Two different mechanisms, based on the interactions between FOM- and SOM-feeding 63 microbial populations, have been proposed in the literature for PE generation [13]. The first 64 one involves the increase in extracellular enzymes released by FOM decomposers, which might accelerate the breakdown of SOM [14]. Because of enzyme specificity, this process 65 should target a SOM pool that shares similar structures with FOM, thus a pool of vegetal 66 67 signature, with a higher C:N:P than the microbial biomass [15]. This process has been called "stoichiometric PE" because it follows similar nutrient demands of microorganisms to FOM 68 decomposition. In this case, nutrient input should increase the PE intensity, as it 69

simultaneously increases FOM mineralization decomposition. The second process 70 corresponds to the use of FOM catabolites as an energy source by SOM-feeding populations, 71 in order to decompose a nutrient-rich SOM pool and recover nutrients for nutrient demand 72 73 [16]. This process would more specifically target a stable ilizing pool of SOM [17], as long-74 term C storage has a predominant microbial origin, and has been called "nutrient mining PE" [20]. Conversely to the first one, the "nutrient mining PE" intensity decreases with nutrient 75 input. Both processes could hide a competition for nutrients between two microbial 76 77 functional guilds, the FOM-decomposers and the SOM-miners [13]. "Stoichiometric PE" is 78 more important predominant during the first steps of FOM decomposition, as FOMdecomposers use the nutrients available in the soil solution, and is thereafter followed by 79 80 "nutrient mining" when the soil solution becomes nutrient depleted [15,21]. FOM-81 decomposers involved in the "stoichiometric PE" have been qualified as r-strategists, as 82 opposed to K-strategists involved in the "nutrient mining PE" [21]. The balance between the 83 two processes is thought to be driven by the nutrient concentration of the soil solution [21], labile C availability [18] and the richness of FOM in available nutrients [20,21,22, 23]. 84

In the literature, a positive PE is defined as an acceleration of the SOM mineralization 85 86 turnover and not only SOM mineralization, including therefore incorporation of SOM-C into the microbial biomass as well as its release via respiration. But as it leads to an increase in 87 the CO₂ flux to the atmosphere over a certain period, it is sometimes regarded rightly or 88 89 wrongly as a net considered as increasing the loss of C from SOM [24,9]. However, PE, as a 90 part of SOM turnover is just an element of the whole C budget. This means that if conditions 91 favoring PE, also favor new carbon storage, the net effect on soil C is not necessarily 92 negative. In addition, the PE is the result of the activity of heterotrophic microorganisms as for regular SOM decomposition. This means that the C assimilated during the PE is partly 93

allocated to respiration and partly to incorporation into microbial biomass. Therefore, the PE
can in fact contribute to the gain of future new SOM when its allocation ratio is in favor of
biomass incorporation compared to the baseline of SOM decomposition, as microbial
biomass is the precursor of SOM via the death of microbes and the entombing effect [5].

98 The PE generated by "nutrient mining" may indeed lead to the remobilisation of a 99 SOM pool with a long residence time, by the activity of K-strategists known to allocate more 100 assimilated C to energy generation (CO₂ release) than to biomass synthesis [20,25,26,27]. 101 Therefore, whether this PE drives the system towards a net loss of C from the soil depends 102 on its feedback on the entry of fresh C into the soil. In contrast, the "stoichiometric PE" (1) 103 targets a dynamic pool of SOM rather than a stable ilizing one, (2) rather involves r-strategist 104 populations known to preferentially allocate the assimilated C into their biomass: therefore 105 this type of PE can be regarded as an acceleration of the transformation of plant OM into 106 microbial OM and thus contributes to long term C sequestration in the soil [28,29,30]. In this 107 case, during a stoichiometric PE event, more "primed" C would be integrated into microbial 108 biomass than released as CO₂, resulting in a decrease in the specific respiration rate, also 109 called metabolic quotient qCO₂ (i.e. Respired C/Biomass C ratio, [31]).

110 The aim of the present study was to evaluate the C allocation balance between CO₂ 111 evolution and microbial biomass synthesis during a "stoichiometric" PE event. Therefore, the 112 specific respiration rate was measured in a microcosm incubation experiment where soils 113 were successively amended with ¹³C- and ¹²C-labelled complex OM. ¹³C-enriched wheat 114 straw was added to a naturally nutrient-poor tropical soil, to create a dynamic labelled pool 115 of SOM. After one week of incubation, non-labelled wheat straw was added to the soil with the aim of generating a stoichiometric PE on the ¹³C-enriched decomposing straw. Over a 13-116 117 day incubation period, ¹³C and ¹²C were monitored in released CO₂ and in microbial biomass

118 in order to estimate the specific respiration rate related to each organic pool. As the stoichiometric PE is usually positively correlated to soil nutrient concentration, incubations 119 120 were performed with or without soil enrichment with a cocktail of nutrients (N, P, K, S, Mg 121 and microelements) in order to verify the nature of the PE generating process. We hypothesized that: (1) nutrients would foster the decomposition of SOM and ¹³C and ¹²C-122 labelled wheat straw independently by favorizing r-strategist populations and therefore by 123 124 decreasing their specific respiration; (2) ¹³C-labelled straw would first "stoichiometrically" 125 prime the decomposition of SOM at day 7, and ¹²C-labelled-straw (added at day 7) would "stoichiometrically" prime the decomposition of ¹³C-labelled straw at day 13, with both PE 126 127 being enhanced in nutrient-rich conditions ; and (3) the primed OM pools (first SOM , then 128 ¹³C-straw) would show similar or even lower specific respiration rates than those of non-129 primed SOM and ¹³C straw respectively. If confirmed this last hypothesis would prove that 130 PE generated by stoichiometric decomposition is only an acceleration of SOM decomposition mineralization with no balance switch to respiration and therefore no extra loss of C 131 compared to basal soil respiration. 132

133

134 **2.** Materials and methods

135 2.1. Soil sample description

The soil sample (0-10 cm) was collected in Autumn 2018 next to the city of Imerintsiatosika, 20 km west of Antananarivo (-18.978671, 47.327678) from a natural savannah. The soil is a Ferralsol (according to the FAO nomenclature), with a silty clay texture (Silt 57.7%, clay 28.9%), with a C content of 29 g kg⁻¹ of soil, a C:N of 10 and a naturally low available phosphorus content (0.47 mg.Kg⁻¹ soil). Its full physical and chemical characteristics are described in Raminoarison et al. [32]. Two kilograms of soil were air-dried, sieved (2mm), 142 and coarse plant residues were manually removed. Soil was pre-wetted and dried at 65°C for 143 48h to eliminate microfauna as recommended by Franco et al. [33]. Microfauna was 144 eliminated in order to reduce the turnover of the microbial biomass and improve the 145 accuracy of the specific respiration ratio (Biomass/respiration). The soil sample was air-dried 146 again.

147

148

2.2.

Soil incubation conditions

149 The experiment was designed to induce and observe a stoichiometric priming effect. For this purpose, two factors were crossed: (1) soil wheat amendment: no wheat, ¹³C wheat residues 150 (±S13) at day 0, ¹²C wheat residues (±S12) at day 7 and (2) soil nutrient content (nutrient 151 152 supply or not, ±N) leading to 8 modalities (Table 1, Fig S1), with 6 replicates per modality. 153 Forty-eight 160-ml flasks were filled with 16 g of dry soil. To reactivate microbial 154 communities, the soil water content was adjusted and maintained to 39.5% of water content 155 using sterile deionized water, for a 14-day pre-incubation period. Every 3 days, flasks were 156 opened to renew the gas phase using a large 50 mL syringe. After this pre-incubation period, the 24 +S13 flasks were amended with 4 mg of ¹³C powdered wheat residue (wheat: leaves 157 and stems, 97% ¹³C) per gram of dry weight soil. The ¹³C wheat straw was grown in a 158 159 continuous 99%¹³CO₂ atmosphere as described in [34]. Then, 12 non-amended and 12 160 wheat-amended +N microcosms were enriched with nutrient solution at a rate of 0.125 mL (g incubated soil)⁻¹ (6.86 mg NH₄NO₃ mL⁻¹; 7.12 mg NaH₂PO₄ mL⁻¹; 3.06 mg Kcl mL⁻¹; 4.01 161 162 mg MgSO₄7H₂O mL⁻¹; 4.41 mg CaCl₂ mL⁻¹; 0.06 mg O₂Si_xH₂O mL⁻¹) in order to bring 300 mg N, 163 200 mg P, 200 mg K, 200 mg S, 65 mg Mg, 150 mg Ca per kg of dry soil [32]. Soil water content of -N flasks was adjusted using sterile water (0.125 mL g⁻¹ incubated soil). The soil 164 165 microcosms were incubated in the dark for 13 days at 28°C. After 7 days of incubation, 4 mg

166 of unlabelled (12C) powdered wheat residue (leaves and stems) per gram of dry soil were added to the 24 +S12 flasks. At day 3, day 7 (before ¹²C-straw addition), day 10 and day 13, a 167 6 mL volume of gas phase was sampled in Exetainer evacuated tubes for total CO₂ and ¹³CO₂ 168 169 measurements. After sampling, gas phases were renewed in different rooms, depending on their ¹³C enrichment modality, to avoid ¹³C contaminations of unlabeled modalities. At day 170 10 and day 13, 3 flasks per modality were harvested for microbial biomass analysis, in order 171 to see whether the ¹²C-straw input of day 7 had modified the incorporation of ¹³C-straw C 172 173 into the microbial biomass, 3 or 6 days after the new substrate supply.

174

175 2.3. CO_2 and ${}^{13}CO_2$ measurements

The collected gas phases were analysed by IRMS "Isotope Ratio Mass Spectrometry" using a mass spectrometer (Euro-EA Vector Element Analyzer, France ; coupled with an IsoPrime Mass Spectrometer, Italy) to quantify the total C and relative abundance of ¹³C in the CO₂ samples. Total mineralized C per gram of soil (Total CO₂-C) between two sampling dates and its ¹³C-Wheat component (S13min CO₂-C) were calculated using the following equations:

- 181
- 182

$$\begin{pmatrix} \left(\left(\frac{Q}{Vp} \right) * Vm \right) \\ T \end{pmatrix} * D \end{pmatrix}$$

185 (1)
Total CO₂-C (
$$\mu$$
g C g⁻¹ dry soil) = $\frac{\sqrt{\sqrt{}}}{M}$

187 with Q = C measured by IRMS (μg), Vp = sampled volume (6ml), Vm = gas phase
188 volume (120 ml), T = period of gaz accumulation (min) variable between flasks, M =

soil dry mass (16 g), D = standardized period for all flasks between sampling dates
(min). Means and standard errors were calculated on 3 replicate flasks.

191

192 (2) S13min CO₂-C (
$$\mu$$
g C g⁻¹ dry soil) = $\frac{(\text{Total CO}_2 - \text{C} * A\%) - \text{Ac}}{0.97}$

193

194 with Total CO2-C = total mineralized C (μ g C g⁻¹ dry soil), A% = ¹³C relative abundance 195 of the amended flask (%), Ac = Atmospheric ¹³C, i.e. mean of ¹³C abundance 196 measured in 3 non-amended modalities (μ g C g⁻¹ dry soil), 0.97 = ¹³C enrichment of 197 straw C.

198

¹³C-Wheat induced PE was calculated as follows:

200 (3) $S13 PE (\mu g C g^{-1} dry soil) = Total CO_2 - C - SOM CO_2 - C - S13min CO_2 - C$ 201 with SOM CO2-C = Total CO2-C of the respective non-amended treatment (Table 1)

202 ¹²C-Wheat mineralization was calculated as follows:

203 (4) S12min CO₂-C (
$$\mu$$
g C g⁻¹ dry soil) = Total CO₂-C - SOM CO₂-C

Calculation details for the different variables are given in table 1. As S13PE and S12min are the results of subtracting fluxes measured from independent replicated flasks. Means and Standard errors were calculated on all the 9 possible combinations between the 3 replicate flasks per treatment. S12min CO₂-C actually includes CO₂-C resulting from a potential PE generated by the ¹²C straw on SOM, which cannot be discriminated as both OM have a similar isotopic signature.

210

211 2.4. Microbial Biomass Carbon

212 Microbial biomass Carbon (MBC) was assessed using the fumigation-extraction method [35] in three flasks per modality on day 10 and day 13. Shortly, 15g of each soil microcosm were 213 214 separated into two equal fractions, one being subjected to Chloroform (CH₃Cl) fumigation. 215 Total soluble carbon was then extracted from both fractions with 30 mL of potassium 216 sulphate solution (K₂SO₄, 0.025M). Two mL of the obtained solution were concentrated by 217 evaporation and resolubilization in 120µL of deionized water. Adequate volumes were finally 218 sampled and dried for elementary analysis (EA Eurovector analyzer, Italy) coupled with 219 isotopic mass spectrometry (Mass Isoprime, Elementar, France) [36]. MBC feeding on the 220 different SOM pools were calculated as follows:

221

222 (5)
Total MBC (µg C g⁻¹ dry soil) =
$$\frac{\left(\left(\frac{(C_F - C_{NF})}{k_{EC}}\right) * d\right)}{m}$$

223

224 with $C_F = C$ from fumigated solution (µg), $C_{NF} = C$ from unfumigated solution (µg), 225 $k_{EC} = extraction efficiency coefficient (0.45; [34]), d= dilution factor (15), m = dry soil$ 226 mass (7.5gr)

227

To calculate ¹³C-wheat derived MBC (S13 MBC), we considered that there is no isotopic fractionation during the incorporation of C into microbial biomass. Therefore, the same equation as (2) was applied to MBC. ¹²C-Wheat-derived MBC (S12 MBC) was calculated as follows, (depending on whether ¹³C-wheat was added (6.1) or not (6.2):

232

233 (6.1) S12 MBC (μ g C g⁻¹ dry soil) = Total MBC – SOM MBC – S13 MBC 234 235 236 (6.2) S12 MBC (μ g C g⁻¹ dry soil) = Total MBC – SOM MBC 237

- 238 with SOM MBC corresponding to the Total MBC quantified in both control conditions
- 239 (with or without nutrients but no wheat addition Table 1). Like for CO₂, S12MBC
- 240 might include MBC produced from SOM by the effect of ¹²C-straw inputs, as both
- 241 MBC cannot be differentiated by their isotopic signature.
- 242
- 243 2.5. Specific respiration

244 The cumulative specific respiration was calculated as follows at each sampling date.

245 (7)
$$qCO_2 (\mu g C g^{-1} dry soil) = \frac{(Total CO_2 - C)_t}{(Total MBC)_t}$$

246

with t = corresponding to day 10 or day 13, and Total CO2-C = corresponding to
cumulative mineralization between day 0 and t.

249

250 2.6. Statistical analyses

All statistical analyses were performed with R 3.5.2 [37,38]. The significance of the results

was accepted at the probability threshold p < 0.05.

A linear mixed effects model analysis was applied to the cumulative averages over time

254 (Y) (Imer, package Ime4, [39]). Several models were tested, defining time as a fixed effect (a

255 factor common to microcosms) and nutrient effect as a random effect.

- 257 (ii) $Y \sim (Time + I(Time^2)) * Nutrient + (Time + I (Time^2)) + (1|Nutrient)$
- 258 (iii) $Y \sim I(Time^2) * Nutrient + I (Time^2) + (1|Nutrient)$
- 259 (iv) $Y \sim I(Time^2) + Nutrient + I(Time^2) + (1|Nutrient)$

with Y = mean of cumulative CO_2 -C emitted during incubation (µg CO_2 -C g⁻¹ dry soil), Time = fixed factor of time (days), and Nutrient = nutrient supply considered as random factor.

The choice of model was made parsimoniously using Akaike's information criterion (AIC) [40]. On the chosen model, a two-factor ANOVA was applied to measure the effect of time and nutrient treatments.

Student's t-tests were performed to test the effect of nutrient and wheat addition for each mineralization and at each date (t.test, package stats, [37]). The normality of the residues was verified with the Lilliefors test (lillie.test, package nortest; [41]), and homogeneity with the Fisher variance comparison test (var.test, package stats).

A polynomial regression mode, followed by an ANOVA, were performed to measure the intensity of the relationship between the mineralization of ¹³C wheat (S13 min) and the resulting Priming Effect on SOM (S13 PE).

273 Moreover, to measure the effect of nutrient supply on mineralization of ¹³C wheat 274 and mineralization of basal soil, the ratio of the first to the next was calculated.

A two-factor ANOVA, followed by a Tukey-HSD test, was applied to distinguish significantly different means, according to time and modalities for microbial biomass (MBC) and specific respiration (qCO₂).

The propagation of standard errors through calculations was carried out using an online tool [42].

280

281 **3. Results**

282 *3.1.* Mineralization of organic matter and Priming Effect

283 The basal mineralization of soil organic matter (SOM min) remained constant until the end of the incubation (p-value > 0.05) but was faster when nutrients were supplied (p-284 value < 0.01) (Fig. 1A, Table S1). Conversely, 13 C wheat residue mineralization was faster, 285 286 without nutrient supply (p-value < 0.01) (Fig. 1C). It was constant up to 10 days and 287 increased between day 10 and day 13 (p-value < 0.001). The increase was higher without nutrient supply. The intensity of PE generated by ¹³C-wheat residues decreased from day 3 288 289 to day 7 and strongly accelerated (p-value < 0.05) from day 10 to day 13 (Fig. 1B), but was 290 not impacted by nutrient supply (Fig. 1B; p-value > 0.1).

The input of ¹²C wheat residues on day 7 induced an increase in the mineralization of ¹²C-OM (¹²C straw itself and possible PE on SOM which cannot be verified, as both organic matters have a similar isotopic signature) (Fig. 1AD). This input did not modify the mineralization of ¹³C wheat residues (S13 min, p-value > 0.1, Fig 1C), but the presence of ¹³C straw, previously added, increased the intensity of ¹²C wheat residue mineralization and possibly its own PE (S12 min, p-value < 0.01) (Fig. 1DE).

297 3.2. Microbial Biomass Carbon (MBC)

298 After 10 days of incubation, and due to large standard errors, most treatments showed similar MB¹²C (i.e. SOM-derived MBC non-labelled microbial biomass corresponding to SOM 299 in -S12 flasks or SOM-derived MBC plus ¹²C wheat-derived MBC in + S12 flasks) in all 300 treatments to MB¹²C in the control microcosms (p-value < 0.05), even when ¹²C-enriched 301 wheat straw was added 3 days before (Fig. 2A). Nutrients and/or ¹³C-wheat straw supply 302 303 tended to reduce SOM-derived MBC, though not significantly. Only the treatment with both 304 straw amendments but without nutrient supply (-N +S13 +S12) showed a significantly higher MB¹²C. At the same time, ¹³C wheat-derived MBC (S13MBC) was not significantly affected 305 306 either by soil nutrient status or by subsequent fresh wheat addition. On day 13, MB¹²C was significantly the same in all treatments (p-value > 0.05), except when nutrients and 13 C wheat straw were added together, in which case the biomass was slightly lower. S13MBC was globally equal to, or lower than that registered on day 10.

In the absence of nutrients, the presence of ¹³C wheat residues, added previously (T0), increased the incorporation of C from ¹²C wheat in microbial biomass measured on day 10 (S12 MBC, p-value < 0.05) (Fig. 2B). Three days later, while S12 MBC increased in the non ¹³C wheat enriched condition, it drastically decreased in the ¹³C wheat enriched modality (pvalue < 0.05). Negative values mean that even SOM-feeding microbial biomass decreased, due to a non-identified mortality factor.

316 3.3. Specific respiration (qCO₂)

Specific respiration of microbes measured on day 10 are presented on figure 4. The qCO_2 was the lowest in the control condition (-N -S13 -S12, p-value < 0.05) while it increased in conditions supplemented with nutrients or with ¹³C-wheat residue (Fig. 3A). The qCO_2 derived from ¹³C-wheat decomposition was higher in the modality where no nutrients were added (p-value < 0.05). The presence of ¹³C-wheat residues lowered the qCO2 derived from ¹²C-wheat residue decomposition (p-value < 0.05) (Fig. 3B).

323

324 **4.** Discussion

325 4.1. Priming Effect generation process

The addition of ¹³C straw stimulated the mineralization of unmarked SOM-C following two phases. A first peak after three days which, according to the literature, could correspond to apparent PE (cf. review by Kuzyakov et al. [12]). This is a brief increase in respiration caused by the renewal of biomass components of the active part of microbial communities that are about to break down-feed on the labile part of ¹³C wheat. The next peak, which appeared

331 after 7 days and intensified after 10 days, should partly correspond to the real PE, which is considered as the stimulation of SOM mineralization. We cannot exclude that part of this PE 332 333 comes from the pool substitution of microbial species having longer turnover times. But as 334 (1) the cumulated PE over the 13 days period of incubation was equal to the C-MB of the 335 control condition, and (2) the microbial turnover time is usually about 30 days [Blagodatskaya et al. 2011, 43], we can conclude that at least half of the measured PE came 336 from the SOM and not from the microbial biomass pool. Therefore, in the present study the 337 338 addition of ¹³C-wheat generated a PE on the SOM, but its intensity was not impacted by soil 339 nutrient status.

340 Stoichiometric PE is usually distinguished from PE generated by "nutrient mining" because of 341 its positive correlation to nutrient enrichment, as for the mineralization of the substrate 342 which induced the PE [18,40]. Mineralization of vegetal FOM is often limited by nutrients 343 [13,21]. Therefore, as stoichiometric PE is the consequence of the activity of enzymes 344 released against FOM, it should be limited by nutrients as well. However, in the present 345 study, nutrient enrichment increased basal soil respiration but decreased ¹³C wheat 346 mineralization (Fig. 1A and 1C), suggesting that in our microcosms microbial activity was 347 limited by nutrient availability and microorganisms decomposed ¹³C wheat both for its 348 nutrients and for its carbon. Fresh organic matter from wheat is usually considered as a 349 source of easily-available C (*i.e.* energy) for microorganisms, rather than as a source of N and 350 P [13]. Nevertheless, Nicolardot et al. [44] showed that younger wheat residues had a lower 351 C:N ratio than mature residues. In the present study, the wheat residues were 97% ¹³C 352 enriched and were therefore harvested at a young stage. Furthermore, the high level of ¹³C enrichment could confer a lower decomposability to this organic matter, its C being less 353 354 available than that contained in a part of the SOM. Therefore, opportunistic populations feeding on easily available substrates (not participating in the breakdown of FOM) could have commensally fed on ¹³C-straw metabolites when the soil solution was nutrientdepleted, and on dissolved SOM when the soil solution was nutrient-enriched. This hypothesis could explain why the soil nutrient status did not change the intensity of PE as it would not change the pool of enzymes released against FOM.

360

361 In short, in the present study, nutrient enrichment did not change the intensity of the PE (Fig. 1B), but the mineralization of ¹³C wheat residue appeared to be less nutrient-limited 362 than that of the soil itself. was not nutrient limited either. Therefore, the present case does 363 364 not correspond to processes generally described in the literature, where PE is generated by 365 complex but always nutrient-poor FOM. the term "stoichiometric" does not properly qualify the PE generated by the ¹³C wheat straw on SOM after 7 days of incubations. But We will still 366 367 continue to call it by theis term to make reference to the short-term PE generated by rstrategist enzymes as described in the literature [21]. Contrarily to what was expected, the 368 369 ¹²C wheat straw addition did not generate any PE on the ¹³C wheat-straw mineralization 370 during the time of the experiment (see discussion below).

371

372 4.2. Organic Matter pool targeted by the Priming Effect

Our objective was to confirm that a stoichiometric PE, generated by the release of enzymes against new FOM, targeted a recent SOM pool with a nature closed to that of incoming FOM. Therefore, ¹²C-wheat residue was added at day 7, to see whether it could stimulate the mineralization of the ¹³C from the wheat straw added at TO. Our results showed that the mineralization of ¹³C wheat residue was not modified by the subsequent addition of unmarked straw (Fig. 1C). Therefore, enzymes released against ¹²C residues appeared not to

affect the mineralization of ¹³C straw. The first possible explanation is that FOM-directed 379 enzymes do not target a recent SOM pool, unlike already shown in the literature [21]. The 380 second explanation is a possible artefact linked to the high level of ¹³C enrichment (97%) of 381 382 the wheat straw used in the present case. This level was chosen to ensure the detection of 383 all the C flows derived from this pool during the rest of the experiment. Therefore, while 384 enzymes directed against ¹³C-wheat straw appeared to generate a PE on some pre-existing 385 SOM (see section 4. 1), enzymes directed against ¹²C straw may not be suitable for such an 386 isotope-enriched substrate.

At the opposite, the decomposition of ¹³C wheat residues had a positive effect on the 387 mineralization of ¹²C straw (and its possible own PE on SOM) at day 10 in the absence of 388 389 nutrient addition (Fig. 1DE). These results suggest that the supply of ¹³C wheat residues, 390 seven days earlier, could have increased the soil enzyme pool and/or brought some 391 nutrients which induced a kind of "priming effect" on the future mineralization of ¹²C straw. 392 Razanamalala et al [45,46] suggested that a frequent supply of fresh organic matter would 393 maintain the communities of decomposers responsible for the stoichiometric PE. This 394 mechanism would avoid the PE by nutrient mining, which targets an older OM, and 395 therefore destocks a more stabilized carbon. Our study shows that a frequent supply of fresh OM could also maintain a higher level of mineralization of each new arriving FOM, including 396 its own short-term PE on SOM that we could not evaluate here. In order to evaluate the ¹²C-397 398 straw derived PE, we should have used a third carbon label like ¹⁴C. But the PE generated by 399 the ¹³C straw hardly reached 12% of the ¹³C straw mineralization. This means that the C 400 included in the flux we called ¹²C-straw mineralization and which actually resulted from ¹²Cstraw induced PE on SOM should correspond to a minor part compared to that originating 401 from the straw itself. 402

403

404

4.3. Carbon balance allocation between mineralization and immobilization.

On day 10, the specific respiration of non-amended microcosms was higher when nutrients were not limiting (Fig. 3A), due to both a higher CO₂ evolution and a lower microbial biomass (Fig. 1 and Fig. 2A). Malagasy soils are naturally poor in nutrients and labile carbon. Nutrient enrichment, without labile C input, may have selected communities with a k-strategy, able to decompose recalcitrant SOM to balance their C:N ratio [21,47] and having thus a higher catabolic activity that limits their growth [48].

411 The addition of ¹³C wheat residues in the absence of nutrient supply also led to a higher 412 specific respiration of ¹²C-SOM (Fig. 3A), resulting from a higher respiration and a lower 413 biomass. However, when ¹³C-wheat straw and nutrients were added together, SOM specific respiration was lower. The specific respiration of ¹³C-straw followed similar trends. This 414 415 suggests that under nutrient limitation, decomposition of ¹³C-straw was ensured by slow 416 growth rate-organisms K-strategist-following a K-strategy, in the same way as the PE 417 generated on SOM. The PE generated by K-strategists under nutrient limitation has been defined as a "nutrient mining" PE [21], because K-strategists were supposed to use the 418 419 energy of FOM to mine SOM for nutrients. But in the present context, it seems that SOM mineralization is rather more nutrient limited than the amended ¹³C-wheat straw. Therefore, 420 we propose that PE generated by K-strategist enzymes directed against ¹³C-wheat helped to 421 422 decompose the SOM, as described with r-strategists in the "stoichiometric" process can be 423 ensured following r or K-strategy depending on the nutrient status of the soil and that of the 424 FOM. But more attention should be given in future studies to PE generated by recalcitrant but nutrient rich FOM. to the effect produced on SOM mineralization of inputs of 425 426 recalcitrant but nutrient rich organic matter.

427 In these poor soils (suffering from strong colimitations), inputs of either C or nutrients induced K-strategies to mine the SOM to complete their needs. But when C and nutrients are 428 429 brought together, the system might switch to populations with favor higher growth rates 430 and lower specific respiration, because they are more competitive when substrate C:N is 431 lower [25]. The specific respiration of ¹³C-straw respected this hypothesis (Fig. 3B). Therefore, 432 in these soils the stoichiometric- short-term PE appeared to follow the same rules as FOM 433 mineralization, generated following r- or K-strategies depending on the nutrient status. And 434 its contribution to the balance the allocation between C fixation in the microbial biomass vs 435 C respired to the atmosphere is also similar to the FOM mineralization itself strongly 436 depended on soil nutrient status.

437 As previously stated, we observed that ¹²C-wheat straw mineralization was higher when soil was previously amended with ¹³C-straw (Fig. 1DE), but the ¹²C microbial biomass thought 438 439 to mainly feed on this FOM was also enhanced on day 10 (Fig. 2B). The resulting specific 440 respiration was lower than in absence of ¹³C-straw amendment, showing that these 441 microorganisms favored the immobilization of C from unlabeled straw into their biomass (Fig. 442 3B). This was observed in the condition without nutrient supply (i.e. no biomass, and thus no qCO2, could be measured on the condition combining ¹³C-wheat, ¹²C-wheat and nutrient 443 supply), and thus in which the ¹³C-wheat straw addition selected for K-strategiessts. 444 Therefore, a first organic carbon input, even unaccompanied by nutrients, appeared 445 446 sufficient to enhance the soil conditions via the action of K-strategists and allow a better use 447 efficiency of C arriving in a following input via the action of r-strategists.

448

449 **5.** Conclusion

450 First, our study showed that, in our Malagasy ferralsol, C mineralization through the short-451 term PE probably generated by stoichiometric decomposition the so-called "stoichiometric 452 decomposition" of fresh wheat-straw residue followed the same allocation balance as the 453 fresh carbon itself. When the soil was nutrient depleted, fresh or SOM C seemed to be 454 mostly respired, whereas in the presence of an adequate nutrient supply, a larger fraction 455 was integrated into microbial biomass. We further propose that under nutrient limitation, 456 the fresh carbon inputs are decomposed by K-strategists known to allocate rather used to 457 generate more energy to nutrient acquisition than to create new biomass used to growth. 458 Such K strategist activity may improve soil nutrient conditions, allowing the carbon arriving 459 with the following organic input to be used by r strategists and its C to be preferentially 460 allocated to microbial biomass (Fig 4). Nutrient and enzyme monitoring and microbial 461 genetic composition analysis would help to verify our postulation. Anyhow, our results 462 showed that repeated C inputs have strong consequences on the dynamics and the fate of the different pools of C in the soil, and merit to be deeply investigated in the future. 463

464

465 Acknowledgment

The present study was partly funded by the French Foundation for Research on Biodiversity (FRB- AAP-SCEN-2013 II – CAMMiSolE project). The travel to sampling area has been made thanks to the local IRD facilities. We would like to thank also Pascal Tillard (BPMP, INRA, Montpellier, Fr) for the ¹³CO₂ analyses by IRMS.

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607

608 Figure legends

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Figure.1: Cumulative average curves of mineralized carbon as a function of incubation time (μ g CO2-C g⁻¹ dry soil) for (A) Basal Soil Organic Matter mineralization, (B) Priming Effect on SOM generated by the addition of ¹³C enriched wheat straw, (C) mineralization of ¹³C enriched wheat straw, (D) Total CO₂ released and (E) deduced mineralization of ¹²C wheat straw. Modality Codes corresponding to each curve are indicated on the graphs with solid lines and broken lines representing nutrient enriched and non-enriched conditions, respectively. The error bars represent the standard errors of the cumulative averages.

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Figure 2: Microbial biomass Carbon MBC (μ g C g⁻¹ dry soil) with standard error bars derived from (A) SOM, ¹³C-enriched wheat straw and SOM + ¹²C wheat straw, measured after 10 days and 13 days of incubation according to the different treatments, and from (B) ¹²C wheat straw at 10 and 13 days. Letters indicate the significance of the differences (ANOVA), Latinletters correspond to ¹²C enriched-MB data (SOM or SOM+¹²C-straw) and Greek-letters to ¹³C enriched-MB data.

Figure 3: Mean specific respiration $(qCO_2) \pm SE$ of microbial populations feeding on (A) SOMor ¹³C-enriched wheat straw and (B) ¹²C-enriched wheat-straw, at 10 days of incubation and depending on modalities. Latin-letters correspond to ¹²C-enriched OM data (A: SOM and B: ¹²C-wheat straw) and Greek-letters to ¹³C-enriched OM data to indicate the significance of the differences (ANOVA).

Figure 4: Schematic representation of the mechanism of priming effect generation bystoichiometric decomposition and its control by the soil nutrient status.

Figure.1



Figure.1: Cumulative averages curves \pm standard error, of mineralized carbon during incubation for each organic matter pool and according to the different modalities (µg C-CO2 cumulative g-1 dry soil \pm SE). A: Total CO₂ released under control conditions, with or without ¹²C wheat straw added at day-7. B : Priming Effect on SOM generated by the addition of ¹³C wheat straw. C: Mineralization of ¹³C straw, with or without ¹²C wheat straw at day-7. D: Mineralization of ¹²C wheat straw \pm prior presence of ¹³C straw.

The error bars represent the standard error of the cumulative average

Figure.2



Figure 2 : Carbon microbial biomass (μ g C-MB g-1 dry soil ± SE)

A : Means of quantities of ¹²C and ¹³C carbon in microbial biomass according to the different treatments at day-10 and day-13 of incubation. B : Amount of carbon from ¹²C straw in microbial biomass \pm prior presence of ¹³C straw. The error bars are the standard errors of mean, the grey ones for the ¹²C carbon data and the black ones for the ¹³C data. Letters indicate the significance of the differences (ANOVA), latin-letter correspond to ¹²C-MB data and greek-letter for ¹³C-MB data Figure.3

¹²C straw



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-

В

+

+

Figure 3 : Specific respiration of ${}^{12}C$ and ${}^{13}C$ carbon ± SE.

A : Specific respiration between the control modalities and addition of ¹³C straw at 10. B : Amount of carbon

from ¹²C straw in Specific respiration ± prior presence of ¹³C straw.

The error bars is standard error of the ratios (black for ¹²C carbon data and grey for ¹³C carbon data). Latinletters correspond to ¹²C carbon data and greek-letters to ¹³C carbon data to indicate the significance of the differences (ANOVA).



Figure 4 : Schematic representation of the mechanism of short-term priming effect generation by the FOM

decomposition as controlled by the soil nutrient status.

TREATMENTS				C MINERALIZATION ACTIVITIES			
MODALITY CODE	Nutrient	¹³ C-Wheat	¹² C-Wheat	SOM min	S13min	S13 PE*	S12min*
		straw	straw				
	N	S13	S12				
1: [-N, -S13, -S12]	-	-	-	-N Tot CO ₂			
2: [+N, -S13, -S12]	+	-	-	+N Tot CO ₂			
3: [-N, +S13, -S12]	-	+	-		-N \$13CO ₂	-N S13 PE	
4: [+N, +S13, -S12]	+	+	-		+ N \$13CO ₂	+N \$13 PE	
5: [-N, -S13, +S12]	-	-	+				-N \$12 CO ₂
6: [+N, -S13, +S12]	+	-	+				+N \$12 CO ₂
7: [-N, +S13, +S12]	-	+	+		-N S13 CO ₂		-N \$12 CO ₂
8: [+N, +S13, +S12]	+	+	+		+ N S13 CO ₂		+N S12 CO ₂
*CALCULATION	S13 PE			S12 min			
3: [-N, +S13, -S12]	= Tot CO ₂ (3) - SOM min (1)	- S13min (3)				
4: [+N, +S13, -S12]	= Tot CO ₂ (4)- SOM min (2)	- S13min (4)				
5: [-N, -S13, +S12]					= Tot CO ₂ (5) -	SOM min (1)	
6: [+N, -S13, +S12					= Tot CO ₂ (6) -	SOM min (2)	
7: [-N, +S13, +S12]				= Tot CO ₂ (7) – SOM min (1) - S13 min (7) - S13 PE (3)			
8: [+N, +S13, +S12]				= Tot CO ₂ (8) – SOM min (2) - S13 min (8) - S13 PE (4)			

Table 1: Modalities used for the different calculations (top left), measured and calculated C mineralization fluxes (top right) from the various OM pools and priming effect, and equations used for the calculations (bottom left and bottom right).

Abbreviations: Tot CO₂: Total CO₂; SOM min: basal mineralization of soil organic matter; S13min: mineralization of the ¹³C labeled straw; S13 PE: Priming Effect induced by the ¹³C labeled straw on the soil organic matter; S12 min: mineralization of C thought to come from the non-labeled straw.