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8 **Are carbon-storing soils more sensitive to climate change? A laboratory**
9 **evaluation for agricultural temperate soils**

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22 **Highlights**

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- Soil moisture regime and temperature significantly affect the carbon mineralization
 - Dry wet cycles did not stimulate the carbon mineralization relative to wet controls
 - Specific carbon mineralization did not differ among the three cropping systems at La Cage
 - Lower specific carbon mineralization in soils receiving organic waste products at QualiAgro
 - Carbon-storing soils have a similar sensitivity to climate events as baseline soils
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Abstract

A range of agroecological practices allow to increase soil organic carbon (SOC) stocks, which makes a positive impact on climate change mitigation and soil health, but the permanence of this additional SOC storage can be questioned, in particular in a climate change context. Increased temperatures, accentuated evaporation of terrestrial water and increased atmosphere moisture content are anticipated, resulting in more frequent droughts and heavy precipitation events. Understanding the SOC dynamics and assessing the sensitivity of carbon mineralization to these climatic events is necessary to anticipate future carbon losses in terrestrial ecosystems. To this respect, it seems relevant to investigate carbon-storing soils as increased carbon mineralization induced by climate change may limit the carbon storing potential in agricultural soils. Thus, we evaluated the sensitivity of SOC mineralization to increased temperature, decreased soil moisture and drying-rewetting cycles using soils from long-term field experiments. We performed an incubation experiment on topsoil (0-30cm) samples from temperate luvisols that had been under 20 years under conservation agriculture (CA), organic agriculture (ORG) and conventional agriculture (CON-LC) at the La Cage experiment, and under organic waste products (OWPs) applications in QualiAgro experiment, including biowaste composts (BIOW), residual municipal solid waste composts (MSW), farmyard manure (FYM) and conventional agriculture without organic inputs (CON-QA). Soil samples were incubated in the lab for 3 months under different temperature conditions (20, 28 and 35°C) or under different moisture conditions (matric potential: pF1.5; pF 2.5 and pF 4.2) or under several dry (pF 4.2)-wet (pF 1.5) cycles (DWC). The results shown that, whatever the agricultural practices, soil moisture regime and temperature significantly affect the SOC mineralization. Overall, the DWC did not stimulate soil carbon mineralization relative to wet controls (pF1.5 and pF2.5). Whatever the soil moisture regime and temperature, specific carbon mineralization was similar between agricultural practices at La Cage, while at QualiAgro, specific carbon mineralization was lower in soils receiving organic waste products (OWPs) compared to the

56 baseline soil. These results suggest a strong carbon stabilization by OWPs in soils as assessed by
57 laboratory incubation experiments. Within each long-term experiment, we observed no significant
58 difference between the carbon-storing soils (CA, ORG, MSW, FYM and BIOW) and their respective
59 baseline soils (CON-LC and CON-QA) in the delta SOC mineralized whatever the soil moisture regime.
60 The Q_{10} also indicated no significant difference between carbon-storing soils and their respective
61 baseline soils. These results indicate that the SOC mineralization in carbon-storing soils had a similar
62 sensitivity to the soil moisture regime and temperature as the baseline ones. Hence, the implementation
63 of these agroecological practices appears beneficial for climate change mitigation, even in the context
64 of extreme climatic events.

65 Keywords: Carbon mineralization; agroecological practices; organic waste products; climate change;
66 sensitivity

67 **1. Introduction**

68 The 4p1000 initiative encourages the establishment of agricultural practices that increase and/or
69 preserve soil carbon stocks (www.4p1000.org). At the field scale, changes in soil organic carbon (SOC)
70 stocks result from an imbalance between carbon inputs (crop residues, litterfall, root exudates,
71 exogenous organic matter application, etc.) and carbon outputs due to SOC mineralization, leaching or
72 erosion (Lal, 2018). It is generally agreed that the most efficient way to increase SOC stocks is to
73 increase carbon inputs (e.g., Virto et al., 2012, Autret et al., 2016, Fujisaki et al., 2018). This can be
74 achieved by increasing field biomass production and residue return (e.g., cover crops, Poeplau & Don,
75 2015; Autret et al., 2016), or by mobilizing and spreading external carbon resources such as organic
76 waste products (OWPs) (Peltre et al., 2012, Paetsch et al., 2016). The implementation of agroecological
77 practices that increase carbon inputs and/or reduce carbon outputs (e.g., conservation agriculture,
78 organic agriculture, OWPs application) generally result to additional carbon storage (Peltre et al., 2012,
79 Autret et al., 2016, Paetsch et al., 2016, Pellerin et al., 2019); such soils are referred to “carbon storing
80 soils” in this study. However, the question is whether the adoption of these agroecological practices
81 would still be beneficial for carbon sequestration in a warmer, drier, wetter climate or with intense dry-
82 wet cycles?

83

84 It is widely recognized that climate change affects carbon mineralization in soils (Joly et al.,
85 2023). Climate change is leading to an overall temperature increase, as well as increases in the frequency
86 and intensity of extreme climatic events such as droughts, heavy precipitation, fires, or freeze-thaw
87 cycles (Shukla et al., 2019). There is also an increase in the evaporation of terrestrial water and an
88 increase in the moisture level in the atmosphere, leading to frequent cycles of drought and heavy rainfall
89 events (Dai, 2013, Donat et al., 2016). Overall, these climatic events could have positive or negative
90 impacts on CO₂ emissions into the atmosphere by affecting ecological processes which control the
91 dynamics of organic carbon in agricultural soils. The existence of this important feedback effect has
92 prompted several studies of how climate change affects the kinetics of SOC mineralization and the
93 emission of CO₂ from soils (Kirschbaum, 2000, Smith et al., 2008). For example, increased soil
94 temperature is known to accelerate SOC decomposition because temperature-dependent reactions
95 performed by microorganisms (Davidson and Janssens, 2006) result in more rapid CO₂ emissions from
96 soil to the atmosphere (Trumbore and Czimczik, 2008, Karhu et al., 2014). Soil moisture can have a
97 great impact on SOC decomposition by affecting the oxygen diffusion into the soil and the substrate
98 availability for soil microorganisms (Linn and Doran, 1984; Suseela et al., 2012, Moyano et al., 2013,
99 Wang et al., 2014, Zhou et al., 2014, Sierra et al., 2015). With climate change, it is expected that dry-
100 wet cycles will increasingly occur across the globe. Droughts would tend to decrease biological activity,
101 but the subsequent precipitation would lead to "pulses" of CO₂ emissions to the atmosphere (Birch,
102 1958). Understanding the effects of temperature and soil moisture regime on SOC dynamics, especially
103 in carbon-storing soils, and assessing the sensitivity of carbon mineralization to these climatic events is
104 necessary to anticipate future carbon losses in terrestrial ecosystems under climate change. Climate
105 change will obviously also play on C inputs to soil which will influence SOC stock evolution, but this
106 is outside the scope of our present study.

107

108 Conant et al. (2011) define temperature sensitivity as the rate of a process (decomposition,
109 desorption) at a given temperature compared to a control temperature. Temperature sensitivity,
110 determined by Q₁₀, represents a proportional increase (or decrease) in SOC mineralization for a

111 temperature increase of a 10 °C (Kirschbaum, 1995). The Q_{10} is an important parameter for predicting
112 the fates of SOC under warmer climate (Kan et al., 2020). Findings of other studies showed that Q_{10}
113 values varied largely across the range of temperatures (Ghosh et al., 2016, 2018). Contrary to
114 temperature, there is no standardized parameter to assess the sensitivity of carbon mineralization to soil
115 moisture regime. In this study, we defined moisture sensitivity as the proportional response of soil
116 microbial respiration (SOC mineralization) of soils exposed to different moisture levels relative to a
117 control moisture. In addition to climatic factors, the quality of soil organic matter should also affect the
118 rate of decomposition (Guntiñas et al., 2013). In soils formed under similar climates and from similar
119 parent material, the quality of the organic matter depends on the vegetation cover, the quality of external
120 organic input and the type of use and management to which the soil is subjected. So, the implementation
121 of agroecological practices including conservation agriculture, organic agriculture and organic waste
122 products application (composts, manure) affects the quantity and quality of organic matter in soils
123 which, in turn, can play on the sensitivity of SOC mineralization to climate change.

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125 No-tillage and crop rotation types under conservation agriculture affect the distribution of
126 carbon in soil fractions (Zhang et al., 2020b). Some research suggests that additional C from increased
127 residue inputs accumulates mostly in particulate organic matter (POM) fractions that are on average
128 easily mineralized and only small gains occur in the resistant C pool (Bhattacharyya et al., 2011,
129 Mitchell et al., 2018). Long-term organic waste supply significantly increased the POM fractions (Peltre
130 et al., 2012, Paetsch et al., 2016). These results show that the implementation of agroecological practices
131 increasing C inputs may affect SOC temporal stability. However, there is a lack of consensus in the
132 literature on how SOC accumulated under alternative practices respond to seasonal climate variability
133 and projected climate change (Davidson and Janssens, 2006, Carey et al., 2016). The carbon loss through
134 heterotrophic respiration is intrinsically related to the availability and quality of this organic carbon
135 (Lindén et al., 2014, Hopkins et al., 2014). The POM fraction is believed to be a quite labile carbon pool
136 in soils, with a mean residence time up to 20 years (Balesdent et al., 1998). Therefore, if additional SOC
137 carbon mainly comprises POM, as suggested in the literature, then the sensitivity of SOC mineralization
138 to temperature and moisture regime under agroecological practices (carbon-storing soils) could differ

139 from that of soils where agroecological practices have not been implemented (baseline soils). Indeed,
140 previous studies have shown that labile carbon is less sensitive to temperature than stable carbon (Liski
141 et al., 1999, Conen et al., 2008, Lefèvre et al., 2014, Xu et al., 2014). Based on these findings, we
142 hypothesized that SOC mineralization in carbon-storing soils would be relatively less sensitive to
143 temperature. Conversely, soil moisture affects the oxygenation of these POMs and their accessibility to
144 decomposers by increasing the probability of contact between organic substrates and microorganisms
145 (Monard et al., 2012). Thus, the sensitivity of SOC mineralization to soil moisture regime is expected
146 to be relatively higher in carbon-storing soils than in their baseline soils. Testing these hypotheses is
147 crucial to provide knowledge that will allow to identify the best management practices that reduce CO₂
148 emissions and enhance the soil carbon sink effect, even under climate change.

149

150 We aimed to investigate in this study two related research questions. The first objective was to
151 assess the sensitivity of SOC mineralization to the soil moisture regime in carbon-storing soils compared
152 to baseline soils. To achieve this objective, we incubated in the laboratory soils collected from long-
153 term field experiments at different matric potentials (pF 1.5; pF 2.5 and pF 4.2) and subsequent dry (pF
154 4.2)-wet (pF 1.5) cycles at 20°C and monitored continuously SOC mineralization in the incubation
155 flasks. We calculated the delta SOC mineralized due to the change in soil moisture to assess the
156 sensitivity of SOC mineralization to soil moisture regime. The second objective was to assess the
157 sensitivity of SOC mineralization to temperature increase in carbon-storing soils. To do this, we also
158 incubated replicates of the same soils in the laboratory at three temperatures (20, 28 and 35°C) in optimal
159 moisture (pF 2.5). We calculated Q₁₀ using the equal carbon respired method (Conant et al., 2008) to
160 assess the sensitivity of SOC mineralization to temperature in carbon-storing soils and baseline soils.

161 **2. Materials and methods**

162 **2.1. Field site and soil sampling**

163 This study focuses on two French long-term experiments (LTEs) where agroecological practices
164 including conservation agriculture, organic agriculture and the application of organic waste products

165 with contrasting biochemical quality have resulted in increased soil organic carbon contents and stocks
166 relative to the baseline practices, i.e., conventional agriculture (Table. 1). This increase was named
167 “additional soil organic carbon” (e.g., Bamière et al., 2022), and we used the term “carbon-storing soils”
168 to refer to these soils that had stored additional carbon under agroecological practices.

169 *La Cage LTE* is conducted in Versailles (48°48’N,2°08’E). During the studied period (1998-
170 2020), the mean annual temperature and precipitation were 11.6 °C and 633 mm respectively (Fig. 1).
171 The soil is a well-drained deep Luvisol (WRB, 2015). The experimental field is arranged in a
172 randomized complete block design, divided into two blocks, themselves divided into four plots for each
173 cropping system, and then into two subplots of 0.56 ha, so that wheat is present every year in one of the
174 subplots (Autret et al., 2020). A detailed presentation of crop rotations, soil management and fertilization
175 were given by Autret et al. (2016). The 4 year’s crop rotation mainly consisted of rapeseed (*Brassica*
176 *napus L.*), winter wheat (*Triticum aestivum L.*), spring pea (*Pisum sativum L.*) and winter wheat. It
177 differed in conservation agriculture (CA) and organic agriculture (ORG) for some years, with the
178 replacement of rapeseed by maize (*Zea mays L.*) in CA or the introduction of alfalfa (*Medicago sativa*)
179 in CA and ORG.

- 180 - CON-LC is characterized by a soil and crop management representative of the Paris Basin cereal
181 production, with annual soil ploughing, the absence of organic amendment, a mineral N
182 fertilization (average rate = 143 kg N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹) and a systematic use of pesticides.
- 183 - CA includes a permanent soil cover, initially fescue (*Festuca rubra*) and since 2008 alfalfa,
184 grown under the main crops, except pea. The soil is not tilled.
- 185 - ORG is characterized by an alfalfa-alfalfa-wheat-wheat rotation. No pesticides nor mineral
186 fertilizers are used.

187 *The QualiAgro LTE* is located at Feucherolles, 20 km west of Versailles (48°52’N, 1°57’E) (Fig.
188 1). The soil is a Luvisol (WRB, 2015), cultivated for 21 years with a conventional wheat-maize rotation
189 (Peltre et al., 2012). The mean annual temperature and precipitation for the last 20 years are 11 °C and
190 614 mm respectively. It is an LTE conducted in collaboration with INRAE and Veolia Environment

191 Research and Innovation since 1998, on which composts of organic waste products (OWPs) are applied
192 every 2 years before tillage, at a dose equivalent to $\sim 4 \text{ t C. ha}^{-1}$ from 1998 to 2013 and $\sim 2 \text{ t C. ha}^{-1}$ from
193 2015 to 2020. The completely randomized block comprised an area of 6 ha with 40 plots of 450 m^2 each
194 and 4 replicates per treatment. Since 2015, wheat and maize residues are buried in the soil. Three organic
195 amendments are considered in this study and compared to a conventional agriculture treatment without
196 organic inputs (CON-QA):

- 197 – Biowaste compost (BIOW): composting of the fermentable fraction of selectively collected
198 household waste, mixed with green waste;
- 199 – Municipal solid waste compost (MSW): composting of the residual fraction of household waste
200 after selective collection of packaging;
- 201 – Farmyard manure (FYM) which represents the reference amendment in the region.

202 Soils from both LTEs were sampled at $30 \pm 1 \text{ cm}$ depth and stored in a chamber at 4°C after sieving to
203 $<4 \text{ mm}$ a composite sample per plot.

204 **2.2. Laboratory incubations**

205

206 Surface soils (0-30cm) sieved to $<4 \text{ mm}$ was used for a microcosms incubation experiment to determine
207 the effects of temperature ($T^\circ\text{C}$), soil moisture (pF), and dry-wet-cycles (DWC) on SOC mineralization.
208 Before incubating the soil samples, a water content and matric potential response curve was established
209 using Richard's presses. The water contents at saturation and corresponding to pF 1.5, pF 2.5 and pF 4.2
210 were determined for soils under each agricultural practice considered in this study (results presented in
211 Table S1).

212 **2.2.1. Soil cylinder construction and pre-incubation**

213 Polyvinyl chloride (PVC) cylinders 5.7 cm in diameter and 4 cm in height with 2 mm perforations were
214 used. A $50 \mu\text{m}$ mesh cloth at the bottom of the cylinder provided support for the soil while promoting
215 gas exchange. Each cylinder was weighed empty and then with fresh soil equivalent to 100g dry soil.
216 Samples were then brought to a bulk density of 1.3 g.cm^{-3} with a hand press and mold. Knowing the

217 initial water content, the samples were gradually brought to pF 2.5 adding water with a pasteur pipette.
218 Then the microcosms were mounted in 1L jars. The soil cylinders were placed on PVC supports and 15
219 mL of water was added to the bottom of the jars to stabilize the moisture. The jars were closed and the
220 whole set was put in the incubator at 20°C for a one-week pre-incubation. Four replicates per agricultural
221 practice and per moisture regime or temperature were prepared.

222 **2.2.2. Experiment with soil moisture regime**

223 To evaluate the effect of soil moisture regime on SOC mineralization, 4 soil moisture scenarios were
224 performed and applied at 20°C: a continuously wet scenario at pF 1.5 (WET); a continuously moderated
225 wet scenario at pF 2.5 (MWET); a continuously dry scenario at pF 4.2 (DRY) and a five subsequent
226 dry-wet cycles scenario (DWC). To obtain the continuously moisture scenario after pre-incubation at
227 pF 2.5, we added deionized water using a pasteur pipette to bring the replicates dedicated for WET
228 scenario to pF 1.5. For replicates dedicated to MWET scenario (pF 2.5), we checked if the soil moisture
229 corresponded to pF2.5. For the replicates dedicated to the DRY scenario, we introduced 50 g of silica-
230 gel during the pre-incubation phase to dry the soil. As soon as the moisture level corresponding to pF4.2
231 was reached, we removed the silica-gel from the jars. For DWC scenario, five dry–wet cycles were
232 implemented during the experimental period (97 d). Each cycle contained two phases, 10 days of drying
233 phase, followed by 7 days of moist phase after rewetting. The drying phase consisted of adding silica
234 gel to the incubation jars to absorb the soil water and allow for a gradual soil drying. For this, perforated
235 PVC cylinders containing 50 g of silica gel were added to each jar and changed after 6 days when the
236 jars were vented after measuring the CO₂ concentration in the headspace by micro-chromatography. A
237 preliminary experiment had allowed to establish the amount of silica gel needed to dry the soil samples
238 to pF 4.2 in 10 days. At the end of the drying period, rapid rewetting was performed by adding deionized
239 water (the amount of water needed to reach pF 1.5) with a pasteur pipette. The same procedure was
240 repeated for 5 times to simulate the dry-wet cycles in the soils. The four scenarios are schematized in
241 Fig. 2.

242 **2.2.3. Experiment with increased temperatures**

243 To evaluate the effect of temperature on carbon mineralization, 3 temperature scenarios were compared:
244 20°C; 28°C and 35°C, using four replicates per scenario. The soil cylinders were kept at constant

245 moisture (pF2.5). After the one-week pre-incubation the jars were placed either in an incubator set at
246 20°C, or in a thermostat chamber at 28°C and at 35°C and incubated for 92 days. We maintained constant
247 soil moisture by weighing each sample after each CO₂ measurement and adjusting the moisture content
248 to the target mass.

249

250 **2.2.4. Mineralization monitoring**

251 Soil organic carbon (SOC) mineralization was monitored regularly for 97 days, with measurements on
252 days 1, 3, 7, 13, 17, 24, 28, 34, 41, 45, 51, 59, 63, 69, 76, 80, 86 and 97 for each soil moisture scenario,
253 and on days 1, 3, 7, 15, 22, 30, 37, 52, 65, 79 and 92 for each temperature scenario. SOC mineralization
254 was measured non-destructively using a gas micro-chromatograph (μGC 490; Agilent Technologie;
255 USA). The absolute amount of CO₂ emitted is measured in parts per million (ppm). It is then converted
256 to μg C-CO₂ g⁻¹ dry soil with the following formula:

$$257 \quad \mu\text{g C-CO}_2\text{.g}^{-1} \text{ dry soil} = \frac{\text{CO}_2 \text{ (ppm)} * M_c * V_b}{V_M * M_{\text{soil}}} \quad (1), \text{ (Védère et al., 2020), with CO}_2 \text{ (ppm):}$$

258 amount of CO₂ emitted measured by gas micro-chromatograph; M_c: molar mass of carbon in g.mol⁻¹;

259 V_b: volume of the jar in L; V_M: molar volume of gas in L.mol⁻¹ and M_{soil}: mass of incubated soil in g.

260 Then the absolute amount of carbon mineralized was expressed per unit of SOC to obtain the specific
261 SOC mineralization in μg C-CO₂ /100 μg SOC, i.e., % SOC mineralized.

262

263 **2.2.5. Soil moisture effect and sensitivity of SOC mineralization**

264 The soil moisture effect on SOC mineralization was determined by calculating the delta SOC
265 mineralized i.e., the difference in specific SOC mineralized between the high moisture (WET), low-
266 moisture (DRY) and dry-wet-cycle (DWC) with specific SOC mineralized under optimal moisture
267 (MWET). A negative value indicates an inhibition of SOC mineralization, while a positive value
268 indicates a stimulation of SOC mineralization. Furthermore, to assess the sensitivity of carbon-storing
269 soils to the soil moisture regime, we compared the delta SOC mineralized under WET, DRY, and DWC

270 between baseline soils (CON-LC and CON-QA for La Cage and QualiAgro LTEs, respectively) and
271 soils under agroecological practices, i.e., CA, ORG, MSW, FYM and BIOW.

272 **2.2.6. Temperature sensitivity of SOC mineralization**

273 The Q_{10} was used in this study to estimate the sensitivity of organic carbon mineralization under different
274 agricultural practices to temperature increase. The method for calculating Q_{10} at equal carbon
275 mineralized (Q_{10-q}) described by Conant et al. (2008) was carried out in this study. This method
276 involves determining the amount of time needed for a given amount of SOC to be respired at a given
277 temperature. The time required to respire a given amount of SOC at two temperatures is then used to
278 calculate a Q_{10} value. This method of analysis eliminates the problem of fixed incubation duration
279 leading to comparison of different SOC pools, which confounds characterization of temperature
280 sensitivity (Reichstein et al., 2000, 2005, Leifeld & Fuhrer, 2005). Therefore, the Q_{10} was calculated for
281 1% and 3% of respired SOC. The Q_{10} is calculated for 2 temperature ranges (20-28°C and 28-35°C)
282 with the following formula:

283
$$Q_{10-q} = \left(\frac{t_1}{t_2}\right) e^{\left(\frac{10}{T_2-T_1}\right)}$$
 (2) (Conant et al., 2008), with t_1 and t_2 the time required to
284 respired the same amount of carbon at low temperature (T_1) and high temperature (T_2).

285 **2.3. Statistical analysis**

286 All data were tested for normality and homogeneity of variance. Log-transformation was applied, if the
287 transformation improved the normality and variance substantially. A one-way ANOVA with Tukey's
288 test was used to detect the differences in Q_{10} , the delta SOC mineralized and the amount of SOC
289 mineralized among soil moisture and temperature scenarios within each field site, then across all
290 scenarios in both sites. When the normality or homogeneity of the data was not confirmed, we applied
291 the non-parametric Kruskal-Wallis test. All statistical analyses were completed in R (version 4.0.2).

292 **3. Results**

293 **3.1. Soil carbon mineralization under diverse moisture regimes, temperatures and**
294 **agricultural practices**

295 Increasing soil moisture significantly affected SOC mineralization in the La Cage and
296 QualiAgro LTEs (Table. 2; $p < 0.05$). Also, SOC mineralization followed a polynomial function with the
297 soil matric potential (Fig. 3). Carbon mineralization under soil moisture regime was in this order:
298 WET=MWET>DWC>DRY. To better observe the effect of soil moisture regime on carbon
299 mineralization, we considered the MWET as the moisture control in order to calculate the delta SOC
300 mineralization induced by the change in soil moisture. The delta SOC mineralized in the WET scenario
301 compared to MWET was on average +0.07 to +1.10 % of SOC (Fig. 6), showing a lack of or a weak
302 stimulation of SOC mineralization with increasing soil moisture above pF 2.5 (Fig. 6). The delta SOC
303 mineralized was significantly larger at La Cage (CON-LC: 1.10 ± 0.45 ; ORG: 0.89 ± 0.76 and CA: 0.69
304 $\pm 0.52\%$ of SOC) than at QualiAgro (CON-QA: 0.12 ± 0.43 ; MSW: 0.24 ± 0.24 ; FYM: 0.07 ± 0.12 and
305 BIOW: $0.30 \pm 0.10\%$ of SOC) ($p < 0.05$; Fig. 6). Increasing the soil moisture from pF2.5 to pF1.5 did not
306 significantly increase carbon mineralization at QualiAgro. In contrast, the DWC and DRY scenarios
307 inhibited carbon mineralization relative to MWET scenario (Fig. 6). SOC mineralization in DWC
308 decreased on average between 1.15 to 2.16 % of SOC and in DRY scenario on average between 2.35 to
309 2.97 % SOC (Fig. 6). This result suggests that multiple dry-wet cycles (DWC) did not stimulate carbon
310 mineralization relative to the optimum soil moisture (MWET), whereas multiple DWC stimulated
311 carbon mineralization relative to the low moisture scenario (DRY).

312

313 Increasing temperature also significantly affected cumulative SOC mineralization in both LTEs
314 (Table 3; $p < 0.05$). Except the CON-LC where no significant difference was found between
315 mineralization at 20 and 28°C, the soils under other agricultural practices showed significant differences
316 between 20, 28 and 35°C (Table. 3; $p < 0.05$).

317

318 At QualiAgro, we observed a significantly larger specific SOC mineralization in the reference
319 plots (CON-QA) compared to the plots that received organic waste products (CON-QA>BIOW=FYM

320 =MSW), whatever the soil moisture regime and temperature (Fig. 5, Fig. 7c, Fig. 7d), indicating less
321 stabilization of SOC in CON-QA. However, at La Cage, regardless of soil moisture regime and
322 temperature (Fig. 4, Fig. 7a, Fig. 7b), there was no difference in specific mineralization rates between
323 the treatments (ORG, CA) relative to the conventional agriculture (CON-LC).

324

325 In addition, the effect of agricultural practices in both LTEs reported in Table 2, indicates that
326 CON-LC baseline practice at La Cage and the CON-QA baseline practice at QualiAgro, not only had
327 similar SOC contents ($9.82 \pm 0.48 \text{ g C.kg}^{-1}$ and $10.11 \pm 1.12 \text{ g C.kg}^{-1}$ respectively) but also had the same
328 percentage of mineralized SOC whatever the soil moisture regime. Moreover, the percentage of SOC
329 mineralized under agroecological practices at La Cage (CA: 2.24 to 5.61 % SOC and ORG: 2.56 to
330 6.38 % SOC) was significantly larger than under organic waste products application (MSW: 1.46 to
331 4.09 % SOC; FYM: 1.48 to 4.06 % SOC and BIOW: 1.23 to 3.89 % SOC) (Table. 2). Also, when
332 comparing the agroecological practices in both LTEs, we found that the agroecological practices at La
333 Cage (ORG and CA) generated more SOC loss than agroecological practices at QualiAgro (BIOW,
334 MSW, and FYM) after 3 months of incubation at diverse temperatures (Table. 3).

335

336 **3.2. Sensitivity of SOC mineralization to soil moisture regime**

337 The analysis of variance (ANOVA) revealed that within each LTE, we observed no significant
338 difference between the carbon-storing soils (CA, ORG, MSW, FYM and BIOW) and their respective
339 baseline soils (CON-LC and CON-QA) in the delta SOC mineralized whatever the soil moisture regime
340 (Fig. 6). These results indicate that the carbon-storing soils had a similar sensitivity to the soil moisture
341 regime as the baseline ones.

342

343 **3.3. Sensitivity of SOC mineralization to temperature increase**

344 The mean Q_{10} corresponding to equal 1% mineralized SOC at QualiAgro ranged between 1.90 to 2.53
345 for the 20-28°C temperature range, compared to 1.38 to 1.55 at La Cage (Fig. 8). These Q_{10} did not
346 change significantly from 1% to 3% mineralized SOC (Table S2). Furthermore, the Q_{10} for the
347 temperature range 20-28°C was larger for the BIOW plot than for the CON-LC plot (Fig. 8; $p < 0.05$),

348 but no significant difference was found between agroecological practices (CA, ORG, MSW, FYM and
349 FYM). For the temperature range 28-35°C we did not observe any significant difference between
350 agricultural practices (Fig. 8, $p > 0.05$). The SOC under OWP practices (BIOW, FYM and MSW) had
351 the same sensitivity of SOC mineralization to temperature as their baseline practice (CON-QA), as did
352 the CA and ORG with their baseline practice (CON-LC). These results indicate that carbon-storing soils
353 had a similar sensitivity of SOC mineralization to temperature increase as the baseline soils.

354 **4. Discussion**

355 **4.1. Soil carbon mineralization under soil moisture regime and temperature**

356 The interaction of soil microbes with their physical environment affects their ability to
357 mineralize SOC into CO₂. One of these environmental factors is soil moisture (Cook & Orchard, 2008).
358 The results of the present study indicated that SOC mineralization followed a polynomial function with
359 soil matric potential (Fig. 3). Manzoni et al. (2012) and Moyano et al. (2012) in their meta-analyses
360 found for their dataset that the soil heterotrophic respiration (mineralization) decreased steadily when
361 the matric potential became more negative, i.e., for high pF values. This result agrees with ours, where
362 SOC mineralization decreased as we reach higher pFs ($pF_{1.5} \geq pF_{2.5} > pF_{4.2}$), i.e., lower matric
363 potentials ($-0.015 \text{ MPa} \geq -0.033 \text{ MPa} > -1.6 \text{ MPa}$). Such a decrease in respiration is associated with a
364 reduction in solute diffusivity in mineral soils at low soil moisture (pF_{4.2}), because water-filled
365 capillaries become disconnected as the soil becomes drier (Moldrup et al., 2001). Therefore, solute
366 diffusivity (and thus substrate and nutrient bioavailability) may be the most limiting factor under dry
367 conditions (Skopp et al., 1990, Schjønning et al., 2003, Or et al., 2007, Moyano et al., 2013). Conversely,
368 increasing soil moisture increases solute diffusion rates in soils, enhancing the accessibility of substrates
369 by soil microorganisms (Monard et al., 2012, Moyano et al., 2013, Manzoni and Katul, 2014). Our
370 results are consistent with the hypothesis that higher soil moisture increase the accessibility of SOC to
371 decomposers and thus lead to more SOC mineralization than low moisture contents, provided the soil
372 moisture remains well below saturation, where oxygen diffusion rates becomes a limiting factor for
373 heterotrophic respiration (Cook and Orchard, 2008, Moyano et al., 2013).

374

375 In addition, the percentage of SOC mineralized at pF1.5 (WET) after 97 days are statistically
376 identical to the percentage at pF2.5 (MWET) (Table. 2), implying that the increase in soil moisture
377 beyond pF2.5 did not result in significant further CO₂ emission to the atmosphere. This result suggests
378 that at pF2.5, the mineralization optimum was reached, and increasing soil moisture to pF1.5 does not
379 yet alter SOC mineralization due to slight anoxia. Because the diffusion rate of oxygen through water is
380 much lower than through air (Cook and Knight, 2003), the metabolic activity of aerobic organisms also
381 decreases as soil pore space fills with water and approaches saturation levels (Franzluebbers, 1999).
382 Curtin et al. (2012) showed that the optimum matric potential for mineralization can be as high as -0.005
383 MPa; while the meta-analysis by Moyano et al. (2012) found an optimum matric potential for
384 mineralization of -0.001 MPa corresponding to pF 1. In our case, we observed no decrease in SOC
385 mineralization in the wettest state, i.e., -0.015 MPa (pF1.5). One possible explanation is that the soil was
386 sieved and repacked and the cores had a high inter-aggregate macroporosity favorable to air circulation,
387 preventing anoxia, or that at pF1.5 a slight anoxia at compensated for a better substrate diffusion
388 compared to pF2.5 resulting in similar SOC mineralization rates at pF1.5 and 2.5.

389

390 The dry-wet cycles scenario tested in this study did not induce substantial delta SOC
391 mineralization when compared to optimum moisture (MWET), but did if compared to low moisture
392 (DRY) scenario (Table. 2). The drying phase induced low carbon mineralization rates as a result of
393 reduced microbial activity (Franzluebbers et al., 1994, Pulleman and Tietema, 1999) and decreased
394 accessibility of the organic substrate to decomposers (Manzoni et al., 2012). This low mineralization
395 was not compensated by the flush observed after rewetting (Mikha et al., 2005, Yemadje et al., 2017).
396 Zhang et al. (2020) in their meta-analysis showed that, on average, dry-wet-cycles stimulated soil carbon
397 mineralization by 72% relative to mineralization at low-moisture and inhibited carbon mineralization
398 by 25% relative to incubation at high-moisture which is consistent with our results. Relevant controls
399 are indeed needed when evaluating the importance of the Birch effect (Kpemoua et al., 2023).

400

401 Temperature generally had a positive effect on cumulative SOC mineralization, which was
402 manifested by larger CO₂ emissions at higher temperatures (Table. 3). Similar increases in SOC

403 mineralization with increasing temperature have previously been observed in many other studies (e.g.,
404 Conant et al., 2008, Ghosh et al., 2016, Ghimire et al., 2019, Fu et al., 2020). Temperature rise affects
405 most of the physiological activity of microbial cell and accelerates residue decomposition (Reichstein
406 et al., 2000, Yun et al., 2019).

407

408 **4.2. Soil carbon mineralization under agricultural practices**

409

410 We observed no significant difference in specific SOC mineralization rate between conventional
411 agriculture (CON-LC) and agroecological practices (ORG and CA) at La Cage, whatever soil moisture
412 regime and whatever the temperature. This result supports previous results obtained by Autret et al.
413 (2020) on the same LTE, where soil incubation at pF 3 reported similar specific carbon mineralization
414 between alternative practices (conservation, organic and low input agriculture) and conventional
415 agriculture. Some studies (Dendooven et al., 2012, Ussiri and Lal, 2009) did measure lower SOC
416 mineralization rates under no tillage, ascribed to less favorable local climatic conditions and better
417 physical protection of organic matter in the soil structure (Balesdent et al., 2000). Similarly to our
418 results, Zhang et al. (2020b), showed that tillage had no influence on specific C mineralization, while
419 the interaction of tillage and depth had a significant effect. In the present study, we incubated samples
420 from the surface to a depth equivalent to the soil mass of 4300 kg. ha⁻¹ (corresponding to 30 ± 1 cm),
421 regardless of agricultural practice. No-tillage typically results in carbon stratification in the soil (e.g.,
422 Zhao et al., 2015). We hypothesize that the physical protection of carbon is increased in the first 10 cm
423 under no-tillage, but that considering a 0-30 cm soil layer cancels out this effect. Another hypothesis is
424 that sieving the soils to <4 mm before incubation would have removed the physical protection occurring
425 in macroaggregates in the CA soils.

426

427 At the QualiAgro LTE, the application of organic waste products (MSW, FYM and BIOW)
428 reduced significantly SOC mineralization, compared to conventional agriculture without organic inputs
429 (CON-QA) whatever soil moisture regime and whatever the temperature. These results can be explained
430 by the fact that composts and farmyard manure have previously undergone a period of decomposition

431 and therefore mineralize less rapidly than crop residues that contain higher proportions of easily
432 mineralizable organic carbon (Chodak et al., 2001, Leifeld et al., 2002). The physico-chemical
433 composition of the organic waste products (OWPs) has been analyzed by Peltre et al. (2012) at the
434 QualiAgro LTE. They show that residual municipal solid waste compost (MSW) is the OWP with the
435 least lignin, and biowaste compost (BIOW) the one with the most. Lignin is known to be a compound
436 resistant to microbial degradation at a year to decadal timescale, which would explain why BIOW tends
437 to mineralize less SOC than MSW and FYM (Table. 2). In the same way, an incubation study of
438 substrates of different quality showed that manure is less biodegradable than crop residues such as straw
439 and suggests that this is due to a more stable chemical quality, as manure is already biodegraded during
440 animal digestion and storage (Benbi and Khosa, 2014). Fortuna et al. (2003) found that easily
441 mineralizable C constituted less of the SOC in soils fertilized with compost as compared with soils that
442 were fertilized with mineral N. Other studies have also shown that the application of organic
443 amendments that include composts and manure have the potential to reduce CO₂ emission per unit of
444 SOC since these best management practices contribute to carbon stabilization (Dou et al., 2008,
445 Bhowmik et al., 2017).

446

447 Overall, the cumulative specific SOC mineralization in our incubations was much less for soils
448 that received organic waste products plus crop residues (MSW, FYM, BIOW) than for soils receiving
449 only crop residues (CON-QA, CON, ORG, CA) (Table. 2 and Table. 3). This result thus confirms that
450 soils that received organic waste were depleted in labile SOC compared to soils that received only crop
451 residues. In contrast to our results, Obriot (2016) had observed similar proportions of soil organic carbon
452 mineralization between the conventional system without organic inputs and plots that had received 7
453 successive applications of organic waste products. We assume that the long-term application (11
454 successive applications in our study) of organic waste products led to a greater stabilization of carbon
455 in the soil, which makes it less biodegraded by microorganisms.

456

457 **4.3. Sensitivity of SOC mineralization to soil moisture regime**

458

459 The results of the delta SOC mineralized due to soil moisture regime change indicated no
460 significant difference between carbon-storing soils (CA and ORG) and the baseline soil (CON-LC) at
461 La Cage (Fig. 6). These results suggest that the decomposability of organic carbon is similar under the
462 contrasted agricultural practices whatever the soil moisture regime, or the environmental conditions for
463 decomposers are the same (Autret et al., 2020). Regarding the decomposability of the organic carbon, it
464 is likely that the nature of organic inputs to soil is rather similar as soil organic matter exhibits similar
465 C/N ratio (Table. 1) and wheat is cropped one year out of two in all plots (Autret et al., 2016). The
466 sensitivity of SOC mineralization to soil moisture regime is not affected by the cropping system nor
467 tillage practice in this LTE.

468

469 At the QualiAgro LTE, the delta SOC mineralized due to changes in soil moisture regime also
470 showed no significant difference between the baseline soil (CON-QA) and carbon-storing soils (MSW,
471 BLOW and FYM). This result indicates that although the SOC in the baseline soil is more biodegradable
472 on average, it has similar sensitivity of carbon mineralization to soil moisture regime than the SOC of
473 carbon storing soils. The results in both experiments are contrary to our initial hypothesis concerning
474 the higher sensitivity of carbon mineralization to soil moisture regime in carbon-storing soils relative to
475 their baseline. Therefore, in a drier, wetter, or dry-wet conditions, the agroecological practices
476 implemented in both LTEs are still beneficial for climate change mitigation.

477

478 **4.4. Sensitivity of SOC mineralization to temperature increase**

479

480 We found that the Q_{10} values (20-28°C: 1.38, 1.52 and 1.55 respectively for CON-LC, CA and
481 ORG) were not significantly different under the contrasted agricultural practices at La Cage (Fig. 8).
482 These results are contrary to those reported by Parihar et al. (2019), who found the extent of increase in
483 mineralization with temperature elevation to be higher under conventional agriculture (high Q_{10}) than
484 under conservation agriculture (low Q_{10}) whatever the soil depth. They justified their results by the high
485 physical protection of the SOC under conservation agriculture limiting its accessibility to soil microbial
486 degradation (Six et al., 2002). However, Autret et al (2016, 2020) had found in the La Cage LTE that

487 the increase in carbon stocks in conservation agriculture was mainly due to the carbon input rather than
488 to the expected physical protection. This result confirms ours, leading us to assume that neither tillage
489 practice nor cropping systems affected the sensitivity of SOC mineralization to temperature increase.
490 So, the carbon-storing soils (CA, ORG) at La Cage had a similar sensitivity of SOC mineralization to
491 temperature increases as the baseline soil (CON-LC).

492

493 At QualiAgro, the Q_{10} value (Fig. 8) also did not reveal any significant difference between the
494 agricultural practices (20-28°C: 1.90; 2.44; 2.37 and 2.52 for CON-QA, MSW, FYM and BLOW
495 respectively). These results suggest that the carbon-storing soils (MSW, FYM, BLOW) at QualiAgro
496 and the baseline soil (CON-QA) had the same sensitivity of SOC mineralization to temperature increase.
497 This result contrasts with Benbi and Khosa (2014) who showed that temperature sensitivity depends on
498 the quality of the substrate, and that manure is more sensitive ($Q_{10} = 3$) than green waste which is easily
499 decomposable ($Q_{10} = 2.5$). However, they measured the mineralization of manure and green waste
500 directly and not the soils that were amended with manure or green waste as we did.

501

502 In summary, the Q_{10} values obtained in the present study were generally close to the values
503 reported in the meta-analysis by Hamdi et al. (2013) for agricultural soils. No differences were observed
504 between the agricultural practice in both LTEs on their temperature sensitivity, although slightly higher
505 Q_{10} values were observed at QualiAgro, especially in OWP practices than in conservation and organic
506 agriculture. To test the robustness of this result, we also calculated the Q_{10} calculated for 3% of SOC
507 being mineralized in the incubations. We found it was not significantly different, neither across
508 agricultural practices nor from the Q_{10} calculated for 1% SOC mineralized (Table S2). This result
509 suggests that the carbon pool mineralized during 3 months incubation had similar quality and sensitivity
510 whatever the agricultural practice.

511

512 5. Conclusion

513

514 While a diversity of agroecological management options allow to store additional organic carbon in
515 soil, a remaining question concerns the permanence and vulnerability of this stored carbon. This study
516 examined the response of soil organic carbon stored by agroecological practices to climate change. We
517 found that the heterotrophic respiration of “carbon-storing soils” had similar sensitivities compared to
518 their baseline counterparts, regarding soil moisture regime changes and temperature increases. Hence,
519 the implementation of these agroecological practices appears beneficial for climate change mitigation,
520 even in the context of extreme climatic events.

521 Here were assessed the sensitivity of soils managed under different agricultural practices to climate
522 change, i.e., according to IPCC (2001) the degree to which a system or species is affected, either
523 adversely or beneficially, by climate variability or change. IPCC considers that the vulnerability to
524 climate change is wider, as it encompasses also the capacity to adapt to climate change. In further
525 studies, other aspects could be accounted for, such as the soils capacity to retain water, which our results
526 suggest to be increased in the carbon-storing soils, the changes moisture and temperature regime
527 consequent to the presence of a mulch, such as in conservation agriculture, or to changes in albedo,
528 consequent to OWPs applications.

529

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539

540

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Table 1 Physical and chemical properties of the soil at “La Cage” (layer 0-25 cm) and “QualiAgro (layer 0-29 cm)” measured at the start of experiment in 1998 (Peltre et al., 2012; Autret et al., 2016) to 2020 at QualiAgro and La Cage (layer 0-30 cm). CON-LC (conventional agriculture); ORG (organic agriculture); CA (conservation agriculture); CON-QA (conventional agriculture without organic inputs); MSW (residual municipal solid waste compost); FYM (farmyard manure) and BIOW (biowaste compost).

Table 2 Soil organic carbon content according to agricultural practices, percentage of SOC mineralized according to soil moisture scenario: continuously wet scenario at pF1.5 (WET); continuously moderated wet scenario at pF2.5 (MWET); continuously dry scenario at pF4.2 (DRY) and Dry-wet cycles scenario (DWC). SOC: soil organic carbon; CON-LC: conventional agriculture; ORG: organic agriculture; CA: conservation agriculture; CON-QA: conventional agriculture without organic waste products; MSW: residual municipal solid waste compost; FYM: farmyard manure; BIOW: biowaste compost. NS: non-significant; ANOVA: analysis of the variance. (Υ): p-value of soil moisture regime effect on SOC mineralization and (⊥): p-value of agricultural practices effect. Uppercase letters represent differences between soil moisture scenarios and lowercase letters represent differences between agricultural practices. A significant difference is obtained for $p < 0.05$.

Table 3 Percentage of SOC mineralized according to temperature increasing. (Υ): p-value of incubation temperature effect on SOC mineralization and (⊥): p-value of agricultural practices effect. Uppercase

867 letters represent differences between temperature scenarios and lowercase letters represent differences
868 between agricultural practices. A significant difference is obtained for $p < 0.05$.

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888

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893 per scenario. A significant difference between agricultural practices is obtained for $p < 0.05$. Letters
894 represent differences between agricultural practices.

895

896 **Fig. 6.** Delta SOC mineralized under WET, DWC and DRY scenarios relative to MWET scenario. Error
897 bars indicate standard deviation of 4 replicates per scenario. Values above zero indicate that the scenario
898 stimulates carbon mineralization relative to MWET scenario, and values below zero indicate that the
899 scenario inhibits carbon mineralization relative to MWET scenario. A significant difference between
900 carbon-storing soils and baseline soils is obtained for $p < 0.05$. Letters represent differences between
901 agricultural practices.

902

903 **Fig. 7.** Temperature effect on specific cumulative soil organic carbon (SOC) mineralization under 28°C
904 [(a) and (c)] and 35°C [(b) and (d)] at QualiAgro and La Cage experiments. Error bars indicate standard
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906 for $p < 0.05$. Letters represent differences between agricultural practices.

907

908 **Fig. 8.** Q_{10} values distribution according to agricultural practices. On the left the Q_{10} for the temperature
909 range 20-28°C and on the right the Q_{10} for the range 28-35°C. The red dots inside the boxplot represent
910 the mean value whose numerical value is indicated above. A significant difference between agricultural
911 practices is obtained for $p < 0.05$.

912

913 **Table. 1** Physical and chemical properties of the soil at “La Cage” (layer 0-25 cm) and “QualiAgro
 914 (layer 0-29 cm)” measured at the start of experiment in 1998 (Peltre et al., 2012; Autret et al., 2016) to
 915 2020 at QualiAgro and La Cage (layer 0-30 cm). CON-LC (conventional agriculture); ORG (organic
 916 agriculture); CA (conservation agriculture); CON-QA (conventional agriculture without organic inputs);
 917 MSW (residual municipal solid waste compost); FYM (farmyard manure) and BLOW (biowaste
 918 compost).

LTEs	Agricultural practices	Tillage modality	Block	Clay	Silt	Sand	C	N	C/N	pH _{H2O}	Exchangeable cations (Cmol ⁺ .kg ⁻¹)				CEC Cmol ⁺ . kg ⁻¹
											K ⁺	Na ⁺	Ca ²⁺	Mg ²⁺	
La Cage 1998				-			9.85	0.99	9.95	7.37	-	-	-	-	11.52
La Cage 2020	CON-LC	Tillage	1				10.05	0.88	11.55	7.20	0.546	0.039	13.80	1.78	11.10
			2	170	560	270	9.25	0.91	10.15	7.15	0.584	0.039	13.30	1.75	9.85
	ORG		1				10.60	0.99	10.65	6.90	0.395	0.039	13.40	1.97	10.10
			2				10.05	0.95	10.60	7.20	0.474	0.039	13.00	2.01	9.80
	CA	No Tillage	1				13.55	1.32	10.25	7.15	0.707	0.039	13.95	2.28	10.95
			2				12.05	1.06	11.50	7.15	0.679	0.039	13.70	2.33	10.75
QualiAgro 1998				-			10.39	1.12	9.25	6.80	0.442	0.021	8.298	0.494	9.71
QualiAgro 2020	CON-QA	Tillage	-				10.11	1.04	9.65	6.74	0.270	0.032	7.67	0.455	8.25
			-	156	778	65	13.38	1.31	10.25	7.77	0.375	0.053	10.19	0.533	10.75
	FYM	-				14.30	1.41	10.16	7.31	0.922	0.039	8.65	0.950	10.27	
	BLOW	-				16.62	1.66	9.12	7.71	0.610	0.04	10.86	0.650	11.77	

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922 **Table. 2** Soil organic carbon content according to agricultural practices, percentage of SOC mineralized
 923 according to soil moisture scenario: continuously wet scenario at pF1.5 (WET); continuously moderated
 924 wet scenario at pF2.5 (MWET); continuously dry scenario at pF4.2 (DRY) and Dry-wet cycles scenario
 925 (DWC). SOC: soil organic carbon; CON-LC: conventional agriculture; ORG: organic agriculture; CA:
 926 conservation agriculture; CON-QA: conventional agriculture without organic waste products; MSW:
 927 residual municipal solid waste compost; FYM: farmyard manure; BLOW: biowaste compost. NS: non-
 928 significant; ANOVA: analysis of the variance. (Υ): p-value of soil moisture regime effect on SOC
 929 mineralization and (⊥): p-value of agricultural practices effect. Uppercase letters represent differences
 930 between soil moisture scenarios and lowercase letters represent differences between agricultural
 931 practices. A significant difference is obtained for p<0.05.

932

LTE	Agricultural practices	SOC g.kg ⁻¹	% SOC mineralized				p-value (Y) ANOVA
			WET	MWET	DWC	DRY	
La Cage	CON-LC	9.82 ± 0.48 ^d	5.53 ± 0.44 ^{abA}	4.43 ± 0.74 ^{aA}	3.27 ± 0.47 ^{abC}	1.93 ± 0.26 ^{abD}	<i>p</i> < 0.05
	ORG	10.39 ± 0.42 ^d	6.38 ± 0.52 ^{aA}	5.57 ± 0.31 ^{aA}	3.33 ± 0.43 ^{aC}	2.56 ± 0.33 ^{aD}	
	CA	13.30 ± 1.05 ^b	5.61 ± 0.88 ^{abA}	4.67 ± 0.26 ^{aA}	3.28 ± 0.67 ^{abB}	2.24 ± 0.26 ^{aC}	
QualiAgro	CON-QA	10.11 ± 1.12 ^d	4.79 ± 0.26 ^{bcA}	4.92 ± 0.22 ^{abA}	3.22 ± 0.26 ^{abB}	1.95 ± 0.49 ^{bcC}	<i>p</i> < 0.05
	MSW	13.38 ± 0.45 ^b	4.09 ± 0.48 ^{cA}	3.86 ± 0.33 ^{bA}	2.55 ± 0.08 ^{bB}	1.46 ± 0.19 ^{cC}	
	FYM	14.31 ± 0.63 ^{ab}	4.06 ± 0.24 ^{cA}	3.99 ± 0.24 ^{bA}	2.65 ± 0.11 ^{bB}	1.48 ± 0.17 ^{cC}	
	BIOW	15.81 ± 1.23 ^a	3.89 ± 0.25 ^{cA}	3.58 ± 0.18 ^{bA}	2.43 ± 0.19 ^{bB}	1.23 ± 0.08 ^{cC}	
p-value (L) ANOVA		<i>p</i> < 0.05	<i>p</i> < 0.05	<i>p</i> < 0.05	<i>p</i> < 0.05	<i>p</i> < 0.05	

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935 **Table. 3** Percentage of SOC mineralized according to temperature increasing. (Y): p-value of incubation
936 temperature effect on SOC mineralization and (L): p-value of agricultural practices effect. Uppercase
937 letters represent differences between temperature scenarios and lowercase letters represent differences
938 between agricultural practices. A significant difference is obtained for *p* < 0.05.

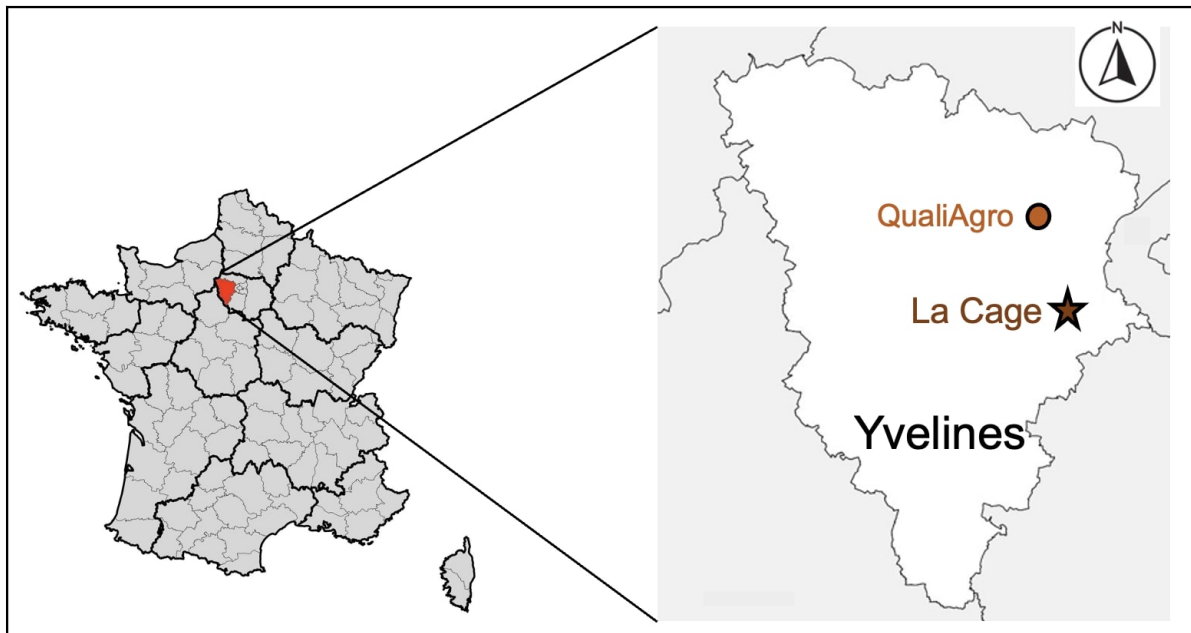
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LTES	Agricultural practices	% SOC mineralized			p-value (Y) ANOVA
		20°C	28°C	35°C	
La Cage	CON-LC	4.28 ± 0.72 ^{aA}	5.90 ± 1.07 ^{bA}	7.96 ± 0.79 ^{bB}	<i>p</i> < 0.05
	ORG	5.37 ± 0.31 ^{aA}	7.37 ± 0.52 ^{abB}	8.35 ± 0.36 ^{bC}	
	CA	5.01 ± 0.24 ^{aA}	7.26 ± 0.33 ^{abB}	8.55 ± 0.52 ^{bC}	
QualiAgro	CON-QA	4.77 ± 0.48 ^{aA}	7.89 ± 0.91 ^{aB}	9.54 ± 0.46 ^{aC}	<i>p</i> < 0.05
	MSW	3.74 ± 0.33 ^{bA}	6.01 ± 0.67 ^{bB}	7.91 ± 0.29 ^{bC}	
	FYM	3.87 ± 0.23 ^{bA}	6.13 ± 0.42 ^{bB}	8.40 ± 0.44 ^{bC}	
	BIOW	3.47 ± 0.18 ^{bA}	5.87 ± 0.51 ^{bB}	7.52 ± 0.41 ^{bC}	
p-value (L) ANOVA/Kruskal test		<i>p</i> = 0.02	<i>p</i> < 0.05	<i>p</i> < 0.05	

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942 **Fig. 1:** Map of the Yvelines department (France) showing the location of the two field sites.

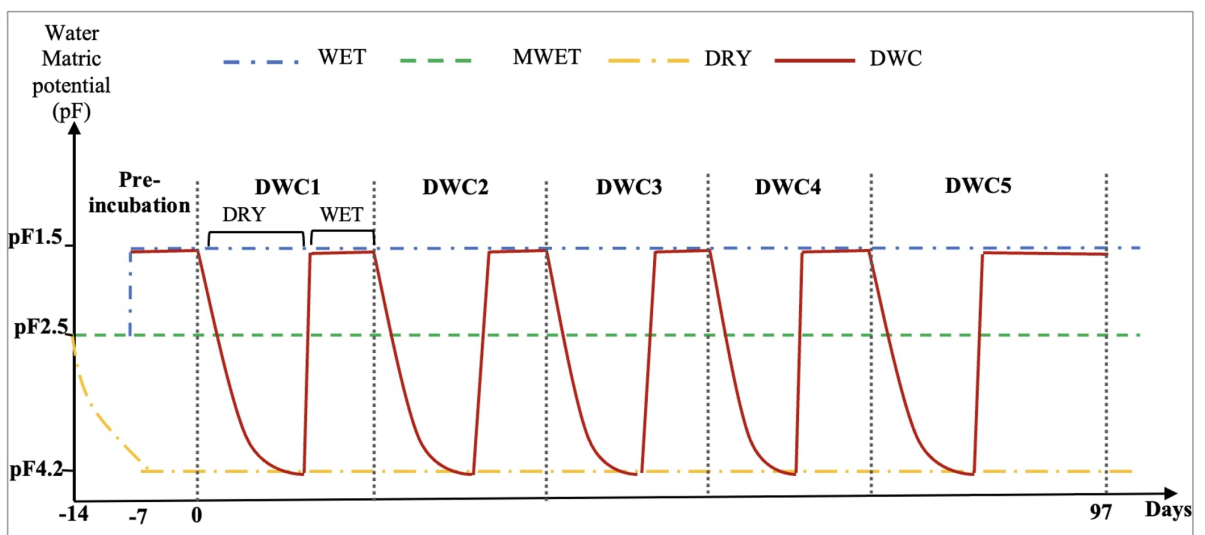


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946 **Fig. 2.** A schematic diagram of the experimental design showing constant moisture scenarios (WET,
947 MWET, DRY) and dry-wet cycles scenario (DWC). WET represents a continuously wet scenario at pF
948 1.5; MWET a continuously moderated wet scenario at pF 2.5 and DRY a continuously dry scenario at
949 pF 4.2.

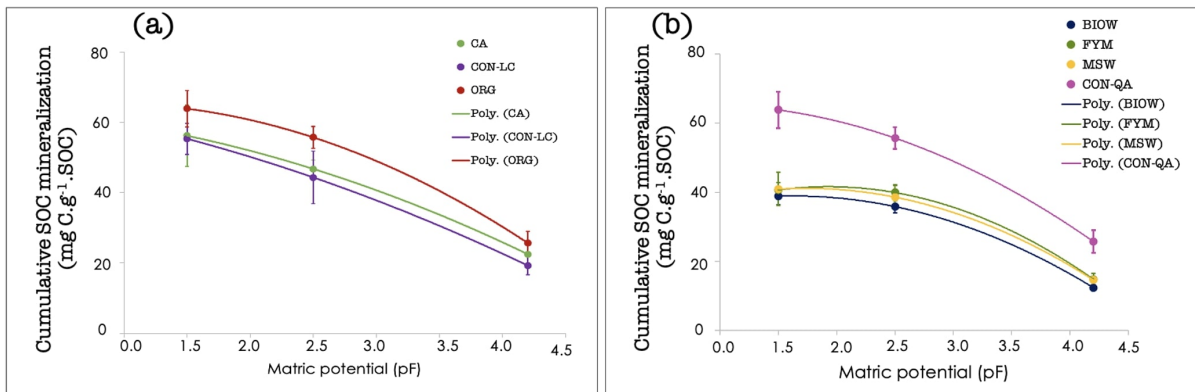


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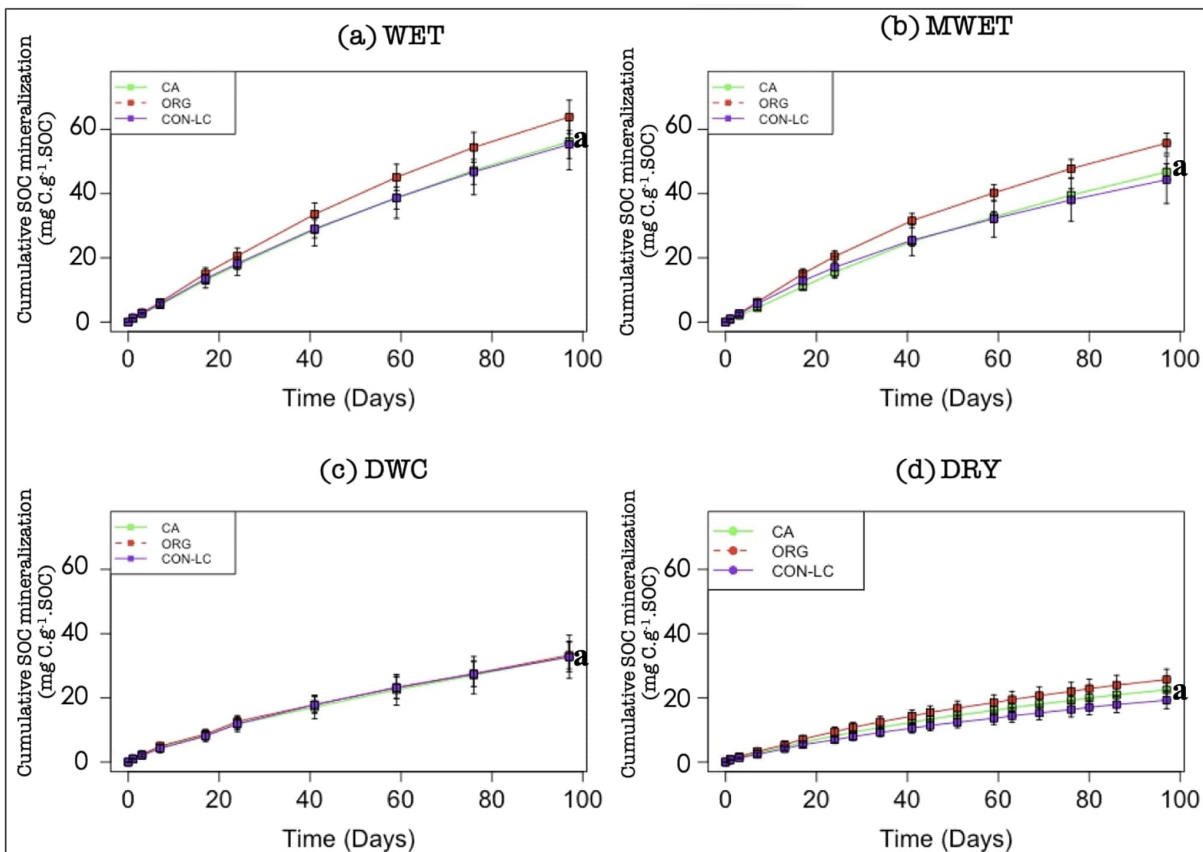
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953 **Fig. 3.** Relationship between cumulative carbon mineralization at the end of incubation (97 days) and
 954 matric potential under (a) La Cage experiment and (b) QualiAgro Experiment.



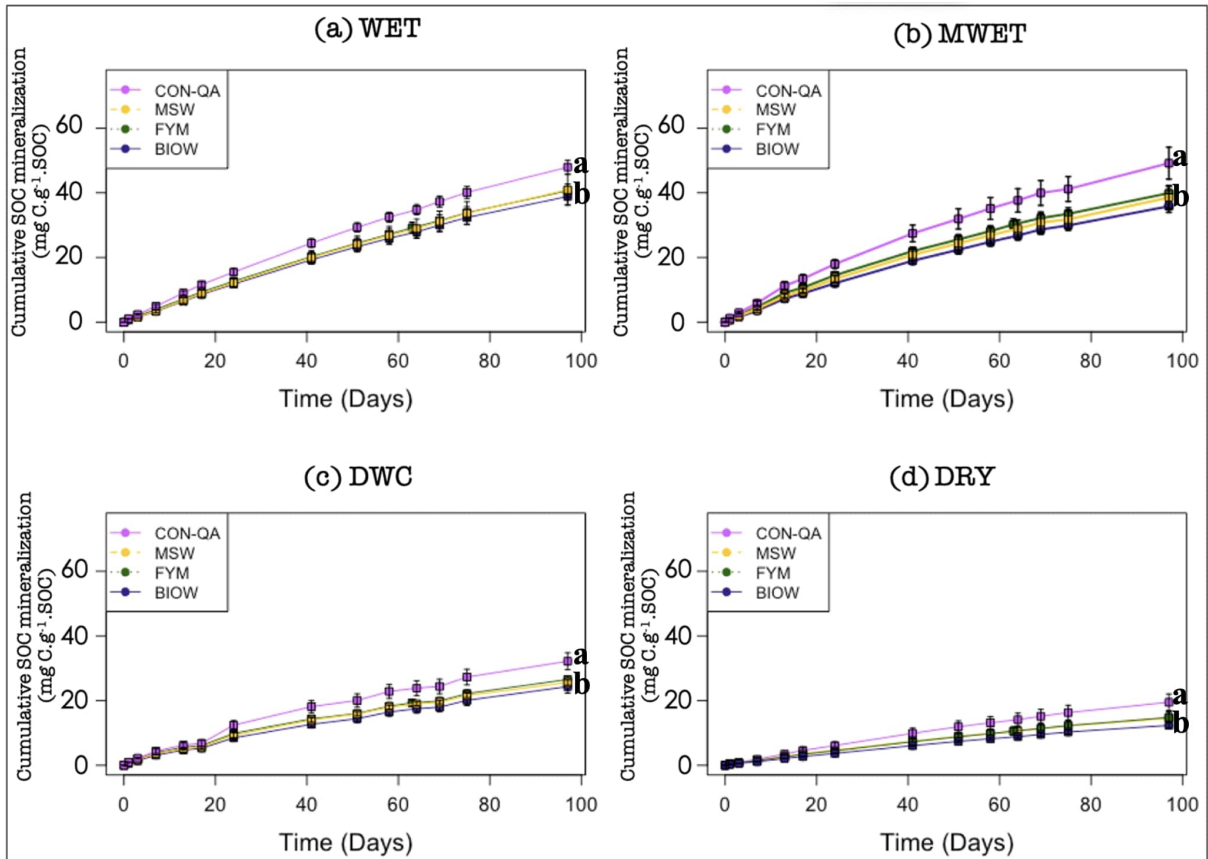
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957 **Fig. 4.** Continuously soil moisture (WET, DRY, MWET) and dry-wet-cycles (DWC) effect on specific
 958 cumulative carbon mineralization under conservation agriculture (CA), organic agriculture (ORG) and
 959 conventional agriculture (CON-LC) at La Cage experiment. Error bars indicate standard deviation of 4
 960 replicates per scenario. A significant difference between agricultural practices is obtained for p<0.05.
 961 Letters represent differences between agricultural practices.



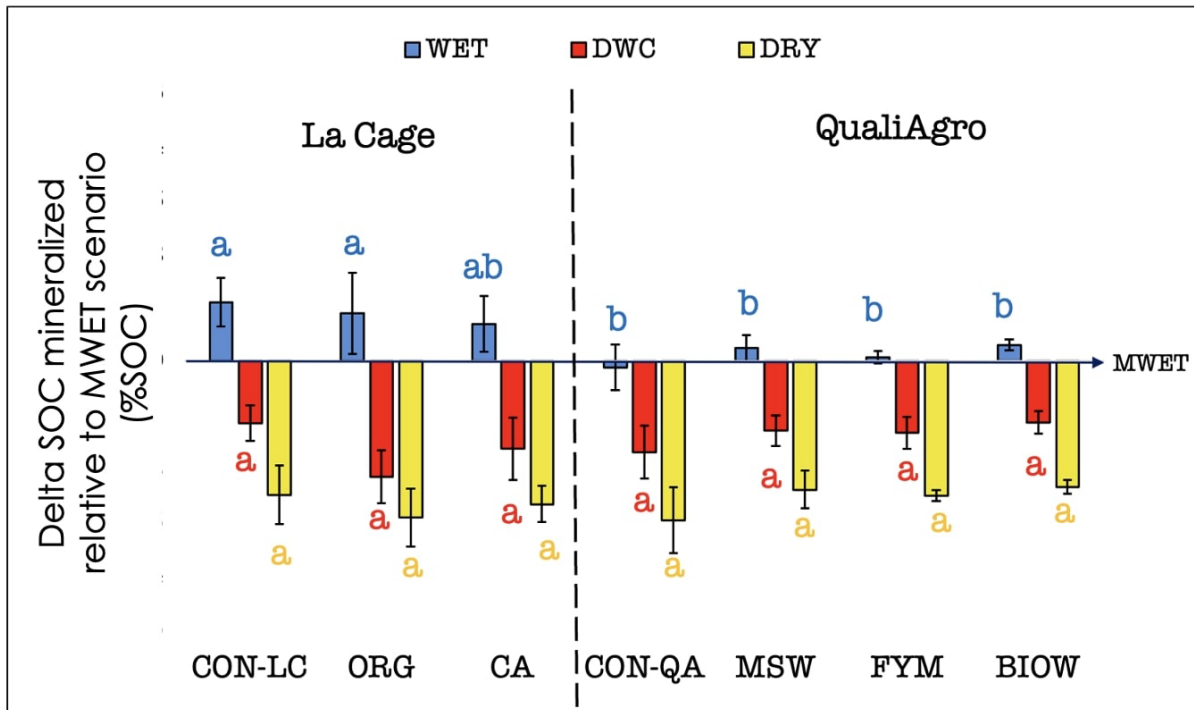
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963 **Fig. 5.** Continuously soil moisture (WET, DRY, MWET) and dry-wet-cycles (DWC) effect on specific
 964 cumulative carbon mineralization under biowaste compost (BIOW), residual municipal solid waste
 965 compost (MSW), farmyard manure (FYM) and control treatment (CON-QA) conventional agriculture
 966 without organic inputs at QualiAgro experiment. Error bars indicate standard deviation of 4 replicates
 967 per scenario. A significant difference between agricultural practices is obtained for $p < 0.05$. Letters
 968 represent differences between agricultural practices.



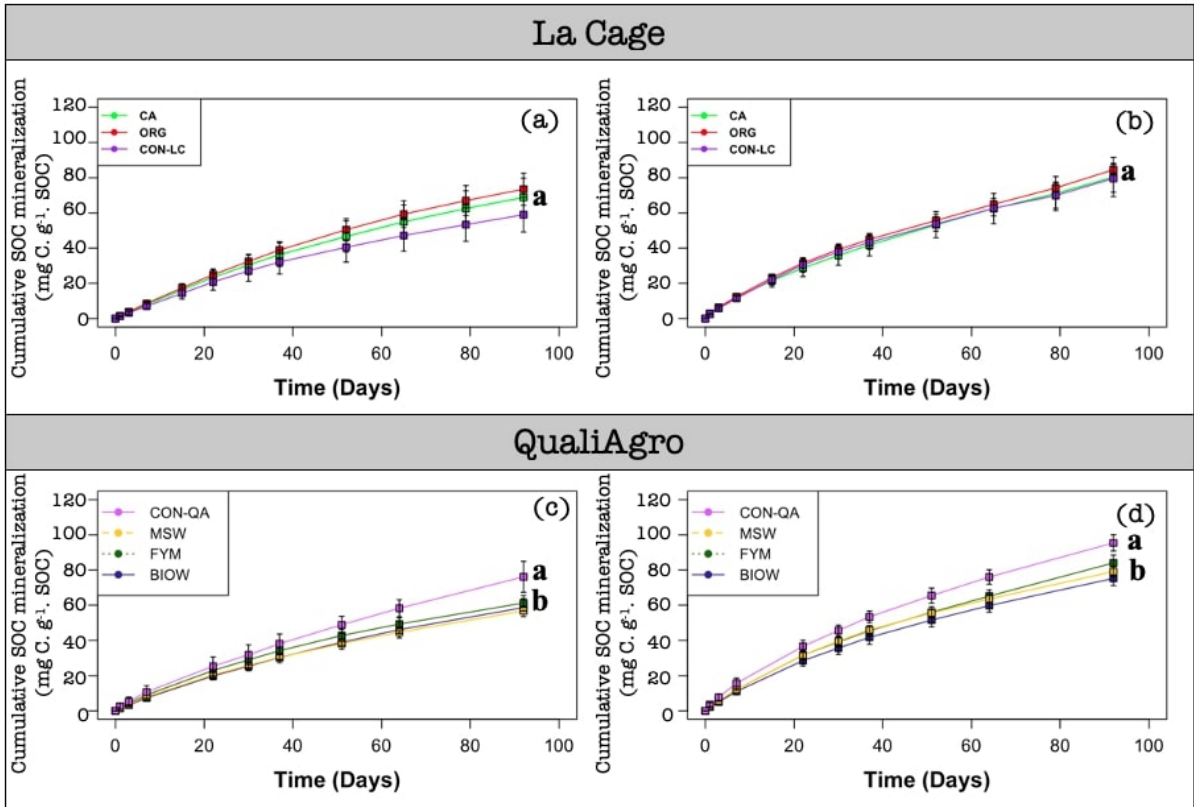
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977 **Fig. 6.** Delta SOC mineralized under WET, DWC and DRY scenarios relative to MWET scenario. Error
 978 bars indicate standard deviation of 4 replicates per scenario. Values above zero indicate that the scenario
 979 stimulates carbon mineralization relative to MWET scenario, and values below zero indicate that the
 980 scenario inhibits carbon mineralization relative to MWET scenario. A significant difference between
 981 carbon-storing soils and baseline soils is obtained for $p < 0.05$. Letters represent differences between
 982 agricultural practices.



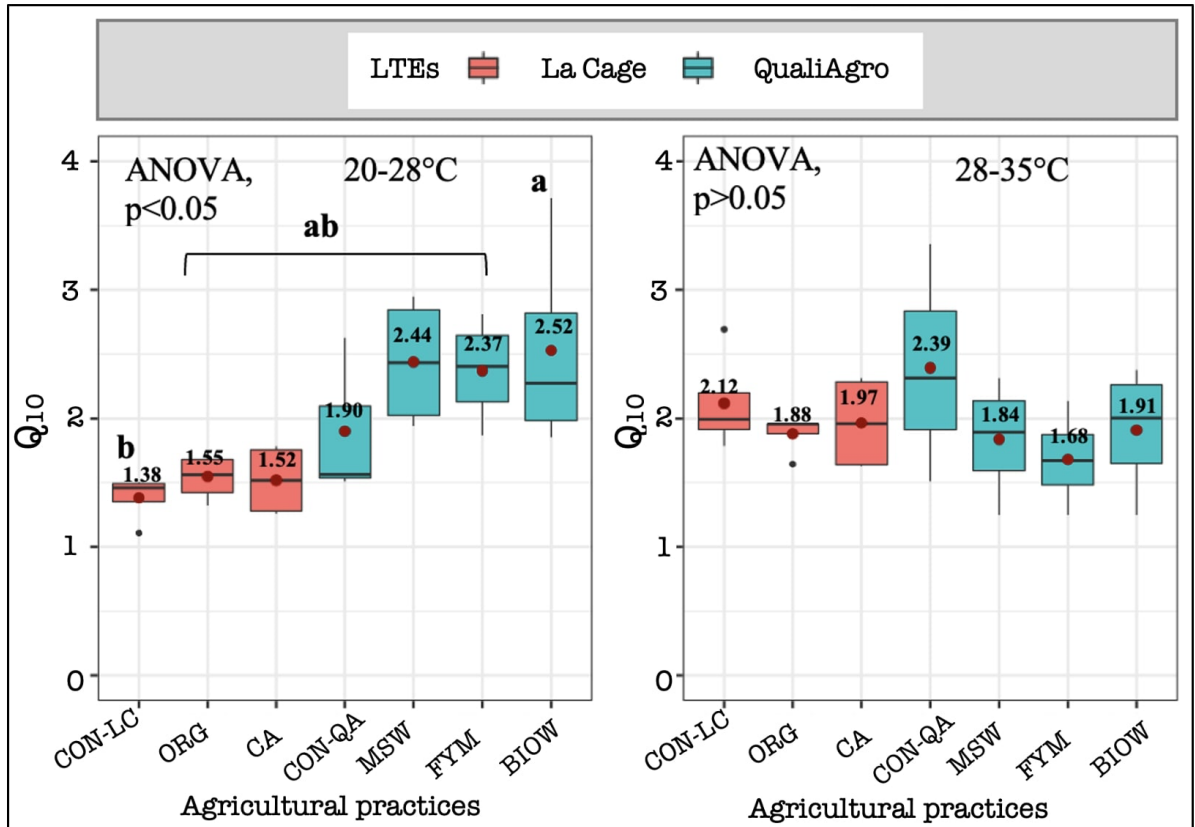
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993 **Fig. 7.** Temperature effect on specific cumulative soil organic carbon (SOC) mineralization under 28°C
 994 [(a) and (c)] and 35°C [(b) and (d)] at QualiAgro and La Cage experiments. Error bars indicate standard
 995 deviation of 4 replicates per scenario. A significant difference between agricultural practices is obtained
 996 for $p < 0.05$. Letters represent differences between agricultural practices.



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1008 **Fig. 8.** Q_{10} values distribution according to agricultural practices. On the left the Q_{10} for the temperature
 1009 range 20-28°C and on the right the Q_{10} for the range 28-35°C. The red dots inside the boxplot represent
 1010 the mean value whose numerical value is indicated above. A significant difference between agricultural
 1011 practices is obtained for $p < 0.05$.



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Supplementary materials for:

Are carbon-storing soils more sensitive to climate change? A laboratory evaluation for agricultural temperate soils

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Table S1: Measured mass water contents for matric potentials pF 1.5; pF 2.5 and pF 4.2

LTes	Agricultural practices	pF1.5	pF2.5	pF4.2
		-0.015 MPa	-0.033 MPa	-1.6 MPa
W (gH ₂ O.g ⁻¹ soil)				
La Cage	CON-LC	0.29 ± 0.01	0.26 ± 0.00	0.09 ± 0.02
	ORG	0.30 ± 0.01	0.27 ± 0.03	0.13 ± 0.02
	CA	0.30 ± 0.01	0.27 ± 0.02	0.12 ± 0.02
QualiAgro	CON-QA	0.25 ± 0.02	0.22 ± 0.01	0.09 ± 0.01
	MSW	0.26 ± 0.01	0.22 ± 0.00	0.10 ± 0.01
	FYM	0.26 ± 0.01	0.23 ± 0.01	0.10 ± 0.01
	BIOW	0.26 ± 0.03	0.23 ± 0.00	0.10 ± 0.01

Table S2: Q₁₀ values equal to 1% and 3% SOC mineralized according to cropping systems for the temperature range between 20-28°C and 28-35°C.

LTes	Agricultural practices	Q10 equal to 1% of SOC mineralized		Q10 equal to 3% of SOC mineralized	
		20 - 28°C	28 - 35°C	20 - 28°C	28 - 35°C
		La Cage	CON-LC	1.38 ± 0.18	2.12 ± 0.40
ORG	1.55 ± 0.19		1.88 ± 0.16	1.57 ± 0.17	1.49 ± 0.20
CA	1.52 ± 0.29		1.97 ± 0.38	1.62 ± 0.28	1.42 ± 0.28
QualiAgro	CON-QA	1.90 ± 0.63	2.39 ± 0.93	1.80 ± 0.46	2.32 ± 0.68
	MSW	2.44 ± 0.51	1.84 ± 0.47	2.57 ± 0.86	2.02 ± 0.66
	FYM	2.37 ± 0.42	1.68 ± 0.37	2.36 ± 0.39	1.83 ± 0.58
	BIOW	2.53 ± 0.84	1.91 ± 0.51	2.45 ± 0.37	1.90 ± 0.39