

**CHANGES OF LABILE FRACTIONS OF SOIL ORGANIC MATTER DURING THE
CONVERSION TO ORGANIC FARMING**

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29 **Abstract**

30 *Purpose:* Organic farming can overcome the environmental consequences of intensive
31 conventional farming. The objective of the work was to investigate the changes in labile soil
32 organic matter (SOM) fractions during the conversion from conventional to organic farming in two
33 italian sites, Foggia (FG) and Metaponto (MT), that differed in soil types and initial soil organic
34 carbon (SOC) content.

35 *Methods:* The fields were cultivated with lentil and wheat in rotation and treated with either: i)
36 compost or ii) nitrogen or phosphorus (N/P) fertilizers in three field replicates. The SOM was
37 fractionated into light fraction (LF), particulate organic matter (POM) and mobile humic acid
38 (MHA) fraction. Isolated fractions were quantified and analyzed for C and N contents.

39 *Results:* Although total SOC responded to the fertilization treatments, the LF and POM fractions
40 were yet more responsive. The MHA represented 15% of SOC at both sites, however, the LF
41 represented only 5–6% of total SOC but was the most responsive fraction to changes in land
42 management. Compost application contributed significantly greater quantities of LF, POM and
43 MHA than did the N/P fertilizers application.

44 *Conclusions:* The initial SOC content can play an important role in determining the effects of
45 introducing organic farming practices on SOM fractions. In fact, the site characterized by the lower
46 SOC content (MT) showed a mass increase of all fractions while the FG site showed a mass
47 increment only in the LF.

48

49 **Keywords**

50 Light fraction, particulate organic matter, mobile humic acids, compost.

51

52 1. INTRODUCTION

53

54 Conventional farming practices have increased food production to support increasing human
55 demands (Zinati 2002) although, most of the time, they have shown excessive use of energy and
56 agrochemicals, large water consumption and greenhouse gases emissions, loss of soil fertility and
57 productivity (Gomiero et al. 2011). In contrast, organic agriculture is a production system that
58 sustains the health of soils, ecosystems and people (IFOAM 2005), therefore soil of high quality is
59 one cornerstone of sustainable agricultural systems such as the organic ones.

60 The introduction of organic practices requires a conversion period of at least two years before
61 sowing, or in the case of perennial crops other than grassland, at least three years before the first
62 harvest of organic products (Codex Alimentarius Commission 1999). The transition period is
63 necessary for changes in soil chemical, physical and biological properties that enhance nutrient
64 cycling, plant growth and development of biological pest control within the soil-plant system
65 (Zinati 2002). Various changes occur in soil indeed: Santos et al. (2012) showed that organic
66 farming transitional practices increased the content of the humic fractions and 100 – 300% the soil
67 microbial biomass. Stamou et al. (2011) described the structure of soil networks in agroecosystems
68 constituting a gradient from conventional asparagus cultivation to two and three years of organic
69 cultivation. The newest organic systems were characterized by the engagement of NO_3^- and NH_4^+
70 to biotic processes since the soil microbial community began to play a significant role in soil
71 processes. A clear shift of N from the mineral pools to the microbial biomass-N was reported by
72 Briar et al. (2011) comparing organic vs. conventional farming, and the increment of the microbial
73 community in organic fields resulted in greater bacterivore nematodes population too. In addition,
74 Sihi et al. (2017) reported that the short-term effects of the introduction of the organic farming
75 resulted in greater (75–90%) soil enzyme activities in organic fields than in the conventional ones
76 after harvest, which was due to the rapid increase of organic substrates useful for the microbial
77 metabolism.

78 Despite its great importance for soil fertility, the total soil organic carbon (SOC) could not
79 reflect changes of the introduction of organic practices because it often takes years before changes
80 in agricultural management show detectable variations in SOC content (Clark et al. 1998). In
81 contrast, the labile pools of soil organic matter (SOM) are sensitive to short term changes in
82 management and/or environmental conditions (Haynes 2005), especially the light fraction (LF),

83 the particulate organic matter (POM) and the mobile humic acid (MHA; Abdelrahman et al. 2016,
84 2017; Marriott and Wander 2006). The LF is similar chemically to the original plant material, but
85 a lesser amount of carbohydrates and a greater quantity of sterols in the LF indicates the early stage
86 of its decomposition in soil (Gregorich et al. 1996). The POM consists of partially decomposed
87 plant litter, and it acts as a substrate and center for soil microbial activity, a short-term reservoir of
88 nutrients, a food source for soil fauna and loci for formation of water stable macroaggregates
89 (Haynes 2005). The MHA is a labile fraction of humic substances rich in N, S and H, characterized
90 by phenolic moieties derived from the lignin residues, involved in short-term nutrients cycling (Olk
91 2006).

92 Since conventional farming systems range from traditional cultures, low input and
93 environmentally friendly managements (e.g., minimum or zero tillage, integrated pest
94 management, etc.) to intensive industrial monocultures (Gomiero et al. 2011), the introduction of
95 strictly regulated organic practices can influence differently the labile fractions of SOM. Therefore,
96 the objective of this work was to study the evolution of LF, POM and MHA during the conversion
97 period in two sites historically cultivated with wheat followed by a fallow period and managed
98 with the same conventional practices, but different for their soil types and initial SOC content. In
99 particular, the work investigated the effects of the introduction of the lentil-wheat rotation and of
100 the transition i) from the conventional fertilization to the one allowed in organic farming; ii) from
101 the conventional to the minimum tillage; iii) from the removal of aboveground crops residues to
102 their return to soil, on the characteristics of LF, POM and MHA.

103

104 **2. MATERIALS AND METHODS**

105 **2.1. Site Description and Experimental Design**

106

107 The experimental stations at Foggia (FG; 41°27'35" N and 15°30'18" E) and Metaponto (MT;
108 40° 24'25" N and 16°48'24" E) in Italy have been cultivated for decades under conventional
109 farming with wheat followed by a fallow period (July–September). The conventional tillage
110 included moldboard plowing (35 cm deep) in late August, and disk harrowing (15 cm deep) in
111 November to prepare a proper seedbed. The crop was historically rainfed and fertilized with
112 mineral fertilizers, typically about 200 kg diammonium phosphate (18 N, 46 P₂O₅) ha⁻¹ before

113 sowing, followed by about 100 kg urea (46 N) ha⁻¹ at jointing stage. During the conventional
114 farming, the wheat straw was removed from the plots and placed on the market for livestock.

115 These sites were converted to organic farming in response to the movement toward organic
116 production in Italy and Europe and to study the changes in SOM under organic farming
117 management. Main characteristics of the soils at the experimental sites at the beginning of the trial
118 are reported in Table 1. The climate at both sites was similar, with mean annual precipitation of
119 560 and 500 mm at FG and MT, respectively, mainly concentrated in autumn and winter. The mean
120 annual temperature was 15.5 °C (annual temperature range: 44/-10 °C) and 15.8 °C (annual
121 temperature range: 35/0 °C) at FG and MT, respectively.

122 The experiments started in 2009 and included a 2-year rotation of lentil (*Lens esculenta* Moench,
123 cv Eston) with either durum wheat (*Triticum durum* Desf., cv Svevo) at FG or Emmer wheat
124 (*Triticum dicoccum*) at MT, and all crops were rainfed. Each experimental site was divided into 10
125 x 10 m plots distributed in a completely randomized block design with three replications for each
126 treatment. Treatments were: i) compost; ii) commercial fertilizer (N/P fertilizer); iii) compost
127 applied at a rate of 13.3 Mg ha⁻¹ (compost-A), respecting the N load limit (170 kg ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹) defined
128 by the EU nitrate Directive (676/1991); and iv) an unfertilized control. Only the first two treatments
129 were imposed at FG, and their application rate at both sites was calculated to meet crop requirement
130 of 100 kg ha⁻¹ N for a subsequent wheat crop (7.82 and 0.8 Mg ha⁻¹ of compost and N fertilizer,
131 respectively) or 30 kg ha⁻¹ P₂O₅ for a subsequent lentil crop (3.55 and 0.2 Mg ha⁻¹ of compost and
132 P fertilizer, respectively). The compost applied annually to both wheat and lentil crops was
133 prepared using olive pomace, olive pruning residues and cattle manure enriched in straw bedding
134 material. For N/P fertilizer treatment, each new wheat crop received only N fertilizer and each new
135 lentil crop received only P fertilizer. These applications were made annually in the autumn,
136 between October and November depending on the weather conditions. All amendments/fertilizers
137 were permitted in organic farming (Annex 1, EC no. 889/2008). Soils were left bare after harvest
138 (July) until September – October then the disc harrowing (15 cm depth) was applied for
139 incorporating the crop residues and for preparing the soil for the subsequent crop.

140

141 **2.2. Soil Sampling and SOM Characterization**

142

143 Soils were sampled at the start of the conversion period (September 2009) to represent the initial
144 soil conditions (T0), and after the harvest of each crop in 2010 (T1) and 2011 (T2). Soil samples
145 were collected from the 0–30 cm depth from each treatment, air-dried, passed through a 2-mm
146 sieve and stored at room temperature in dark for subsequent analyses. At the end of each crop cycle,
147 residues of wheat straw and lentil were collected from nine spots of 1 m² in each plot and weighed
148 in order to estimate the quantity of crop residues left on each plot and treatment

149 The total C and N content of soil and SOM fractions were determined through automated
150 combustion analysis (Fisons NA 1500 NC Series 2). Inorganic carbon was determined by the
151 modified pressure-calculator (Sherrod et al., 2002) then the organic C was determined by the
152 difference between total C and inorganic C.

153 Soils were sequentially extracted for the LF, the POM and the MHA using a modified procedure
154 by Cao et al. (2011). Each field replicate was extracted separately for these three SOM fractions.
155 The LF of the whole soil was extracted by floating the soil in a 1.6 g cm⁻³ Na polytungstate (PT)
156 solution. The bottles were shaken for 10 min on a reciprocal shaker at 200 rpm, transferred to 500-
157 mL beakers and allowed to settle overnight. Afterward, the LF was removed from each beaker by
158 vacuum suction and collected on a 20- μ m-nylon filter, and then transferred by PT washes into a
159 50-mL beaker and allowed to stand for 3 h. After 3 h, the floating material was removed from both
160 the 500- and 50-mL beakers by vacuum suction and collected onto the 20- μ m-nylon filter, then
161 washed by deionized water and transferred into preweighed drying tins. This material was dried
162 overnight in a forced-air oven at 58 °C.

163 After extracting the LF, each soil sample replicate was dispersed by Na metaphosphate and
164 shaking. Then each bottle was poured through stacked 53 μ m sieves so that clay and silt material
165 was collected in an underlying shallow Pyrex pan. The > 53 μ m POM fraction were refloated on
166 2.0 g cm⁻³ PT solution to obtain its light fractions, which was used for all further analyses.

167 Following POM extraction, the dried silt plus clay material from each soil was evenly divided
168 into two or three 500-mL centrifuge bottles. The contents of each bottle were extracted by 0.25
169 mol L⁻¹ NaOH at a 1:10 (w:v) ratio. Specifically, the contents of each bottle were placed under an
170 N₂ atmosphere by bubbling N₂ gas into each bottle for 5 minutes. Bottles were capped and shaken
171 at about 200 rpm on a reciprocal shaker for 30 min every 2 h for a total of 20 h. The bottles were
172 then centrifuged and the supernatants decanted and acidified (2 mol L⁻¹ HCl) to pH 1.95 – 2.0 to
173 precipitate the MHA. The soil was shaken overnight in 0.25 mol L⁻¹ NaOH two more times and

174 the resulting MHA was combined from all three washes. The silt plus clay was decalcified by 0.2
175 mol L⁻¹ HCl washes with shaking for 10 min at about 200 rpm and centrifuging until the
176 supernatant pH decreased to <1.0. Excess HCl was then removed by one to two deionized water
177 washings until the supernatant pH rose above 2.0, preferably between 2.5 to 3.0. The MHA
178 fractions were then cleansed of soil contaminants by resolubilization in a KOH–KCl solution and
179 reprecipitation with 2 mol L⁻¹ HCl (Swift, 1996), followed by a 24-h extraction with 0.2% HCl–
180 0.2% HF, and by 3 d of dialysis in successively weaker HCl solutions and at the end against water.
181 Finally, the fractions were frozen and lyophilized.

182

183 **2.3. Statistical Analysis**

184

185 Each treatment was performed in three replicates. Experimental data were tested against the
186 normal distribution using the homogeneity test, then data were analyzed using the General Linear
187 Model procedure (SPSS 17.0, SPSS Inc) with multivariable (fertilization treatment, crop, time and
188 their interactions) on the measured parameters for the LF, POM and MHA.

189

190 **3. RESULTS**

191 **3.1. Crop Residue Masses**

192

193 Crop residues are one of the main inputs of organic matter into soil. As the LF and POM are
194 plant-like or partially decomposed materials (Gregorich et al. 2006), the input rate of crop residues
195 into soil is an important consideration for understanding their cycling rates. The amounts of
196 aboveground crop residues remaining after crop harvest did not differ among the treatments at
197 either site; they were on average 7.05 Mg ha⁻¹ and 10.65 Mg ha⁻¹ after lentil and wheat,
198 respectively. The belowground residues were not measured, however they were estimated in about
199 0.8 Mg ha⁻¹ and 3.7 Mg ha⁻¹ after lentil and wheat, respectively, according to the root-to-shoot
200 ratio (Arcand et al. 2013).

201

202 **3.2. Soil C and N contents**

203

204 Total soil organic C increased by 2–14% and by 1–16% over the 2-year course in the FG and
205 MT sites, respectively. At the FG site, SOC increased numerically with either compost or N/P
206 fertilizer treatment compared to T0. The greater increase in SOC was reported at T2 after compost
207 and wheat, however, the effect of the previous crop is visible in SOC values for T1 (Fig. 1a).
208 Although, at the FG site, compost contributed to numerically greater increases in soil C and N than
209 did the N/P fertilizer, neither crop ($P = 0.446$) nor fertilization treatment ($P = 0.486$) significantly
210 affected SOC changes (Table 2). At the MT site, similar increases in SOC occurred after the
211 fertilization treatments, and were more evident after the compost-A treatment with either crop (Fig.
212 1a). Also, SOC at the MT site was not significantly (Table 2) affected by fertilization treatment
213 ($P = 0.074$) or crop ($P = 0.276$).

214 Soil N increased after both crop cycles and with all treatments at both sites, over the 2-year
215 course. At the FG site, larger numerical increases in soil N were reported after compost and
216 fertilizer and after the lentil wheat crop cycle at the end of the trial (T2). The latter result can be
217 attributed to the lentil effect from T1 (Fig. 1b), even if the changes in soil N in FG were neither
218 significantly affected (Table 3) by crop ($P = 0.267$) nor by fertilization treatment ($P = 0.302$).

219 At the MT site, soil N increased after lentil at T1 with the four treatments, however, no
220 noticeable changes occurred at T2. Interestingly, crop, fertilization and time affected significantly
221 soil N at the MT site (Table 3). The unamended control treatment at MT had minor numeric
222 accruals of total soil organic C and N.

223

224 **3.3. Mass Distribution of SOM fractions**

225

226 The introduction of the organic farming management influenced the mass of the SOM fractions
227 at both sites already at the end of the first crop cycle. At the FG site, mean LF mass with compost
228 application was about 3 g kg^{-1} soil for either crop at T1 and T2. In general, the LF increased
229 significantly ($P = 0.013$) by more than 80% with either compost or N/P fertilizer treatment compared
230 to the initial conditions (about 1.2 g kg^{-1} soil).

231 After lentil, the POM masses of all treatments were similar to the initial value (about 2 g kg^{-1}
232 soil), while POM masses increased numerically (about 2.3 g kg^{-1} soil) after wheat and in the
233 compost amended plots. The compost treatment and the rotation wheat-lentil showed MHA masses
234 similar to the initial value but numerically greater than the N/P fertilizer treatment. In addition,

235 greater MHA masses were associated with lentil, for both compost and N/P fertilizer, than with
236 durum wheat.

237 At the MT site, compost-A treatment contributed to the largest LF masses after either lentil or
238 wheat (about 2.3 and 1.8 g kg⁻¹ soil, respectively) at T1 and T2. In general, the compost treatments
239 contributed to greater LF mass with either crop with respect to the other treatments. Within the
240 control treatment, LF mass was greater after wheat than after lentil (about 1 and 0.8 g kg⁻¹ soil,
241 respectively), reflecting the crop effect on the LF (P=0.009). At the end of each crop cycle, the
242 POM was more abundant after the compost treatments with either crop than with the N/P fertilizer,
243 whereas the unfertilized control showed greater (P_{trt} = 0.081) POM mass with respect to the N/P
244 fertilizer treatment. The MHA masses were numerically greater (P_{crop} = 0.103) after lentil than after
245 wheat (about 2.3 and 1.8 g kg⁻¹ soil after lentil and wheat, respectively) for all fertilization
246 treatments. However, the unfertilized control showed MHA masses fairly similar to the initial soil
247 endowment (about 1.65 g kg⁻¹ soil).

248

249 **3.4. Carbon content in SOM fractions**

250

251 The fractional C content of a SOM fraction is the product of the fractional mass multiplied by
252 its C concentration and it represents the contribution of a certain fraction to total SOC. Fractional
253 C concentration, averaged across crops and treatments, differed from LF (351 g C kg⁻¹ LF) to POM
254 (314 g C kg⁻¹ POM) to MHA (411 g C kg⁻¹ MHA) but did not differ greatly within the same
255 fraction by fertilization treatment or crop making the fractional C a function of its mass.

256 The LF fractional C (LF-C) varied slightly among the fertilization treatments, primarily due to
257 the fractional mass and it represented on average about 5% of total SOC at both sites. At the FG
258 site (Fig. 2a), wheat clearly influenced the LF-C, apparently in a consequence to LF mass as the
259 LF-C increased after both compost and N/P fertilizer treatments clearly after wheat in T2.
260 Similarly, wheat effect on the LF was visible at T1 in the wheat-lentil crop cycle. Although wheat
261 affected the LF clearly, statistical effect of crop on the LF-C was insignificant (P = 0.194).
262 However, the fertilization treatment had significant effects (P = 0.007) on the LF-C as it increased
263 after both compost and N/P fertilizer treatments and reached about 1 g C kg⁻¹ soil.

264 At the MT site (Fig. 2b), the greatest LF-C content was recorded at T1 for compost-A after the
265 lentil-wheat cycle. The compost treatments contributed to greater LF-C with respect to the N/P

266 fertilizer or the control treatment with either crop cycle. Crop ($P = <0.001$) and fertilizer treatment
267 ($P = 0.022$) significantly affected the LF-C at both sites at the MT site.

268 The C concentration of the POM ranged 300–325 g C kg⁻¹ POM, and its C/N ratio ranged 12–
269 14 for both sites. At the FG site, both compost and N/P fertilizer treatments increased numerically
270 the POM fractional C (POM-C), reaching the highest value after the wheat-lentil rotation (Fig. 2a).
271 The POM-C increased during the 2-year course reaching the greatest value after compost and with
272 the lentil-wheat rotation (Fig. 2a). Neither crop ($P = 0.331$) nor the fertilization treatment ($P =$
273 0.451) affected significantly the POM-C in FG.

274 At the MT site (Fig. 2b), the POM-C was significantly influenced by the fertilization ($P < 0.001$)
275 and the time ($P = 0.001$), reaching the highest value (about 0.92 g C kg⁻¹ soil) already in T1 with the
276 compost-A treatment after wheat. As per the LF-C, compost treatments showed higher values of
277 POM-C with respect to the other treatments, even if the compost treatment induced a substantial
278 increase in POM-C only at the end of the trial. Except the reported increases in the POM-C, all the
279 treatments did not considerably influence the POM-C; POM-C averaged 0.5 g C kg⁻¹ soil for most
280 of the cases at the MT site (Fig. 2b).

281 At T2, the POM-C represented 4% and 6% of SOC in the FG and MT sites, respectively,
282 showing an increase over time, since POM-C accounted in 2009 for only 2.6% and 4.5% of SOC
283 at the FG and MT sites, respectively.

284 The MHA fraction contained an average of 411 g C kg⁻¹ fraction and had C/N ratios of 12 and
285 9 at the FG and MT sites, respectively. The MHA contributed the most to SOC among the separated
286 fractions: the MHA-C content (MHA-C) accounted for on average 13.4% and 7.3% of total SOC
287 in T2 at the FG and MT sites, respectively.

288 At the FG site (Fig. 2a), the MHA-C increased considerably during the experimental course
289 after compost and lentil on one side, and after N/P fertilizer and wheat on the other side, reaching
290 about 2.3 g C kg⁻¹ soil, which was more than 15% of total SOC. Despite the reported increases in
291 the MHA-C, neither crop ($P = 0.167$) nor fertilization treatment ($P = 0.498$) had significantly
292 affected the MHA-C (Table 2), however, the interaction (Fertilization \times Crop \times Time) significantly
293 ($P = 0.044$) influenced the POM-C.

294 At the MT site, MHA-C increased after all fertilization treatments including the unfertilized
295 control with more evident increases in the MHA-C in 2011. The largest increase in the MHA-C
296 was reported after the compost treatment and lentil; MHA-C reached 0.97 g C kg⁻¹ soil (Fig. 2b).

297 The crop effect was very clear on the MHA, at the MT site, as there were substantial increases in
298 the MHA-C after lentil in 2011 (Fig. 2b). The MHA-C changes during the experimental course
299 were significantly influenced by the crop ($P < 0.001$), the fertilization treatment ($P = 0.001$) and
300 the time ($P < 0.001$).

301

302 **4. DISCUSSION**

303

304 The recorded SOC content changes agree to the findings of Herencia et al. (2008) who reported
305 numerical improvement of SOC in plots receiving organic treatments at the end of the transition
306 period, and the SOC increase became significant only after 4–5 crop cycles. In contrast, Gopinath
307 et al. (2009) showed a significant SOC increment already at the end of a two-year transition period
308 of a bell pepper crop.

309 The results of the present study confirm that the synergy of leaving crop residues on soil surface,
310 introducing the crop rotation, the minimum tillage and the organic fertilization increased soil C and
311 N. In fact, the minimum tillage, introduced to the study sites at T0, slowed the mineralization
312 processes of the C deriving from organic fertilizers and crop residues and built SOM even to the
313 30-cm depth (Varvel and Wilhelm, 2011). In addition, the studied soils, and especially at MT, are
314 depleted in SOM, which consequently heightens the effectiveness of any fertility enrichment, as
315 reported by Herencia et al. (2008) too.

316 The introduction of organic farming practices at the FG site influenced mainly the LF mass
317 across all crops and fertilization treatments. At MT, the compost treatments increased the mass of
318 all SOM fractions, including the MHA that increased significantly at the end of the trial after lentil.
319 These increases at the MT site are possibly due to the lower initial SOC despite its greater soil clay
320 content (Abdelrahman et al. 2016), suggesting the larger response to management than at the FG
321 site was due to the soil degradation status at MT. Therefore, the compost based fertilization, the
322 crop residues recycling and the minimum tillage could have influenced more dramatically the
323 masses of the extracted fractions at the MT site. In contrast, the C contribution of the N/P fertilizer
324 treatments was relatively low as their composition was more homogeneous (collagen) than was the
325 compost amendment, and the doses applied were lower than the compost treatment, making the
326 crop residues the main input of organic C. The greater masses of the MHA recorded at the MT site
327 after lentil might have been also due to greater activities of soil microbial communities in response

328 to balanced C/N ratio of the lentil residues compared to the wheat residues (Gan et al., 2011); such
329 high-quality residues might lead to more microbial residues that can be stabilized in SOC (Cotrufo
330 et al. 2013).

331 Finally, the LF-C increased over time after either compost or N/P fertilizer at both sites. The
332 same trend was observed for the POM-C at the MT site, while the POM-C at the FG site was
333 influenced only by time (Table 2). The MHA-C was dramatically affected by time, crop and
334 treatments only at MT site. Even the changes recorded in the C content of the SOM fractions can
335 be explained by the different level of soil degradation occurring at the two sites (Abdelrahman et
336 al. 2016), with the MT site taking more advantages by the introduction of the organic soil fertility
337 management in comparison to the FG site.

338

339 5. CONCLUSIONS

340

341 The results of the present study showed that a 2-year conversion period, characterized by the
342 application of compost and organic fertilizers, minimum tillage, the management of crop residues
343 and crop rotation, sufficed for demonstrating a starting buildup of physical and chemical fractions
344 of SOC. The initial SOC content can play an important role in determining the effects of the
345 introduction of organic farming practices on SOM fractions. The site characterized by the lower
346 SOC content (MT) showed a mass increase of all fractions, as compared to the FG site that
347 indicated a mass increment only in the LF.

348 In this study, although SOC responded to the fertilization treatments, the labile fractions were
349 yet more responsive as reported elsewhere (Trigalet et al. 2014) and shown by the significant
350 increases in fractional contents for all three fractions and especially the larger proportional
351 increases in LF and POM (Fig. 2). The fractionation scheme used here successfully integrated
352 uncomplexed physical fractions with humified chemical fractions to depict short-term C cycling in
353 field conditions, which has not been commonly done (Olk and Gregorich 2006). The clear site and
354 crop effects on these fractions illustrate that the relative response of these fractions can vary by soil
355 type and local land use.

356

357 Conflict of interest: The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.
358

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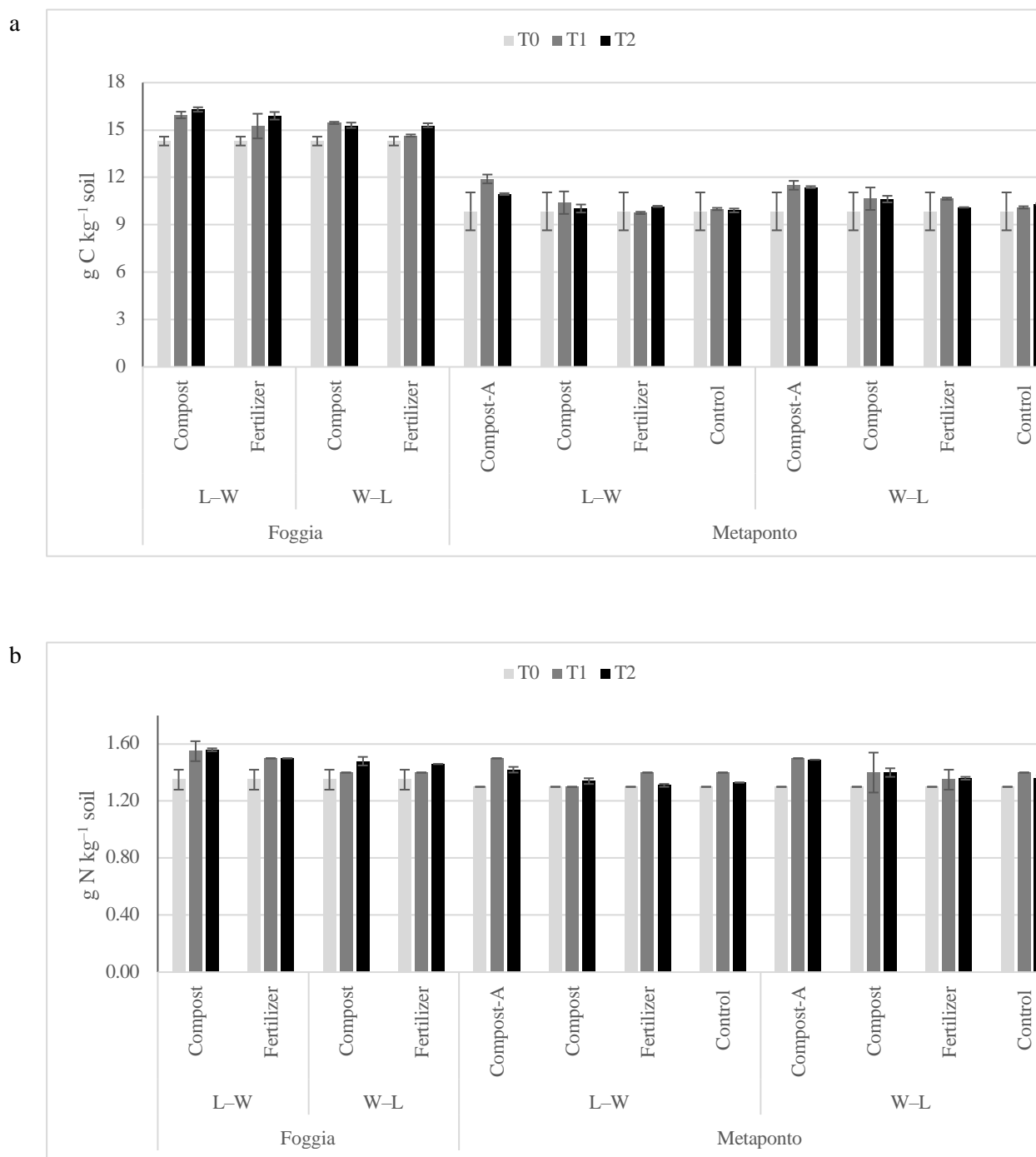
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451 **Figure Caption**

452
453 **Figure 1.** Total soil organic C (a) and Total soil N (b) at the start of the transition period in 2009
454 (T0) and after different fertilization treatments and rotations of lentil (L) and wheat (W) in 2010
455 (T1) and 2011 (T2) at the Foggia and Metaponto sites.

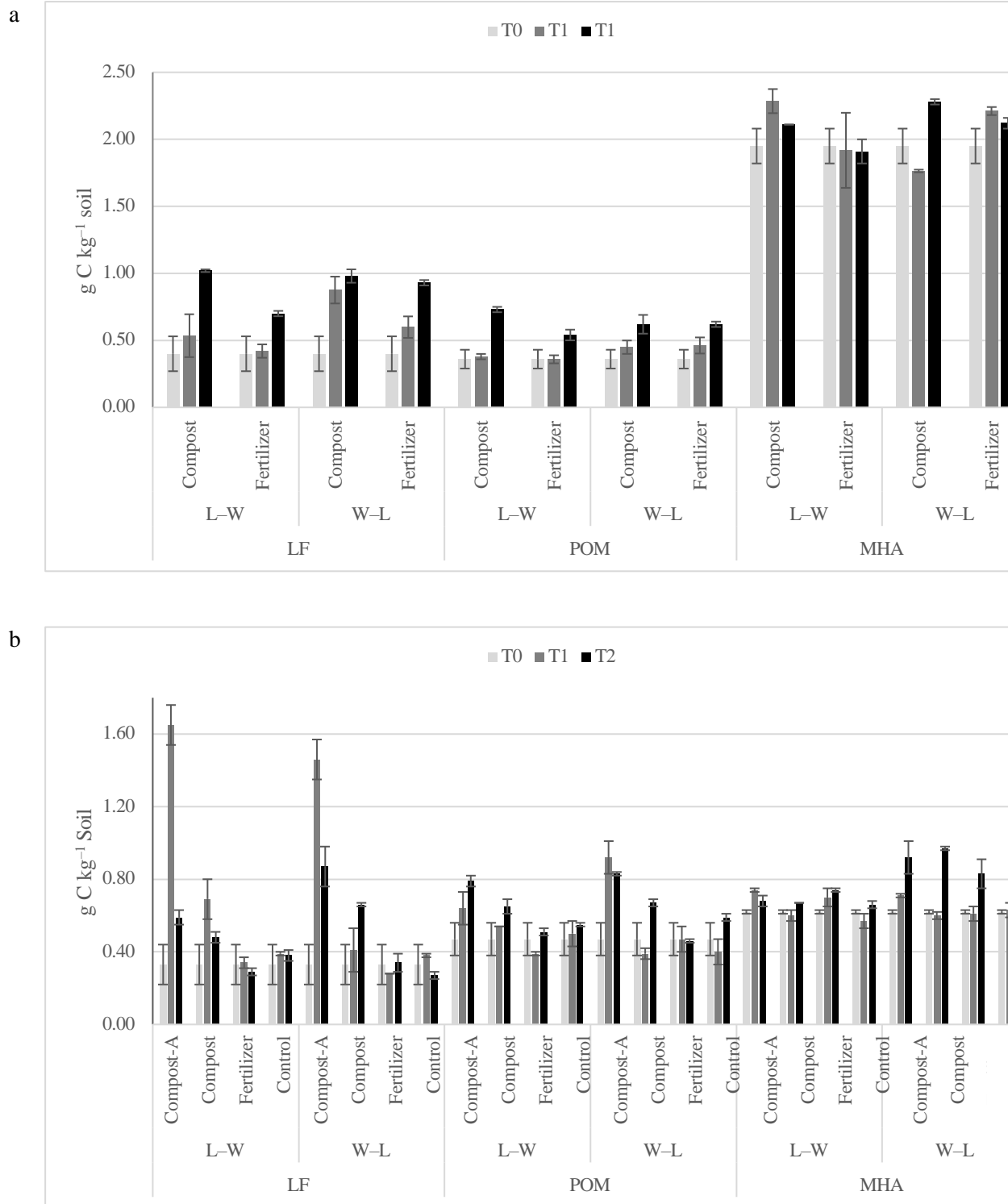
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458 **Figure 2.** Fractional C (fraction mass \times fraction C concentration) in the light fraction (LF), the
459 500–53 μm particulate organic matter (POM) and the mobile humic acid (MHA) at the start of the
460 transition period in 2009 (T0) and after different fertilization treatments and rotations of lentil (L)
461 and wheat (W) in 2010 (T1) and 2011 (T2) at the Foggia (a) and Metaponto (b) sites.

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 475 and wheat (W) in 2010 (T1) and 2011 (T2) at the Foggia (a) and Metaponto (b) sites.
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Table 1. Selected soil characteristics at the start of the transition period in 2009.

Site	pH	Electrical Conductivity (dS m ⁻¹)	Clay	CaCO ₃	Organic C	Total N
			g kg ⁻¹ soil			
Foggia (FG)	7.4	0.17	455	49.9	14.3	1.35
Metaponto (MT)	7.2	0.18	560	143	9.90	1.30

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 483 **Table 2.** Levels of significance (*P* values*) for the effect of crop, fertilization treatment, time and
 484 their interactions on the soil C and N fractions during 2009–2011 at the Foggia (FG) and Metaponto
 485 (MT) sites.
 486

Variable	FG		MT	
	C	N	C	N
Fertilization (F)	0.486	0.302	0.074	<0.001
Crop (C)	0.446	0.267	0.276	<0.001
Time (T)	0.002	<0.001	0.043	<0.001
F × C	0.365	0.899	0.885	0.309
F × T	0.871	0.728	0.686	0.000
C × T	0.161	0.007	0.736	0.000
F × C × T	0.695	0.674	0.999	0.922

487 * actual P levels results of the multivariate general linear model, $p \leq 0.05$ is significant
 488
 489

490 **Table 3.** Levels of significance (*P* values*) for the effect of crop, fertilization treatment, time and
 491 their interactions the SOM fractional C content during 2009–2011 at the Foggia (FG) and
 492 Metaponto (MT) sites.

Variable	FG			MT		
	LF-C	POM-C	MHA-C	LF-C	POM-C	MHA-C
Fertilization (F)	0.007	0.451	0.498	<0.001	<0.001	0.001
Crop (C)	0.194	0.331	0.167	0.022	0.735	<0.001
Time (T)	<0.001	<0.001	0.223	<0.001	0.001	<0.001
F × C	0.098	0.544	0.085	0.078	0.536	0.187
F × T	0.112	0.088	0.395	<0.001	0.002	0.005
C × T	0.009	0.592	0.532	0.240	0.971	<0.001
F × C × T	0.420	0.049	0.044	0.146	0.773	0.016

493 * actual P levels results of the multivariate general linear model, $p \leq 0.05$ is significant
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