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Christopher Ryan Norman University of Arkansas, Fayetteville

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Long-term Effects of Alternative Residue Management Practices on Near-surface Soil Properties and Soybean Production in a Wheat-soybean, Double-crop System in Eastern Arkansas

> A thesis submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Science in Crop, Soil, and Environmental Sciences

> > By

Christopher Ryan Norman University of Arkansas Bachelor of Arts in English, 2008

July 2015 University of Arkansas

This thesis is approved for recommendation to the Graduate Council.

Dr. Kristofor R. Brye Thesis Director

Dr. Pengyin Chen Committee Member

Dr. Edward E. Gbur Dr. John Rupe Committee Member Committee Member

________________________________ ________________________________

Abstract

Adoption of management practices that maintain or increase soil organic matter (SOM), which contains 58% carbon (C) on average, may help to mitigate climate change by sequestering atmospheric C. Therefore, the main objective of this study was to determine the long-term trends in SOM, soil C and nitrogen (N), bulk density, various soil chemical properties (i.e., pH, electrical conductivity [EC], and Mehlich-3-extractable nutrients) in the top 10 cm, and soybean yield as affected by residue burning (burning and non-burning), tillage (conventional and notillage), irrigation (irrigated and non-irrigated), and N-fertilization/residue level (high and low) in a wheat (*Triticum aestivum* L.)-soybean [*Glycine max* (L.) Merr.], double-crop system in eastern Arkansas. The secondary objective was to determine the relationship between soil water potential (-MPa) and soil water content (g g^{-1}) in the top 7.5 cm as affected by residue treatments. The field site has been consistently managed for 13 years at the University of Arkansas Lon Mann Cotton Research Station near Marianna, Arkansas on a Calloway silt loam (fine silty, mixed, active, thermic Glossaquic Fraglossudalf). Averaged across all other factors, SOM did not differ over time (*P* > 0.05) under irrigation, while SOM content increased over time (*P* < 0.05) until approximately nine years after initial conversion when SOM decreased thereafter under dryland production. Results indicated that irrigation management caused many of the largest differences in near-surface soil property trends over time, namely SOM and C, compared to the other field treatments. The relationship between the natural logarithm of soil water potential and the gravimetric soil water content was only affected $(P < 0.05)$ by the Nfertilization/residue level treatment. Averaged across tillage, burning, and irrigation, soil water contents under high residue treatment exceeded those water contents under low residue treatment at the same water potential. The increased soil water retention under high residue treatment may

be related to increased biomass inputs, SOM accumulation, and soil aggregation at the < 2mm level compared with low residue treatment. Understanding the long-term effects of growingseason weather patterns as well as irrigation, burning, tillage, and fertilization management on near-surface soil properties is critical to developing sustainable agricultural practices in the mid-South.

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Support from the Arkansas Soybean Promotion board has enabled me to conduct my studies and research for the last two years, and I am very grateful. Thank you for enabling me to pursue my passion.

Dedication

To Wendell Berry, whose writing first kindled my interest in agriculture; to Mark Cain, who was my first teacher in the field; to my son, Jasper, whose face I see when I consider the sustainability of feeding the next generation; and to my wife, Shannon, who I love very much, and who shares my reverence for plants, water, and soil.

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Chapter 1

Literature Review

Introduction

The sustainability of soil and water resources in agroecosystems depends upon long-term agricultural management decisions. Agriculture currently places high demand on water resources and generates 10 to 12% of total global anthropogenic emissions of greenhouse gases (IPCC, 2013) through the burning of fossil fuels and the oxidation of soil organic matter (SOM). However, the impact of agriculture on soil and water resources may vary according to management. Residue management practices such as tillage, burning, nitrogen (N) fertilization, and irrigation can strongly affect the fate of soil OM, carbon (C), N, water content, and several other soil physical and chemical properties that are relevant to crop yield and sustainability.

Soil OM accumulation and oxidation over the long-term is determined by additions of biomass and the timeline of decomposition. Management practices such as tillage, burning, fertilization, and irrigation alter the soil physical and chemical environment, and therefore affect the activity of the microbes responsible for converting crop residues into stabilized fractions of SOM, as well as the activity of microbes responsible for attacking SOM. Management practices that promote the accumulation of SOM may also consequently increase plant available water (Nielson et al., 2002). Increases in SOM are often associated with changes in soil water retention characteristics, such as increased water infiltration, greater hydraulic conductivity, and increased water retention (Azooz and Arshad, 1996).

Previous research has indicated a relationship between varying management systems of tillage, burning, fertilization, and irrigation, and long-term effects on soil properties such as SOM and soil C. Conventional tillage mixes the plow layer and tends to increase decomposition, while no-tillage tends to increase SOM accumulation (Horowitz, 2011; Morgan et al., 2010; Padgitt et al., 2000; Verkler et al., 2009; Zanatta et al., 2007). Burning crop residues is a

widespread practice in the mid-southern US (Frederick et al., 1998; Sanford, 1982), and is associated with increased pH and potassium (K) (Chan et al., 2005), decreased soil N, phosphorus (P), and sulfur (S) (Biederback et al., 1980), and decreased in SOM due to reduced biomass additions. N fertilization promotes wheat biomass and yield, which generally promotes SOM and soil C accumulation (Bowman and Halvorson, 1998; Halvorson et al., 1999), although some research has reported a decrease in soil C under increased N fertilization due to adverse effects on certain soil microorganism populations such as lignin decomposers (Lee and Jose, 2003). Irrigation promotes both increased additions of plant and microbial biomass as well as microbial decomposition of residues and SOM (Churchman and Tate, 1986; Six et al., 1999).Irrigation may have complex effects on soil properties over time, because many microbial processes are controlled by available moisture. Therefore, the effects of irrigation on SOM cycling can be difficult to predict.

An evaluation of the long-term effects of common residue and water management practice effects on soil properties and crop productivity in a double-crop, wheat (*Triticum aestivum* L.)-soybean [*Glycine max* (L.) Merr.] system might offer valuable insights for soybean producers that have long-term sustainability goals for their soil and water resources. Results from this study might be especially useful for determining best management practices in areas such as eastern Arkansas that have experienced large-scale decreases in SOM and may face potential water shortages in the future (Scott et al., 1998). Therefore, the main objective of this study was to determine the long-term trends of near-surface soil C and N, other near-surface soil physical (i.e., bulk density) and chemical (i.e., pH, electrical conductivity (EC), and Mehlich-3 extractable nutrients) properties, and soybean yield as affected by residue burning (burning and non-burning), tillage (conventional and no-tillage), irrigation (irrigated and dryland), and N-

fertilization/wheat-residue level (high and low). A secondary objective of this study was to evaluate the long-term effects of residue burning, tillage, irrigation, and N-fertilization/wheatresidue level on the relationship between soil water potential and soil water content in the top 7.5 cm using a soil wetting-curve approach.

Literature Review

Soybean Production in the United States

As with many commodity crops in the United States, soybean [*Glycine max* (L.) Merr.] production has rapidly increased in the decades following World War II. Planted soybean area in the United States has doubled from approximately 14 million hectares in 1965 to about 34 million hectares in 2014, and is currently the second most widely grown crop in the United States in terms of hectares planted and harvested (USDA-NASS, 2015). Productivity has also increased from an average of 1.6 Mg ha⁻¹ in 1965 to 3 Mg ha⁻¹ in 2014 (USDA-NASS, 2015). New technologies are largely responsible for these rapid increases in scale and productivity. Genetically modified (GM) cropping systems have reduced weed pressure and increased yield, and glyphosate-resistant GM soybean now occupy 93% of the soybean area in the United States (USDA-NASS, 2013). Innovations in farm equipment, pesticides, and fertilizer have transformed agricultural labor efficiency, so that the average 11.1 hectares per worker in 1890 had increased to 300 hectares per worker by 1990 (Hunt, 2001).

However, new obstacles to soybean production have emerged in recent decades as well. Natural resources in many soybean-growing regions have become overtaxed by the accumulated demands of years of cultivated agriculture, as evidenced by topsoil erosion in the Midwest (Dickey et al., 1985) and dwindling water tables in eastern Arkansas (Scott, 1998). Certain weeds have evolved resistance to glyphosate, rendering GM-soybean cropping systems less effective. This is especially true in Arkansas, where over 98% of soybean cropland is planted to glyphosate-resistant seed (Scott and Smith, 2011) and six species of glyphosate-resistant weeds have been confirmed, most notably palmer amaranth (*Amaranthus palmeri*) (Nandula, 2010).

Another recent development that may compromise soybean production is climate change.

Changing weather patterns have implications for season length, precipitation, temperature, and other critical factors of crop production. Climate change has been partly generated by agriculture, due to fossil fuel use and oxidation of soil carbon (C; IPCC, 2013; Lal, 2004; Smith, 2008). Given that many of today's obstacles in soybean production are a cumulative result of past agricultural management, it is imperative to adopt management systems that balance production concerns with conserving natural resources, thereby preserving the ability of future generations to produce crops. Because soybean is such a prevalent crop in the USA, soybean residue management practices, tillage systems, and fertilization practices carry far-reaching ecological and economic consequences.

Arkansas Soybean Production

Overview

In 2014, Arkansas ranked $11th$ in planted soybean area nationwide (USDA-NASS, 2015). The average soybean yield in Arkansas in 2014 was 3.4 Mg ha⁻¹, which was slightly greater than the national average of 3.2 Mg ha- 1 . Arkansas soybean production is primarily concentrated in the Southern Mississippi Alluvium [Major Land Resource Area (MLRA) 131A], especially in Mississippi, Poinsett, Clay, and Craighead Counties (Fig. 1). While Mississippi County surpassed other counties in area planted (120,596 ha) and harvested (120,151 ha) in 2013, Clay County led the state in productivity with a mean yield of 3.3 Mg ha^{-1} (USDA-NASS, 2015).

Soils and Climate of Eastern Arkansas

The viability of agriculture in eastern Arkansas is founded upon the region's soils, relatively flat topography, and warm, wet climate. Eastern Arkansas soils formed fairly recently in the late Holocene epoch, in rich alluvial deposits from the Ohio, Mississippi, and Arkansas Rivers (Foti, 1974). Coarser-textured soil particles settle out of suspension more rapidly than finer-textured soil particles (Allen, 1965), so the textural classes vary greatly depending on the site of alluvial deposition. In eastern Arkansas, sandy and loamy sediments settled out of suspension rapidly to form low ridges and natural levees near water channels (NRCS, 2006). Many soils in this area are situated in low landscape positions, where clays and finer silts have settled out of suspension more slowly and formed fine-textured soils (Scott, 1998). This abundance of flat, low-lying bottomland is ideal for operating large-scale tractors and irrigating over long distances. The topography tends to be level to depressional to very gently undulating plains (NRCS, 2006), and local relief varies by less than 5 m in most areas in eastern Arkansas (NRCS, 2006).

In addition to fine-textured soils and relatively flat topography, soybean production in eastern Arkansas is aided by a generally warm, wet climate. The dominant soil temperature regime is thermic (NRCS, 2006). In Stuttgart, (a city which approximates the middle of the Arkansas portion of MLRA 131-A) the mean maximum daily temperature exceeds 32°C in July, and the mean minimum daily temperature drops below 1°C in January. The normal daily range of temperature is approximately 6.7°C throughout the year, which is indicative of relatively high humidity conditions (Scott, 1998). Average annual rainfall ranges from 118 cm yr⁻¹ at Saint Francis in the north to 134 cm yr^{-1} at Monticello in the south, with most weather stations scattered throughout the region reporting approximately 125 cm yr^{-1} (Scott, 1998). The annual distribution of rainfall tends to proceed along the following pattern: maximum rainfall occurs in March, April, and May; monthly precipitation significantly decreases in June, July, and August when the average cumulative water deficit is \sim 22 cm; and monthly precipitation greatly

increases again in September. Because a substantial portion of the growing season for commodity crops in the region occurs during the driest months, irrigation is often utilized to maximize plant productivity.

Unfortunately, the same climatic factors that aid soybean production also make the soil organic matter (SOM) more susceptible to oxidation and decomposition under cultivated agricultural management (Reicosky et al., 1997; Brye et al., 2004). Several studies have examined the role of agricultural management practices in the depletion of SOM and oxidation of soil organic C in eastern Arkansas (Amuri et al., 2008; Brye et al., 2006; Verkler et al., 2009). When eastern Arkansas was covered by forested wetlands, the soils accumulated large concentrations of OM and C (Stanturf et al., 2000). Years of cultivated agriculture, however, have reduced SOM and C concentrations in the top 12 cm of cropland soil to 0.021% and 0.011 %, respectively (DeLong et al., 2003), compared to 4.6 to 6.5 % SOM and 2.26 to 3.18 % C in undisturbed prairie soils in eastern Arkansas (Brye and Pirani, 2005). Adopting agricultural management practices which slow or even reverse losses of SOM and soil C is imperative for the sustainability of agriculture in Arkansas.

Double-cropped Soybean

Of the 1.4 million hectares in Arkansas planted to soybean in 2014, 11% were doublecropped (USDA-NASS, 2015), or planted following a second crop. A common pairing with double-cropped soybean in Arkansas is winter wheat (*Triticum aestivum* L.) (ASPB, 1999). In a wheat -soybean, double-crop system, Arkansas growers plant soybean soon after a wheat harvest, generally between May 25 and June 20. Some producers will burn and/or till the field between wheat harvest and soybean planting. Soybean are then generally harvested between

October 15 and November 9 (UACES, 2000) and plant the field to wheat again after soybean harvest.

The main disadvantage of a wheat-soybean double-crop system is that wheat must mature to a harvestable stage before planting soybean, thus shortening the soybean growing season and may consequently decrease soybean biomass and harvestable yield (MacKown et al., 2007). There are some instances, however, when the difference between early planting in a full-season soybean system and later planting in a wheat-soybean, double-crop system is inconsequential. In a wheat-soybean experiment conducted on Maury silt-loam soil (Typic Paleudalf) in Kentucky, Coale and Grove (1990) observed that early season drought negatively affected soybean seed germination and stand establishment in full-season soybean, thus decreasing plant root growth, biomass, and plant population compared to double-cropped soybean. Full-season soybean and double-cropped soybean may also produce similar soybean yields when wheat is grown solely as a cover crop and removed earlier in the season. Harvesting wheat for hay instead of grain can advance the soybean planting date by up to six weeks, as well as leave more soil water for the soybean crop (MacKown et al., 2007).

One advantage of double-crop systems is the additional revenue from a second harvested crop. A wheat-soybean, double-crop study conducted on a clay loam (Chromic Hapluderts) in Stoneville, MO showed that, despite a 10 to 40% greater yield from full-season soybean, the double-crop trials were more profitable due to additional revenue from the wheat crop. In fact, the revenue from winter wheat generated over 60% of the combined net returns (Kyei-Boahen et al., 2006). A three-year experiment in the eastern Great Plains similarly concluded that the net economic returns per area were greater in double-cropped systems, despite greater yields from single-crop systems (Kelley, 2003).

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In addition to economic advantages, double-cropping has the ecological advantages of reducing nutrient leaching and providing soil cover (Scott, 1998). Water-soluble nitrogen (N) fertilizers, such as nitrate-N $(NO₃-N)$, can be easily transported into nearby aquatic ecosystems if not taken up by plants, resulting in financial losses for the producer and pollutants in the watershed (Scott, 1998; Dabney et al., 2001). Winter cover crops scavenge more excess N than volunteer vegetation, thereby reducing nutrient leaching (Dabney et al., 2001). Cover crops also prevent soil erosion by intercepting rain drops, thereby decreasing the likelihood of soil particle detachment, and increasing infiltration (Dabney et al., 2001).

Importance of Soil Organic Matter

Soil OM concentration strongly affects many soil properties that are relevant to crop production, such as soil fertility and water content, and is a determining factor in soil C sequestration (Follet et al., 2001). An increase in SOM content often decreases the need for fertilizer and irrigation inputs (Magdoff and Weil, 2004). An increase in SOM also represents an increase in soil C due to the composition of humus, a main component of SOM. Humus is approximately 58% C, 3 to 6% N, and has a C:N ratio of 10 to 20:1 (Luo and Zhou, 2010). Considering SOM is typically composed of organic residues of plants, animals, microbes, and stabilized organic compounds, the long-term balance of SOM is determined by how much plant biomass is added to the system and the timeline of decomposition. Soil OM tends to decompose at an average rate of 5% or less per year (Luo and Zhou, 2010), but can decompose more quickly or more slowly depending on environmental conditions. Soil OM accumulates more readily in fine-textured soils (Luo and Zhou, 2010), soils with cool temperatures, and in wet-soil conditions (Lal 2004). Soil OM content rapidly decreases, however, under certain kinds of agricultural

management due to removal of residue or to oxidation of soil C by tillage (Follet et al., 2001; Lal 2004; Morgan et al., 2010). Burning residue and conventional tillage (CT) are long-standing, widespread practices in eastern Arkansas, where soils have consequently decreased in SOM since the introduction of cultivated agriculture (DeLong et al., 2003).

Soil Carbon Sequestration

The largest terrestrial reserve of C exists in SOM in the form of soil organic carbon (SOC) (Follet et al., 2001; Lal, 2004). Estimations of global SOC range from 700 Pg C (Bolin 1970) to 3150 Pg C, with the latter estimate including deeper soil layers as well as permanently frozen soils (Sabine et al., 2004). Even at the lower range of estimates, the SOC pool exceeds the amount of C in the atmosphere several times over (Brady and Weil, 2008), and SOM alone is estimated to contain three to four times the C content of the atmosphere (Stevenson, 1986). Atmospheric C initially enters the soil through the decaying tissue of photosynthetic organisms, primarily plants. Plants take in atmospheric C during photosynthesis and convert that C into simple plant sugars, ultimately depositing their residue in or on the soil.

The resulting residue, or particulate organic matter (POM), undergoes several physical and chemical transformations in the soil as it is fed upon by microorganisms in a process generally referred to as decomposition (Paustian et al., 2000). The estimated C content of the total litter pool, or the global amount of POM existing at any given time, ranges from 42 Pg C (Bonan et al., 2003) to 382 Pg C (Esser et al., 1982). Decomposition of POM involves the leaching, fragmentation, and chemical alteration of dead tissue. Decomposition produces heterotrophic respiration of $CO₂$, mineralizes nutrients such as inorganic N and C, and generates organic compounds that are incorporated into SOM (Luo and Zhou, 2010).

The amount of C in POM that becomes sequestered in the soil versus the amount of C that is respired depends on the activity of microorganisms. Microorganisms preferentially feed on easily decomposable carbohydrates in fresh residues, and in the process produce polysaccharides that bind the residue and soil particles into macroaggregates. The more recalcitrant intra-aggregate POM (iPOM) are less accessible to soil microorganisms, and consequently sequester C for longer periods of time. The iPOM bound and protected in soil aggregates decomposes more slowly than non-aggregate-bound POM, indicating that iPOM and aggregate stability are directly linked to a soil's ability to store and retain C (Paustian et al., 2000). For decomposing plant residues, approximately 70% of C is respired as $CO₂$, while 30% is retained in the SOC pool at the end of the growing season (Stevenson, 1986).

By manipulating soil conditions affecting SOM decomposition, agriculture can either extend or shorten the residence time of SOC. The global, cumulative effects of agriculture throughout history have tended to decrease the residence time of SOC, releasing approximately 78 Pg C to the atmosphere through land-use change and tillage (Lal, 2004).

Conversely, agricultural soils are also capable of acting as C sinks. Management practices that maintain or increase SOM concentrations will also increase the amount of C sequestered in a soil. Morgan et al. (2010) estimated that improved cropland management can increase SOC sequestration rates by 0.1 to 1 Mg C ha⁻¹yr⁻¹, a rate which would necessarily level off after reaching a new equilibrium of maximized sequestration potential. Under improved cropland management, the global potential of SOC sequestration is 0.9 ± 0.3 Pg C yr⁻¹, with a cumulative potential of 30 to 60 Pg within 25 to 50 years (Lal, 2004). Lal et al. (1999) suggested conservation tillage and residue management have great potential to increase SOC accumulation.

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Focusing efforts on increasing SOC in agricultural soils through land management is an important step in mitigating climate change and promoting long-term sustainability.

Observable differentiations in near-surface SOC between residue treatments require sufficient time for POM at the soil surface to decompose and enter the profile, which is an obstacle when comparing the carbon sequestration potential of management systems. The length of time required for observable differences is difficult to precisely determine, due to varying local conditions, but decades of management are likely to produce greater differences than just a few growing seasons. A wheat-soybean double-crop study conducted on a Norge silt-loam near El Reno, OK that only lasted three years reported little difference in soil C and N between treatments at the 0 to 15 cm and 15 to 30 cm depths (MacKown et Al., 2007). Likewise, Amuri et al. (2008) observed no significant change in OM, N, and total C between residue treatments after five years of consistent management. Amuri et al. (2008) did, however, report increasing total C (TC) over the first six years following conversion from a monocrop soybean to a wheatsoybean, double-crop system, Six et al. (1999) observed small, insignificant differences in nearsurface C between tillage treatments at a site managed for nine years, but noticed large, significant differences at sites managed for 24 to 33 years.

Some of the environmental and management factors that play critical roles in soil C sequestration include crop rotation, tillage system, and climate. On a Dewitt silt loam in eastern Arkansas, Motschenbacher et al. (2014) reported no difference in SOC between NT and CT treatments in the top 10 cm after 11 years of consistent management. However, Motschenbacher et al. (2014) did report 15 to 28% greater SOC contents in high-residue (i.e., winter wheat) containing rotations, compared to low-residue containing rotations. In a comparison study of various silt-loam soils in the Ozark Highlands and Grand Prairie Regions in Arkansas, Brye et al. (2004) reported significantly greater total C, C:N ratios, and SOM concentrations in the upper 10 cm in the Ozark Highlands region. The increased SOC and SOM accumulation in the Ozark Highlands region was attributed to climatic factors, rather than parent material. C sequestration increases as precipitation increases, and decreases as temperature increases. Brye et al. (2004) suggests that as some regions become warmer and wetter during the course of climate change, the potential of these soils to sequester C will decrease.

Typical Crop Management Effects

Effects of Burning Crop Residue

The burning of wheat residue in wheat-soybean production systems is a widespread practice in mid-southern USA (Frederick et al., 1998; Sanford, 1982). In wheat-soybean doublecrop systems, producers will typically burn wheat residue immediately before planting soybean as a means to control weed populations and prepare a proper seedbed. The burned residue creates what is sometimes called the ash-bed effect (Chan et al., 2005). As documented in a wheatfallow study conducted on a clay-loam Luvisol and a sandy-loam Alfisol in New South Wales, Australia, the ash-bed effect is associated with increased pH and K (Chan et al., 2005). Chan et al. (2005) also reported decreased weed and disease pressure, improved seed germination, and increased yields in burned compared to non-burned treatments.

In contrast, residue burning can negatively impact SOM. Foremost, burning represents a lost opportunity to add organic matter to the soil. Secondly, burning destroys certain beneficial soil microorganisms. Depending on wind speed and amount of crop residue present on the soil surface as fuel, fires can reach temperatures that kill significant amounts of the soil bacteria, fungi, and macro-fauna populations (Biederbeck, 1980), all of which play critical roles in soil

aggregate formation, generation of SOM, and the sequestration of C. In a winter wheat-summer fallow experiment on a Walla Walla silt-loam (Haploxeroll) soil near Pendleton, OR, Wuest et al. (2005) linked residue burning to a significant decrease in glomalin, basidiomycetes populations, and earthworm counts in the top 15 cm, each of which are also all agents of soil aggregation. Burning has also been shown to decrease surface infiltration rates (Rasmussen et al., 1980) and hydraulic conductivity (Biederback, 1980), which may be related to burning's deleterious effects on aggregate stability and SOM.

In addition to potentially negatively affecting aggregate stability and SOM, burning leads to a gradual decrease in plant available nutrients. Burning quickly releases plant-available, inorganic forms of N and phosphorus (P); however, these benefits are temporary in nature (Biederback et al., 1980). In an oat (*Avena sativa* L.) stubble experiment on a silty-clay Black Chernozem, a heavy clay Black Chernozem, and a Wood Mountain loam (Brown Chernozem) in Saskatchewan, Canada, Biederback et al. (1980) determined that burning increased yield in both fertilized and unfertilized control treatments, but had a cumulative effect of decreasing yield in the unamended control over 17 years. Biederback et al. (1980) concluded that long-term burning inflicted a slowly cumulative loss of N, P, sulphur (S), and boron (B) in the top 15 cm. Findings are consistent with an Indian study of a double-crop wheat and rice (*Oryza sativa* L.) system on a sandy-clay-loam Fluent, in which the residue-incorporated treatment showed increased rice and wheat yields, and organic C, available P, and available K concentration in the top 20 cm compared with burned treatment (Prasad et al., 1999). The yield results from Prasad et al. (1999) suggest that wheat can be planted immediately after the incorporation of rice residue and still produce yields that match or exceed those of wheat planted to a burned rice field.

Some studies have reported that burning also significantly decreases soil C in the upper

15 cm (Biederback, 1980), while others have observed little to no change in total soil C (Brye et al., 2006; Chan et al., 2005; Rasmussen et al., 1980; Wuest et al., 2005). Wuest et al. (2005) suggested that because burning primarily affects elements at or above the soil surface, the effects of multiple growing seasons of repeated annual burning would need to accumulate in order to manifest into measurable changes in soil C. This is consistent with a 4-yr wheat-soybean study conducted on a Brooksville silty-clay (Aquic Chomudert) that reported increased SOM content in a non-burned/no-tillage (NT) compared with a burned/CT treatment combination (Sanford, 1982). Conversely, another wheat-soybean study conducted on a Calhoun silt-loam (Typic Glossaqualf) and a Calloway silt-loam (Glossaquic Fragiudalf) that burning had no observable effect on loss of C as $CO₂$ from the soil. However, OM and total C increased under NT compared to CT (Brye et al., 2006). Smith et al. (2014) also reported that soil C respiration was more strongly correlated with tillage treatment than burning, in an 11-yr wheat-soybean study conducted on a Calloway silt-loam (Glossaquic Fragiudalf). Others have speculated that 20 to 30 years of residue burning would be needed in order for researchers to ascertain the full extent of the negative impact on SOM and yield (Rasmussen and Parton, 1994).

Effects of No-Tillage Compared to Conventional Tillage

Tillage systems can be classified into four categories: CT, which disturbs all of the soil surface and leaves less than 15% residue cover; reduced-tillage, which disturbs all of the soil surface and leaves 15 to 30% of the residue cover; conservation tillage, which implies any tillage or planting system that leaves 30% or more of the residue cover; and NT where the soil is left undisturbed after harvest, and is only minimally disturbed for planting (CTIC, 2014). Conventional-tillage systems in eastern Arkansas, and the Mississippi Delta in general, usually

involve disking the field followed by harrowing, with the goal of creating a fine seedbed that contains less than 15% residue on the surface to facilitate soybean planting (Padgitt et al., 2000). Conventional-tillage systems may vary in frequency and depth of tillage. For instance, tillage systems using a moldboard plow incorporate 75% of crop residues at a depth below 15 cm, and can penetrate the soil profile up to 30 cm. Other CT systems may use a chisel plow or disk, which rarely penetrate deeper than 15 cm and incorporate residue at depths shallower than 10 cm (Staricka et al., 1991).

Compared to NT, CT offers tangible, immediate advantages by preparing finer seedbeds, reducing need for herbicides, and improving seedling germination (Chan et al., 2005). However, NT offers long-term benefits by increasing SOM accumulation, reducing the number of field passes with equipment, which is an economic and fuel savings, reducing soil erosion, and reducing greenhouse gas emissions (Horowitz, 2011; Morgan et al., 2010; Padgitt et al., 2000; Verkler et al., 2009; Zanatta et al., 2007). Weighing the immediate benefits to a crop against the long-term benefits to an agricultural soil is key to selecting the most appropriate tillage system.

The primary purposes of tillage are seedbed preparation, destruction of germinating weed populations, and aeration of the plow layer. In each of these cases, CT imparts immediate, shortterm benefits to a crop, while simultaneously imparting long-term negative effects. Fine seedbed structure benefits a soybean crop because good seed-soil contact increases water penetration into seeds and improves germination and emergence (Guerif et al., 2001). However, over the longterm, CT often creates soil compaction below the plow layer, impeding root elongation and encouraging soil crusting at the soil surface, thereby inhibiting seedling emergence (Guerif et al., 2001). In contrast, NT systems generate neither the short-term benefits of fine seedbed structure nor the long-term drawbacks of soil compaction. However, surface residue may interfere with

crop establishment by obstructing seedling emergence, releasing growth-inhibiting allopathic compounds, decreasing soil temperature, and decreasing the efficacy of herbicides (Amuri et al., 2008; Brye et al., 2006; Chan et al., 2005; Kaspar et al., 1990). It is difficult to model and predict the effects of tillage systems on seedling germination and emergence, given the large variation in local conditions (Guerif et al., 2001), but the benefits of crop establishment seem to trend towards CT. However, results from a soybean study in Wisconsin showed equivalent stand establishment could be achieved in NT compared to CT by increasing the seeding rate by 15 to 32% (Oplinger and Philbrook, 1992).

In CT, mechanical soil manipulation destroys weed seedlings that happen to be emerging at the time of cultivation, but can actually contribute to an overall increase in weed germination and emergence over time (Amuri et al., 2010; Botto et al., 1998; Mohler and Galford, 1997; Shrestha et al., 2002). Light stimulus during soil cultivation can trigger weed seed germination (Botto et al., 1998), and the vertical redistribution of weed seeds from deeper in the profile can position weed seeds at a more conducive depth for germination and emergence (Mohler and Galfor 2008). In a wheat-soybean double-crop system on a Calloway silt loam in eastern Arkansas, Amuri et al. (2010) observed greater total weed density under CT (513 plants m^{-2}) than NT (340 plants m^{-2}) in the early part of the 2006 growing season, although later in the season this trend reversed. Results imply late season weed density may increase under NT compared with CT because of reduced glyphosate (i.e., the Round-Up herbicide) efficacy in NT.

With regards to soil aeration, CT has a positive effect on soil aeration in the short-term and, but may negatively affect soil aeration over the long term. A New Zealand study examining oxygen diffusion rate (ODR) in various tillage systems on a Moutoa silty-clay (Typic Haplaquoll) observed that CT increased aeration at the 5-, 10-, and 15 cm depths (Sojka et al.,

1997). A similar study conducted on a lateritic sandy-loam (Typic Acrorthox) in the coastal belt of eastern India also reported that CT increased aeration and soil temperature in the plow layer, i.e., the top 15 cm (Khan, 1996). The increased ODRs were only temporary, however, due to soil reconsolidation (Khan, 1996). In some cases, ODR levels in a CT system may drop below pretillage ODR levels within the same growing season (Khan, 1996; Sojka et al., 1997).

Soil properties are strongly affected by tillage management. Conventional tillage exposes soil to increased wet-dry and freeze-thaw cycles, but NT offers a protective soil cover in the form of vegetation or residue, thereby increasing the opportunity for soil aggregation, fostering worm population growth, increasing fungal hyphae colonization, increasing humification of residue, and increasing sequestration of C (Amuri et al., 2008; Halvorson et al., 1999; Six et al., 1999). Many of the specific benefits associated with NT are directly correlated to an increase in SOM.

Numerous studies have documented increased SOM in NT soils (Balesdent et al., 2000; Dolan et al., 2006; Six et al., 1999). In a study conducted on four soils (i.e., a Haplustoll, Fragiudalf, Hapludalf, and Paleudalf) at various locations around the United States, Six et al. (1999) observed a greater loss of 53 to 250 µm sized iPOM in the top 5 cm under CT than under NT. Intra-aggregate POM is a labile fraction of SOM that is particularly biologically and chemically active (NRCS, 2011), and therefore a loss of iPOM has negative implications for plant growth. Similarly, Balesdent et al. (2000) concluded that the decomposition rate of SOM under CT occurred at more than double the decomposition rate under NT, largely due to the fact that SOM is more protected under NT and becomes more rapidly exposed under CT.

The difference in SOM accumulations between tillage treatments is generally correlated with a difference in SOC accumulations as well. Paustian et al. (2000) analyzed the SOM and

SOC stocks in soils under different management systems, drawing data from various sources (Angers et al., 1993; Cambardella and Elliott, 1993; Beare et al., 1994; Franzluebbers and Arshad, 1996). Paustian et al. (2000) reported that the mean residence time of SOM and SOC stocks was approximately 73 yr in NT versus 44 yr in CT systems. Even though CT incorporates surface residue, thereby accelerating the process of soil aggregation, tillage has the stronger counter-effect of disrupting existing aggregates and increasing SOM decomposition, resulting in more rapid loss of soil C than in NT (Paustian et al., 2000). Similarly, a meta-analysis of 67 long-term agricultural experiments across the globe reported that a change from CT to NT can sequester 57 ± 14 g C m² yr⁻¹ (West and Post, 2002).

An experiment conducted by Six et al. (1999) also confirms the increased loss of C under CT. On various loamy soils in corn (*Zea mays* L.), soybean, and wheat production, NT soils contained 9 to 16% greater concentrations of C in the top 20 cm than CT soils, with the greatest differences occurring at the 0- to 5-cm depth (Six et al., 1999). Similarly, in a 23-yr study with a soybean-containing rotation on a Waukegan silt loam (Typic Hapludoll), SOC and N increased more under NT compared to CT in the top 20 cm (Dolan et al., 2006).

Several long-term studies have also observed lower C:N ratios in tilled soils compared with undisturbed soils. In a 17-yr study on an Acrisol sandy clay loam (Paludult) in Brazil, NT cropland and grasslands contained larger C:N ratios in the top 2.5 cm than CT (Diekow et al., 2005). As depth increased, however, the C:N ratios of differentially managed agroecosystems became increasingly similar. Similarly, in an 18-yr Ohio study conducted on a Wooster silt loam (Typic Fragiudalf) and a Hoytville silty clay loam (Mollic Ochraqualf), Dick (1983) observed greater near-surface C:N ratios in NT than CT, but observed no significant differences in C:N ratio between tillage treatments when averaged across the 0 to 30 cm depth. Tillage appears to

significantly affect the C:N ratio in near-surface soil depths and less significantly in the subsoil below a depth of 20 cm, which may be explained by the fact that under NT plant residues accumulate at the surface.

Other comparative studies of tillage treatments have reported no significant differences in total C, N, SOM, or C:N ratios. MacKown et al. (2007) conducted a 3-yr, double-cropped, wheat-soybean experiment on a Norge silt loam (Udic Paleustoll) in the southern Great Plains, and observed no significant difference in soil C and N levels between CT and NT. Similarly, Amuri et al. (2008) reported no significant variation in total C, N, OM, or C:N ratio between tillage treatments after five years of consistent management. In both cases, however, the similarity of soil properties between tillage treatments may be due to the relatively short durations of the studies.

In addition to management effects on soybean plant growth and soil properties, there are financial aspects to consider when comparing tillage systems. The majority of growers are already invested in CT infrastructure, and a conversion to NT might require phasing out current equipment and/or making new purchases. A 2003 survey submitted to Arkansas growers reported that one of the most commonly cited reason for refusing to convert from CT to NT was the expense of purchasing NT equipment (Hill et al., 2003). After the initial expenses associated with conversion however, NT can be equally productive to CT in economic terms. No-tillage requires fewer inputs and fewer passes with a tractor, thus can reduce production expenses in the long run (Verkler et al., 2009).

Effects of Irrigation Compared to Dryland Management

Most soybean producers in Arkansas irrigate during the growing season for the purpose

of increasing yield. Between 1972 and 2003, the mean yield of irrigated soybean in Arkansas was estimated to be 2.5 Mg ha⁻¹ compared to the dryland average yield of 1.5 Mg ha⁻¹ (Egli, 2008). While irrigation can increase soybean yield, irrigation can also increase production expenses and sometimes be less profitable than non-irrigated soybean (Parsch et al., 2001). Finer-textured soils may require less irrigation for optimal soybean yield, and certain management practices, such as NT, may decrease irrigation needs (Verkler et al., 2009). Verkler et al. (2008) reported that soil dried down more slowly under non-burn and NT management than under burned and CT management. Moreover, water is an increasingly precious resource in eastern Arkansas. According to Scott et al. (1998), available water in the Alluvial Aquifer will be exhausted by 2050, due to years of crop irrigation withdrawals that have exceeded the recharge rate.

Irrigation strongly affects the activity of plants and soil microorganisms, leading to changes in SOM formation and decomposition. Lal and Bruce (1999) estimated that irrigated cropland sequesters between 50 to 150 kg ha⁻¹ more C than non-irrigated cropland; however, Lal and Bruce (1999) also suggested that the effects of irrigation on SOC are complex and can be difficult to predict. Increased soil moisture promotes development of plant and microbial biomass, which can increase SOM and SOC (Blanco-Canqui et al., 2010). However, increased soil moisture also promotes microbial decomposition of SOM (Churchman and Tate, 1986) and slaking of unstable aggregates (Six et al., 2000b) resulting in a possible decrease of SOC. In a continuous corn and wheat-fallow study conducted on several silt-loam, loam, and clay-loam soils across the eastern United States, Linn and Doran (1984) reported that soil moisture tended to increase soil microbial activity and, consequently, soil respiration, up to 60% water-filled pore space, beyond which microbial activity and respiration decrease in the upper 7.5 cm.

Soil OM increases water infiltration rate, hydraulic conductivity, and water-holding capacity. Therefore, any management practice that increases SOM, such as NT, may decrease irrigation needs (Verkler et al., 2009). An 8-yr wheat study on a Bethany (Pachic Paleustoll) and a Renfrow (Udertic Paleustoll) silt loam near El Reno, OK reported significantly larger volumetric water contents in the 0- to 1.2-m depth of NT soils compared with CT soils (Dao 1993). In the same study, CT decreased water infiltration and negatively affected precipitation storage (Dao, 1993). Allowing wheat residue to decompose on the surface, such as in a NT/nonburn combination, will likely improve soil moisture storage capability (Amuri and Brye, 2008). Soil moisture retention is a critical factor of soybean production in eastern Arkansas, where hot, dry early summers often pose a threat to germination and stand establishment (Cordell et al., 2007).

Soybean plant growth response is strongly affected by irrigation timing. Ashley et al. (1978) reported that irrigating prior to soybean flowering increases vegetative biomass, pod count, and weight, whereas waiting to irrigate until the start of soybean flowering produced no increase in vegetative biomass, but increased pod count and weight.

Effects of Nitrogen-Fertilized Cover Crops

Unlike soybean, which can fix N and require little to no added N-fertilizer, wheat derives N entirely from the soil. Nitrogen fertilization tends to promote wheat biomass and yield, and split-application of N is particularly effective. Split-application reduces the loss of N through leaching and denitrification, thereby increasing plant uptake of N and increasing wheat yield (Sripada and Weisz, 2009). While a positive correlation exists between N-fertilization and wheat biomass, the effects of N-fertilization on SOM, SOC, and other soil chemical properties are more
complex, due to the various implications of increased N on residue decomposition and microbial activity (Banger et al., 2010; Hogberg et al., 2007; Lee and Jose, 2003).

One potentially negative impact of increased N-fertilization is soil acidification. While few N-fertilizers are acidic, N-fertilizers encourage acid-forming reactions, such as the microbial oxidation of ammoniacal fertilizer (Barak et al., 1997). In a 3-yr, NT, wheat-corn-fallow rotation study conducted on a Platner loam (Aridic Paleustoll) in the Great Plains, Bowman and Halvorson (1998) reported a significant correlation between increased N-fertilization and a reduction in soil pH (6.5 to 5.1) in the top5 cm (Bowman and Halvorson, 1998).

Another commonly observed effect of increased N-fertilization is increased SOM and SOC, due to the increased plant biomass resulting from N-fertilization. Bowman and Halvorson (1998) reported 40% increase in SOC in the top 5 cm under increased N-fertilization management. Likewise, after 10 years of consistent management of a Weld silt-loam (Aridic Agiustoll) in the Great Plains in a rotation that included winter wheat, SOC increased more in a high-N-rate (134 kg N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹) than in low-N-rate treatments (Halvorson et al., 1999).

While it might be expected for N-fertilization to increase C sequestration due to increased plant biomass and subsequent SOM, some studies have observed the opposite trend. In a cottonwood (*Populus deltoides* Marsh.) and loblolly pine (*Pinus taeda* L.) study conducted on a Redbay sandy loam (Rhodic Paleudlt) in Florida, an application of 50 kg N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ for eight consecutive years was correlated with observable, but statistically insignificant, decreases in SOC (Lee and Jose, 2003). Microbial biomass decreased by over 20%, which suggests that N fertilizer may have adverse effects on some soil microorganisms (Lee and Jose, 2003). Banger et al. (2010) suggested that N-fertilizer may preferentially stimulate activity of certain microbes, while inhibiting development of others, such as lignin decomposers.

Treatment Effects on Water-Retention Characteristics

While soil water-retention characteristics are seasonally variable due to wet-dry and freeze-thaw cycles (Unger, 1991), long-term changes in water-retention characteristics may also be affected in the long-term by agricultural management practices. In a comparison study of water-retention characteristics between cultivated agriculture and native prairie soils on a Dewitt silt-loam in eastern Arkansas, Brye (2003) reported that land use significantly affected the slope of the soil moisture release curve in the top 10 cm. Results indicated that as both the native prairie and cultivated agricultural soils reached the same water potential, the native prairie soil would have a higher water content. Conversely, as soils of both land uses reached permanent wilting point (i.e., -1.5 MPa), water content would be similar.

Other studies have similarly concluded that repeated years of cultivation can negatively affect soil water-retention characteristics. In a continuous-corn study conducted on a Canisteo clay-loam (Typic Haplaquoll) and a Nicollet loam (Aquic Hapludolls), soils managed with reduced tillage systems retained more plant-available water and maintained greater unsaturaSted hydraulic conductivities than soils under CT at the 5- to 7.5-cm and 10- to 12.5-cm depth. (Hill et al., 1985). Similarly, on a Donnelly silt-loam (Gray Luvisol) managed consistently for 14 yr and a Donnelly sandy-loam (Gray Luvisol) managed consistently for 5 yr in Alberta, Canada, Azooz and Arshad (1996) reported that soils under NT maintained pore structure, which resulted in greater hydraulic conductivity and infiltration rates in NT than in CT.

Justification

An understanding of how different agricultural management practices impact SOM and SOC is essential for determining sustainable practices of food production. Mounting evidence

implicates agriculture as a major source of greenhouse gas emissions. The Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) concluded that agriculture generates 10 to 12% of total global anthropogenic emissions of greenhouse gases, including 60% of the nitrous oxide (N_2O) and 50% of the methane (CH4) emissions (IPCC, 2013) through the burning of fossil fuels and the oxidation of SOM. Certain practices, such as NT, may increase accumulation of C in the soil, while simultaneously decreasing C emissions from cultural operations.

Soybean production must be economically viable as well as ecologically responsible, which requires an understanding of which management practices produce adequate yields. A long-term, consistently managed wheat-soybean study evaluating common residue and water management practice effects on SOM, carbon sequestration, and soybean yield might offer insight into how soybean production might become more sustainable, while maintaining productivity, in the future.

Objectives

The main objective of this study is to determine the long-term trends of near-surface soil C and N, other near-surface soil physical (i.e., bulk density) and chemical (i.e., pH, electrical conductivity (EC), and Mehlich-3-extractable nutrients) properties, and soybean yield as affected by residue burning (burning and non-burning), tillage (conventional and no-tillage), irrigation (irrigated and dryland), and N-fertilization/wheat-residue level (high and low). A secondary objective of this study is to evaluate the long-term effects of residue burning, tillage, irrigation, and N-fertilization/wheat-residue level on the relationship between soil water potential and soil water content in the top 7.5 cm using a soil wetting-curve approach.

Hypotheses

Non-burning is expected to increase SOM, SOC, and plant available nutrients, compared to burning. No-tillage is expected to increase SOM, SOC, and soil fertility compared to CT. Irrigation is expected to increase SOM and soybean yield compared to non-irrigation. High Nfertilization/wheat-residue level is expected to produce more wheat residue biomass, thereby increasing SOM and SOC compared to low N-fertilization/wheat-residue level. The treatment combination of high N-fertilization/wheat-residue level, NT, non-burning, and irrigation is expected to increase SOM and SOC. Tillage is expected to strongly affect the relationship between soil water potential and soil water content in the top 7.5 cm, such that when soil water potential of CT and NT is equal, the NT soil water content will be greater compared to CT.

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Fig. 1. County map of Arkansas soybean production, in bushels. Data reported from 1999. To convert bushels to Mg, multiply by 0.028. Adapted from ASPB (2014).

Fig. 2. Experimental layout at the Lon Mann Cotton Branch Experiment Station in eastern Arkansas depicting residue-level [high (H) and low (L)], burn, tillage [conventional tillage (CT) and no-tillage (NT)], and irrigation treatments.

Chapter 2

Long-term Residue Management Effects on Soil Properties and Yields in a Wheat-soybean, Doublecrop System in Eastern Arkansas

Abstract

Adoption of management practices that maintain or increase soil organic matter (SOM), which contains 58% carbon (C) on average, may help to mitigate climate change by sequestering atmospheric C. Therefore, the main objective of this study was to determine the long-term trends in SOM, soil C and nitrogen (N), bulk density, various soil chemical properties (i.e., pH, electrical conductivity [EC], and Mehlich-3-extractable nutrients) in the top 10 cm, and soybean yield as affected by residue burning (burning and non-burning), tillage (conventional and notillage), irrigation (irrigated and non-irrigated), and N-fertilization/residue level (high and low) in a wheat (*Triticum aestivum* L.)-soybean [*Glycine max* (L.) Merr.], double-crop system in eastern Arkansas. The field site has been consistently managed for 13 years at the University of Arkansas Lon Mann Cotton Research Station near Marianna, Arkansas on a Calloway silt-loam (fine silty, mixed, active, thermic Glossaquic Fraglossudalf). Averaged across all other factors, SOM did not differ over time (*P* > 0.05) under irrigation, while SOM content increased over time $(P < 0.05)$ until approximately nine years after initial conversion when SOM decreased thereafter under dryland production. Soil OM content also decreased over time $(P < 0.05)$ under residue burning, but increased over time under non-burning. The results of this study indicated that irrigation management was responsible for many of the largest differences in near-surface soil property trends over time, namely SOM and C, compared to the other field management practices evaluated. Understanding the long-term effects of growing-season weather patterns as well as irrigation, burning, tillage, and fertilization management on near-surface soil properties is critical to developing sustainable agricultural practices in the mid-South.

Introduction

An understanding of how different agricultural management practices impact soil organic matter (SOM), soil carbon (C), other various soil properties, and crop yield is essential for determining sustainable practices of food production. The Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change concluded that agriculture generates 10 to 12% of total global anthropogenic emissions of greenhouse gases (IPCC, 2013) through the burning of fossil fuels and the oxidation of SOM. Management of crop residues can strongly affect the fate of SOM in agricultural soils, as well as a host of other soil physical and chemical properties, which has implications for crop production in the short-term as well as sustainability in the long-term.

The long-term balance of SOM is determined by how much biomass is added to the system and the timeline of decomposition. Biomass inputs primarily consist of plant residue, as well as animal and microbial tissues. Management factors such as tillage, burning, fertilization, and irrigation may influence the rate at which microbes convert organic residues into stabilized fractions of SOM, as well as the rate at which microbes decompose SOM by altering the physical and chemical soil environment.

Tillage homogenizes the plow layer and alters the near-surface soil environment, which can have cumulative effects on various soil physical and chemical properties. Conventional tillage (CT) disturbs all of the soil surface and leaves less than 15% residue cover, while notillage (NT) leaves the soil undisturbed after harvest, and causes minimal disturbance for planting (CTIC, 2014). Conventional-tillage systems in eastern Arkansas, and the lower Mississippi River Delta region in general, usually involve disking the field followed by harrowing, with the goal of creating a fine seedbed that contains less than 15% residue on the surface to facilitate soybean planting (Padgitt et al., 2000).

Compared to NT, CT offers tangible, immediate advantages by preparing finer seedbeds, reducing need for herbicides, and improving seedling germination (Chan et al., 2005). However, NT offers long-term benefits by increasing SOM accumulation, reducing the number of field passes with equipment, which is an economic and fuel savings, reducing soil erosion, and reducing greenhouse gas emissions (Horowitz, 2011; Morgan et al., 2010; Padgitt et al., 2000; Verkler et al., 2009; Zanatta et al., 2007). Weighing the immediate benefits to a crop against the long-term benefits to soil resource used for agricultural production is key to selecting the most appropriate residue management and tillage system.

Burning crop residues is an alternative residue management with tillage and can also have cumulative effects on various soil properties. Burning wheat residue in wheat (*Triticum aestivum* L.)-soybean [*Glycine max* (L.) Merr.] production systems is a widespread practice in the mid-southern US (Frederick et al., 1998; Sanford, 1982). In wheat-soybean double-crop systems, producers will typically burn wheat residue immediately before planting soybean as a means to control weed populations and prepare a proper seedbed. The burned residue creates what is sometimes called the ash-bed effect (Chan et al., 2005). As documented in a wheatfallow study conducted on a clay-loam Luvisol and a sandy-loam Alfisol in New South Wales, Australia, the ash-bed effect is associated with increased pH and potassium (K) (Chan et al., 2005). However, residue burning can negatively impact SOM because of the lost opportunity to add organic matter to the soil. Moreover, burning can lead to a gradual decrease in plant available nutrients. Burning quickly releases plant-available, inorganic nutrients such as nitrogen (N) and phosphorus (P), but may inflict a slowly cumulative loss of N, P, and sulfur (S) over time (Biederback et al., 1980).

In addition to tillage and residue burning, N fertilization is a common management

practice that promotes wheat biomass and yield. Split application of N is particularly effective because the loss of N through leaching and denitrification is reduced and therefore plant uptake of N is increased (Sripada and Weisz, 2009). While a positive correlation exists between N fertilization and wheat biomass, the effects of N fertilization on SOM, soil C, and other soil chemical properties are more complex, due to the various implications of increased N on residue decomposition and microbial activity (Banger et al., 2010; Hogberg et al., 2007; Lee and Jose, 2003). Bowman and Halvorson (1998) reported 40% increase in soil C in the top 5 cm under increased N-fertilization management. Likewise, after 10 years of consistent management of a Weld silt-loam (Aridic Agiustoll) in the Great Plains in a rotation that included winter wheat, SOC increased more in a high- $(134 \text{ kg N} \text{ ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1})$ than in low-N-rate treatments (Halvorson et al., 1999). In contrast, a cottonwood (*Populus deltoides* Marsh.) and loblolly pine (*Pinus taeda* L.) study conducted on a Redbay sandy loam (Rhodic Paleudlt) in Florida reported a decrease in SOC in correlation with an application of 50 kg N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ for eight consecutive years (Lee and Jose, 2003). Microbial biomass decreased by over 20%, which suggested that N fertilizer may have adverse effects on some soil microorganisms (Lee and Jose, 2003). Banger et al. (2010) suggested that N-fertilizer may preferentially stimulate activity of certain microbes, while inhibiting development of others, such as lignin decomposers.

Another potential effect of increased N fertilization is soil acidification. While few N fertilizers are themselves acidic, many N fertilizers encourage acid-forming reactions (i.e., nitrification; Barak et al., 1997). In a 3-yr, NT, wheat-corn (*Zea mays* L.)-fallow rotation study on a Platner loam (Aridic Paleustoll) in the Great Plains, Bowman and Halvorson (1998) reported a significant correlation between increased N fertilization and a reduction in soil pH $(6.5 \text{ to } 5.1)$ in the top 5 cm.

Similar to N fertilization, properly applied irrigation can greatly increase crop yield. Between 1972 and 2003, the mean yield of irrigated soybean in Arkansas was estimated to be 2.5 Mg ha⁻¹ compared to the dryland average yield of 1.5 Mg ha⁻¹ (Egli, 2008). Consequently, the majority of soybean producers in Arkansas choose to irrigate during the growing season. However, irrigation also incurs added costs and can sometimes be less profitable than nonirrigated production (Parsch et al., 2001; Verkler et al., 2009). Moreover, water is an increasingly precious resource in eastern Arkansas, and irrigation may become cost prohibitive in the near future. According to Scott et al. (1998), available water in the Alluvial Aquifer will be exhausted by 2050, due to years of crop irrigation withdrawals that have exceeded the recharge rate.

Irrigation alters the soil moisture environment, thereby affecting the activity of plants and soil microorganisms and the cycling of SOM. Increased soil moisture promotes development of plant and microbial biomass, which can contribute to an overall increase in SOM. However, increased soil moisture also promotes the microbial decomposition of SOM and slaking of unstable aggregates (Churchman and Tate, 1986; Six et al., 1999), which can contribute to overall decrease in SOM. Therefore, the effects of irrigation on SOM cycling can be difficult to predict.

Irrigation influences the accumulation and decomposition of SOM, and SOM likewise influences soil water. Soil OM increases water infiltration rate, hydraulic conductivity, and water-holding capacity. Therefore, any management practice that increases SOM, such as NT, may decrease irrigation needs (Verkler et al., 2009). An 8-yr wheat study on a Bethany (Pachic Paleustoll) and a Renfrow (Udertic Paleustoll) silt loam near El Reno, OK reported significantly larger volumetric water contents in the 0- to 1.2-m depth of NT soils compared with CT soils (Dao 1993). In the same study, CT decreased water infiltration and negatively affected

precipitation storage (Dao, 1993). Soil moisture retention is a critical factor orf soybean production in eastern Arkansas, where hot, dry early summers often pose a threat to germination and stand establishment (Cordell et al., 2007).

The effects of residue management on SOM and soil C have been previously studied in the lower Mississippi River Delta region of eastern Arkansas. On a Dewitt silt loam in eastern Arkansas, Motschenbacher et al. (2014) reported no difference in soil C between NT and CT treatments in the top 10 cm after 11 years of consistent management. However, Motschenbacher et al. (2014) reported 15 to 28% greater soil C content in high-residue (i.e., winter wheat) containing rotations compared to low-residue-containing rotations. In a comparison study of various silt-loam soils in the Ozark Highlands and Grand Prairie regions in Arkansas, Brye et al. (2004) reported significantly greater total C, C:N ratios, and SOM concentrations in the upper 10 cm in the Ozark Highlands region. The increased soil C and SOM accumulation in the Ozark Highlands region was attributed to climatic factors, rather than parent material. Carbon sequestration tends to increase as precipitation increases, and tends to decrease as temperature increases. Brye et al. (2004) suggested that as some regions become warmer and wetter during the course of climate change, the potential of these soils to sequester C will decrease.

When eastern Arkansas was covered by forested wetlands, the soils accumulated large concentrations of OM and C (Stanturf et al., 2000). Years of cultivated agriculture, however, have reduced SOM and C concentrations in the top 12 cm of cropland soil to 2.1% and 1.1 %, respectively (DeLong et al., 2003), compared to 4.6 to 6.5 % SOM and 2.3 to 3.2 % C in undisturbed prairie soils in eastern Arkansas (Brye and Pirani, 2005). Adopting agricultural management practices which slow or even reverse losses of SOM and soil C are imperative for the sustainability of agriculture, particularly in Arkansas.

An understanding of how different agricultural management practices impact SOM and soil C is essential for determining sustainable practices of food production. A long-term, consistently managed wheat-soybean study evaluating common residue and water management practice effects on soil properties and crop productivity might offer insight into how soybean production might become more sustainable, while maintaining productivity, in the future. Therefore, the objective of this study was to determine the long-term trends of near-surface SOM, C and N, bulk density, and other soil chemical properties (i.e., pH, electrical conductivity [EC], and Mehlich-3-extractable nutrients), and soybean yield as affected by residue burning (burning and non-burning), tillage (conventional and no-tillage), irrigation (irrigated and dryland), and N-fertilization/wheat-residue level (high and low) in a wheat-soybean, double-crop production system in eastern Arkansas. It was hypothesized that SOM, SOC, and plant available nutrients, would increase under non-burning compared to burning. Soil OM, soil C, and plant available nutrients were hypothesized to increase under NT compared to CT. SOM and soybean yield were hypothesized to increase under irrigation compared to dryland management. The high N-fertilization/wheat-residue level treatment was hypothesized to produce more wheat residue biomass, thereby increasing SOM and soil C compared to low N-fertilization/wheat-residue level. Soil OM and C were hypothesized to increase under the high N-fertilization/wheat-residue level, NT, non-burning, and irrigation treatment combinations.

Materials and Methods

Site Description

An on-going field study was initiated in Fall 2001 at the University of Arkansas Lon Mann Cotton Research Station (N34**°**, 44', 2.26"; W90**°**, 45' 51.56", Cordell, 2007) in the Southern Mississippi Alluvium [Major Land Resource Area (MLRA) 131A]. Major Land Resource Area 131A extends along the Mississippi River alluvial plain, south of the confluence of the Ohio and Mississippi Rivers. Maximum local relief is approximately 5 m, however, the relief in most of the region is less than 5 m (USDA, 2006). The topography tends to be level to depressional to gently undulating plains (USDA, 2006). The warm and wet climate, the relatively flat topography, and the fertile alluvial sediments of MLRA 131A make for a highly agriculturally productive region. The site of this field study is on a Calloway silt loam (fine silty, mixed, active, thermic Glossaquic Fraglossudalf; Gray, 1977; NRCS, 2015) which has 16% sand, 73% silt, and 11% clay in the top 10 cm (Brye et al., 2006). The 30-yr mean annual temperature of the region is 15.6°C and the 30-yr mean annual precipitation is 128 cm (NOAA, 2002). The 30-yr mean maximum and minimum air temperatures of the region are 32.8°C in July and 2.4°C in January (NOAA, 2002).

Experimental Design

The original study used a three-factor, split-strip-plot, randomized complete block experimental design with six replications of each of eight treatment combinations (Cordell et al., 2007). The three factors were i) residue level [high residue (H), achieved with a split application of N fertilizer, or low residue (L), achieved with minimal to no N additions]; ii) burning of residue [burning (B) or non-burning (NB)]; and iii) tillage (CT or NT) (Cordell et al., 2007). In

2005, an irrigation factor was introduced when the original study area was divided into two irrigated (I) and two non-irrigated (NI; i.e., dryland) blocks (Verkler et al., 2009). Consequently, since 2005, the experimental area has consisted of 48, 3- x 6-m plots with six replications for every tillage-burning-residue-level combination and three replications for every tillageirrigation-burning-residue level combination (Fig. 1; Amuri et al., 2008).

Field Management

Prior to the initiation of the study in Fall 2001, the site was managed as a continuous, mono-cropped soybean system using CT (Cordell et al., 2007). The first field preparations in Fall 2001 involved disking twice followed by broadcast applications of N, P, K, and pelletized limestone at rates of 20, 22.5, 56, and 1120 kg ha^{-1} , respectively, prior to wheat planting. Wheat was drill seeded with a 19-cm row spacing each Fall. In early March 2002 through 2004, all plots were manually broadcast fertilized with urea (46% N) at the rate of 101 kg N ha⁻¹. To produce different levels of wheat residue, high-residue plots ($n = 24$) were manually broadcast fertilized in late March at approximately the late-jointing stage with an additional 101 kg N ha⁻¹. No N fertilizer was applied in Spring 2005 because the wheat stand failed to establish due to prolonged wet soil conditions in Fall 2004. Since 2006, the high-residue plots received an initial broadcast application of 56 kg N ha⁻¹ as urea in approximately late February, followed by a split application of an additional 56 kg N ha⁻¹ at the late-jointing stage in approximately late March, roughly one month later. The low-residue plots have not received any N fertilization since 2006 in order to achieve the desired residue-level difference.

In approximately early June each year, wheat was harvested using a plot combine. Immediately following wheat harvest, wheat residue was uniformly spread by hand over each plot. The remaining wheat stubble was mowed with a rotary mower to a maximum height of 3 cm from the soil surface in order to achieve a uniform residue-covered surface for soybean planting. After mowing, the burning treatment was imposed on half of the plots by propane flaming. In 2005, 2007, and 2012 the residue-burning treatment was not able to be imposed because of the absence of a wheat stand in Spring 2005, prolonged wet soil conditions in Spring 2007, and overly weedy conditions in 2012. Imposition of the burning treatment was followed by imposing the tillage treatment each year. The CT plots were disked at least twice with a tandem disk to a depth of approximately 10 cm followed by seedbed smoothing with at least three passes of a soil conditioner, which is representative of widely used pre-soybean-planting tillage operation in the region.

In approximately mid-June each year, a glyphosate-resistant soybean cultivar, maturity group 5.3 or 5.4, was drill-seeded with 19-cm row spacing at a rate of approximately 47 kg seed ha⁻¹. Potassium fertilizer was applied according to recommended rates (UACES, 2000) when the previous year's soil test indicated K was needed. In 2002 through 2004, all plots were furrowirrigated as needed, three to four times each soybean-growing season. Since 2005, a levee was created to exclude furrow-irrigation water from the dryland treatment, which received only natural rainfall, while furrow-irrigation continued annually as needed in the irrigated treatment. Weeds and insects were managed annually the same throughout the entire study area as necessary based on University of Arkansas Cooperative Extension Service recommendations, which generally consisted of herbicide and insecticide applications during both the wheat and soybean growing seasons (UACES, 2000). In late October to early November, soybean were harvested with a plot combine. Soybean residue was left in place, into which the subsequent wheat crop was sown to begin the next cropping cycle.

Soil Sample Collection and Processing

Between 2002 and 2008, after wheat harvest and prior to residue burning, 10 soil cores from the top 10 cm were collected from each plot and combined into a single composite sample per plot. After 2008, a single soil sample was collected from the top 10 cm using a 4.8-cmdiameter stainless steel core chamber between wheat maturity and residue burning. Soil samples were oven-dried for 48 hr at 70° C and ground to pass through a 2-mm mesh screen (Verkler et al., 2009) for soil chemical analyses (Brye et al., 2006). Soil pH and EC were determined potentiometrically using an electrode in a 1:2 (w/v) soil-to-water solution. Soil OM was determined by weight-loss-on-ignition after 2 hr at 360° C (Schulte and Hopkins, 1996). Total soil C and N were determined by high-temperature combustion with a LECO CN-2000 analyzer (LECO Corp., St. Joseph, MI) or an Elementar VarioMAX Total C and N Analyzer (Elementar Americas Inc., Mt. Laurel, NJ). All soil C was assumed to be organic C because the soil of the upper solum does not effervesce upon treatment with dilute hydrochloric acid (HCl) (Brye et al., 2006). The soil C:N ratio was calculated from measured C and N concentrations. Soil was also extracted with Mehlich-3 extractant solution in a $1:10 \, (w/v)$ soil-to-extractant solution ratio (Tucker, 1992) and analyzed for extractable nutrients [i.e., P, K, calcium (Ca), magnesium (Mg), S, iron (Fe), sodium (Na), manganese (Mn), and copper (Cu)] by inductively coupled, argonplasma spectrophotometry (ICAPS;CIROS CCD model, Spectro Analytical Instruments, MA). All measured soil elemental concentrations (mg kg^{-1}) were converted to contents (kg ha⁻¹) using the measured bulk density and 10-cm sample depth interval.

Soil samples were also collected between approximately 8 and 10 weeks after soybean planting by extracting a single 4.8-cm-diameter soil core from the top 10 cm using the methods outlined by Brye et al. (2006). Mid-season soil cores were oven-dried at 70° C for 48 hr and weighed for bulk density determinations.

Plant Sample Collection and Processing

Each year, all wheat grain harvested from the middle 1.5-m of each plot was collected. After grain harvest each year, the standing wheat stubble was mowed with a rotary mower to a height of approximately 10 cm. A sample of aboveground residue was then collected from within a 0.25-m ² metal frame, oven-dried for 3 to 7 days at 55**°**C, and weighed to obtain an estimate of aboveground residue mass. All soybean grain harvested from the middle 1.5-m of each plot was also collected. Wheat and soybean grain were air-dried for approximately three weeks and weighed. Wheat and soybean yields were determined by oven-drying air-dried grain subsamples for 48 hr at 70°C, re-weighing, and adjusting to 13% moisture content for yield reporting (Smith, 2014).

Statistical Analyses

An analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was conducted using SAS (version 9.3, SAS Institute, Inc., Cary, NC) to determine the effects of residue level, tillage, burning, and irrigation on the relationship between annual soil chemical properties, bulk density, and wheat and soybean yields (dependent variable) over time (i.e., 2007 through 2014; independent variable). Though the actual experimental design in the field was a strip-split-plot, randomized complete block, to facilitate the ANCOVA, the experimental designed was assumed to be completely random with three replications of each of 16 treatment combinations. The full ANCOVA model was reduced using a hierarchical principle to remove non-significant terms, except when non-significant terms participated in higher-order, complex treatment combinations. An analysis of variance was also conducted using SAS, separately by year, to evaluate the effect of N-fertilization/residue level on aboveground residue mass. When appropriate, means were separated by least significant difference (LSD) at the 0.05 level.

Results and Discussion

The linear and quadratic slopes of regressions were evaluated in the statistical analysis for each variable. The intercepts of regressions, i.e., the values of measured soil properties at year 0, have been analyzed in previous studies (Brye et al., 2006; Amuri et al., 2008). Intercepts of regressions were uniform in the top 10 cm across field treatment factors, with a few exceptions. Soil Mg and P were greater for the burn than the no-burn treatment, and pH was greater for the no-burn than the burn treatment (Amuri et al., 2008). Due to the fact that intercepts of regressions have been analyzed in previous publications, and that the primary objective of this study was to analyze the trend over time rather than differences at any specific point in time, the intercepts of regressions were not evaluated in the final statistical analysis.

The high-N-fertilization rate achieved a numerically greater residue than the low-Nfertilization treatment in seven of the eight years (i.e., 2008 to 2014), but did not achieve a numerically greater aboveground residue level in year 6 (i.e., 2007). The high-N-fertilization rate achieved a significantly greater $(P < 0.05)$ residue level compared with the low-N-fertilization rate in six out of the eight years (i.e., years 7, 8, 10, 11, 12, and 13 or 2008, 2009, 2011, 2012, 2013, and 2014, respectively), but did not achieve a significantly greater residue level in year 6 and year 9 (i.e., 2007 and 2010; data not shown).

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Bulk Density

Over the course of seven complete wheat-soybean cropping cycles (i.e., 2007 to 2014), after six complete cropping cycles (i.e., 2001 to 2007) following conversion to alternative management practices in treatment combinations managed consistently for 13 consecutive years (i.e., 2002 to 2014), the trend in bulk density in the top 10 cm over time was affected ($P < 0.05$; Appendix A - Table 1) by all field treatment factors evaluated. Near-surface bulk density in all treatment combinations increased until approximately nine years after initial conversion then decreased thereafter (Fig. 2). Though there were many subtle differences among treatment combinations, the largest and most obvious differences occurred between tillage, residue level, and irrigation treatments, based on an interpretation of the LSDs between slope parameter estimates for the appropriate specific treatment combinations (Appendix B - Table 1). Clear differences existed between CT and NT treatments under high-residue, non-irrigated production. Averaged across burning, bulk density increased (*P* < 0.001) over time under the NT-H-NI at approximately three times the rate of increase under the CT-H-NI treatment combination (Appendix B - Table 1). Approximately nine years after initial conversion, bulk density began to decrease $(P < 0.001)$ over time under the NT-H-NI at a greater rate than under the CT-H-NI treatment combination (Appendix B - Table 1). Results suggest that the effects of soil compaction under the weight of equipment for routine field operations exceeded the effects of improved soil structure (i.e., decrease in bulk density) associated with NT management. These results are consistent with an 11 yr corn study in Central Canada that reported 10% higher bulk density values in NT than in CT in the top 10 cm (Dam et al., 2005). However, these results are in contrast with an 8 yr winter wheat study near El Reno, OK that reported decreased nearsurface bulk density under NT compared CT (Dao, 1993).

The measured bulk density values from each spring were used as part of the calculation to convert measured elemental concentrations (mg kg^{-1}) of soil chemical properties (i.e., SOM, C, N, Fe, Na, S, P, Cu, Ca, Mg, Mn, K, and Zn) into contents (kg m^{-2}). Therefore, the effects of field treatments on bulk density are embedded in all following soil content trends over time.

Another important contextual point for understanding the results of this study, which considers trends over time from years 6 to year 13 (i.e., 2007 to 2014) following conversion to new management practices, is the study many of similar properties after the first 6 years of consistent management. Trends over time in soil bulk density and soil C were affected by residue management. However, the majority of measured soil and plant properties (i.e., SOM and N contents, wheat and soybean yields, and most measured extractable nutrients) were unaffected over time by any of the imposed field treatments after the first 6 years following conversion to new management, likely due to an insufficient length of time for cumulative effects to have a measurable impact on soil and plant properties (Amuri et al., 2008). In contrast, many differences were observed in this study in the trends over time among soil and plant properties as affected by alternative residue management practices after 13 years following conversion to new management.

Soil OM, C, and N

Over the course of seven complete wheat-soybean cropping cycles (i.e., 2007 to 2014), after six complete cropping cycles (i.e., 2001 to 2007) following conversion to alternative management practices in treatment combinations managed consistently for 13 consecutive years (i.e., 2002 to 2014), the trends in SOM, C, and N contents (kg m^{-2}) in the top 10 cm over time were affected ($P < 0.05$; Appendix A - Table 2) by all field treatment factors evaluated, and most clearly affected by the irrigation treatment in particular.

The trend in SOM content (kg m⁻²) in the top 10 cm over time was affected ($P < 0.05$; Appendix A - Table 2) by all field treatment factors evaluated. These results are in contrast to results analyzed from the first 6 years following conversion to new management practices, where SOM in the top 10 cm was unaffected by tillage, burning, and residue level but increased across all treatments at an average rate of 0.097 kg m^{-2} yr⁻¹, likely due to the conversion from a monoculture to a more diverse crop rotation.

Though there were many subtle differences among treatment combinations, the largest and most obvious differences between the trends over time in SOM content occurred between irrigated and non-irrigated treatments. Averaged across tillage, burning, and residue level, SOM content increased at a rate of 0.56 kg m⁻² yr⁻¹ ($P < 0.001$) over time under dryland production until approximately nine years after initial conversion, then decreased at a rate of 0.03 kg m⁻² yr⁻¹ thereafter (Appendix B - Table 2; Fig. 3). In contrast, there was no change ($P > 0.05$; Appendix B - Table 2) in SOM content over time under irrigation. Consequently, the original hypothesis that SOM content would increase over time under irrigated conditions was rejected.

Irrigation strongly affects the activity of plants and soil microorganisms, leading to changes in SOM formation and decomposition. While increased soil moisture can increase SOM and soil C by promoting development of plant and microbial biomass, increased soil moisture also promotes microbial decomposition of SOM and respiration losses of C (Churchman and Tate, 1986). For example, Linn and Doran (1984) reported increases in soil respiration associated with increases in soil moisture, up to 60% water-filled pore space, beyond which microbial activity and respiration decrease in the upper 7.5 cm in a continuous corn and wheat-fallow study conducted on several silt-loam, loam, and clay-loam soils across the eastern United States.

Similarly, the results of this study suggest that microbial decomposition of SOM under dryland production was reduced by the lack of irrigation and human-induced wetting and drying cycles and that irrigation management, more than any other treatment factor, was responsible for the greatest differences in SOM and C trends over time.

The maximum point in the SOM content trend over time under dryland production between years 9 and 10 (i.e., 2010 and 2011; Fig. 3) may have been influenced by changes in growing-season weather patterns. During the year 9 (i.e., 2010) growing season (i.e., June through October), total rainfall was 58% lower and daily mean air temperature was 5% greater than the 30-yr cumulative rainfall and mean air temperature, respectively, during the same time period (NOAA, 2002). The year 9 and year 10 (i.e., 2011 and 2012) growing seasons also had 15 and 22% lower rainfall, respectively, compared to the 30-yr mean rainfall for the growing season (i.e., June through October; NOAA, 2002; Table 1; Appendix G). Furthermore, soybean yield sharply decreased under dryland production approximately year 9 (i.e., 2010), indicating a reduction in additions of plant biomass under dryland production. The hot, dry growing conditions occurring in year 9 (i.e., 2010) likely caused a reduction in crop biomass, microbial activity, and residue decomposition.

Burning also significantly affected $(P = 0.015)$ the trend in SOM content over time (Appendix A - Table 2; Fig. 3). Averaged across residue level, tillage, and irrigation, and similar to that hypothesized, SOM content decreased at a rate of -0.02 kg $m⁻²$ yr⁻¹ over time under residue burning, but increased at a rate of 0.02 kg m⁻² yr⁻¹ over time under non-burning (Fig. 3). Clearly, burning crop residues reduces the amount of plant material returned to the soil for potential microbial decomposition and eventual conversion to SOM. This is consistent with a 4 yr wheat-soybean study conducted on a Brooksville silty clay (Aquic Chromudert) in Mississippi

that reported increased SOM content under no-burn, NT treatment combinations compared with a burn, CT treatment combinations (Sanford, 1982). These results are in contrast with results analyzed after the first 6 years following conversion to alternative management practices, in which burning had no effect on changes in SOM over time (Amuri et al., 2008), likely due to an insufficient length of time for measurable differences to appear.

As fractions of SOM, it would stand to reason that soil C and N contents would behave like SOM content trends over time. Similar to SOM, the trend in C content (kg m⁻²) in the top 10 cm over time was affected ($P < 0.05$; Appendix A - Table 2) by all field treatment factors evaluated. Also similar to SOM, the largest and most obvious differences occurred between irrigated and non-irrigated treatments ($P < 0.05$). Averaged across tillage, burning, and residue level, C content increased at a rate of 0.16 kg m⁻² yr⁻¹ ($P < 0.05$) over time under dryland production until approximately nine years after initial conversion, then slightly decreased at a rate of 0.01 kg m⁻² yr⁻¹ ($P < 0.05$) thereafter (Appendix B - Table 3). In contrast, C content decreased at a rate of 0.16 kg m⁻² yr⁻¹ ($P < 0.05$) over time under irrigation until approximately nine years after initial conversion, then slightly increased at a rate of 0.01 kg m^{-2} yr⁻¹ thereafter (Appendix B - Table 3; Fig. 4). This result somewhat negates the original hypothesis that C content would increase over time under irrigation. 94% of the measured C content values in the entire seven year study fell within a range of 1 to 1.6 kg C m^{-2} (data not shown). To put this range of C contents in context, 0.2 kg C m⁻² extrapolated across 1 ha would equal 2000 kg C ha⁻¹. Considering the 34 million ha planted to soybean in the United States in 2014 (USDA-NASS, 2015), these observed differences in C content trends may have large-scale, real-world significance in the industry as a whole.

These results are somewhat similar to what was reported after the first 6 years following

conversion to new management practices, in which soil C content increased at a greater rate under irrigation (0.11 kg C m⁻² yr⁻¹) than under dryland production (0.044 kg C ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹; Amuri et al., 2008). Similarly, Lal and Bruce (1999) suggested that soil C sequestration is strongly linked to irrigation practices, estimating that irrigated cropland sequesters between 50 to 150 kg ha⁻¹ more C than non-irrigated cropland. Other studies have reported more significant effects on soil C as a result of tillage practices, i.e., greater soil C sequestration under CT than NT (Franzluebbers et al., 1998; Grandy et al., 2006) as a result of increased oxidation of SOM under CT management.

The maximum points in the C content trends over time under irrigated and non-irrigated soybean production (Fig. 4) occurred at approximately the same time as the maximum point in the SOM trend over time under non-irrigated production (Fig. 3), and therefore may have been similarly influenced by changes in the growing-season weather patterns. The increase in temperature and decrease in moisture may have caused a reduction in crop biomass, microbial activity, and residue decomposition, which may account for the shift from increasing decreasing C content under dryland production between years 9 and 10 (i.e., 2010 and 2011). In contrast, the growing conditions under irrigated conditions were hot and moist, which may have increased microbial decomposition of crop residue and increased the amount of plant biomass converted into stabilized, recalcitrant fractions of C. It is also important to note that, for unknown reasons, the maximum point in the C content trend over time under irrigation occurred slightly earlier than that under dryland production.

Furthermore, while soybean yield under irrigation began to slightly decrease approximately year 9 (i.e., 2010; *P* < 0.001; Appendix B - Table 8; Fig. 7), soybean yield under irrigation continued to exceed soybean yield under dryland production throughout the entire

measured time period, indicating that the crop growth under dryland production was more strongly affected by the change in growing-season weather patterns. The continued, annual additions of relatively large amounts of biomass under irrigation compared to dryland production may have influenced the quadratic increase $(P < 0.05$; Appendix B - Table 3; Fig. 4) in soil C content under irrigation.

Also similar to SOM content, C content trends were affected $(P = 0.002;$ Appendix A -Table 2) by burning in a manner consistent with the original hypothesis. Although the linear trend of soil C over time was unaffected $(P > 0.05)$ by burning, the quadratic coefficient of soil C content was affected $(P = 0.002)$ by burning (Appendix A - Table 2). Under residue burning, soil C content began to decrease over time beginning approximately year 9 (i.e., 2010; $P < 0.05$; Appendix B - Table 3). In contrast, under the no-burn treatment, soil C began to sharply increase over time beginning approximately year 8 (i.e., 2009; *P* < 0.05; Appendix B-Table 3). These results are somewhat similar to what was reported after the first 6 years following conversion to alternative management practices, in which the rate of increase in soil C was significantly $(P =$ 0.008) greater under non-burning than under burning (Amuri et al., 2008).

The trend in the C fraction of SOM in the top 10 cm over time was affected $(P < 0.05)$; Appendix A - Table 3) by all treatment factors evaluated. Though there were many subtle differences among treatment combinations, the largest and most obvious differences again occurred between irrigation treatments. Averaged across tillage, burning, and residue level, the C fraction of SOM slightly decreased (*P* < 0.05) over time under both irrigated and dryland production until approximately nine years after initial conversion, then increased $(P < 0.05)$ thereafter (Appendix A - Table 3; Fig. 5). However, the C fraction of SOM under irrigation increased approximately three times faster than the rate under dryland production after year 9

(i.e., 2010; Appendix B - Table 4). The greater increase in C fraction of SOM over time under irrigation (Fig. 5) is consistent with the increase in C content over time under irrigation (Fig. 4) beginning approximately year 9 (i.e., 2010).

Trends in soil C and/or SOM are often accompanied by similar trends in soil N. The trend in soil N content (kg m⁻²) in the top 10 cm over time was affected ($P < 0.001$) by irrigation, and unaffected $(P > 0.05)$ by any other treatment factor evaluated (Appendix A - Table 2). Averaged across tillage, burning, and residue level, soil N content increased at a rate of 0.03 kg m^{-2} yr⁻¹ over time under dryland production until approximately nine years after initial conversion, then slightly decreased at a rate of 0.002 kg m⁻² yr⁻¹ thereafter (Appendix B - Table 6; Fig. 6). These results are in contrast to results reported after the first 6 years following conversion to alternative management practices, in which the trend in soil N content over time was unaffected by any imposed field treatments. The maximum point approximately year 9 (i.e., 2010; Fig. 6) approximately corresponds to the maximum points in SOM content (Fig. 3), C content (Fig. 4), and C fraction of SOM (Fig. 5), and may have been similarly influenced by changes in growing-season weather patterns. In contrast, there was no change in soil N content over time under irrigation ($P > 0.05$; Appendix B - Table 6). The N fraction of SOM in the top 10 cm over time was affected by tillage, irrigation, and residue level treatments (*P* < 0.023; Appendix A - Table 3). However, trends in N fraction of SOM over time contained no significant slope or quadratic terms, i.e., all treatment combinations were statistically similar (Appendix B - Table 7).

Evaluated independently, soil C and N provide useful information, but evaluated together as the C:N ration can provide even more insight into the biogeochemical cycling of SOM. The trend in soil C:N ratio in the top 10 cm over time was affected $(P < 0.05$; Appendix A -Table 3)
by all field treatments evaluated. Though there were many subtle differences among treatment combinations, the largest and most obvious differences occurred between high- and low-residue treatments. Averaged across tillage, burning, and irrigation, soil C:N ratio decreased (*P* < 0.05) over time until approximately nine years after initial conversion, then increased thereafter under both high- and low-residue treatments (Appendix B - Table 5; Fig. 5). However, soil C:N ratio decreased at a greater rate prior to year 9 and increased at a greater rate after year 9 (i.e., 2010) under the low- than the high-residue treatment (Appendix B - Table 5; Fig. 5). One possible explanation for this trend is the accumulation of soil N under the high-residue/high-fertilization treatment. Soil under the high-residue management received twice the amount of N fertilizer that soil under the low-residue management received, and therefore the slower rate of increasing C:N ratio under the high-residue management may have been influenced by the greater input of N fertilizer. This interpretation is consistent with a 50-yr wheat-fallow cropping study on a silt loam Typic Haploxeroll in Oregon, where unfertilized treatments had a greater C:N ratio than Nfertilized treatments in the top 30 cm (Rasmussen et al., 1980). It is also possible that soil microbes under the low-residue/low-fertilization treatment lacked sufficient soil N to consume SOM as rapidly as microbes under the high-residue/high-fertilization treatment, especially given the high C:N ratio of the wheat residue (C:N≈ 55). The reduced efficiency of microbial respiration may account for the greater accumulation of soil C compared to soil N under the lowresidue/low-fertilization treatment. In contrast to this study, after the first 6 years following conversion to new management, no significant trends in C:N ratio over time were reported (Amuri et al., 2008). Another study similarly reported no significant effects on soil C and N dynamics as a result of high (134 kg N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹) and low-N-rate treatments after 10 years of consistent management of a Weld silt-loam (Aridic Agiustoll) in the Great Plains (Halvorson et

al., 1999).

Soybean and Wheat Yields

Over the course of seven complete wheat-soybean cropping cycles (i.e., 2007 to 2014), after six complete cropping cycles (i.e., 2001 to 2007) following conversion to alternative management practices in treatment combinations managed consistently for 13 consecutive years (i.e., 2002 to 2014), the trend in soybean yield (Mg ha⁻¹) over time was affected ($P < 0.05$) by only irrigation (Appendix A - Table 1). Soybean yield increased $(P = 0.01)$ over time under irrigation until approximately nine years after initial conversion, then slightly decreased (*P* < 0.001) thereafter (Appendix B - Table 8; Fig. 7). In contrast, soybean yield sharply decreased (*P* < 0.001) over time under dryland production until approximately 11 years after initial conversion, then slightly increased ($P = 0.003$) thereafter (Appendix B - Table 8; Fig. 7). The drought conditions during years 9 and 11 (i.e., 2010 and 2012) may have caused a reduction in crop growth and yield, with the sharpest decrease occurring between years 10 and 11 (i.e., 2011 and 2012) under dryland production (Fig. 7). Soybean yields are strongly affected by water availability and air temperature (Andresen et al., 2001), which is a partially a function of climatic conditions and irrigation practices. In contrast to this study, soybean yields over time did not differ among field treatments in the first 6 years following conversion to alternative management practices (Amuri et al., 2008).

In contrast to soybean yield trends, the trend in wheat yield $(Mg ha⁻¹)$ over time was affected (*P* < 0.05; Appendix A - Table 1) by all treatment factors evaluated. However, all treatment combinations decreased at the same rate over time $(P < 0.001)$. Therefore, while all treatment factors significantly affected the trend in wheat yield over time, the differences over time between specific treatment combinations were statistically insignificant. Wheat yield increased at a similar rate under all treatment combinations until approximately year 9 (i.e., 2010), then slightly decreased thereafter (Appendix B - Table 9; Fig. 8). Irrigation was only provided during the soybean growing season, which may explain why irrigation clearly affected soybean yield trends (Fig. 7), but failed to directly affect wheat yield (Fig. 8). These results are similar the first 6 years following conversion to alternative management practices, during which wheat yields did not differ among field treatments (Amuri et al., 2008).

Soil Chemical Properties

Time Effects Only

The trends in EC (dS m⁻¹), and Fe, S, and N contents (kg ha⁻¹) over time were unaffected by any of the treatment factors evaluated. However, similar to wheat yield, all treatment combinations increased or decreased at a statistically similar rate over time in each of these measured variables. The trend in soil EC in the top 10 cm over time had a slight increasing linear (*P* < 0.001) trend, followed by a slight decreasing quadratic (*P* < 0.001) trend. However, the overall trend in soil EC appeared to decrease at approximately the same rate over time under all treatment combinations (Appendix B - Table 10; Fig. 9). The decrease in EC over time is consistent with the decreasing trend in sodium (Na) over time, indicating a lack of accumulation of salinity and soluble salts over time. These results are similar to what was reported following the first 6 years of consistent management, in which soil EC was unaffected by any field management practice in this study and decreased significantly over time (Amuri et al., 2008).

Similar to soil EC, the trends in Fe and S contents in the top 10 cm over time were also unaffected ($P > 0.05$; Appendix A - Table 4) by any of the field treatment evaluated. However, Fe and S contents varied in time (*P* < 0.001; Appendix B - Table 11 and Table 13, respectively). While the coefficient estimates indicated an increasing linear trend in Fe (Appendix B - Table 11) and S (Appendix B - Table 13) content, followed by a slight decreasing quadratic trend (Fig. 10; Appendix B -Table 11 and Table 13), the changes over time were minute from a production standpoint. Sulfur is rarely a limiting nutrient in soybean production, and no Fe deficiency for soybean has ever been diagnosed in Arkansas (Slaton et al., 2013). Therefore, the slight changes observed in the trends in Fe and S content trends over time were agronomically non-significant.

Similar to EC and Fe and S contents, the trend in Na content in the top 10 cm over time was unaffected $(P > 0.05$; Appendix A - Table 4) by any of the field treatments evaluated. However, unlike EC and Fe and S contents, soil Na content only varied linearly over time (*P* < 0.001; Appendix B - Table 12). Soil Na in all treatment combinations slightly decreased over time (Fig. 11). The lack of increasing salinity or EC over time, even under irrigation, may be partly explained by the low EC and Na and chloride (Cl) concentrations in the irrigation water used (Amuri et al., 2008). Furthermore, there may be enough ample moisture to remove Na from the top 10 cm so that the damaging effects of soil dispersion, possible crusting, and destruction of structure are likely to not be present.

Single Treatment Effects

In contrast to the lack of clear residue management effects on EC and Fe, S, and Na contents, the trends in several measured soil properties, namely soil pH and P and Cu contents, exhibited large and obvious differences due to the imposition of a single treatment factor. The

trend in soil pH in the top 10 cm over time was statistically affected $(P < 0.05$; Appendix A -Table 5) by all field treatments evaluated, however, the largest and most obvious differences occurred between the high- and low-residue treatments (Appendix $B - Table 14$). Soil pH decreased over time under all treatment combinations until 10 years after conversion to new management, then slightly increased thereafter (Fig. 12). However, averaged across tillage, burning, and irrigation, soil pH decreased at a greater rate over time under the high- than under the low-residue treatment up to approximately year 10 (i.e., 2011; Appendix $B - Table 14$). Shortly after 10 years after conversion to new management, soil pH began to increase at a slightly greater rate over time under the high- than under the low-residue treatment (Fig. 12), with the exception of the NT-NB-H-I and CT-B-H-I treatment combinations (Appendix B -Table 14). Soil pH was not affected ($P = 0.058$) by any of the field treatments under the NT-NB-H-I treatment combination, and soil pH under the CT-B-H-I treatment decreased until 10 years after conversion to new management, then increased at a statistically similar rate to soil pH under low-residue treatment (Appendix B; Table 14).

In contrast to this study, soil pH was unaffected by residue level treatment, increased over time under irrigated treatment, and did not change over time under dryland production during the first 6 years following conversion to new management (Amuri et al., 2008). A possible explanation for the shift from irrigation-driven changes in pH during the first 6 years of management to residue level-driven changes in pH from year 6 to year 14 is that the lime applied at the initiation of the study in 2001 may have progressively dissolved at different rates under irrigated and non-irrigated management, thereby altering the soil pH most significantly according to irrigation treatment in earlier years and less significantly in later years.

All of the observed differences in soil pH trends over time occurred well-above the

threshold of 6.0, below which soybean yield reductions can be expected on silt-loam soils (Slaton et al., 2013). Therefore, while the differences in soil pH trends over time may be statistically significant, they are agronomically non-significant with regards to soybean production on silt-loam soils in eastern Arkansas.

The trend in P content in the top 10 cm over time was affected by irrigation $(P = 0.019)$ and residue level ($P < 0.001$) and was unaffected by tillage and burning ($P > 0.05$; Appendix A -Table 5). Similar to SOM, C, and N contents, the largest and most obvious differences in soil P trends occurred between irrigation treatments (Appendix B - Table 15). Averaged across tillage, burning, and residue level, soil P content increased (*P* < 0.001) over time under dryland production until approximately nine years after initial conversion, then decreased thereafter (Appendix B - Table 15; Fig. 13). In contrast, soil P content decreased quadratically over time under irrigation ($P = 0.02$; Appendix B - Table 15). In contrast to this study, no significant differences were reported in the trends in soil P content over time between irrigation treatments during the first 6 years following conversion to alternative management practices (Amuri et al., 2008). One possible explanation for why the trend in soil P content over time was most clearly affected by irrigation is that changes in soil P content are associated with changes in SOM (Rhoton, 2000), and the trend in SOM content over time was most clearly affected by the irrigation treatment. The trend in soil P content over time under dryland production (Fig. 13) approximately mirrors the trend in SOM content over time under dryland production (Fig. 3).

The differences between trends in soil P content under irrigated and non-irrigated management are not only statistically significant, but agronomically significant as well. Soil P contents ranged between very low ($\lt 19.5$ kg ha⁻¹) and medium (33.8 to 45.5 kg ha⁻¹) soil test P levels, based on a conversion of the part per million (ppm) soil test P levels provided by the

Arkansas Soybean Production handbook (Slaton et al., 2013) and using an assumed bulk density of 1300 kg $m⁻³$ in combination with the measured soil depth of 0.1 m. There is no evidence that P fertilization of soils with medium soil test P levels will produce a yield response, although fertilization may help maintain optimum P levels by replacing the portion of P expected to be removed by the harvested soybean grain (Slaton et al., 2013). The soil P content trend under dryland management occurred mostly within the medium soil test P level range (Fig. 13), indicating that P fertilization requirements for soybean on silt-loam soils in eastern Arkansas may possibly be reduced under dryland management compared to irrigation management. These results suggest that irrigation treatment effects may impact the necessity, amount, and/or frequency of P fertilization. However, it is important to note that P deficiency in soybean is much less common than other potential deficiencies, such as K (Slaton et al., 2013).

Similar to P content, the trend in soil Cu content in the top 10 cm over time was affected $(P = 0.009)$ by irrigation and was unaffected $(P > 0.05)$ by tillage, burning, or residue-level treatments (Appendix A - Table 5). Averaged across tillage, burning, and residue level, Cu content decreased $(P < 0.001)$ over time under irrigation until approximately 10 years after initial conversion, then slightly increased thereafter (Appendix B - Table 16; Fig. 13). In contrast, there was no change in soil Cu content over time under dryland production $(P > 0.05;$ Appendix B -Table 16). In contrast to this study, no significant differences were reported in the trends in soil Cu content over time between irrigation treatments during the first 6 years following conversion to alternative management practices (Amuri et al., 2008). All soil Cu trend values occurred wellabove the threshold for low soil test Cu levels $(< 1 \text{ kg ha}^{-1}$; Slaton et al., 2013). Therefore, the trends in soil Cu content over time under irrigation were also agronomically non-significant.

Burning and Irrigation Treatment Effects

While the largest and most obvious the trends in trends in pH and P and Cu contents over time were only affected by a single treatment factor, the trends in Ca, Mg, and Mn contents (kg ha^{-1}) over time were affected by irrigation and burning treatment combinations. The trend in Ca content in the top 10 cm over time was affected $(P < 0.05)$ by all field treatment factors evaluated (Appendix A - Table 6). Tillage and residue-level participated in significant treatment combinations, but had no observable impacts on the trend in Ca content over time (Appendix B - Table 17). The largest and most obvious differences occurred between the irrigation and burning treatment combinations, based on an interpretation of the LSD between estimate parameters of specific treatment combinations (Appendix B - Table 17). Averaged across tillage and residue level, Ca content increased (*P* < 0.05) over time under most non-burned, non-irrigated treatment combinations until approximately nine years after initial conversion then decreased $(P < 0.05)$ thereafter, with the exception of the CT-NB-L-NI treatment combination, exhibited no change over time ($P > 0.05$; Appendix B - Table 17; Fig. 14). In contrast, Ca content decreased ($P <$ 0.05) over time under non-burned, irrigated production until approximately ten years after initial conversion then increased ($P < 0.05$) thereafter (Appendix B - Table 17; Fig. 14). While the statistical differences between Ca content trends over time under different treatment combinations may be of scientific interest, all of the measured Ca contents exceed plant growth requirements for most row crops in eastern Arkansas (Slaton et al., 2013).

Similar to Ca, the trend in soil Mg content in the top 10 cm over time was affected $(P <$ 0.05) by all field treatments evaluated (Appendix A - Table 6). Also similar to Ca, the largest and most obvious differences occurred between irrigation and burning treatment combinations (Appendix B - Table 18). Averaged across tillage and residue level, soil Mg content decreased (*P*

 < 0.05) over time under burned, irrigated combinations until approximately eight years after initial conversion, then increased thereafter (Appendix B - Table 18; Fig. 14). In contrast, soil Mg content decreased $(P < 0.001)$ over time under non-burned, irrigated combinations at approximately four times the rate of the decrease under burned, irrigated management until approximately eight years after initial conversion, then increased $(P < 0.001)$ thereafter at approximately three times the rate of the increase under burned, irrigated management (Appendix B - Table 18; Fig. 14). However, Mg deficiencies are rare for soybean production in eastern Arkansas given that Mg is prevalent in the groundwater (Slaton et al., 2013). Moreover, measured Mg contents consistently occurred above the threshold for low soil test Mg levels (< 45 kg ha⁻¹; Slaton et al., 2013), thus Mg differences were also likely agronomically nonsignificant. These results are in contrast to results reported after the first 6 years following conversion to new management, in which Ca and Mg contents increased at a greater rate over time under irrigation compared with dryland production, likely due to the gradual dissolution of the initial application of lime in 2001 (Amuri et al., 2008).

The trend in Mn content in the top 10 cm over time was affected $(P < 0.05)$ by tillage, burning, and irrigation (Appendix A - Table 6). Tillage and residue level contributed to significant higher-order interactions, but neither had an observable impact on the trend in Mn content over time (Appendix $B - Table 19$). Similar to Ca and Mg, the largest and most obvious differences in soil Mn content trends occurred between irrigation and burning treatments (Appendix B - Table 19). Averaged across tillage and residue level, soil Mn content sharply increased $(P < 0.05)$ over time under the non-burned, irrigated treatment combinations until approximately 10 years after initial conversion, then decreased thereafter (Appendix B - Table 19; Fig. 15). In contrast, soil Mn content increased (*P* < 0.05) over time under dryland

production at less than half the rate of the increase under the non-burned, irrigated combination until approximately nine years after initial conversion, then slightly decreased thereafter (Appendix B - Table 19; Fig. 15). However, measured Mn contents were consistently well-above the threshold for low soil test Mn levels (< 13 kg ha⁻¹; Slaton et al., 2013), thus, like soil Ca and Mg, were also agronomically non-significant. These results are similar to results reported after the first six years following conversion to alternative residue management practices, in which the trend in Mn content over time was most significantly affected by irrigation. During the first six years following conversion to alternative residue management practices, the trend in Mn content increased under irrigation and did not change under dryland management.

Complex Treatment Effects

Compared to other observed trends in this study, the effects of residue management on soil K and Zn content trends over time were the most complex. The trend in soil K content in the top 10 cm over time was affected $(P < 0.05)$ in some way by all field treatment factors evaluated (Appendix A - Table 7). There were many subtle differences in soil K content trends over time among treatment combinations. Based on LSDs among parameters estimates (Appendix B - Table 20), it appeared that burning and residue level had less of an impact on soil K content trends over time than did tillage and irrigation. Similar to Ca (Appendix B – Table 17), soil K content in the NT-B-H-NI, CT-NB-H-NI, and NT-NB-L-NI treatment combinations did not vary over time (Appendix B – Table 20). All other treatment combinations decreased ($P < 0.05$) over time until approximately 10 years after conversion to new management, then slightly increased thereafter (Appendix $B - Table 20$; Fig. 16). One statistically similar grouping of treatment combinations (Appendix B – Table 20) was the NT-NB-L-I, NT-NB-H-I, NT-B-L-I, and CT-B-

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H-I treatment combinations, which sharply decreased $(P < 0.001)$ over time until approximately 10 years after conversion to new management, then slightly increased thereafter (Appendix B – Table 20). In contrast, another statistically similar group of treatment combinations (i.e., CT-B-H-NI, NT-B-L-NI, CT-B-L-I, NT-B-H-I, CT-NB-L-I, CT-B-L-NI, CT-NB-L-NI, NT-NB-H-NI, and CT-NB-H-I) decreased more gradually ($P < 0.05$) over time until approximately 10 years after conversion to new management, then some combinations (i.e., CT-B-L-I, NT-B-H-I, CT-NB-L-I, CT-B-L-NI, CT-NB-L-NI, NT-NB-H-NI, and CT-NB-H-I) increased thereafter, while others (i.e., CT-B-H-NI, NT-B-L-NI) exhibited no quadratic trend (Appendix B – Table 20).

The differences in K content trends over time observed in this study were agronomically significant because K contents ranged between very low to optimum soil test K levels. Soil K contents at or below 78 kg ha⁻¹ were in the very low range and those between 170 and 228 kg ha⁻¹ ¹ were in the optimum soil test K range (Slaton et al., 2013). Between years 9 and 13 (i.e., 2010) and 2014), the trend in soil K content generally occurred within the very low range in the NT-NB-L-I, NT-NB-H-I, NT-B-L-I, and CT-B-H-I treatment combinations (Fig. 16). In contrast, within the same time period, the trend in soil K content generally occurred within the medium range (i.e., 118 to 169 kg P ha⁻¹) of soil test K in the CT-B-H-NI, NT-B-L-NI, CT-B-L-I, NT-B-H-I, CT-NB-L-I, CT-NB-L-NI, NT-NB-H-NI, and CT-NB-H-I treatment combinations. However, given the complexity of the treatment effects, it is challenging to translate the variations in soil K content over time into practical recommendations for improved field management of soil K aside from maintaining adequate levels with periodic fertilization.

In contrast to these results, the trends in soil K content over time differed between irrigation treatments during the first six years following conversion to alternative management practices. Soil K contents decreased linearly under irrigation, but increased under dryland

management, indicating a possible leaching of soil K due to irrigation treatment during the first six years following conversion to new management practices, in addition to increased plant uptake of soil K under irrigated production.

Similar to K, the trend in soil Zn content in the top 10 cm over time was complex compared to other measured variables in the study, with many subtle differences between treatment combinations. While Zn content was affected $(P < 0.05$; Appendix A - Table 7) by all field treatments evaluated, the burn treatment appeared to have the most clearly discernible effects (Appendix B - Table 21). Soil Zn content increased (*P* < 0.05) over time in the NT-B-H-NI, NT-NB-L-I, NT-NB-L-NI, and CT-NB-H-I treatment combinations until approximately 10 years after conversion to new management, then decreased thereafter (Appendix B - Table 21; Fig. 17). In contrast, soil Zn content decreased (*P* < 0.05) over time in the NT-B-L-NI and CT-B-H-I treatment combinations until approximately 11 years after conversion to new management, then slightly increased thereafter (Appendix B - Table 21; Fig. 17). In contrast to these results, Zn content increased under dryland management and did not change over time under irrigation during the first six years following conversion to alternative residue management practices (Amuri et al., 2008).While differences in soil Zn content trends among the various treatment combinations were statistically significant, no Zn deficiency has ever been observed or diagnosed in an Arkansas soybean crop (Slaton et al., 2013), thus, similar to soil pH, Fe, S, Cu, Ca, and Mg, differences in soil Zn were agronomically non-significant in terms of Arkansas soybean production.

Summary and Conclusions

Over the course of seven complete wheat-soybean cropping cycles (i.e., 2007 to 2014),

after six complete cropping cycles (i.e., 2001 to 2007) following conversion to alternative management practices in treatment combinations managed consistently for 13 consecutive years (i.e., 2002 to 2014), all field treatments evaluated in this study affected trends in one or more measured soil properties over time. Irrigation management was responsible for the greatest differences in trends in soybean yield, C fraction of SOM, and SOM, C, N, P, Cu contents over time. Burning also significantly affected the trend in SOM and C contents over time. Irrigation and burn treatment combinations were responsible for the greatest differences in trends in soil Ca, Mg, and Mn contents over time. Residue level was responsible for the greatest differences in trends in soil C:N ratio and pH over time. Trends in wheat yield, EC, and Fe, Na, and S contents were unaffected by any of the field treatments evaluated, but all varied significantly over time. Trends in bulk density, and K and Zn contents over time were affected by complex treatment combinations that included interactions among tillage, burning, and irrigation.

As originally hypothesized, SOM and C contents increased over time under non-burning and decreased over time under burning. Contrary to original hypotheses, tillage and residue treatments failed to cause clear and obvious differences in the trends in SOM, C, and extractable nutrient contents over time. In fact, differences between irrigation treatments appeared the have the clearest, most obvious effects on the trends in SOM, C, N, P, and Cu contents over time. Also contrary to that hypothesized, SOM and C contents did not decrease under dryland soybean production. Rather, SOM and C contents increased over time under dryland production until approximately year 9 (i.e., 2010), then decreased thereafter.

Overall, it can be inferred from this study that irrigation management plays a critical role in the long-term trends in SOM, C, and N contents and other soil physical and chemical properties over time. Moreover, the accumulation of SOM, C, and N appears to be greatly

influenced by growing season weather patterns, especially under dryland production. Crop management that strikes a balance between increasing crop biomass and decreasing the rate of microbial turnover of SOM can maintain or increase SOM levels, and thereby work towards long-term soil improvement and soil C sequestration.

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Table 1. Summary of soybean growing-season rainfall and average temperature from Year 6 to Year 13

(i.e., 2007 through 2014).

Fig. 1. Experimental layout at the Lon Mann Cotton Branch Experiment Station in eastern Arkansas depicting 48, 3- x 6-m plots subjected to residue-level [high (H) and low (L)], burn, tillage [conventional tillage (CT) and no-tillage (NT)], and irrigation treatments.

Fig. 2 Influence of tillage [conventional tillage (CT) and no-tillage (NT)], residue-level [high (H) and low (L)], and irrigation [irrigated (I) and non-irrigated (NI)] on the trend in bulk density in the top 10 cm over time after initial conversion to alternative management practices after initial conversion to alternative management practices in a wheat-soybean, double-crop system in eastern Arkansas.

Fig. 3 Influence of burning [burn (B) and no-burn (NB)] and irrigation [irrigated (I) and nonirrigated (NI)] on the trend in soil organic matter (SOM) content in the top 10 cm over time after initial conversion to alternative management practices in a wheat-soybean, double-crop system in eastern Arkansas. Soil OM content under the irrigated treatment did not differ over time and averaged 2.87 kg m^2 .

Fig. 4 Influence of burning [burn (B) and no-burn (NB)] and irrigation [irrigated (I) and nonirrigated (NI)] on the trend in soil carbon content in the top 10 cm over time after initial conversion to alternative management practices in a wheat-soybean, double-crop system in eastern Arkansas.

Fig. 5 Influence of residue-level [high (H) and low (L)], and irrigation [irrigated (I) and nonirrigated (NI)] on the trend in carbon (C) fraction of soil organic matter (SOM) and C:nitrogen (N) ratio in the top 10 cm over time after initial conversion to alternative management practices in a wheat-soybean, double-crop system in eastern Arkansas.

Fig. 6 Influence of irrigation [irrigated (I) and non-irrigated (NI)] on the trend in nitrogen (N) content in the top 10 cm over time after initial conversion to alternative management practices in a wheat-soybean, double-crop system in eastern Arkansas. Soil N content under the irrigated treatment did not differ over time and averaged 0.14 kg m^2 .

Fig. 7 Influence of irrigation [irrigated (I) and non-irrigated (NI)] on the trend in soybean yield over time after initial conversion to alternative management practices in a wheat-soybean, double-crop system in eastern Arkansas.

Fig. 8 Influence of burning [burn (B) and no-burn (NB)], residue-level [high (H) and low (L)], and irrigation [irrigated (I) and non-irrigated (NI)] on the trend in wheat yield over time after initial conversion to alternative management practices in a wheat-soybean, double-crop system in eastern Arkansas.

Fig. 9 Influence of tillage [conventional tillage (CT) and no-tillage (NT)], residue level [high (H) and low (L)], and irrigation [irrigated (I) and non-irrigated (NI)] on the trend in electrical conductivity (EC) in the top 10 cm over time after initial conversion to alternative management practices in a wheat-soybean, double-crop system in eastern Arkansas.

Fig. 10 Influence of tillage [conventional tillage (CT) and no-tillage (NT)], burning [burn (B) and no-burn (NB)], and irrigation [irrigated (I) and non-irrigated (NI)] on the trend in iron (Fe) and sulfur (S) contents in the top 10 cm over time after initial conversion to alternative management practices in a wheat-soybean, double-crop system in eastern Arkansas.

Fig. 11 Influence of tillage [conventional tillage (CT) and no-tillage (NT)], burning [burn (B) and no-burn (NB)], and irrigation [irrigated (I) and non-irrigated (NI)] on the trend in sodium (Na) content in the top 10 cm over time after initial conversion to alternative management practices in a wheat-soybean, double-crop system in eastern Arkansas.

Fig. 12 Influence of tillage [conventional tillage (CT) and no-tillage (NT)], burning [burn (B) and no-burn (NB)], and residue level [high (H) and low (L)] on the trend in pH in the top 10 cm over time after initial conversion to alternative management practices in a wheat-soybean, double-crop system in eastern Arkansas.

Fig. 13 Influence of residue level [high (H) and low (L)] and [and irrigation [irrigated (I) and non-irrigated (NI)] on the trend in phosphorus (P) and copper (Cu) contents over time after initial conversion to alternative management practices in a wheat-soybean, double-crop system in eastern Arkansas. Soil Cu content under the non-irrigated treatment did not differ over time and averaged 2.01 kg ha⁻¹.

Fig. 14 Influence of burning [burn (B) and no-burn (NB)] and irrigation [irrigated (I) and nonirrigated (NI)] on the trend in calcium (Ca) and magnesium (Mg) contents in the top 10 cm over time after initial conversion to alternative management practices in a wheat-soybean, doublecrop system in eastern Arkansas.

Fig. 15 Influence of tillage [conventional tillage (CT) and no-tillage (NT)], burning [burn (B) and no-burn (NB)], and irrigation [irrigated (I) and non-irrigated (NI)] on the trend in manganese (Mn) content in the top 10 cm over time after initial conversion to alternative management practices in a wheat-soybean, double-crop system in eastern Arkansas.

Fig. 16 Influence of tillage [conventional tillage (CT) and no-tillage (NT)], burning [burn (B) and no-burn (NB)], and irrigation [irrigated (I) and non-irrigated (NI)] on the trend in potassium
(K) in the top 10 cm over time after initial conversion to alternative management practices in a wheat-soybean, double-crop system in eastern Arkansas.

Fig. 17 Influence of tillage [conventional tillage (CT) and no-tillage (NT)], burning [burn (B) and no-burn (NB)], residue level [high (H) and low (L)], and irrigation [irrigated (I) and nonirrigated (NI)] on the trend in zinc (Zn) in the top 10 cm over time after initial conversion to alternative management practices in a wheat-soybean, double-crop system in eastern Arkansas.

Chapter 3

Long-term Effects of Alternative Residue Management Practices on Soil Water Retention in a Wheat-soybean, Double-crop System in Eastern Arkansas

Abstract

Soil water retention characteristics are a critical aspect of agricultural management, especially in areas such as the delta region of eastern Arkansas that face potential water shortages in the near future. Previous studies have linked changes in soil water retention characteristics to agricultural management practices, especially as they affect the accumulation of soil organic matter (SOM). Therefore, the objective of this study was to determine the relationship between soil water potential and gravimetric soil water content in the top 7.5 cm as affected by residue burning (burning and non-burning), tillage (conventional and no-tillage), irrigation (irrigated and non-irrigated), and nitrogen (N)-fertilization/residue level (high and low) in a wheat (*Triticum aestivum* L.)-soybean [*Glycine max* (L.) Merr.], double-crop production system in eastern Arkansas using soil wetting curves. The field site has been consistently managed for 13 years at the University of Arkansas Lon Mann Cotton Research Station near Marianna, Arkansas on a Calloway silt-loam (fine silty, mixed, active, thermic Glossaquic Fraglossudalf). The slope terms characterizing the relationship between the natural logarithm of the soil water potential and the gravimetric soil water content was only affected (*P* < 0.05) by the N-fertilization/residue level treatment, and the intercept terms were statistically similar across all treatment combinations. Averaged across tillage, burning, and irrigation, the soil water contents under the high- exceeded those under low-N-fertilization/residue level treatment at the same water potential, with the greatest differences observed at the largest water contents (i.e., > 0.12 g g^{-1}). Nitrogen-fertilization/residue level differences indicated greater soil water retention under the high- than the low-residue treatment, possibly as a result of increased biomass inputs, SOM accumulation, and soil aggregation. Understanding the ways in which alternative residue management practices affect soil water retention characteristics is an important component of

conserving irrigation water resources.

Introduction

Management practices that promote formation of soil organic matter (SOM) and soil aggregation, such as reduced tillage and diversifying crop rotations, can increase plant available water in the soil (Nielson et al., 2002) and likely have many more positive, long-term effects on soil water characteristics. For example, significant differences have been observed for soil moisture release curves for the top 10 cm between native prairie (SOM = 22 g kg⁻¹) and cultivated agricultural soil (SOM = 10.8 g kg^{-1}) in eastern Arkansas (Brye, 2003). Specifically, the native prairie soil contained a greater soil water content than the cultivated agricultural soil at the same water potential, indicating a possible correlation between increased SOM and water retention. Similarly, decreased soil water retention under conventional tillage (CT) management was reported compared to increased soil water retention and unsaturated hydraulic conductivity under no-tillage (NT) management in a continuous corn (*Zea mays* L.) study on Mollisols in Iowa (Hill et al., 1985). Verkler et al. (2009) reported a slower dry-down of soil under nonburned management compared to burning management, as well as a slower dry-down of soil under NT compared to CT when examining soil water content dynamics in a wheat (*Triticum aestivum* L.)-soybean [*Glycine max* (L.) Merr.], double-crop system on a silt-loam soil in eastern Arkansas after three years and four complete cropping cycles. Clearly, residue and field management practices influence soil water retention characteristics, which may be related to agricultural management effects on soil aggregation and SOM.

Increases in SOM have been associated with increased infiltration, greater hydraulic conductivity, and increased water retention (Azooz and Arshad, 1996). Therefore, management practices such as tillage and nitrogen (N)-fertilization that may affect the accumulation of SOM may also affect soil water retention characteristics. In a previous study of alternative residue

management practice effects on near-surface soil properties in a wheat-soybean, double-crop production system on a silt-loam soil in eastern Arkansas, Amuri et al. (2008) reported increasing soil carbon (C) and SOM over time in the top 10 cm across all treatment combinations over the course of six years and seven complete wheat-soybean cropping cycles following conversion to alternative management practices, likely due to the increase in crop residue returned to the soil as a result of conversion from monoculture soybean prior to double cropping. Smith et al. (2014) reported that the abundance of water-stable aggregates was affected (*P* < 0.05) by tillage, irrigation, and N-fertilization treatments. Nitrogen-fertilizer promotes wheat biomass, which may eventually contribute to an increase in SOM and soil aggregation. Therefore, N-fertilization, and other management practices that promote SOM and soil aggregation, may affect the relationship between soil water content and the soil water potential. For example, Bowman and Halvorson (1998) reported significant increases in soil organic C (SOC), and therefore SOM, in the top 5 cm under increased N-fertilization management. Similarly, SOC and SOM increased at a greater rate under a high $(134 \text{ kg N} \text{ ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1})$ than under low N-rate treatment in a wheat-containing rotation managed consistently for 10 yr near Akron, Colorado (Halvorson et al., 1999).

An understanding of soil water retention characteristics is critical to determining best management practices, especially in areas such as eastern Arkansas that face potential water shortages in the future. Scott et al. (1998) used a regression equation based on annual water use rate to determine that 75% of the Alluvial Aquifer, the shallowest aquifer underlying most of the delta region eastern Arkansas, will be depleted due to irrigation use by 2041. Therefore, the objective of this study was to determine the relationship between soil water potential and gravimetric soil water content in the top 7.5 cm as affected by residue burning (burning and nonburning), tillage (conventional and no-tillage), irrigation (irrigated and non-irrigated), and Nfertilization/residue level (high and low) in a wheat-soybean, double-crop production system in eastern Arkansas using soil wetting curves. It was hypothesized that tillage would strongly affect the relationship between soil water potential and soil water content in the top 7.5 cm, such that when soil water potentials for CT and NT were equal, the NT soil water content would be greater compared to that for CT.

Materials and Methods

Site Description

A field study was initiated in Fall 2001 at the University of Arkansas Lon Mann Cotton Research Station (N34**°**, 44', 2.26"; W90**°**, 45' 51.56"; Cordell et al., 2007) in the Southern Mississippi Alluvium [Major Land Resource Area (MLRA) 131A], which is located along the Mississippi River alluvial plain. The relief in most of the region is less than 5 m (USDA, 2006), and topography tends to be level to depressional to gently undulating plains (USDA, 2006). The 30-yr mean air annual temperature of the region is 15.6°C and the 30-yr mean annual precipitation is 128 cm (NOAA, 2002). The 30-yr mean maximum and minimum air temperatures of the region are 32.8°C in July and 2.4°C in January, respectively (NOAA, 2002). The fertile alluvial sediments, relatively flat topography, and relatively warm and wet climate of MLRA 131A make for a highly agriculturally productive region. The site of this field study is on a Calloway silt loam (fine silty, mixed, active, thermic Glossaquic Fraglossudalf; Gray, 1977; NRCS, 2015), which has 16% sand, 73% silt, and 11% clay in the top 10 cm (Brye et al., 2006). The current study on this site was preceded by several other studies analyzing a variety of shortand long-term effects of alternative management practices effects on plant and soil physical and

chemical properties (Amuri et al., 2008; Verkler et al., 2009; Smith et al., 2014).

Experimental Design

Originally, the study utilized a three-factor, split-strip-plot, randomized complete block experimental design with six replications of each of eight treatment combinations (Cordell et al., 2007). The three factors were i) N-fertilization/residue level (high N-fertilization/residue level, achieved with a split application of N fertilizer, or low N-fertilization/residue level, achieved with minimal to no N additions); ii) burning of residue (burning or non-burning); and iii) tillage (CT or NT) (Cordell et al., 2007). However, an irrigation factor was introduced in 2005 and divided the site into two irrigated (I) and two non-irrigated blocks (Verkler et al., 2009). Since 2005, the experimental area has consisted of 48, 3- x 6-m plots with six replications for every tillage-burning-residue-level combination and three replications for every tillage-irrigationburning-residue level combination (Fig. 1; Amuri et al., 2008).

Field Management

Prior to the initiation of the study, the site was managed as a continuous, mono-cropped soybean system using CT (Cordell et al., 2007). Initial field preparations in Fall 2001 involved disking twice followed by broadcast applications of N, phosphorous, potassium, and pelletized limestone at rates of 20, 22.5, 56, and 1120 kg ha^{-1} , respectively, prior to wheat planting. Wheat was drill seeded with a 19-cm row spacing each Fall. All plots were manually broadcast fertilized in early March 2002 through 2004 with urea (46% N) at the rate of 101 kg N ha⁻¹. High-residue plots ($n = 24$) were manually broadcast fertilized in late March at approximately the late-jointing stage with an additional 101 kg N ha⁻¹ to produce different levels of wheat

residue. No N-fertilizer was applied in Spring 2005 due to a failure to establish wheat stands caused by prolonged wet soil conditions in Fall 2004. Since 2006, initial application of 56 kg N ha^{-1} as urea were broadcast on high N-fertilization/residue level plots in approximately late February, followed by a split application of an additional 56 kg N ha⁻¹ at the late-jointing stage in approximately late March. Since 2006, the low-residue plots have not received any N fertilization in order to achieve the residue-level difference.

Wheat was harvested using a plot combine in approximately early June each year. Wheat residue left behind the plot combine was uniformly spread by hand over each plot immediately following wheat harvest. Any remaining wheat stubble was mowed with a rotary mower to a height of \sim 3 cm from the soil surface in order to achieve a uniform residue-covered surface for soybean planting. Following mowing, the burning treatment was executed on half of the plots by propane flaming. The residue-burning treatment was not able to be imposed in 2005, 2007, and 2012 due to the absence of a wheat stand in Spring 2005, prolonged wet soil conditions in Spring 2007, and weedy conditions in 2012. Imposition of the burning treatment was followed by imposing the tillage treatment each year. The CT plots were disked at least twice with a tandem disk to a depth of \sim 10 cm followed by seedbed smoothing with at least three passes of a soil conditioner, which is representative of widely used pre-soybean-planting tillage operations in the region.

A glyphosate-resistant soybean cultivar, maturity group 5.3 or 5.4, was drill-seeded with 19-cm row spacing at a rate of approximately 47 kg seed ha⁻¹ in approximately mid-June each year. Potassium fertilizer was applied according to recommended rates (UACES, 2000) when the previous year's soil test indicated potassium was needed. In 2002 through 2004, all plots were furrow-irrigated as needed, three to four times each soybean-growing season. A levee was

created in 2005 to exclude furrow-irrigation water from the non-irrigation treatment, which received only natural rainfall. Weeds and insects were managed consistently throughout the entire study area as necessary based on University of Arkansas Cooperative Extension Service recommendations, which generally consisted of herbicide and insecticide applications during both the wheat- and soybean-growing seasons (UACES, 2000). Soybean were harvested with a plot combine from late October to early November each year. Each year from May to June, the wheat crop was sown into the soybean residue, which was left in place.

Soil Sample Collection and Processing

To assess field treatment effects on the relationship between soil water potential and soil water content, in May 2014, $12, \sim 2$ -cm diameter soil samples were collected from each plot from the top 7.5 cm and combined into one sample per plot. Each sample was manually homogenized and air-dried for approximately 5 d, ground, and sieved to pass through a 2-mm mesh screen. Subsamples were weighed, oven-dried at 70°C for 48 hr, and reweighed to obtain the initial moisture content of the air-dried sample. Following the procedures of Brye (2003), seven, 5 ± 0.01 -g subsamples of air-dried soil from each of the 48 plots were added to small mixing cups. Drops of distilled water (i.e., 2, 4, 6, 10, 12, 15, and 20 drops) were added to each of the seven mixing cups with an eyedropper and homogenized with a spatula to achieve a range of soil water contents. The moist soil in each mixing cup was transferred to small plastic instrument cups, 4 cm in diameter by 1 cm tall, and lightly packed to a uniform bulk density of \sim 0.7 $\rm g$ cm⁻³. Instrument cups were capped and allowed to equilibrate overnight to room temperature (i.e., $\sim 20^{\circ}$ C). The water potential was subsequently measured with a WP4 Dewpoint PotentiaMeter (Decagon Devices, Inc., Pullman, WA), which was calibrated using a standard

potassium chloride solution. After the water potential was recorded, each instrument cup was weighed, oven-dried at 70°C for 48 hr, then reweighed for gravimetric water content determination.

10 soil cores from the top 10 cm were collected from each plot after wheat harvest and prior to residue burning, and combined into a single composite sample per plot from 2002 until 2008. After 2008, a single soil sample was collected from the top 10 cm instead of 10 soil cores, using a 4.8-cm-diameter stainless steel core chamber. Soil samples were oven-dried for 48 hr at 70 \degree C, ground to pass through a 2-mm mesh screen (Verkler et al., 2009), and analyzed for soil chemical properties (Brye et al., 2006). Total soil C and N were determined by high-temperature combustion with a LECO CN-2000 analyzer (LECO Corp., St. Joseph, MI) or an Elementar VarioMAX Total C and N Analyzer (Elementar Americas Inc., Mt. Laurel, NJ), and all soil C in the top 10 cm was assumed to be organic C given the lack of effervesce upon treatment with dilute hydrochloric acid (HCl) (Brye et al., 2006). Soil C:N ratio was calculated from measured C and N concentrations. Soil OM was determined by weight-loss-on-ignition after 2 hr at 360° C (Schulte and Hopkins, 1996). Soil pH was determined potentiometrically using an electrode in a 1:2 (w/v) soil-to-water solution.

To determine bulk density using mid-season soil samples, soil cores were also collected between approximately 8 and 10 weeks after soybean planting by extracting a single 4.8-cmdiameter soil core from the top 10 cm using the methods outlined by Brye et al. (2006). Soil cores were oven-dried at 70° C for 48 hr and weighed for bulk density determinations.

Statistical Analyses

An analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was conducted using SAS (version 9.3, SAS Institute, Inc., Cary, NC) to evaluate the long-term effects of residue level, tillage, burning, and irrigation on the relationship between water potential (ψ) and gravimetric water content (θg) from the soil wetting-curve data. While the experimental field design was a strip-split-plot, randomized complete block, the experimental designed was assumed to be completely random with three replications of each of 16 treatment combinations in order to facilitate the ANCOVA. The full ANCOVA model was reduced using a hierarchal principle to remove non-significant terms, and non-significant terms were only included the final model when they participated in higher-order, complex treatment combinations. Original measured water potentials were naturallog transformed to linearize the data and facilitate the ANCOVA. When appropriate, treatment means for linear slopes and intercepts from the log-transformed relationships were separated by least significant difference (LSD) at the 0.05 level.

An analysis of variance (ANOVA) was also conducted, based on the strip-split-plot design of the field treatments (Fig. 1), to evaluate the effects of N-fertilization/residue level, tillage, burning, and irrigation on select soil properties from 2014 associated with soil water retention, i.e., bulk density (g cm⁻³), pH, SOM, total N and C contents (kg m⁻²), and C:N ratio, using samples collected from the top 10 cm. Due to practical limitations of the study area, the addition of the irrigation treatment since 2005 was superimposed on the burning treatment (Fig. 1). Therefore, irrigation and burning treatments cannot be simultaneously analyzed within this experimental design. Two separate ANOVAs were conducted, each excluding one of the confounding factors. When appropriate, treatment means were also separated based on LSD at the 0.05 level.

Results and Discussion

Initial Soil Properties

After 13 complete wheat-soybean cropping cycles (i.e., 2001 to 2014) and 12 years of consistent management, soil C and N contents, soil C:N ratio, and soil pH in the top 10 cm were affected ($P < 0.05$) by field treatments. Soil C content ($P = 0.038$) and soil C:N ratio ($P = 0.033$) differed between burn treatments in 2014. Averaged across tillage, N-fertilization/residue level, and irrigation, soil C content averaged 1.22 and 1.42 kg m⁻², while the soil C:N ratio averaged 9.23 and 10.2 under burning and non-burning, respectively. Furthermore, soil N content differed $(P = 0.032)$ between the N-fertilizer/residue level treatments (Table 1). Averaged across tillage, burning, and irrigation, soil N content averaged 0.14 and 0.13 kg m^{-2} under the high- and low-Nfertilization/residue level treatments, respectively. Similarly, the soil C:N ratio also differed (*P* = 0.021) between the N-fertilizer/residue level treatments (Table 1). Averaged across tillage, burning, and irrigation, the soil C:N ratio averaged 9.44 and 10.0 under the high- and low-Nfertilization/residue level treatments, respectively.

In 2014, soil pH in the top 10 cm differed $(P = 0.021)$ between irrigation treatments within N-fertilizer/residue level treatments (Table 1). Averaged across tillage and burning, soil pH was greater under irrigation regardless of N-fertilization/residue level (i.e., soil pH averaged 7.26 under the high and 7.28 under the low N-fertilization/residue level) than that under the dryland treatment, where soil pH averaged 6.67 under the low, which was greater than that under the high N-fertilization/residue level (i.e., pH averaged 6.48). However, all pH values, regardless of management, exceeded the minimum soil pH threshold of 6.0, below which soybean yield reductions can be expected on silt-loam soils in eastern Arkansas (Slaton et al., 2013). Therefore, the differences in soil pH among irrigation and N-fertilization/residue level treatment

combinations were agronomically non-significant with regards to soybean production on siltloam soils in eastern Arkansas.

In contrast to other initial soil properties, after 13 complete wheat-soybean cropping cycles (i.e., 2001 to 2014) and 12 years of consistent management, bulk density and SOM were unaffected $(P > 0.05)$ by any of the field treatments imposed in 2014 (Table 1). Therefore, in 2014, averaged across all field treatments, bulk density averaged 1.21 g cm⁻³ [standard error (SE) $= 0.01$] and SOM content averaged 2.9 kg m⁻² (SE $= 0.06$).

Soil Water Retention

As was expected, the relationship between the natural-logarithm-transformed water potential and gravimetric water content followed a curvilinear pattern, where the water potential increased exponentially as gravimetric soil water content increased (Fig. 2). After 13 complete wheat-soybean cropping cycles (i.e., 2001 to 2014) and 12 years of consistent management, the trend in the relationship between the natural logarithm of water potential and gravimetric water content in the top 7.5 cm was affected ($P = 0.007$) by only the N-fertilization/residue level treatment, and was unaffected $(P > 0.05)$ by tillage, burning, and irrigation treatments or any interactions (Table 2). Averaged across tillage, burning, and irrigation, the gravimetric soil water content was greater under high- than under low-N-fertilization/residue management at the same water potential (Fig. 3). The greatest differences between high- and low-N-fertilization/residue treatments were observed at the largest water contents (i.e., approximately 0.16 g g^{-1} ; Fig. 3). Conversely, as soil water potential under both high- and low-N-fertilization/residue management decreased, gravimetric water contents became increasingly similar under both Nfertilization/residue treatments. These results were similar to the soil moisture characteristic

curve results reported by Brye (2003) using a similar wetting-curve approach in which water contents in both native prairie and cultivated agricultural silt-loam soils in eastern Arkansas became increasingly similar as soil water potential approached permanent wilting point (i.e., -1.5 MPa), regardless of field treatments imposed. Verkler et al. (2008) also reported numerically greater maximum soil water contents at the 7.5 cm depth under the high- compared with the low-N-fertilization/residue level treatment, although the differences were statistically non-significant. Management practices that increase the amount of crop residue returned to the soil, such as with greater above- and belowground biomass achieved with differential N fertilization, have been shown to increase infiltration, bulk density, and water storage capacity (Shaver et al., 2002).

Once the water potential data were natural-logarithm-transformed, the relationship with gravimetric soil water content became linearized to facilitate statistical analyses of treatment effects. The intercept terms characterizing the linear relationship between the natural logarithm of water potential and the gravimetric water content under high- and low-N-fertilization/residue management (3.11 and 3.36, respectively) were statistically similar (Table 3). However, the slope terms characterizing the linear relationship between the natural logarithm of water potential and the gravimetric water content under high- and low-N-fertilization/residue management (- 39.7 and -45.2, respectively) differed significantly (Table 3). As gravimetric water content increased, the natural logarithm of water potential under the low- decreased $(P < 0.05)$ at a significantly greater rate than under the high-N-fertilization/residue management treatment combination (Table 3; Fig. 3). Though N-fertilization/residue level did not affect SOM contents in the top 10 cm in 2014, one possible explanation for the significant effect of Nfertilization/residue level on the relationship between the natural logarithm of water potential and the gravimetric soil water content was that the high-N-fertilization/residue treatment promoted

increased soil structure development and SOM more than the low-N-fertilization/residue treatment. While it was concluded in a previous study analyzing soil properties in the same plots used in the current study that N-fertilization/residue level had no obvious, observable effects on the trend in SOM content (kg m⁻²) in the top 10 cm over time, N-fertilization/residue level did affect $(P < 0.05)$ the trend in SOM content over time as part of complex treatment combinations (Norman et al., 2015). Moreover, it is possible that N-fertilization/residue level may have impacted SOM content and soil aggregates in the top 7.5 cm differently than in the top 10 cm, due to the greater accumulation of both above- and below-ground plant biomass concentrated near the soil surface. A previous study analyzing water-stable aggregates in the top 10 cm in the same plots used in the current study reported that the concentration of water-stable aggregates was 11% greater in the top 5 cm than in the 5 to 10 cm depth interval after 7 years of consistent management (Smith et al., 2013), suggesting that SOM and soil aggregates may be more concentrated in the 7.5 cm depth samples used for the current study than in the 10 cm depth samples used for previous studies (i.e., Amuri et al., 2008; Norman et al., 2015). Therefore, it is possible that the N-fertilization/residue level treatment affected the < 2-mm-sized soil aggregates, which may have occluded SOM, in the top 7.5 cm, without clearly and obviously affecting SOM contained in the aggregate size classes larger than 2 mm in the top 10 cm. Such an increase in occluded SOM in smaller aggregates might account for an increase in soil water content (Azooz and Arshad, 1996; Dao, 1993). For example, Brye (2003) reported greater soil water contents in the top 10 cm of a native prairie soil than soil water contents of cultivated agricultural soils at the same water potential, possibly as a result of the greater SOM content in prairie soils (SOM = 22 g kg⁻¹) compared with cultivated agricultural soils (SOM = 10.8 g kg⁻¹).

Tillage, burning, and irrigation treatments had no observable effect ($P > 0.05$; Table 2) on

the relationship between the natural logarithm of water potential and the gravimetric soil water content after 12 complete cropping cycles. These results are in contrast with the original hypothesis that tillage would strongly affect the relationship between soil water potential and soil water content, such that soil water content under NT would exceed that under CT at the same water potential. In contrast to these results, other soil moisture characteristic studies have reported significant relationships between cultivation and the near-surface soil water retention characteristics (Azooz and Arshad, 1996; Brye 2003; Hill et al., 1985), likely due to the increased hydraulic conductivity and infiltration rates associated undisturbed and NT soils. Similarly, it might be expected that the burning treatment would affect soil water retention characteristics in the top 7.5 cm due to the near-surface accumulation of ash, which can be hydrophobic. In contrast to these results, Verkler et al. (2008) reported that residue burning significantly affected maximum soil water contents during irrigation events, and that the mean maximum soil water content was 3% (v/v) greater under residue burning compared with nonburning. However, the water content measurements conducted by Verkler et al. (2008) were in situ, i.e., undisturbed, and are therefore fundamentally different from the oven-dried, ground, sieved, and rewetted samples used in the current study.

It is possible that effects of tillage, burning, and irrigation were not be observed due to the sampling and measuring processes, which including oven-drying, grinding, and sieving out all particles greater than 2 mm. Effects which might have been observable in larger, intact soil cores may not have carried over to the < 2-mm-sized, sieved soil particles and aggregates. Tillage, for instance, may destroy larger soil aggregates while leaving smaller aggregates intact, thus leaving an occluded fraction of SOM more protected against oxidation. Therefore, the effects of tillage on certain soil properties associated with water retention characteristics, i.e.,

SOM and bulk density, may be more apparent in samples using larger, undisturbed cores than in the ground and sieved samples used in the current study. A previous study analyzing soil properties in the same plots as the current study reported that irrigation was the most significant overall treatment factor affecting the change in SOM content (kg m^{-2}) in the top 10 cm over the course of 13 consecutive years following conversion to alternative management practices (Norman et al., 2015). In the current study, irrigation may have affected the accumulation and decomposition of SOM in the top 7.5 cm, but too much variability occurred between irrigation treatments for a statistical relationship to be identified. In contrast, the significant effects of Nfertilization/residue level treatment on the linear relationship between the natural logarithm of water potential and the gravimetric water content suggest that the N-fertilization/residue level treatment affected the accumulation of smaller aggregates and occluded SOM in the < 2-mmsized aggregates.

Summary and Conclusions

Following conversion to alternative residue and water management practices and after 13 consecutive years (i.e., 2001 to 2014) of management, the N-fertilization/residue level treatment significantly affected the linear relationship between the natural logarithm of water potential and the gravimetric soil water content as determined by soil wetting curves. The water-curve approach was useful to evaluate the various long-term field treatment effects on water retention. Contrary to the original hypothesis, tillage did not affect the same relationship, possibly due in part to the disturbed nature of soil samples used. It can be inferred from this study that differences in N-fertilization/residue level management affect soil water retention characteristics, possibly as a result of the increased soil aggregation and SOM associated with increased crop

residue, both above and below ground, under high residue level management. Consideration of soil water retention characteristics is vital to planning out sustainable use of irrigation water, especially in areas such as the Delta region of eastern Arkansas that will face potential water shortages in the near future.

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Table 1. Analysis of variance summary of the effects of residue level (N), tillage (T), and irrigation (I) on soil bulk density (g cm⁻³), pH, soil organic matter (SOM; kg m⁻²), total carbon (C; kg m⁻²), total nitrogen (N; kg m⁻²), and the C:N ratio in the top 10 cm from spring 2014 in a wheat-soybean, double-crop system in eastern Arkansas.

Source of	Bulk					
Variation	Density	pH	SOM	C	N	C: N
N	nst	ns	ns	ns	0.032	0.021
т	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns
	ns	0.023	ns	ns	ns	ns
N^*T	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns
N^*I	ns	0.021	ns	ns	ns	ns
T^*I	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns
N^*T^*I	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns

Table 2. Analysis of covariance summary of the effects of residue level (N), burning (B), tillage (T), and irrigation (I) on the linear relationship between the natural logarithm of soil water potential and the gravimetric soil water content in the top 7.5 cm in a wheat-soybean, doublecrop system under consistent management for 13 years (i.e., 2001 to 2014) in eastern Arkansas. Non-significant interactions ($P > 0.05$) were removed in the final model, except when nonsignificant terms participated in higher-order, complex treatment combinations. Water content refers to the linear term.

Table 3. Summary of estimate parameters of specific treatment combinations, i.e. residue-level [high (H) and low (L)], for the linear relationship between the natural logarithm of soil water potential and the gravimetric soil water content in the top 7.5 cm in a wheat-soybean, doublecrop system under consistent management for 13 years (i.e., 2001 to 2014) in eastern Arkansas. Coefficient estimates with the same lower case letter do not differ $(P > 0.05)$.

 $\frac{1}{T}P < 0.05$ indicates coefficient estimate was significantly different from 0.

Fig. 1. Experimental layout at the Lon Mann Cotton Branch Experiment Station in eastern Arkansas depicting 48, 3- x 6-m plots subjected to residue-level [high (H) and low (L)], burn, tillage [conventional tillage (CT) and no-tillage (NT)], and irrigation treatments.

Fig. 2 Raw data from all treatment combinations depicting the relationship between the soil water potential and the gravimetric soil water content from soil wetting curves for the top 7.5 cm in a wheat-soybean, double-crop system in eastern Arkansas after 13 years (i.e., 2001 to 2014) of consistent management.

Fig. 3 Influence of residue level [high (H) and low (L)] on the relationship between the natural logarithm (LN) of water potential and the gravimetric soil water content from soil wetting curves for the top 7.5 cm in a wheat-soybean, double-crop system in eastern Arkansas after 13 years (i.e., 2001 to 2014) of consistent management. LN refers to the natural log of water potential.

Overall Conclusions

All field treatments evaluated in this study affected trends in one or more measured soil properties over the course of seven complete wheat-soybean cropping cycles (i.e., 2007 to 2014), following conversion to alternative management practices in treatment combinations managed consistently for 13 consecutive years (i.e., 2002 to 2014). Irrigation management was responsible for the greatest differences in trends in soybean yield, C fraction of SOM, and SOM, C, N, P, Cu contents over time. Burning also significantly affected the trend in SOM and C contents over time. Irrigation and burn treatment combinations were responsible for the greatest differences in trends in soil Ca, Mg, and Mn contents over time. Residue level was responsible for the greatest differences in trends in soil C:N ratio and pH over time. Trends in wheat yield, EC, and Fe, Na, and S contents were unaffected by any of the field treatments evaluated, but all varied significantly over time. Trends in bulk density, and K and Zn contents over time were affected by complex treatment combinations that included interactions among tillage, burning, and irrigation. Tillage did not significantly affect either soybean or wheat yield, which indicates that some producers may be able reduce costs associated with tillage without significantly reducing crop yield.

As originally hypothesized, SOM and C contents increased over time under non-burning and decreased over time under burning. Contrary to original hypotheses, tillage and residue treatments failed to cause clear and obvious differences in the trends in SOM, C, and extractable nutrient contents over time. In fact, differences between irrigation treatments appeared the have the clearest, most obvious effects on the trends in SOM, C, N, P, and Cu contents over time. Also contrary to that hypothesized, SOM and C contents did not decrease under dryland soybean production. Rather, SOM and C contents increased over time under dryland production until

approximately year 9 (i.e., 2010), then decreased thereafter.

Following conversion to alternative residue and water management practices and after 13 consecutive years (i.e., 2001 to 2014) of management, the N-fertilization/residue level treatment significantly affected the linear relationship between the natural logarithm of water potential and the gravimetric soil water content as determined by soil wetting curves. The water-curve approach was useful to evaluate the various long-term field treatment effects on water retention. Contrary to the original hypothesis, tillage did not affect the same relationship, possibly due in part to the disturbed nature of soil samples used. It can be inferred from this study that differences in N-fertilization/residue level management affect soil water retention characteristics, possibly as a result of the increased soil aggregation and SOM associated with increased crop residue, both above and below ground, under high residue level management. Consideration of soil water retention characteristics is vital to planning out sustainable use of irrigation water, especially in areas such as the Delta region of eastern Arkansas that will face potential water shortages in the near future.

Overall, it can be inferred from this study that irrigation management plays a critical role in the long-term trends in SOM, C, and N contents and other soil physical and chemical properties over time. Moreover, the accumulation of SOM, C, and N appears to be greatly influenced by growing season weather patterns, especially under dryland production. Crop management that strikes a balance between increasing crop biomass and decreasing the rate of microbial turnover of SOM can maintain or increase SOM levels, and thereby work towards long-term soil improvement and soil C sequestration.

Appendix A

This appendix contains a summary of the analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) effects of residue level (N), burning (B), tillage (T), irrigation (I), and time (Year) on changes in soil and plant properties over time.

Table 1. Analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) summary on the effects of residue level (N), burning (B), tillage (T), irrigation (I), and time (Year) on changes in bulk density (BD; $g \text{ cm}^{-3}$) and wheat (Wht) and soybean (Soy) yields (Mg ha⁻¹) over time between 2007 and 2014 in a wheat-soybean, double-crop system in eastern Arkansas. Only significant interactions (*P* < 0.05) were included in the final model, except when non-significant terms participated in significant treatment combinations. Year refers to the linear term, and Year² refers to the quadratic term.

Linear term and				Quadratic term and			
interactions	BD†	Whtt	Soy†	interactions	BD	Wht	Soy
Year	< 0.001	< 0.001	0.0178	$Year^2$	< 0.001	< 0.001	ns
N*Year	nst	< 0.001	ns	$N*Year^2$	Ns	ns	ns
B*Year	ns	0.002	ns.	$B*Year^2$	Ns	ns	ns
T*Year	0.006	< 0.001	ns	T^*Year^2	0.004	ns	ns
I*Year	ns	< 0.001	< 0.001	$I*Year^2$	Ns	ns	< 0.001
$N*B*Year$	0.015	ns	ns	$N*B*Year^2$	0.017	ns	ns
N^*T^*Year	ns	ns	ns	$N^*T^*Year^2$	Ns	ns	ns
$N*I*Year$	ns	ns	ns	$N^*I^*Year^2$	Ns	ns	ns
B^*T^*Year	ns	0.035	ns	$B^*T^*Year^2$	Ns	ns	ns
$B*I*Year$	< 0.001	ns	ns	$B^*I^*Year^2$	Ns	ns	ns
T*I*Year	0.037	ns	ns	$T^*I^*Year^2$	0.047	ns	ns
$N*B*T*Year$	_{ns}	0.007	ns	$N*B^*T^*Year^2$	Ns	ns	ns
N*B*I*Year	_{ns}	ns	ns	$N*B*I*Year^2$	Ns	ns	ns
$N^*T^*I^*Year$	0.018	ns	_{ns}	$N^*T^*I^*Year^2$	0.015	ns	ns
$B^*T^*I^*Year$	_{ns}	ns	_{ns}	$B^*T^*I^*Year^2$	Ns	ns	ns
$N*B*T*I*Year$	ns	ns	ns	$N*B*T*I*Year^2$	Ns	ns	ns

† Degrees of freedom were 300 and 332 for BD and Soy respectively. Degrees of freedom were 34.7 and 331 for Wht linear terms and quadratic terms, respectively.

Table 2. Analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) summary on the effects of residue level (N), burning (B), tillage (T), irrigation (I), and time (Year) on changes in soil organic matter (SOM), total carbon (TC), and total nitrogen (TN) contents (kg m⁻²) over time between 2007 and 2014 in a wheat-soybean, double-crop system in eastern Arkansas. Only significant interactions (*P* < 0.05) were included in the final model, except when non-significant terms participated in significant treatment combinations. Year refers to the linear term, and Year² refers to the quadratic term.

Linear term and				Quadratic term and			
interactions	SOM [†]	TC	TN	interactions	SOM	TC	TN
Year	< 0.001	ns	< 0.001	$Year^2$	< 0.001	ns	< 0.001
$N*Year$	nst	ns	ns	$N*Year^2$	ns	ns	ns
$B*Year$	0.015	ns	ns	$B*Year^2$	ns	0.002	ns
T*Year	ns	ns	ns	T^*Year^2	ns	ns	ns
I*Year	< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001	$I*Year^2$	< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001
$N*B*Year$	ns	ns	ns	$N*B*Year^2$	ns	ns	ns
N^*T^*Year	_{ns}	ns	ns	$N^*T^*Year^2$	_{ns}	ns	ns
N*I*Year	ns	ns	ns	$N*I*Year^2$	ns	ns	ns
B^*T^*Year	ns	ns	ns	$B^*T^*Year^2$	ns	ns	ns
$B*I*Year$	ns	ns	ns	$B^*I^*Year^2$	ns	ns	ns
T*I*Year	ns	ns	ns	$T^*I^*Year^2$	ns	ns	ns
$N*B*T*Year$	ns	ns	ns	$N*B*T*Year^2$	ns	ns	ns
$N*B*I*Year$	ns	ns	ns	$N*B*I*Year^2$	ns	ns	ns
$N^*T^*I^*Year$	0.011	0.044	_{ns}	$N^*T^*I^*Year^2$	_{ns}	ns	ns
$B^*T^*I^*Year$	_{ns}	ns	_{ns}	$B^*T^*I^*Year^2$	_{ns}	ns	ns
N*B*T*I*Year	ns	ns	ns	$N*B*T*I*Year^2$	ns	ns	ns

† Degrees of freedom were 325, 325, and 332 for SOM, TC, and TN, respectively.

Table 3. Analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) summary on the effects of residue level (N), burning (B), tillage (T), irrigation (I), and time (Year) on changes in carbon to nitrogen ratio (C:N), carbon fraction of soil organic matter (C:SOM), and nitrogen fraction of soil organic matter (N:SOM) over time between 2007 and 2014 in a wheat-soybean, double-crop system in eastern Arkansas. Only significant interactions ($P < 0.05$) were included in the final model, except when non-significant terms participated in significant treatment combinations. Year refers to the linear term, and Year² refers to the quadratic term.

Linear term and				Quadratic term and			
interactions	C: N	C:SOM	N:SOM	interactions	C: N	C: SOM	N:SOM
Year				$Year^{\mathcal{T}}$			
$N*Year$	_{ns}	_{ns}	ns	$N*Year^2$	0.0483	ns	ns
$B*Year$	0.015	_{ns}	ns	$B*Year^2$	< 0.001	0.0015	ns
T*Year	ns	ns	ns	T^*Year^2	Ns	ns	ns
I*Year	< .001	< .001	ns	$I*Year^2$	Ns	< 0.001	ns
$N*B*Year$	ns	ns	ns	$N*B*Year^2$	Ns	ns	ns
N^*T^*Year	ns	ns	ns	$N^*T^*Year^2$	Ns	ns	ns
N*I*Year	ns	ns	ns	$N^*I^*Year^2$	Ns	ns	ns
B^*T^*Year	_{ns}	ns	_{ns}	$B^*T^*Year^2$	Ns	ns	ns
$B*I*Year$	ns	ns	ns	$B^*I^*Year^2$	Ns	ns	ns
T^*I^*Year	_{ns}	ns	ns	$T^*I^*Year^2$	Ns	ns	ns
$N*B*T*Year$	_{ns}	ns	ns	$N*B*T*Year^2$	Ns	ns	ns
$N*B*I*Year$	ns	ns	ns	$N*B*I*Year^2$	Ns	ns	ns
$N^*T^*I^*Year$	0.011	0.044	0.0232	$N^*T^*I^*Year^2$	Ns	ns	ns
B*T*I*Year	ns	ns	_{ns}	$B^*T^*I^*Year^2$	Ns	ns	ns
$N*B*T*I*Year$	ns	ns	ns	$N*B^*T^*I^*Year^2$	Ns	ns	ns

† Degrees of freedom were 325, 325, and 332 for SOM, TC, and TN, respectively.

Table 4. Analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) summary on the effects of residue level (N), burning (B), tillage (T), irrigation (I), and time (Year) on changes in EC (dS m⁻¹) and iron (Fe), sodium (Na), and sulfur (S) contents (kg ha⁻¹) over time between 2007 and 2014 in a wheat-soybean, double-crop system in eastern Arkansas. Only significant interactions (*P* < 0.05) were included in the final model, except when non-significant terms participated in significant treatment combinations. Year refers to the linear term, and Year² refers to the quadratic term.

Linear term and					Quadratic term and				
interactions	EC†	Fe	Na	S	interactions	EC	Fe	Na	${\bf S}$
Year	< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001	$Year^2$	< 0.001	< 0.001	ns	< 0.001
N*Year	$ns\ddagger$	ns	ns	ns	$N*Year^2$	ns	ns	ns	ns
B*Year	ns	ns	ns	ns	$B*Year^2$	ns	ns	ns	ns
T*Year	ns	ns	ns	ns	T^*Year^2	ns	ns	ns	ns
I*Year	ns	ns	ns	ns	$I*Year^2$	ns	ns	ns	ns
$N*B*Year$	ns	ns	ns	ns	$N*B*Year^2$	ns	ns	ns	ns
N^*T^*Year	ns	ns	ns	ns	$N^*T^*Year^2$	ns	ns	ns	ns
$N*I*Year$	ns	ns	ns	ns	$N^*I^*Year^2$	ns	ns	ns	ns
B^*T^*Year	ns	ns	ns	ns	$B^*T^*Year^2$	ns	ns	ns	ns
$B*I*Year$	ns	ns	ns	ns	$B*I*Year^2$	ns	ns	ns	ns
T^*I^*Year	ns	ns	ns	ns	$T^*I^*Year^2$	ns	ns	ns	ns
$N*B*T*Year$	ns	ns	ns	ns	$N*B^*T^*Year^2$	ns	ns	ns	ns
$N*B*I*Year$	ns	ns	ns	ns	$N*B*I*Year^2$	ns	ns	ns	ns
$N^*T^*I^*Year$	ns	ns	ns	ns	$N^*T^*I^*Year^2$	ns	ns	ns	ns
$B^*T^*I^*Year$	ns	ns	ns	ns	$B^*T^*I^*Year^2$	ns	ns	ns	ns
$N*B*T*I*Year$	ns	ns	ns	ns	$N*B*T*I*Year^2$	ns	ns	ns	ns

† Degrees of freedom were 334, 334, 335, and 334 for EC, Fe, Na, and S, respectively.

Table 5. Analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) summary on the effects of residue level (N), burning (B), tillage (T), irrigation (I), and time (Year) on changes in pH and phosphorus (P) and copper (Cu) contents (kg ha⁻¹) over time between 2007 and 2014 in a wheatsoybean, double-crop system in eastern Arkansas. Only significant interactions (*P* < 0.05) were included in the final model, except when non-significant terms participated in significant treatment combinations. Year refers to the linear term, and Year² refers to the quadratic term.

Linear term and				Quadratic term and			
interactions	pH†	\mathbf{P}	Cu	interactions	pH	\mathbf{P}	Cu
Year	< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001	$Year^2$	< 0.001	< 0.001	0.002
$N*Year$	0.003	< 0.001	ns	$N*Year^2$	0.005	ns	ns
$B*Year$	nst	ns	ns	$B*Year^2$	ns	ns	ns
T^*Year	ns	ns	ns	T^*Year^2	ns	ns	_{ns}
I*Year	< 0.001	0.019	0.009	$I*Year^2$	ns	0.026	0.015
$N*B*Year$	_{ns}	ns	ns	$N*B*Year^2$	ns	ns	ns
N^*T^*Year	_{ns}	ns	ns	$N^*T^*Year^2$	ns	ns	ns
$N*I*Year$	0.013	ns	ns	$N^*I^*Year^2$	ns	ns	ns
B^*T^*Year	ns	ns	ns	$B^*T^*Year^2$	ns	ns	ns
$B*I*Year$	ns	ns	ns	$B^*I^*Year^2$	ns	ns	ns
T*I*Year	ns	ns	ns	$T^*I^*Year^2$	ns	ns	ns
$N*B*T*Year$	0.025	ns	ns	$N*B*T*Year^2$	0.041	ns	ns
$N*B*I*Year$	ns	ns	ns	$N*B*I*Year^2$	ns	ns	ns
$N^*T^*I^*Year$	ns	ns	ns	$N^*T^*I^*Year^2$	ns	ns	ns
$B^*T^*I^*Year$	ns	ns	ns	$B^*T^*I^*Year^2$	ns	ns	ns
N*B*T*I*Year	ns	ns	ns	$N*B*T*I*Year^2$	ns	ns	ns

† Degrees of freedom were 318, 331, and 332 for pH, P, and Cu, respectively.

Table 6. Analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) summary on the effects of residue level (N), burning (B), tillage (T), irrigation (I), and time (Year) on changes in calcium (Ca), magnesium (Mg), and manganese (Mn) contents (kg ha⁻¹) over time between 2007 and 2014 in a wheat-soybean, double-crop system in eastern Arkansas. Only significant interactions (*P* < 0.05) were included in the final model, except when non-significant terms participated in significant treatment combinations. Year refers to the linear term, and Year² refers to the quadratic term.

Linear term and				Quadratic term and			
interactions	Cat	Mg	Mn	interactions	Ca	Mg	Mn
Year	< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001	$Year^2$	< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001
$N*Year$	$ns+$	ns	ns	$N*Year^2$	ns	ns	ns
$B*Year$	ns	0.004	0.032	$B*Year^2$	ns	0.009	ns
T*Year	ns	< 0.001	0.002	T^*Year^2	ns	ns	ns
I*Year	< 0.001	< 0.001	ns	$I*Year^2$	< 0.001	< 0.001	ns
$N*B*Year$	_{ns}	ns	ns.	$N*B*Year^2$	ns	ns	ns
N*T*Year	_{ns}	ns	_{ns}	$N^*T^*Year^2$	ns	ns	_{ns}
$N*I*Year$	_{ns}	ns	ns	$N^*I^*Year^2$	ns	ns	ns
$B*T*Year$	ns	ns	ns.	$B^*T^*Year^2$	ns	ns	_{ns}
$B*I*Year$	< 0.001	< 0.001	0.003	$B^*I^*Year^2$	< 0.001	< 0.001	0.007
T*I*Year	ns	0.029	ns	$T^*I^*Year^2$	ns	ns	ns
$N*B*T*Year$	< 0.001	ns	ns	$N*B*T*Year^2$	ns	ns	_{ns}
$N*B*I*Year$	_{ns}	ns	ns	$N*B*I*Year^2$	ns	ns	_{ns}
$N^*T^*I^*Year$	0.012	0.003	ns	$N^*T^*I^*Year^2$	0.031	ns	ns
$B^*T^*I^*Year$	_{ns}	ns	_{ns}	$B^*T^*I^*Year^2$	ns	ns	_{ns}
N*B*T*I*Year	ns	ns	ns	$N*B*T*I*Year^2$	ns	ns	ns

† Degrees of freedom were 313, 322, and 327 for Ca, Mg, and Mn, respectively.
Table 7. Analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) summary on the effects of residue level (N), burning (B), tillage (T), irrigation (I), and time (Year) on changes in potassium (K) and zinc (Zn) contents (kg ha⁻¹) over time between 2007 and 2014 in a wheat-soybean, double-crop system in eastern Arkansas. Only significant interactions (*P* < 0.05) were included in the final model, except when nonsignificant terms participated in significant treatment combinations. Year refers to the linear term, and Year² refers to the quadratic term.

Linear term and			Quadratic term and		
interactions	K†	Zn	interactions	K	Zn
Year	< 0.001	0.002	$Year^2$	< 0.001	0.002
$N*Year$	$ns+$	ns	$N*Year^2$	ns	ns
$B*Year$	ns	0.035	$B*Year^2$	ns	0.095
T^*Year	ns	ns	T^*Year^2	ns	ns
I*Year	0.002	0.032	$I*Year^2$	0.007	ns
$N*B*Year$	ns	ns	$N*B*Year^2$	ns	ns
N*T*Year	ns	ns	$N^*T^*Year^2$	ns	ns
$N*I*Year$	ns	ns	$N*I*Year^2$	ns	ns
B^*T^*Year	ns	ns	$B^*T^*Year^2$	ns	ns
$B*I*Year$	< 0.001	0.001	$B*I*Year^2$	ns	0.002
T*I*Year	ns	ns	$T^*I^*Year^2$	ns	ns
$N*B*T*Year$	0.014	0.004	$N*B*T*Year^2$	0.032	0.005
$N*B*I*Year$	ns	ns	$N*B*I*Year^2$	ns	ns
$N^*T^*I^*Year$	0.012	ns	$N^*T^*I^*Year^2$	0.013	ns
$B^*T^*I^*Year$	0.011	ns	$B^*T^*I^*Year^2$	ns	ns
$N*B*T*I*Year$	ns	ns	$N*B*T*I*Year^2$	ns	ns

† Degrees of freedom were 312 and 316 for K and Zn, respectively.

 \ddagger not significant (ns), i.e. $P > 0.05$.

Appendix B

This appendix contains a summary of least significant differences (LSD) among estimate parameters of specific treatment combinations.

Table 1. Summary of the separation of estimate parameters of specific treatment combinations, i.e. residue-level [high (H) and low (L)], burning [burn (B) and no-burn (NB)], tillage [conventional tillage (CT) and no-tillage (NT)], and irrigation [irrigated (I) and non-irrigated (NI)], for bulk density (g cm⁻³) trends over time between 2007 and 2014 in a wheat-soybean, double-crop system in eastern Arkansas. Coefficient estimates are categorized according to least significant differences (LSD), and coefficient estimates sharing a letter category are statistically similar.

Significant		Coefficient	
regression term [†]	Treatment combination	estimate	\boldsymbol{P}
	NT-B-H-NI	0.269a	< 0.001
	NT-NB-H-NI	0.194 ab	< 0.001
	NT-NB-L-I	0.174 b	< 0.001
	CT-B-H-I	0.163 b	< 0.001
	$NT-B-H-I$	0.155 bc	< 0.001
	CT-NB-L-I	0.141 bc	< 0.001
	$NT-B-L-I$	0.138 bc	< 0.001
Linear	NT-NB-L-NI	0.118 bc	< 0.001
	$CT-B-L-I$	0.105 bc	0.001
	CT-NB-H-I	0.103 bc	0.001
	CT-B-H-NI	0.103 bc	0.001
	NT-B-L-NI	0.098 bc	0.002
	CT-NB-L-NI	0.096 bc	0.002
	NT-NB-H-I	0.096 bc	0.002
	CT-B-L-NI	0.076c	0.014
	CT-NB-H-NI	0.028c	0.367
	CT-NB-H-NI	$-0.002a$	0.317
	CT-B-L-NI	$-0.004a$	0.025
	NT-B-L-NI	-0.005 a	0.003
	CT-B-H-NI	$-0.005a$	0.002
	NT-NB-H-I	$-0.005a$	0.002
	CT-NB-L-NI	$-0.005a$	0.001
	CT-NB-H-I	-0.005 a	0.001
Quadratic	$CT-B-L-I$	-0.005 ab	0.001
	NT-NB-L-NI	$-0.006 b$	< 0.001
	CT-NB-L-I	$-0.007 b$	< 0.001
	$NT-B-L-I$	$-0.008 b$	< 0.001
	$NT-B-H-I$	$-0.008 b$	< 0.001
	CT-B-H-I	$-0.009 b$	< 0.001
	NT-NB-L-I	-0.009 bc	< 0.001
	NT-NB-H-NI	-0.010 cd	< 0.001
	NT-B-H-NI	-0.014 d	< 0.001

[†] Significant linear term indicates a trend over time that is statistically different from 0, and a significant quadratic term indicates a shift in the trend over time.

Table 2. Summary of the separation of estimate parameters of specific treatment combinations, i.e. residue-level [high (H) and low (L)], burning [burn (B) and no-burn (NB)], tillage [conventional tillage (CT) and no-tillage (NT)], and irrigation [irrigated (I) and non-irrigated (NI)], for soil organic matter content (kg m^2) trends over time between 2007 and 2014 in a wheat-soybean, double-crop system in eastern Arkansas. Coefficient estimates are categorized according to least significant differences (LSD), and coefficient estimates sharing a letter category are statistically similar.

Significant		Coefficient	
regression term [†]	Treatment combination	estimate	\boldsymbol{P}
	CT-NB-H-NI	0.630a	< 0.001
	CT-B-H-NI	0.592a	< 0.001
	NT-NB-L-NI	0.572a	< 0.001
	CT-NB-L-NI	0.562a	< 0.001
	NT-NB-H-NI	0.561a	< 0.001
	NT-B-L-NI	0.535a	< 0.001
	CT-B-L-NI	0.524a	< 0.001
	NT-B-H-NI	0.524a	< 0.001
Linear	CT-NB-L-I	0.072 _b	0.495
	NT-NB-H-I	0.057 _b	0.590
	$CT-B-L-I$	0.035 h	0.743
	NT-NB-L-I	0.035 _b	0.745
	$NT-B-H-I$	0.020 b	0.853
	CT-NB-H-I	0.017 b	0.875
	$NT-B-L-I$	$-0.003 b$	0.977
	$CT-B-H-I$	$-0.021 b$	0.844
	I	-0.002 a	0.720
Quadratic	NI	-0.029 b	< 0.001

Table 3. Summary of the separation of estimate parameters of specific treatment combinations, i.e. residue-level [high (H) and low (L)], burning [burn (B) and no-burn (NB)], tillage [conventional tillage (CT) and no-tillage (NT)], and irrigation [irrigated (I) and non-irrigated (NI)], for carbon content (kg m⁻²) trends over time between 2007 and 2014 in a wheat-soybean, double-crop system in eastern Arkansas. Coefficient estimates are categorized according to least significant differences (LSD), and coefficient estimates sharing a letter category are statistically similar.

Table 4. Summary of the separation of estimate parameters of specific treatment combinations, i.e. burning [burn (B) and no-burn (NB)], tillage [conventional tillage (CT) and no-tillage (NT)], and irrigation [irrigated (I) and non-irrigated (NI)], for the trend in carbon fraction of soil organic matter over time between 2007 and 2014 in a wheat-soybean, double-crop system in eastern Arkansas. Coefficient estimates are categorized according to least significant differences (LSD), and coefficient estimates sharing a letter category are statistically similar.

Table 5. Summary of the separation of estimate parameters of specific treatment combinations, i.e. residue-level [high (H) and low (L)], burning [burn (B) and no-burn (NB)], tillage [conventional tillage (CT) and no-tillage (NT)], and irrigation [irrigated (I) and non-irrigated (NI)], for carbon to nitrogen (C:N) ratio trends over time between 2007 and 2014 in a wheat-soybean, double-crop system in eastern Arkansas. Coefficient estimates are categorized according to least significant differences (LSD), and coefficient estimates sharing a letter category are statistically similar.

Significant		Coefficient	
regression term [†]	Treatment combination	estimate	\boldsymbol{P}
	$NT-B-H-I$	-0.635 a	0.006
	CT-B-H-NI	-0.657 ab	0.004
	$CT-B-H-I$	-0.686 abc	0.003
	NT-NB-H-I	-0.751 abcd	0.001
	NT-B-H-NI	-0.758 abcd	0.001
	CT-NB-H-NI	-0.773 abcde	0.001
	CT-NB-H-I	-0.802 abcde	0.001
	NT-NB-H-NI	-0.874 abcdef	< 0.001
Linear	$CT-B-L-I$	-1.184 abcdef	< 0.001
	$NT-B-L-I$	-1.245 abcdef	< 0.001
	NT-B-L-NI	-1.293 bcdef	< 0.001
	CT-NB-L-I	-1.300 cdef	< 0.001
	NT-NB-L-I	-1.361 def	< 0.001
	CT-B-L-NI	-1.372 def	< 0.001
	NT-NB-L-NI	-1.409 ef	< 0.001
	CT-NB-L-NI	$-1.488f$	< 0.001
	$NB-L$	0.080a	< 0.001
	$B-L$	0.068 ab	< 0.001
Quadratic	$NB-H$	0.047 b	< 0.001
	B-H	0.035 b	0.004

[†] Significant linear term indicates a trend over time that is statistically different from 0, and a significant quadratic term indicates a shift in the trend over time.

Table 6. Summary of the separation of estimate parameters of specific treatment combinations, i.e. irrigation [irrigated (I) and non-irrigated (NI)], for nitrogen content (kg m⁻²) trends over time between 2007 and 2014 in a wheat-soybean, double-crop system in eastern Arkansas. Coefficient estimates are categorized according to least significant differences (LSD), and coefficient estimates sharing a letter category are statistically similar.

Table 7. Summary of the separation of estimate parameters of specific treatment combinations, i.e. residue-level [high (H) and low (L)], burning [burn (B) and no-burn (NB)], tillage [conventional tillage (CT) and no-tillage (NT)], and irrigation [irrigated (I) and non-irrigated (NI)], for the nitrogen fraction of soil organic matter trends over time between 2007 and 2014 in wheat-soybean, double-crop system in eastern Arkansas. Coefficient estimates are categorized according to least significant differences (LSD), and coefficient estimates sharing a letter category are statistically similar.

† Significant linear term indicates a trend over time that is statistically different from 0. No significant quadratic terms existed (Appendix A-Table 3)

Table 8. Summary of the separation of estimate parameters of specific treatment combinations, i.e. irrigation [irrigated (I) and non-irrigated (NI)] for soybean yield (Mg ha⁻¹) trends over time between 2007 and 2014 in wheat-soybean, double-crop system in eastern Arkansas. Coefficient estimates are categorized according to least significant differences (LSD), and coefficient estimates sharing a letter category are statistically similar.

Table 9. Summary of the separation of estimate parameters of specific treatment combinations, i.e. residue-level [high (H) and low (L)], burning [burn (B) and no-burn (NB)], tillage [conventional tillage (CT) and no-tillage (NT)], and irrigation [irrigated (I) and non-irrigated (NI)], for wheat yield (Mg ha⁻¹) trends over time between 2007 and 2014 in a wheat-soybean, double-crop system in eastern Arkansas. Coefficient estimates are categorized according to least significant differences (LSD), and coefficient estimates sharing a letter category are statistically similar.

† Significant linear term indicates a trend over time that is statistically different from 0, and a significant quadratic term indicates a shift in the trend over time.

Table 10. Summary of the separation of estimate parameters for electrical conductivity $(dS m⁻¹)$ trends over time between 2007 and 2014 in a wheat-soybean, double-crop system in eastern Arkansas.

† Significant linear term indicates a trend over time that is statistically different from 0, and a significant quadratic term indicates a shift in the trend over time.

Table 11. Summary of the separation of estimate parameters for iron content (kg ha⁻¹) trends over time between 2007 and 2014 in a wheat-soybean, double-crop system in eastern Arkansas.

† Significant linear term indicates a trend over time that is statistically different from 0, and a significant quadratic term indicates a shift in the trend over time.

Table 12. Summary of the separation of estimate parameters for sodium content (kg ha⁻¹) trends over time between 2007 and 2014 in a wheat-soybean, double-crop system in eastern Arkansas.

† Significant linear term indicates a trend over time that is statistically different from 0, and a significant quadratic term indicates a shift in the trend over time.

Table 13. Summary of the separation of estimate parameters for sulfur content (kg ha⁻¹) trends over time between 2007 and 2014 in a wheat-soybean, double-crop system in eastern Arkansas.

† Significant linear term indicates a trend over time that is statistically different from 0, and a significant quadratic term indicates a shift in the trend over time.

Table 14. Summary of the separation of estimate parameters of specific treatment combinations, i.e. residue-level [high (H) and low (L)], burning [burn (B) and no-burn (NB)], tillage [conventional tillage (CT) and no-tillage (NT)], and irrigation [irrigated (I) and non-irrigated (NI)], for pH trends over time between 2007 and 2014 in a wheat-soybean, double-crop system in eastern Arkansas. Coefficient estimates are categorized according to least significant differences (LSD), and coefficient estimates sharing a letter category are statistically similar.

Table 15. Summary of the separation of estimate parameters of specific treatment combinations, i.e. residue-level [high (H) and low (L)] and irrigation [irrigated (I) and non-irrigated (NI)], for phosphorus content (kg ha⁻¹) trends over time between 2007 and 2014 in a wheat-soybean, double-crop system in eastern Arkansas. Coefficient estimates are categorized according to least significant differences (LSD), and coefficient estimates sharing a letter category are statistically similar.

Table 16. Summary of the separation of estimate parameters of specific treatment combinations, i.e. irrigation [irrigated (I) and non-irrigated (NI)] for copper content (kg ha⁻¹) trends over time between 2007 and 2014 in a wheat-soybean, double-crop system in eastern Arkansas. Coefficient estimates are categorized according to least significant differences (LSD), and coefficient estimates sharing a letter category are statistically similar.

Table 17. Summary of the separation of estimate parameters of specific treatment combinations, i.e. residue-level [high (H) and low (L)], burning [burn (B) and no-burn (NB)], tillage [conventional tillage (CT) and no-tillage (NT)], and irrigation [irrigated (I) and non-irrigated (NI)], for calcium content (kg ha-¹) trends over time between 2007 and 2014 in a wheat-soybean, double-crop system in eastern Arkansas. Coefficient estimates are categorized according to least significant differences (LSD), and coefficient estimates sharing a letter category are statistically similar.

Significant		Coefficient	
regression term ⁺	Treatment combination	estimate	\boldsymbol{P}
	NT-NB-L-NI	414.550 a	< 0.001
	CT-NB-H-NI	391.220 a	< 0.001
	NT-NB-H-NI	264.420 a	0.010
	CT-NB-L-NI	162.160 ab	0.111
	NT-B-L-NI	-34.718 bc	0.732
	CT-B-H-NI	-78.872 bc	0.437
	NT-B-H-NI	-155.310 cd	0.126
Linear	$CT-B-L-I$	-187.640 cde	0.065
	CT-B-L-NI	-247.360 cde	0.015
	$NT-B-H-I$	-280.630 cdef	0.006
	$NT-B-L-I$	-401.580 defg	< 0.001
	CT-B-H-I	-427.740 defg	< 0.001
	CT-NB-L-I	-450.560 efg	< 0.001
	NT-NB-H-I	-533.340 fg	< 0.001
	NT-NB-L-I	-624.750 g	< 0.001
	CT-NB-H-I	-630.090 g	< 0.001
	CT-NB-H-I	32.488 a	< 0.001
	NT-NB-L-I	30.973 a	< 0.001
	NT-NB-H-I	26.424 ab	< 0.001
	CT-NB-L-I	23.105 ab	< 0.001
	CT-B-H-I	21.245 abc	< 0.001
	$NT-B-L-I$	19.730 abc	< 0.001
	$NT-B-H-I$	15.180 bcd	0.004
	$CT-B-L-I$	11.861 bcd	0.026
Quadratic	CT-B-L-NI	11.748 cd	0.027
	NT-B-H-NI	6.581 d	0.215
	CT-B-H-NI	2.439 de	0.645
	NT-B-L-NI	0.865 de	0.870
	CT-NB-L-NI	-9.990 ef	0.060
	NT-NB-H-NI	$-15.157f$	0.005
	CT-NB-H-NI	$-19.299f$	< 0.001
	NT-NB-L-NI	-20.873 f	< 0.001

Table 18. Summary of the separation of estimate parameters of specific treatment combinations, i.e. residue-level [high (H) and low (L)], burning [burn (B) and no-burn (NB)], tillage [conventional tillage (CT) and no-tillage (NT)], and irrigation [irrigated (I) and non-irrigated (NI)], for magnesium content (kg ha⁻¹) trends over time between 2007 and 2014 in a wheat-soybean, double-crop system in eastern Arkansas. Coefficient estimates are categorized according to least significant differences (LSD), and coefficient estimates sharing a letter category are statistically similar.

Significant		Coefficient	
regression term [†]	Treatment combination	estimate	\boldsymbol{P}
	CT-NB-H-NI	-13.982 a	0.334
	NT-NB-L-NI	-14.149 a	0.328
	CT-NB-L-NI	-17.664 a	0.222
	NT-NB-H-NI	$-21.246a$	0.142
	$CT-B-L-I$	-39.221 ab	0.007
	$CT-B-H-I$	-44.523 ab	0.002
	$NT-B-H-I$	-49.491 ab	0.001
	$NT-B-L-I$	-51.191 ab	0.001
Linear	CT-B-H-NI	$-66.097 b$	< 0.001
	NT-B-L-NI	$-66.264 b$	< 0.001
	CT-B-L-NI	$-69.779 b$	< 0.001
	NT-B-H-NI	$-73.362 b$	< 0.001
	CT-NB-L-I	$-175.100c$	< 0.001
	CT-NB-H-I	$-180.400c$	< 0.001
	NT-NB-H-I	$-185.370c$	< 0.001
	NT-NB-L-I	$-187.070c$	< 0.001
	$NB-I$	9.581 a	< 0.001
	B-NI	3.223 b	< 0.001
Quadratic	$B-I$	3.025c	< 0.001
	NB-NI	0.626d	0.405

[†] Significant linear term indicates a trend over time that is statistically different from 0, and a significant quadratic term indicates a shift in the trend over time.

Table 19. Summary of the separation of estimate parameters of specific treatment combinations, i.e. burning [burn (B) and no-burn (NB)], tillage [conventional tillage (CT) and no-tillage (NT)], and irrigation [irrigated (I) and non-irrigated (NI)], for manganese content (kg ha⁻¹) trends over time between 2007 and 2014 in a wheat-soybean, double-crop system in eastern Arkansas. Coefficient estimates are categorized according to least significant differences (LSD), and coefficient estimates sharing a letter category are statistically similar.

Table 20. Summary of the separation of estimate parameters of specific treatment combinations, i.e. residue-level [high (H) and low (L)], burning [burn (B) and no-burn (NB)], tillage [conventional tillage (CT) and no-tillage (NT)], and irrigation [irrigated (I) and non-irrigated (NI)], for potassium content (kg ha⁻¹) trends over time between 2007 and 2014 in a wheat-soybean, double-crop system in eastern Arkansas. Coefficient estimates are categorized according to least significant differences (LSD), and coefficient estimates sharing a letter category are statistically similar.

Significant		Coefficient	
regression term [†]	Treatment combination	estimate	\boldsymbol{P}
	CT-NB-H-NI	14.370 a	0.395
	NT-NB-L-NI	-20.187 ab	0.232
	NT-B-H-NI	-29.996 abc	0.076
	CT-B-H-NI	-34.156 bcd	0.044
	NT-B-L-NI	-42.001 bcd	0.013
	$CT-B-L-I$	-44.093 bcd	0.009
	$NT-B-H-I$	-46.386 bcd	0.006
Linear	CT-NB-L-I	-47.346 bcd	0.005
	CT-B-L-NI	-50.672 bcd	0.003
	CT-NB-L-NI	-52.872 bcd	0.002
	NT-NB-H-NI	-53.970 bcd	0.002
	CT-NB-H-I	-55.793 bcd	0.001
	NT-NB-L-I	-62.038 bcde	< 0.001
	NT-NB-H-I	-73.395 cde	< 0.001
	$NT-B-L-I$	-80.816 de	< 0.001
	CT-B-H-I	$-103.270e$	< 0.001
	$CT-B-H-I$	4.730 a	< 0.001
	$NT-B-L-I$	3.824 ab	< 0.001
	NT-NB-H-I	3.325 abc	< 0.001
	NT-NB-L-I	2.945 abc	< 0.001
	CT-B-L-NI	2.714 abc	0.002
	NT-NB-H-NI	2.610 abc	0.003
	CT-NB-L-NI	2.484 abc	0.005
Quadratic	CT-NB-H-I	2.366 abc	0.008
	$CT-B-L-I$	2.244 bc	0.012
	CT-NB-L-I	2.014 bc	0.023
	$NT-B-H-I$	1.950 bc	0.028
	NT-B-L-NI	1.789 bc	0.044
	CT-B-H-NI	1.435 bc	0.105
	NT-B-H-NI	1.234 c	0.163
	NT-NB-L-NI	0.911c	0.303
	CT-NB-H-NI	$-0.928d$	0.294

[†] Significant linear term indicates a trend over time that is statistically different from 0, and a significant quadratic term indicates a shift in the trend over time.

Table 21. Summary of the separation of estimate parameters of specific treatment combinations, i.e. residue-level [high (H) and low (L)], burning [burn (B) and no-burn (NB)], tillage [conventional tillage (CT) and no-tillage (NT)], and irrigation [irrigated (I) and non-irrigated (NI)], for zinc content (kg ha⁻¹) trends over time between 2007 and 2014 in a wheat-soybean, double-crop system in eastern Arkansas. Coefficient estimates are categorized according to least significant differences (LSD), and coefficient estimates sharing a letter category are statistically similar.

Significant		Coefficient	
regression term [†]	Treatment combination	estimate	\boldsymbol{P}
	NT-B-H-NI	0.855a	< 0.001
	NT-NB-L-I	0.604 ab	0.002
	NT-NB-L-NI	0.465 abcv	0.014
	CT-NB-H-I	0.415 abc	0.029
	CT-B-L-NI	0.356 abc	0.060
	CT-NB-L-I	0.304 bc	0.108
	CT-NB-H-NI	0.276 bc	0.145
Linear	NT-B-L-NI	0.218 bcd	0.248
	NT-NB-H-I	0.215 bcd	0.255
	$NT-B-H-I$	0.202 bcd	0.285
	CT-NB-L-NI	0.165 bcd	0.383
	CT-B-H-NI	0.124 bcd	0.512
	NT-NB-H-NI	0.076 cde	0.687
	$CT-B-L-I$	-0.297 def	0.117
	$NT-B-L-I$	-0.435 ef	0.022
	$CT-B-H-I$	$-0.529f$	0.005
	CT-B-H-I	0.024a	0.014
	$NT-B-L-I$	0.020 ab	0.045
	$CT-B-L-I$	0.014 abc	0.162
	NT-NB-H-NI	-0.001 abcd	0.887
	CT-B-H-NI	-0.007 bcde	0.482
	CT-NB-L-NI	-0.007 bcde	0.475
	NT-NB-H-I	-0.009 cde	0.350
Quadratic	NT-B-L-NI	-0.012 cde	0.241
	CT-NB-H-NI	-0.013 cde	0.184
	$NT-B-H-I$	-0.013 de	0.184
	CT-NB-L-I	-0.015 de	0.133
	CT-B-L-NI	-0.018 def	0.076
	CT-NB-H-I	-0.021 def	0.034
	NT-NB-L-NI	-0.022 def	0.024
	NT-NB-L-I	-0.030 ef	0.002
	NT-B-H-NI	-0.045 f	< 0.001

[†] Significant linear term indicates a trend over time that is statistically different from 0, and a significant quadratic term indicates a shift in the trend over time.

Appendix C

This appendix contains an example of the SAS program used for the ANCOVA of residue level (N), burning (B), tillage (T), irrigation (I), and time (Year) effects on soil and plant properties trends over time. The full ANCOVA model was reduced using a hierarchal principle to remove non-significant terms, except when non-significant terms participated in higher-order, complex treatment combinations.

Title 'Ryan, N: Analysis of Co variance with all trt combn';

Data asa;

length trtcode1 trtcode2 trtcode3 trtcode4 \$**16**;

infile 'OMcontent_sas_soils_data_2014.csv' firstobs=**2** delimiter= "," lrecl=**400**;;

input obs year actualyear Plot tblock bblock rep T \$ B \$ N \$ I \$ OMcontent ; year2=year*year; Year3=year2*year;

```
label obs='observation #'
```

```
 year='year'
 plot='plot #'
 tblock='tillage block'
 bblock='burning block'
 rep='replication'
 T='tillage'
 B='burning'
 N='NRate level'
 I='Irrigation'
 OMcontent='Total carbon content (kg/m2)'
 year2='year square'
 year3='year cube';
```
run;

```
proc sort data=asa;
by T B N I year;
quit; 
ods rtf file='Final_OMcontent_122214.rtf' style=journal bodytitle;
title3 'P<.05';
proc mixed data=asa method=type3 ;
class T B N I rep;
model OMcontent= T
 I
           B
           N 
           T*I
           T*B
           I*B
           T*N
           I*N
           B*N 
           T*I*B
           T*I*N
           T*B*N
           I*B*N 
           T*I*B*N 
           year 
           year*T
           year*I
           year*B
           year*N
```
estimate 'Intercept NT-NB-H-I' intercept 1 t 0 1 b 0 1 n 1 0 i 1 0 t*b 0 0 0 1 t*n 0 0 1 0 t*i 0 0 1 0 b*n 0 0 1 0 b*i 0 0 1 0 n*i 1 0 0 0 t*b*n 0 0 0 0 0 1 0 t*b*i 0 0 0 0 0 1 0 t*n*i 0 0 0 0 1 1 0 0 h*n*i 0 0 0 0 1 1 0 0 0 t*b*n*i 0 0 0 0 **0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 1 0 0 0** ; estimate 'Intercept NT-NB-H-NI' intercept 1 t 0 1 b 0 1 n 1 0 i 0 1 t*b 0 0 0 1 t*n 0 0 1 0 t*i 0 0 0 1 b*n 0 0 1 0 b*i 0

0 0 1 n*i **0 1 0 0** t*b*n **0 0 0 0 0 0 1 0** t*b*i **0 0 0 0 0 0 0 1** t*n*i **0 0 0 0 0 1 0 0** b*n*i **0 0 0 0 0 1 0 0** t*b*n*i **0 0 0 0**

1 0 0 n*i **0 0 0 1** t*b*n **0 0 0 0 0 1 0 0** t*b*i **0 0 0 0 0 1 0 0** t*n*i **0 0 0 0 0 0 0 1** b*n*i **0 0 0 1 0 0 0 0** t*b*n*i **0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 1 0 0 0 0** ;

0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 1 0 0 ;

estimate 'Intercept NT-B-L-I' intercept 1 t 0 1 b 1 0 n 0 1 i 1 0 t*b 0 0 1 0 t*n 0 0 0 1 t*i 0 0 1 0 b*n 0 1 0 b*i 1 0 0 0 n*i 0 0 1 0 t*b*n 0 0 0 0 0 1 0 0 t*b*i 0 0 0 0 1 0 0 0 t*n*i 0 0 0 0 0 0 1 0 b*n*i 0 0 1 0 0 0 0 t*b*n*i 0 0 0 0 0 0 **0 0 0 0 0 1 0 0 0 0 0** ; estimate 'Intercept NT-B-L-NI' intercept 1 t 0 1 b 1 0 n 0 1 i 0 1 t*b 0 0 1 0 t*n 0 0 0 1 t*i 0 0 0 1 b*n 0 1 0 0 b*i 0

estimate 'Intercept NT-B-H-NI' intercept 1 t 0 1 b 1 0 n 1 0 i 0 1 t*b 0 0 1 0 t*n 0 0 1 0 t*i 0 0 0 1 b*n 1 0 0 0 b*i 0 **1 0 0** n*i **0 1 0 0** t*b*n **0 0 0 0 1 0 0 0** t*b*i **0 0 0 0 0 1 0 0** t*n*i **0 0 0 0 0 1 0 0** b*n*i **0 1 0 0 0 0 0 0** t*b*n*i **0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 1 0 0 0 0 0 0** ;

0 0 0 1 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 ;

estimate 'Intercept NT-B-H-I' intercept 1 t 0 1 b 1 0 n 1 0 i 1 0 t*b 0 0 1 0 t*n 0 0 1 0 t*i 0 0 1 0 b*n 1 0 0 0 b*i 1 0 0 0 n*i 1 0 0 0 t*b*n 0 0 0 0 1 0 0 0 t*b*i 0 0 0 0 1 0 0 0 t*n*i 0 0 0 0 1 0 0 0 b*n*i 1 0 0 0 0 0 0 t*b*n*i 0 0 0 0 0

0 0 0 1 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 ;

estimate 'Intercept CT-NB-L-NI' intercept 1 t 1 0 b 0 1 n 0 1 i 0 1 t*b 0 1 0 0 t*n 0 1 0 0 t*i 0 1 0 0 b*n 0 0 0 1 b*i 0 0 0 1 $n*$ i 0 0 0 1 $t*$ b $*$ n 0 0 0 1 0 0 0 0 $t*$ b $*$ i 0 0 0 1 0 0 0 0 $t*$ n $*$ i 0 0 0 1 0 0 0 0 $t*$ n $*$ i 0 0 0 0 0 0 1 $t*$ b $*$ n $*$ i 0 0 0 0 0

0 1 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 ;

0 1 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 ; estimate 'Intercept CT-NB-L-I' intercept 1 t 1 0 b 0 1 n 0 1 i 1 0 t*b 0 1 0 0 t*n 0 1 0 0 t*i 1 0 0 0 b*n 0 0 0 1 b*i 0 0 $10n*101$ $010t*5*00010000t*5*10010000t*100000$

estimate 'Intercept CT-NB-H-NI' intercept 1 t 1 0 b 0 1 n 1 0 i 0 1 t*b 0 1 0 0 t*n 1 0 0 0 t*i 0 1 0 0 b*n 0 0 1 0 b*i 0 0 0 1 n*i 0 1 0 0 t*b*n 0 0 1 0 0 0 0 t*b*i 0 0 0 1 0 0 0 t th*i 0 1 0 0 0 0 0 b*n*i 0 0 0 0 b f a b

estimate 'Intercept CT-NB-H-I' intercept 1 t 1 0 b 0 1 n 1 0 i 1 0 t*b 0 1 0 0 t*n 1 0 0 0 t*i 1 0 0 0 b*n 0 0 1 0 b*i 0 0 1 0 n*i 1 0 0 0 t*b*n 0 0 1 0 0 0 0 0 t*b*i 0 0 1 0 0 0 0 t*n*i 1 0 0 0 0 0 0 b*n*i 0 0 0 0 1 0 0 0 t*b*n*i 0 0 0 0 **1 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0** ;

0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 ;

0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 ; estimate 'Intercept CT-B-L-NI' intercept 1 t 1 0 b 1 0 n 0 1 i 0 1 t*b 1 0 0 0 t*n 0 1 0 0 t*i 0 1 0 0 b*n 0 1 0 0 b*i 0 1 0 0 n*i 0 0 0 1 t*b*n 0 1 0 0 0 0 0 t*b*i 0 1 0 0 0 0 0 0 t*n*i 0 0 0 1 0 0 0 0 b*n*i 0 0 0 1 0 0 0 t*b*n*i 0 0 0 1 0

0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 ; estimate 'Intercent CT-B-L-I' intercent 1 t 1 0 b 1 0 n 0 1 i 1 0 t*b 1 0 0 0 t*n 0 1 0 0 t*i 1 0 0 0 b*n 0 1 0 0 b*i 1 0 0 0 n*i 0 0 1 0 t*b*n 0 1 0 0 0 0 0 t*b*i 1 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 t*n*i 0 0 1 0 0 0 0 b*n*i 0 0 1 0 0 0 0 t*b*n*i 0 0 1 0 0 1

estimate 'Intercept CT-B-H-NI' intercept 1 t 1 0 b 1 0 n 1 0 i 0 1 t*b 1 0 0 0 t*n 1 0 0 0 t*i 0 1 0 0 b*n 1 0 0 0 b*i 0 1 0 0 n*i 0 1 0 0 t*b*n 1 0 0 0 0 0 0 t*b*i 0 1 0 0 0 0 0 t*b*i 0 1 0 0 0 0 t*n*i 0 1 0 0 0 0 t*n*i 0 1 0 0 0 0 0 t*b*n*i 0 1 0 0 0

estimate 'Intercept CT-B-H-I' intercept $1 \tcdot 1 \tcdot 0 \tcdot 1 \tcdot 0 \tcdot 1 \tcdot 1 \tcdot 0 \tcdot 1 \tcdot 0 \tcdot 1 \tcdot 0 \tcdot 0 \tcdot 1 \tcdot 1 \tcdot 0 \tcdot 0 \tcdot 1 \tcdot 1 \tcdot 0 \tcdot 0 \tcdot 1 \tcdot 1 \tcdot 0$ 0 0 n*i 1 0 0 0 t*b*n 1 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 t*b*i 1 0 0 0 0 0 0 t*n*i 1 0 0 0 0 0 0 b*n*i 1 0 0 0 0 0 t*b*n*i 1 0 0 0 0 0 **0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0** ;

 year*T*I year*T*N year*I*N year*T*I*N year2 year2*I / ddfm=kr ; random rep(T B N I); id T B N I;

estimate 'Intercept NT-NB-L-I' intercept 1 t 0 1 b 0 1 n 0 1 i 1 0 t*b 0 0 0 1 t*n 0 0 0 1 t*i 0 0 1 0 b*n 0 0 0 1 b*i 0 0 1 0 n*i 0 0 1 0 t*b*n 0 0 0 0 0 0 1 t*b*i 0 0 0 0 0 1 0 t*n*i 0 0 0 0 0 1 0 b*n*i 0 0 0 0 0 1 0 t*b*n*i 0 0 0 0 0 **0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 1 0** ;

estimate 'Intercept NT-NB-L-NI' intercept 1 t 0 1 b 0 1 n 0 1 i 0 1 t $*$ b 0 0 0 1 t $*$ n 0 0 0 1 $*$ i 0 0 0 1 $b *$ n 0 0 0 1 $b *$ i 0 0 0 1 n*i 0 0 0 1 t*b*n 0 0 0 0 0 0 1 t*b*i 0 0 0 0 0 0 1 t*n*i 0 0 0 0 0 0 1 b*n*i 0 0 0 0 0 0 1 t*b*n*i 0 0 0 0 0 **0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 1** ;

estimate 'Slope CT-B-H-I' year 1 year*t 1 0 year*b 1 0 year*n 1 0 year*i 1 0 year*t*n 1 0 0 0 year*t*i 1 0 0 0 year*n*i **1 0 0 0** year*t*n*i **1 0 0 0 0 0 0 0** ;

estimate 'Slope CT-B-H-NI' year 1 year*t 1 0 year*b 1 0 year*n 1 0 year*i 0 1 year*t*n 1 0 0 0 year*t*i 0 1 0 0 year*n*i **0 1 0 0** year*t*n*i **0 1 0 0 0 0 0 0** ;

estimate 'Slope CT-B-L-I' year 1 year*t 1 0 year*b 1 0 year*n 0 1 year*i 1 0 year*t*n 0 1 0 0 year*t*i 1 0 0 0 year*n*i **0 0 1 0** year*t*n*i **0 0 1 0 0 0 0 0** ;

estimate 'Slope CT-B-L-NI' year 1 year*t 1 0 year*b 1 0 year*n 0 1 year*i 0 1 year*t*n 0 1 0 0 year*t*i 0 1 0 0 year*n*i **0 0 0 1** year*t*n*i **0 0 0 1 0 0 0 0** ;

estimate 'Slope CT-NB-H-I' year 1 year*t 1 0 year*b 0 1 year*n 1 0 year*i 1 0 year*t*n 1 0 0 0 year*t*i 1 0 0 0 year*n*i **1 0 0 0** year*t*n*i **1 0 0 0 0 0 0 0** ;

estimate 'Slope CT-NB-H-NI' year 1 year*t 1 0 year*b 0 1 year*n 1 0 year*i 0 1 year*t*n 1 0 0 0 year*t*i 0 1 0 0 year*n*i **0 1 0 0** year*t*n*i **0 1 0 0 0 0 0 0** ;

estimate 'Slope CT-NB-L-I' year 1 year*t 1 0 year*b 0 1 year*n 0 1 year*i 1 0 year*t*n 0 1 0 0 year*t*i 1 0 0 0 year*n*i **0 0 1 0** year*t*n*i **0 0 1 0 0 0 0 0** ;

estimate 'Slope CT-NB-L-NI' year 1 year*t 1 0 year*b 0 1 year*n 0 1 year*i 0 1 year*t*n 0 1 0 0 year*t*i 0 1 0 0 year*n*i **0 0 0 1** year*t*n*i **0 0 0 1 0 0 0 0** ;

estimate 'Slope NT-B-H-I' year 1 year*t 0 1 year*b 1 0 year*n 1 0 year*i 1 0 year*t*n 0 0 1 0 year*t*i 0 0 1 0 year*n*i **1 0 0 0** year*t*n*i **0 0 0 0 1 0 0 0** ;

estimate 'Slope NT-B-H-NI' year 1 year*t 0 1 year*b 1 0 year*n 1 0 year*i 0 1 year*t*n 0 0 1 0 year*t*i 0 0 0 1 year*n*i **0 1 0 0** year*t*n*i **0 0 0 0 0 1 0 0** ;

estimate 'Slope NT-B-L-I' year 1 year*t 0 1 year*b 1 0 year*n 0 1 year*i 1 0 year*t*n 0 0 0 1 year*t*i 0 0 1 0 year*n*i **0 0 1 0** year*t*n*i **0 0 0 0 0 0 1 0** ;

estimate 'Slope NT-B-L-NI' year 1 year*t 0 1 year*b 1 0 year*n 0 1 year*i 0 1 year*t*n 0 0 0 1 year*t*i 0 0 0 1 year*n*i **0 0 0 1** year*t*n*i **0 0 0 0 0 0 0 1** ;

estimate 'Slope NT-NB-H-I' year 1 year*t 0 1 year*b 0 1 year*n 1 0 year*i 1 0 year*t*n 0 0 1 0 year*t*i 0 0 1 0 year*n*i **1 0 0 0** year*t*n*i **0 0 0 0 1 0 0 0** ;

estimate 'Slope NT-NB-H-NI' year 1 year*t 0 1 year*b 0 1 year*n 1 0 year*i 0 1 year*t*n 0 0 1 0 year*t*i 0 0 0 1 year*n*i **0 1 0 0** year*t*n*i **0 0 0 0 0 1 0 0** ;

estimate 'Slope NT-NB-L-I' year 1 year*t 0 1 year*b 0 1 year*n 0 1 year*i 1 0 year*t*n 0 0 0 1 year*t*i 0 0 1 0 year*n*i **0 0 1 0** year*t*n*i **0 0 0 0 0 0 1 0** ;

estimate 'Slope NT-NB-L-NI' year 1 year*t 0 1 year*b 0 1 year*n 0 1 year*i 0 1 year*t*n 0 0 0 1 year*t*i 0 0 0 1 year*n*i **0 0 0 1** year*t*n*i **0 0 0 0 0 0 0 1** ;

estimate 'Quad coeff I' year2 **1** year2*i **1 0** ; estimate 'Quad coeff NI' year2 **1** year2*i **0 1** ; **run**;

Quit;

proc print data=new noobs; where actualyear $\langle 2014 \rangle$ and abs(student) > 3.0 ; var year actualyear Plot tblock bblock rep T B N I OMcontent predicted sepred residual seresid student; **run**;

ods rtf close;

Appendix D

This appendix contains raw data from Chapter 2 used for the ANCOVA of residue level [i.e., Nrate; high (H) and low (L)], burning [burn (B) and no-burn (NB)], tillage [conventional tillage (CT) and no-tillage (NT)], and irrigation [irrigated (I) and non-irrigated (NI)], and time (Year) effects on soil and plant properties trends over time.

		actual		T	\bf{B}						Soy	Wht	Res	Spring	Summer					
obs # yr		vr		plot block block rep till burn Nrate Irr							Yld	Yld	Level	BD	BD	pH	EC	${\bf P}$	$\mathbf K$	Ca
-1	6	2007					CT	NB	H	I	2.34	0.47	5.34	1.19	1.19	7.56	0.08	36	137	1661
$\overline{2}$	6	2007	$\overline{2}$				NT	NB	L	I	2.55	0.7	5.41	1.20	1.12	7.48	0.07	33	123	1791
3	6	2007	3	2			NT	NB	H	I	2.58	0.49	4.77	1.29	1.25	7.32	0.08	38	120	1746
4	6	2007	4	$\overline{2}$			CT	NB	L	I	2.3	0.89	10.66	1.22	1.14	7.44	0.08	35	114	1642
5	6	2007	5	3	1	2	NT	NB	L	I	2.89	1.9	9.75	1.15	1.22	7.45	0.08	36	137	1894
6	6	2007	6	3	1	2	CT	NB	H	I	3.22	1.61	10.82	1.26	1.20	7.38	0.09	33	124	1758
7	6	2007	7	1	1	2	CT	NB	L	I	1.55	0.48	8.43	1.22	1.18	7.07	0.10	38	149	1752
8	6	2007	8			$\overline{2}$	NT	NB	H	I	1.35	0.25	5.42	1.25	1.21	6.98	0.07	37	162	1743
9	6	2007	9	$\overline{2}$		3	NT	NB	L	I	1.28	0.37	5.54	1.19	1.22	6.98	0.07	41	169	1973
10	6	2007	10	2	1	3	CT	NB	H	I	1.68	0.56	5.16	1.23	1.17	7.14	0.08	47	162	1800
11	6	2007	11	3	1	3	NT	NB	H	I	1.23	1.85	7.93	1.16	1.17	6.93	0.08	34	134	1715
12	6	2007	12	3	1	3	CT	NB	L	I	1.59	1.5	11.63	1.19	1.18	7.04	0.08	34	148	1864
13	6	2007	13				CT	B	L	I	2.78	1.23	9.16	1.19	1.19	7.73	0.10	44	106	1629
14	6	2007	14	1			NT	B	L	I	2.16	0.64	6.69	1.14	1.22	7.54	0.08	32	123	1484
15	6	2007	15	2	1		NT	B	H	I	1.82	1.55	9.72	1.20	1.22	7.46	0.08	29	127	1637
16	6	2007	16	2	1	2	CT	B	L	I	2.12	0.71	6.54	1.18	1.20	7.38	0.08	41	99	1380
17	6	2007	17	3		2	NT	B	H	I	2.17	1.75	8.37	1.17	1.28	7.47	0.08	26	88	1295
18	6	2007	18	3		3	CT	B	L	I	2.18	0.91	5.95	1.18	1.29	7.28	0.08	35	129	1727
19	6	2007	19	1	1		CT	B	H	I	2.38	0.43	7.21	1.21	1.22	6.96	0.09	46	187	2126
20	6	2007	20	1	1	3	NT	B	H	I	1.45	1.49	7.11	1.22	1.21	6.97	0.08	41	182	2029
21	6	2007	21	$\overline{2}$	1	$\overline{2}$	NT	B	L	I	1.49	1.16	8.98	1.24	1.20	7.03	0.08	40	174	2245
22	6	2007	22	$\overline{2}$		$\overline{2}$	CT	B	H	I	0.67	0.74	5.10	1.18	1.15	7.13	0.10	51	209	2282
23	6	2007	23	3	1	3	NT	B	L	I	1.45	0.97	5.43	1.22	1.25	7.28	0.10	43	178	2122
24	6	2007	24	3		3	CT	B	H	I	1.71	1.15	5.59	1.22	1.26	7.34	0.09	46	165	2033
25	6	2007	25		2	1	CT	B	H	NI	2.61	1.52	6.42	1.22	1.22	7.50	0.07	33	132	1720

Soy yield (Mg ha⁻¹), wheat yield (Mg ha⁻¹), residue level (Mg ha⁻¹), spring bulk density (g cm⁻³), summer bulk density (g cm⁻³), pH, electrical conductivity (EC; ds m⁻¹), phosphorus (P; kg ha⁻¹), potassium (K; kg ha⁻¹), and calcium (Ca; kg ha⁻¹).

Magnesium (Mg; kg ha⁻¹), sulfur (S; kg ha⁻¹), iron (Fe; kg ha⁻¹), manganese (Mn; kg ha⁻¹), zinc (Zn; kg ha⁻¹), and copper (Cu; kg ha⁻¹).

Soil organic matter concentration (OMconc), total soil nitrogen concentration (Nconc), total soil carbon concentration (Cconc), carbon-to-nitrogen ratio (C:N), soil organic matter content (OMcontent; kg m⁻²), soil nitrogen content (Ncontent; kg m⁻²), soil carbon content (Ccontent; kg m⁻²), carbon fraction of soil organic matter (Cfraction), and nitrogen fraction of soil organic matter (Nfraction).

Appendix E

This appendix contains an example of the SAS program used for the ANCOVA of the relationship between soil water potential (-MPa) and water content (g/g) as affected by residue level [Nrate; high (H) and low (L)], burning [burn (B) and no-burn (NB)], tillage [conventional tillage (CT) and no-tillage (NT)], and irrigation [irrigated (I) and non-irrigated (NI)].

```
Title 'Ryan, N: Analysis of Co variance with all trt combn'; 
Data asa;
* length trtcode1 trtcode2 trtcode3 trtcode4 $16;
infile 'water_potential_sas_data_2015.csv' firstobs=2 delimiter= "," 
lrecl=400;
input obs watercontent plot tblock bblock rep T $ B $ N $ I $
       lnwaterpotential ; 
label obs='observation #'
       watercontent='Water Content (g)'
      plot='plot #'
       tblock='tillage block'
      bblock='burning block'
      rep='replication'
      T='Tillage'
       B='Burning'
       N='NRate level'
       I='Irrigation'
       lnwaterpotential='Natural Log of Water Potential (Mpa)';
run;
proc sort data=asa;
by T B N I watercontent ;
quit;
proc print data=asa ;
run;
ods rtf file='Water Potential complete final.rtf' style=journal bodytitle;
title3 'P<.05';
proc mixed data=asa method=type3 ;
class T B N I rep;
model lnwaterpotential=
 N 
                  watercontent 
                  watercontent*N
                 / ddfm=kr ;
random rep(T B N I) ;
id T B N I;
estimate 'Intercept H' intercept 1 n 1 0 ;
estimate 'Intercept L' intercept 1 n 0 1 ;
estimate 'Slope H' watercontent 1 watercontent*n 1 0 ;
estimate 'Slope L' watercontent 1 watercontent*n 0 1 ;
run;
Quit; 
ods rtf close;
```

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```
Appendix F.

This appendix contains the raw data used for the ANCOVA of the relationship between soil water potential (-MPa) and water content (g/g) .

Appendix G

This appendix contains a graphical representation of the growing-season climate data presented in Table 1 of Chapter 3.

