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Is plant biomass input driving soil organic matter formation processes in grassland soil under contrasting management?

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23 **Abstract**

24 Grassland management practices vary in intensity (stocking rates, fertilization) and plant
25 removal strategies (grazing versus mowing). They influence organic matter inputs, which were
26 postulated as main controls of soil organic carbon (SOC) sequestration and might therefore control
27 SOC stabilization. The aim of this study was to test this hypothesis by investigating the impacts of
28 grassland harvesting regimes on parameters related to soil organic matter (SOM) formation
29 processes along a plant biomass input gradient. We used a thirteen-year experiment in Central
30 France under contrasting management (unmanaged, grazing with two intensities, mowing, bare
31 fallow), established a plant biomass input gradient based on biomass leftover after harvest and
32 investigated microbial functioning, necromass accumulation, organic matter degradation and SOM
33 accumulation processes. Our experimental approach included soil analyses for amino sugars,
34 microbial biomass C and N, basal respiration, seven enzyme activities and microbial growth
35 kinetics as indicators of microbial functioning and degradation processes.

36 Response of the parameters to plant biomass input along the gradient could be arranged into
37 four groups. Amino sugar content and microbial C/N ratio showed a linear response. SOC content
38 and SOC-dependent parameters (enzyme activities, active microbial biomass) showed a bell-like
39 response, most likely reflecting input diversity. Microbial activity showed a ripple-like response to
40 decreasing biomass input indicating its dependence on physiochemical conditions and root biomass,
41 while GluN/GalN and qCO_2 were not influenced by grassland harvesting regimes. These results
42 indicate that grassland harvesting management influences microbial activity and functioning not
43 only by changing plant biomass input, but also through its effects on soil (microbial) functioning
44 possibly related to changing physiochemical soil properties. We conclude that management controls
45 SOM formation through its indirect impacts on belowground (microbial) processes in addition to
46 modifying plant biomass inputs.

47 1. Introduction

48 Globally, grasslands have a soil organic carbon (SOC) sequestration potential of about 0.2 Gt
49 C year⁻¹ and may thus serve as a net sink for atmospheric CO₂ (Conant et al., 2001; Lal, 2004;
50 Randall, 2022) depending on their management (Smith et al., 2016; Whitehead et al., 2018;).
51 Therefore, detailed assessment of management effects is necessary as any agricultural activity can
52 induce positive or negative feedbacks in terms of plant productivity and biogeochemical carbon (C)
53 cycling in grassland systems (Schipper et al., 2017; Smith et al., 2008). In general, managed
54 grasslands are subjected to two contrasting harvesting regimes - grazing and mowing – interacting
55 differently with soil organic matter (SOM) dynamics and microbial functioning (Gilmullina et al.,
56 2020).

57 Both harvesting regimes lead to continuous carbon removal and also disturbance of soil
58 processes and biogeochemical cycling, through their impact on abiotic (e.g. soil compaction) and
59 biotic soil processes (e.g. plant activity). Differences between grazing and mowing are related to the
60 complex relationships between abiotic factors and the quality and quantity of aboveground and
61 belowground litter and their effects on SOM dynamics (Liu et al., 2014; Koncz et al., 2015). In
62 addition to this direct impact on the C cycle, grassland management influences the plant community
63 composition (Louault et al., 2005; Nerlekar and Veldman, 2020), plant physiological traits (Niu et
64 al., 2016) and plant litter composition (Gilmullina et al., 2021; Wang et al., 2022). In particular,
65 defoliation activity and contrasting nutrient sources under grazing and mowing may alter
66 aboveground and belowground input quality (Alber et al., 2014; Bardgett et al., 1998). Light and
67 moderate grazing were reported to enhance belowground C allocation, which in turn promotes
68 microbial functioning and increases SOC contents (Hewins et al., 2015; Wilson et al., 2018), while
69 heavy grazing decreases the SOC content (Han et al., 2008; Wang et al., 2017). The cessation
70 (abandonment) of grazing sites with reduced grazing intensity was reported to cause SOC losses
71 (Peco et al., 2017, 2006) and to decrease microbial metabolic efficiency (Aldezabal et al., 2015),
72 whereas after heavy grazing cessation soil may be improved and thus recover within times of about
73 25 years under a cold continental climate (Steffens et al., 2008). There are only few studies

74 comparing management practices under similar climatic conditions (Franzluebbers and
75 Stuedemann, 2009; Liu et al., 2014). Recently it was shown that both systems may have contrasting
76 effects on soil nutrient dynamics (Sun et al., 2023; Wang et al., 2022; Liu et al., 2023). Light
77 grazing and mowing (with N addition), may promote C sequestration, however, light grazing can
78 lead to more efficient microbial functioning and thus to higher C sequestration (Gilmullina et al.,
79 2020).

80 Grassland harvesting regimes thus affect microbial degradation processes in soil via their
81 influence on microbial activity (Chuan et al., 2020; Millard and Singh, 2010; Oates et al., 2012;
82 Sayer et al., 2013; Koncz et al., 2015). During plant litter degradation, microorganisms not only
83 produce CO₂ but they also convert plant-derived C into microbial biomass, which can be further
84 stabilized in soil (Liang et al., 2017; Ma et al., 2018). Whereas, the effect of land-use management
85 on microbial SOM degradation processes is broadly studied (Ali et al., 2018; Cui and Holden, 2015;
86 Xu et al., 2017), microbial SOM formation has received less attention (Liang et al., 2016;
87 Kallenbach et al., 2016).

88 While management affects aboveground biogeochemical cycling *directly* through altering
89 aboveground biomass input, and *indirect* through its belowground impact by altering habitat and
90 substrate availability for soil microbial communities. Both processes may affect SOC sequestration
91 through their impact on SOM formation. However, in the recent literature, carbon input was
92 identified as the main control of SOC sequestration (Fujisaki et al., 2018; Chenu et al., 2019),
93 although SOC stabilization is most likely controlled by microbial necromass formation and turnover
94 (Bhattacharyya et al., 2022). Therefore, in this study, we investigated different grassland
95 management practices (mowing and two different grazing intensities), which we conceptualized as
96 a gradient in terms of plant biomass input. In accordance with the recent literature, we hypothesized
97 that management intensity through its impact on plant-derived organic matter (OM) input controls
98 the processes leading to SOM formation. We aimed to investigate SOM formation by using this
99 gradient because investigation of changing (soil) properties along a gradient may have more power
100 to elucidate mechanisms than investigation of contrasting differences between the treatments

101 (Kreyling et al., 2018). We used a combination of microbial and biogeochemical analysis, enabling
102 to identify simultaneously microbial functioning, plant litter degradation products and microbial
103 residues.

104 We examined a thirteen-year experiment in temperate climate with four treatments including
105 (1) unmanaged, (2), high grazing intensity, (3) low grazing intensity, (4) mowing and (5) bare
106 fallow. These different treatments represent a plant biomass input gradient, which we established
107 based on aboveground biomass removal. We investigated SOC content, pH, and amino sugars
108 composition. Microbial functioning was characterised by microbial biomass C and N content,
109 fraction of active microorganisms, specific growth rate, basal respiration, metabolic quotient (qCO_2)
110 and specific enzyme activities. We hypothesised that SOC content would decrease linearly along
111 the input gradient together with microbial activity leading to decreased enzyme activities and
112 increased qCO_2 with decreasing plant C input.

113

114 **2. Materials and methods**

115 *2.1. Site description*

116 The study was conducted at the long-term experimental observatory (SOERE)
117 Agroecosystems, Biogeochemical Cycles and Biodiversity (ACBB) in western France. The site is
118 characterized by semi-continental climate with mean annual temperature of 8.7 °C and mean annual
119 precipitation of 770 mm. Before the start of the experiment in 2005, the grassland management at
120 the site was a mixed regime of fertilized mowing and grazing systems. The soil type at the site is
121 Eutric Cambisol developed on granitic bedrock. Each grassland management practice was
122 established on two blocks giving two field replicates. The initial soil general parameters before the
123 beginning of experiment are presented in the table 1.

124 We focused on three grassland management practices (low and high intensity cattle grazing
125 and mowing) representing a plant-derived OM input gradient, and two endmembers (unmanaged
126 site and bare fallow). At the unmanaged site, all plant biomass is returned to soil and this treatment
127 may, thus, be considered as a positive control in terms of plant-derived OM input. In grazing and

128 mowing systems, plant biomass is exported at increasing levels. As a negative control in terms of
129 plant-derived OM input we considered bare soil. On plots under mowing, there were three cutting
130 events per year and NPK fertilization to replace nutrients following aboveground plant biomass
131 removal (264 kg N ha⁻¹, 33 kg P ha⁻¹ and 189 kg K ha⁻¹, applied in 3 splits for N, early spring, after
132 the first and the second cuts and in 2 first splits for P and K). Under grazing treatments, plots were
133 rotationally grazed during the same times five times per year, with a full (high intensity grazing) or
134 partial (low intensity grazing) utilization of the grassland resulting from a modification of the
135 stocking density (respectively 13.8 and 6.9 LSU ha⁻¹) but having the same duration of grazing. On
136 unmanaged plots, no agricultural activity took place since 2005. In addition, a bare fallow plot was
137 considered, where vegetation was removed in 2005 and kept clean since then. Each treatment was
138 replicated twice (2x4 = 8 plots) except bare soil with only one plot, and having a plot size of 2200
139 m² (for grazing treatments), 400 m² (for unmanaged and mowing treatments) and 30 m² for bare
140 soil by mechanical means.

141 The grassland management practices may be placed along a carbon input gradient based on
142 aboveground plant biomass input, which represents the leftover after harvest (APBL) (Table 2). The
143 level of APBL presents plant material (i.e. shoots, stubble, litter), which is left after harvesting
144 events (grazing and mowing). APBL is the difference between the aboveground net primary
145 production (ANPP) and the biomass removed by grazing or mowing. It is important to note that
146 there is also loss of plant biomass under mowing occurring during mechanical removal, which may
147 comprise up to 20% of plant biomass. We consider this loss equal to the losses during grazing by
148 trampling without passing through livestock digestion system (about 30%) (Sanaullah et al., 2010),
149 thus, these losses are not included in our calculations. ANPP, in g DM m⁻² year⁻¹, is the sum of the
150 successive biomass accumulation along the year. The ANPP was measured for all grazing and
151 mowing treatments. For the unmanaged treatment, we used the assumption that ANPP is equal to
152 ANPP of low intensity grazing (Damien et al., 2015; Wu et al., 2019). For grazing and mowing
153 treatments, the ANPP was measured on four 0.6*0.6 m plots. The biomass was determined after
154 cutting at a height of 5.5 cm five times per year in grazed plots (i.e. at the beginning of each grazing

155 event) and three times per year at each harvest in mowing plots. At the beginning of each vegetation
156 period, the residual standing biomass was removed in the sampling plots and in addition in the
157 grazed plots, a fence was placed to avoid animal defoliation. The harvested biomass was estimated
158 in grazed plot based on the daily animal intake, which was calculated according to animal weight
159 and the number of animal grazing days per year per plot. In mowed plots, harvested biomass was
160 calculated based on the harvested forage yield. For unmanaged and bare fallow treatments, the
161 harvested biomass was set to zero (0). According to APBL we conceptualized the plant biomass
162 input gradient in the order of **Unmanaged > low intensity grazing > high intensity grazing >**
163 **mowing > bare fallow** (Fig.1).

164 2.2. *Soil sampling*

165 In late October 2018, soil was sampled at each plot replicate at 3 points (about 10 m apart)
166 resulting in six replicate samples per treatment except for bare soil. For the bare fallow treatment,
167 we sampled soil only at 2 points (n=4) because the plot size was not enough large and the soil is
168 more homogeneous due to plant removal. The plot effects and the unbalanced design were
169 accordingly considered during statistical analysis. Soil samples were collected with a mechanical
170 auger (8cm Ø, 10 cm) at 0-10 cm. In the laboratory, fresh soil samples were sieved at 2 mm and
171 split into two fine soil subsamples: i) a subsample for physico-chemical analysis (air-dried), and ii)
172 a subsample for microbial analyses (stored at 4°C). Prior to microbial analysis, soil samples were
173 pre-incubated at 22 °C for 7 days.

174 2.3. *Soil general properties*

175 Soil pH (H₂O) was measured in a soil:water suspension (1:2.5 weight/volume). SOC, nitrogen
176 (N) and stable isotope (¹³C and ¹⁵N) contents were measured with a CHN auto-analyzer (Flash EA,
177 Thermo Electron Corporation, Bremen, Germany) coupled with an isotope ratio mass spectrometer.
178 The isotopic ratios were calculated relative to the Pee Dee Belemnite Standard (PDB) for C and
179 relative to atmospheric N₂ for N.

180 2.4. *Amino sugar signature*

181 Amino sugars were extracted from soil following a method proposed by Zhang and Amelung
182 (1996). Soil samples were hydrolyzed with 6 M HCL at 105 °C for 8 h. After the acid was
183 evaporated, samples were purified by 1 M KOH addition and centrifugation. The supernatant was
184 freeze-dried and afterwards amino sugars were extracted by anhydrous methanol. Derivatisation to
185 aldonitrile acetates was performed by a derivatisation reagent consisting of 32 mg ml⁻¹
186 hydroxylamine hydrochloride and 40 mg ml⁻¹ 4-(dimethylamino) pyridine in pyridine-methanol
187 (4:1 v/v) for 30 min at 75–80 °C. Samples were then reheated for 30 min after adding 1 ml of acetic
188 anhydride. Remaining derivatization reagents were removed by three washing steps with
189 dichloromethane, 6 M HCl and deionised water. The organic phase was then dried under N₂ and
190 dissolved in ethyl acetate-hexane (1:1). Thereafter, 15 µg of the IS 2 tridecanoic acid methyl ester
191 (1 µg µl⁻¹) in ethyl acetate-hexane (1:1) were added.

192 Aminosugars were analysed gaschromatographically with a gaschromatograph (Agilent
193 7890 A) coupled to an Agilent 7000 A triple quadrupole mass spectrometer (Agilent, Waldbronn,
194 Germany). The compounds were separated on a 30 m OPTIMA® 17 column (phenylmethyl
195 polysiloxane, 50% phenyl, 0.25 mm I.D., 0.50 µm film thickness; Macherey-Nagel, Dueren,
196 Germany). Helium was used as the carrier gas with a flow rate of 1.1 ml min⁻¹. The temperature of
197 the GC oven was programmed at 120°C (isothermal) held for 1 min, then increased to 250°C at the
198 rate 5°C min⁻¹ and held for 2 min, then increased to the final temperature 280°C at the rate 10°C
199 min⁻¹ and held for 10 min (Banfield et al., 2017).

200 2.5. *Biological properties*

201 Soil microbial biomass C (MBC) and N (MBN) were determined by the chloroform
202 fumigation extraction method (Vance et al., 1987). Dissolved organic C and N in fumigated and
203 non-fumigated soil samples was extracted in 0.05 M K₂SO₄ and were measured using a multi C/N
204 analyzer (multi C/N analyser 2100S, Analytic Jena). MBC and MBN were calculated with a
205 conversion factor of 0.45 (Jenkinson et al., 2004).

206 Microbial growth kinetic parameters were estimated by using soil respiratory response to
207 unlimited nutrient amendments (Panikov and Sizova, 1996). For this purpose, soil samples were
208 treated with a solution (0.1 ml per g of dw soil) containing per g soil: 10 mg glucose, 1.9 mg
209 $(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{SO}_4$, 3.8 mg $\text{MgSO}_4 \cdot 7\text{H}_2\text{O}$, 0.11 mg K_2HPO_4 and 1.68 mg KH_2PO_4 . The proportions of
210 K_2HPO_4 and KH_2PO_4 were adjusted in order to avoid soil pH change of more than 0.1 units after
211 addition. The calculation of active microbial biomass (AMB) and specific growth rate was based on
212 the results of the substrate induced respiration rate fitted with a model proposed by Panikov and
213 Sizova 1996; Wutzler et al., 2012:

$$214 \quad CO_2(t) = A + B * \exp(\mu * t) \quad (1)$$

215 Extracellular enzyme activity was measured using the fluorometric technique (Koch et al.,
216 2007; Marx et al., 2005; Razavi et al., 2015). Seven types of fluorogenic substrates based on 4-
217 methylumbelliferone (MUF) and 7-amino-4-methylcoumarin (AMC) were used: (1) MUF- α -D-
218 glucopyranoside for α -glucosidase, (2) MUF- β -D-glucopyranoside for β -glucosidase, (3) MUF- β -
219 D-xylopyranoside for β -xylosidase, (4) MUF- β -D-cellobioside for β -cellobiohydrolase, (5) MUF-
220 N-acetyl- β -D-glucosamide for chitinase, (6) Leucine-AMC for leucine aminopeptidase and (7)
221 MUF-phosphate for phosphatase. Saturation concentrations of fluorogenic substrates were
222 determined in preliminary experiments and comprised 20 $\mu\text{mol g}^{-1}$ soil for all enzymes except lipase
223 with 60 $\mu\text{mol g}^{-1}$ soil. Briefly, a water extract of soil (1:10) was homogenised by low-energy
224 sonication (40 J s^{-1} output energy) for 60 s. Thereafter, 50 μl of the soil suspension were added to
225 150 μl of each substrate solution in a 96-well microplate. Fluorescence was measured at an
226 excitation wavelength of 355 nm and an emission wavelength of 460 nm (Victor3 1420-050
227 Multilabel Counter, PerkinElmer, USA).

228 2.6. Statistical analysis

229 All results are presented as arithmetic means with standard error. The statistical analyses were
230 conducted by using R software (Studio Version 1.1.447). We identified significant differences
231 ($P < 0.05$) of studied parameters between samples using ANOVA based on Type II sums of squares
232 with Tukey test due to unbalanced experimental design. Treatments and plots were placed as fixed

233 effects in the ANOVA model. The equation (1) was fitted by non-linear regression, using Model
234 Maker-3 software (SB technology Ltd.). To reveal the treatment effects, non-transformed data were
235 subjected to Principal Component Analysis (PCA).

236

237 **3. Results**

238 *3.1. Soil general properties and amino sugars*

239 Root biomass ranged between three to nine t ha⁻¹. It was lowest under low intensity grazing
240 (LGraz) and highest under mowing (MOW) (Table 3). Soil pH ranged between 5.2 and 5.9 and it
241 was the highest at the unmanaged (UM) and decreased in the order: high intensity grazing
242 (HGraz)=LGraz> (Mow)>Bare fallow (Bare). SOC content was similar under all treatments even
243 though, it tended to be the highest under LGraz. Absence of vegetation (Bare) resulted in 15-46%
244 lower SOC content compared to the other treatments. The C:N ratio was about 11 under UM, LGraz
245 and Mow, whereas it was slightly lower under HGraz and Bare. All managed sites together with
246 unmanaged site showed lower ¹³C enrichment compared to Bare. Across the managed treatments,
247 ¹⁵N was less enriched under LGraz and Mow compared to UM. Bare soil was also enriched in ¹⁵N.

248 Amino sugars contents were the highest under UM followed by lower values under managed
249 sites. The lowest amino sugars contents were observed for bare soil. Amino sugar content per SOC
250 did not differ significantly among all treatments. The ratio of glucosamine to galactosamine
251 (GlcN/GalN) was lowest under UM but there was no difference among other managed treatments
252 and bare soil.

253 *3.2. Microbial functioning and degradation processes*

254 MBC varied between 304 and 1314 µg g⁻¹. It was the highest under UM, followed by
255 similarly lower values for HGraz≥LGraz=Mow (Fig. A). MBC per SOC (MBC mg g⁻¹ SOC) and
256 basal respiration (mg CO₂-C g⁻¹) followed a similar pattern as MBC (Fig. 2, 3A). Microbial C:N
257 ratio did not differ between UM and grazing treatments but it increased under Mow and Bare (Fig.
258 2C). Basal respiration per SOC was the highest under UM (Fig. 3B). The metabolic quotient (qCO₂)
259 did not differ among managed and unmanaged treatments but the highest value was recorded under

260 bare soil (Fig. 3C). The AMB represented 0.5-1.1% of MBC. It decreased in the order
261 Mow=HGraz≥LGraz≥UM=Bare (Fig. 4A). Specific growth rate μ ranged between 0.15 and 0.24 h⁻¹
262 and was highest under Bare and UM (Fig. 4B).

263 C-cycle enzymes followed a similar pattern as the SOC contents but showed significant
264 differences between treatments (Fig. 5A). The lowest enzyme activities among managed practices
265 were observed for Mow. Only xylosidase activity was not sensitive to any treatment. Leucine
266 aminopeptidase activity was not affected by any grassland management. The highest phosphatase
267 activity was observed under grazing treatments. The highest enzyme activity per MBC was under
268 LGraz and Bare for all enzymes except leucine aminopeptidase (Fig. 5B). Leucine aminopeptidase
269 activity per MBC was similar among all treatments.

270 3.3. Response to biomass input

271 Our results indicated that the biomass input gradient resulted in 5 different kinds of response
272 form (Fig. 6): negative or positive linear, bell-like or reverse bell-like, ripple-like, and specific
273 response based only on the presence/absence of disturbance.

274 Only amino sugars content and microbial C:N ratio followed a *linear pattern*, which was
275 negative for amino sugars and positive for microbial C:N, i.e. amino sugars decreased with
276 increasing plant biomass input, while microbial biomass C:N increased. Total C and N content,
277 specific growth rate, relative AMB and absolute enzyme activity followed *bell-like form* (or the
278 reverse bell-like form) with highest values for LGraz. pH along with microbial parameters such as
279 MBC, basal respiration and specific enzyme activity had a *ripple-like* form with two peaks for UM
280 and HGraz treatments. Additionally, root biomass response also demonstrated ripple-like form but
281 with peaks at LGraz and Mow. The GluN/GalN ratio was significantly differentiated from other
282 treatments only for UM, whereas the metabolic coefficient (q_{CO_2}) showed significant differences
283 from other treatments only for bare fallow soil.

284 3.4. Principal component analysis

285 Principal component analysis enabled separation into three groups: UM, Bare and managed
286 sites all together (HGraz, LGraz and Mow) (Fig. 7A). The separation of control sites from grazed

287 and mowed sites was related to enrichment of ^{13}C and ^{15}N isotopes, higher specific growth rate and
288 lower percentage of AMB. UM and Bare were differentiated by SOC and N concentrations, MBC
289 and C-cycle enzyme activities, which showed higher values under UM. To eliminate the dominance
290 of the PCA by control treatments and thus to check if there is a differentiation among managed
291 sites, we applied PCA with exclusion of UM and Bare (Fig. 7B). There was a clear separation of
292 grazed and mowed sites. Mow was separated from LGraz and HGraz treatments by lower pH, SOC
293 and N contents and lower enzyme activities. Grazing treatments were also separated: HGraz was
294 characterised by higher basal respiration and MBC compared to LGraz.

295

296 4. Discussion

297 The study sites were chosen because we hypothesized changes in soil biogeochemical and
298 microbial properties due to management activities. Indeed, PCA analyses showed the sites could be
299 differentiated according to the management effects on biogeochemical and microbial parameters. In
300 particular, differences between mowing and grazing treatments in agreement with another study
301 were driven by contrasting pH, enzyme activities and microbial C:N ratios similar to finding
302 (Gilmullina et al., 2020). We further hypothesized gradual changes of soil biogeochemical and
303 microbial properties due to reduction of plant biomass input because it may be directly related to
304 microbial response and SOM dynamics (Bardgett et al., 1998; Lal, 2002). According to our
305 hypothesis, the biomass input gradient based on the APBL should increase linearly in the order:
306 Bare<Mowing<HGraz<LGraz<UM. However, our result indicated five different response curves:

307 4.1. *Properties linearly depending on plant biomass input*

308 Amino sugar content and microbial C:N ratio showed linear increase with increasing plant
309 biomass input. The site without plant biomass input (bare soil) showed lowest amino sugar content,
310 indicating lowest amounts of microbial residues in soil (Joergensen, 2018). This may most probably
311 be explained by the absence of organic substrates triggering the microbial community to use another
312 source of energy and nutrients (Ding et al., 2017). The amino sugar contents in soils may thus be
313 dependent on plant biomass input, which may provide N as well as C substrates for microbial

314 activity. High plant-derived C input at the UM site may thus have led to increased microbial
315 biomass resulting in intense microbial residue formation while absence of plant input in bare plots
316 led to their degradation. Despite the gradual increase of amino sugars along the input gradient, the
317 differences between managed grasslands were insignificant, indicating that contrasting management
318 had little impact on this parameter. This might be related to the short time (13 years) of the
319 experiment and to the fact that management effects on soil under similar land use are small. Even
320 after land use change, 6 years were necessary to detect the accumulation of microbial residues
321 (Ding et al., 2011). Similar results in other managed grassland soils indicate that neither the nature
322 of input (plant or animal) (Liang et al., 2007) nor plant diversity (Liang et al., 2016) had a strong
323 effect on amino sugar content.

324 The positive linear relation of microbial C:N ratio along the disturbance gradient indicated
325 that the decrease of plant input into soil resulted in the starving status of microorganisms or in the
326 selection of microorganisms with slow growth strategies. The absence of differences between
327 unmanaged and grazing treatments indicated that this parameter was only affected by the input
328 quantity but not by its nature. UM and grazing treatments showed similar microbial C:N ratio due to
329 sufficient organic matter input into soil, whereas N was lacking in soil under bare and under Mow
330 despite mineral fertilizer input. This could favor fungal communities, which may be more sensitive
331 to management than bacterial communities (Praeg et al., 2020).

332 4.2. *A bell-like or reverse bell-like form of response along the disturbance gradient*

333 A bell-like response curve along the disturbance gradient was observed for SOC and N
334 content, absolute enzyme activity and the relative proportion of active microbial biomass and the
335 specific growth rate, which followed a reverse bell-like form. It was interesting to note that positive
336 and negative controls presented by UM and Bare did not differ. Both treatments present quite stable
337 systems characterised by either continuous presence or absence of plant litter input.

338 As the input gradient was established based on differences of aboveground plant biomass
339 input, the bell-like form is most likely explained by belowground biomass input diversity. The top
340 of the “bell” under LGraz may indicate that different input types such as: dung input, root activity

341 (Shen et al., 2020), slog-off cells and decaying root debris (Berhongaray et al., 2019) could be the
342 reason of higher SOC content and SOC-dependent parameters (Bazot et al., 2005; Shen et al.,
343 2020). Our results are in agreement with studies on grazing exclusion, which was shown to shift to
344 lower belowground C allocation, consequently, decreasing total SOC (Sokol and Bradford, 2019;
345 Wilson et al., 2018). In bare soil, the absence of input coupled with ongoing decomposition will
346 result in continuous loss of SOC (Barré et al., 2010). We therefore suggest that all these bell-like
347 response parameters, were not dependent on the (aboveground) plant input but could reflect total
348 input diversity.

349 4.3. *A ripple-like form of response to disturbance gradient*

350 The pH, MBC, basal respiration and specific enzyme activity followed the ripple-like form,
351 whereas root biomass showed the opposite pattern, indicating that these soil properties were more
352 related to root biomass rather than to APBL. However, the relationship of pH, MBC, basal
353 respiration and specific enzyme activity with root biomass was negative. It was surprising to find
354 higher root biomass negatively influenced the specific enzyme activity supporting the idea that high
355 exudation provides easily-available substrates for the selected groups of microbial community
356 (Esperschütz et al., 2009; López-Guerrero et al., 2013). Probably, this selection could be also an
357 explanation of MBC decrease under high root biomass.

358 The presence of animals and fertilisation, which were not considered in our framework could
359 also influence pH (Aciego Pietri and Brookes, 2008; Steffens et al., 2008), which in turn affects
360 MBC and basal respiration. Even if it is quite complicated to estimate the amount of total input in
361 the UM and HGraz treatments, probably, high dung input under HGraz could compensate
362 aboveground biomass removal and maintain MBC and basal respiration at the same level as in UM.
363 High dung input activates microbial activity increasing decomposition processes (Bol et al., 2003),
364 however, substrate degradation processes might be directed to labile dung compounds rather than
365 SOM. Whereas, low pH under mowing and bare soil might be an explanation for the lower MBC
366 (Aciego Pietri and Brookes, 2008; Weigand et al., 1995).

367 Specific enzyme activity (enzyme activity per MBC) also showed a ripple-like response with
368 highest values for LGraz and bare soil. It is not surprising to observe high specific enzyme activity
369 in bare soils, in response to lack of available nutrient for soil microorganisms (Guenet et al., 2010).
370 It is more interesting that specific enzyme activity was also high under low intensity grazing. This
371 might be explained by small amounts of dung and urine input, which stimulated only few
372 microorganisms and was not enough to maintain the large fraction of microbial population at active
373 state. It's still surprising that specific enzyme activity remained high because it could have indicated
374 SOM degradation and consequently SOC content decline (Gilmullina et al., 2020), but SOC content
375 was highest under LGraz. Probably, in this case high specific enzyme activity only demonstrated
376 the microbial strategy investing energy in enzyme production rather than in biomass production
377 (Sauvadet et al., 2018). Thus, the metabolic activity of the microbial community was not following
378 the input gradient, which we established based on aboveground biomass and may not be directly
379 related to management intensity measured by APBL.

380 4.4. *Properties, which were responding only to control treatments*

381 The GlcN/GalN ratio indicating bacteria and fungal contribution (Joergensen, 2018)
382 responded to the presence of harvesting activities but was not influenced by biomass removal
383 intensity. Our results were supported by a study showing that arable land restoration by pasture
384 installation resulted in decrease of galactosamine (Lauer et al., 2011). Predominantly fungi-derived
385 galactosamine was demonstrated to be more resistant to degradation compared to bacteria-derived
386 components (Dippold et al., 2019; Gunina et al., 2017), thus, lower GlcN/GalN under UM could
387 also be explained by higher fungal residue contribution in the unmanaged system. In addition, it
388 seems that any long-term management activities decreases GlcN/GalN: higher GlcN/GalN was
389 found under undisturbed soil used as control compared to treatments receiving N addition or climate
390 change simulation (Liang et al., 2015). However, it was earlier proposed that this ratio could
391 represent amino sugars accumulation (Joergensen, 2018; Liang et al., 2015). In our case it is tricky
392 to claim the same. We would expect that galactosamine would increase under grazing decreasing

393 GlcN/GalN because cow dung contains much more galactosamine compared to different plant
394 materials (Jost et al., 2011).

395 In contrast, the metabolic quotient qCO_2 was sensitive only to the absence of any kind of
396 input: highest value under bare soil treatment indicated low efficient metabolism of fast growing
397 microorganisms and was mainly driven by belowground C allocation. However, the metabolic
398 quotient qCO_2 is known to be a representative and sensitive indicator of soil health (Okolo et al.,
399 2020), in our case this property was not sensitive and did not reflect the differences between
400 grassland management practices. This could be explained by the fact that grassland management
401 practices did not have a very strong effect on qCO_2 as compared to more destructive agricultural
402 management practices e.g. overgrazing or tillage systems (Kooch et al., 2020; Pabst et al., 2016)
403 and could maintain their soil health due to less destructive management.

404

405 **5. Conclusions**

406 We analyzed the effect of management intensity related to different harvesting regimes of
407 grassland soil on physicochemical, biogeochemical and microbial soil parameters. Our results
408 indicated that pH, microbial C:N ratio and enzyme activities could differentiate different soil
409 management practices. The response forms of the different parameters along a plant aboveground
410 biomass input gradient allowed us to identify their controls. Only amino sugar content and
411 microbial C:N ratio showed a linear pattern and were thus directly dependent on the plant biomass
412 input indicating its relationship to microbial necromass formation and microbial community
413 composition. The bell-like form group reflected the influence of other inputs and their quality
414 (belowground and animal input). Ripple-like form indicated that microbial activity was sensitive to
415 the change of soil physicochemical conditions and root biomass, which were probably in turn altered
416 by grassland management. The bacteria and fungal contributions and the metabolic quotient were
417 not influenced by management intensity.

418 We conclude that a gradient based on the evaluation of aboveground biomass input is suited
419 to evaluate management impacts on belowground functioning of grassland soils. Moreover, we

420 suggest that (aboveground) plant biomass input is a poor control of belowground microbial
421 functioning determining SOC dynamics, which might be more related to root activity.

422

423 **6. Conflicts of interests**

424 We state that there is no conflict of interests.

425

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435

436 **8. References**

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687 **Tables**

688 Table 1. Initial soil general parameters before beginning of the experiment in 2005.

Treatments	pH	SOC content mg g ⁻¹	N content mg g ⁻¹	C:N ratio
UM	6.04±0.02	43.5±1.2	4.04±0.15	10.8±0.1
LGraz	5.78±0.04	41.9±1.3	3.82±0.14	11.0±0.1
HGraz	5.87±0.05	43.7±1.3	4.00±0.11	10.9±0.1
Mow	5.88±0.07	36.1±1.6	3.29±0.10	10.9±0.2
Bare	5.86±0.14	38.5±2.5	3.55±0.26	10.8±0.1

689

690

691 Table 3. Soil general parameters. Values are shown as the average of six (four for Bare fallow) replicates and \pm SE. Significant differences
 692 between the treatments are indicated by lower case letters ($P < 0.05$).

Treatment	Root biomass t ha ⁻¹	pH	SOC content mg g ⁻¹	C:N ratio	N content mg g ⁻¹	$\delta^{13}\text{C}$ ‰	$\delta^{15}\text{N}$ ‰
UM	5.58 \pm 0.95a	5.9 \pm 0.07a	82.4 \pm 4.8a	11.1 \pm 0.1ab	7.4 \pm 0.4a	-27.4 \pm 0.07b	5.6 \pm 0.1b
LGraz	7.74 \pm 2.07a	5.7 \pm 0.05b	84.9 \pm 5.2a	11.1 \pm 0.1ab	7.6 \pm 0.5a	-27.7 \pm 0.06bc	4.9 \pm 0.1c
HGraz	3.69 \pm 1.1b	5.8 \pm 0.05ab	79.2 \pm 3.3a	10.8 \pm 0.1bc	7.3 \pm 0.3a	-27.8 \pm 0.08c	5.3 \pm 0.1bc
Mow	8.51 \pm 1.2a	5.3 \pm 0.05c	73.0 \pm 1.6a	11.2 \pm 0.1a	6.5 \pm 0.1a	-27.6 \pm 0.04bc	4.8 \pm 0.1c
Bare	-	5.2 \pm 0.06c	49.3 \pm 2.3b	10.7 \pm 0.0c	4.6 \pm 0.2b	-26.8 \pm 0.03a	6.3 \pm 0.1a

693

694 Table 4. Amino sugar signatures. Values are shown as the average of six (four for Bare
695 fallow) replicates and \pm SE. Significant differences between the treatments are indicated by
696 capital case letters ($P < 0.05$).

Treatment	Aminosugars		
	mg g ⁻¹ dry soil	mg g ⁻¹ SOC	GlcN/GalN
UM	2.54 \pm 0.23a	30.5 \pm 1.6a	1.49 \pm 0.05b
LGraz	2.29 \pm 0.15ab	27.2 \pm 1.0a	1.71 \pm 0.04ab
HGraz	2.46 \pm 0.16ab	28.4 \pm 1.7a	1.77 \pm 0.05a
Mow	1.98 \pm 0.14ab	27.2 \pm 1.7a	1.78 \pm 0.03a
Bare	1.69 \pm 0.26b	34.8 \pm 6.3a	1.79 \pm 0.13a

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698

699 Figure captions

700 **Figure 1.** Conceptual framework showing the management practices on the disturbance
701 gradient based on aboveground plant biomass removal.

702 **Figure 2.** Microbial biomass C concentration (MBC) and content (MBC per SOC), microbial
703 C:N ratio under three grassland management practices (low intensity grazing (LGraz), high
704 intensity grazing (HGraz) and mowing (Mow)), unmanaged (UM) and bare fallow (Bare).
705 Values are shown as the average of six (four for Bare soil) replicates and \pm SE. Significant
706 differences between the treatments are indicated by lower case letters ($P < 0.05$).

707 **Figure 3.** Basal respiration (A), Basal respiration (CO₂ per SOC) (B) and metabolic quotient
708 qCO₂ (C) under three grassland management practices (low intensity grazing (LGraz), high
709 intensity grazing (HGraz) and mowing (Mow)), unmanaged (UM) and bare fallow (Bare).
710 Values are shown as the average of six (four for Bare fallow) replicates and \pm SE. Significant
711 differences between the treatments are indicated by lower case letters ($P < 0.05$).

712 **Figure 4.** Active microbial biomass (AMB) (A) and specific growth rate μ (B) under three
713 grassland management practices (low intensity grazing (LGraz), high intensity grazing
714 (HGraz) and mowing (Mow)), unmanaged (UM) and bare fallow (Bare). Values are shown as
715 the average of six (four for Bare fallow) replicates and \pm SE. Significant differences between
716 the treatments are indicated by lower case letters ($P < 0.05$).

717 **Figure 5.** Absolute enzyme activity (A) and enzyme activity per MBC for the 7 enzymes
718 under three grassland management practices (low intensity grazing (LGraz), high intensity
719 grazing (HGraz) and mowing (Mow)), unmanaged (UM) and bare fallow (Bare). Aglu, bglu,
720 xyl, cello, chit, leu, phosph represent α -glucoside, β -glucoside, xylosidase, cellobiosidase,
721 chitinase, leucin aminopeptidase and phosphatase, accordingly. Values are shown as the
722 average of six (four for Bare soil) replicates and \pm SE. Significant differences between the
723 treatments are indicated by lower case letters ($P < 0.05$).

724 **Figure 6.** The response patterns of measured soil biogeochemical parameters to disturbance
725 gradient based on aboveground plant biomass leftover level.

726 **Figure 7.** Principal component analysis (PCA) of all measured soil variables under (A) three
727 grassland management practices (low intensity grazing (LGraz), high intensity grazing
728 (HGraz) and mowing (Mow)), unmanaged (UM) and bare fallow (Bare). PCA score plot (B)
729 represents only three grassland management practices (low intensity grazing, high intensity
730 grazing and mowing). Only variables with quality of representation (\cos^2) higher than 0.6
731 were shown on PCA plots.

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Unmanaged Low Grazing High Grazing Mowing Bare

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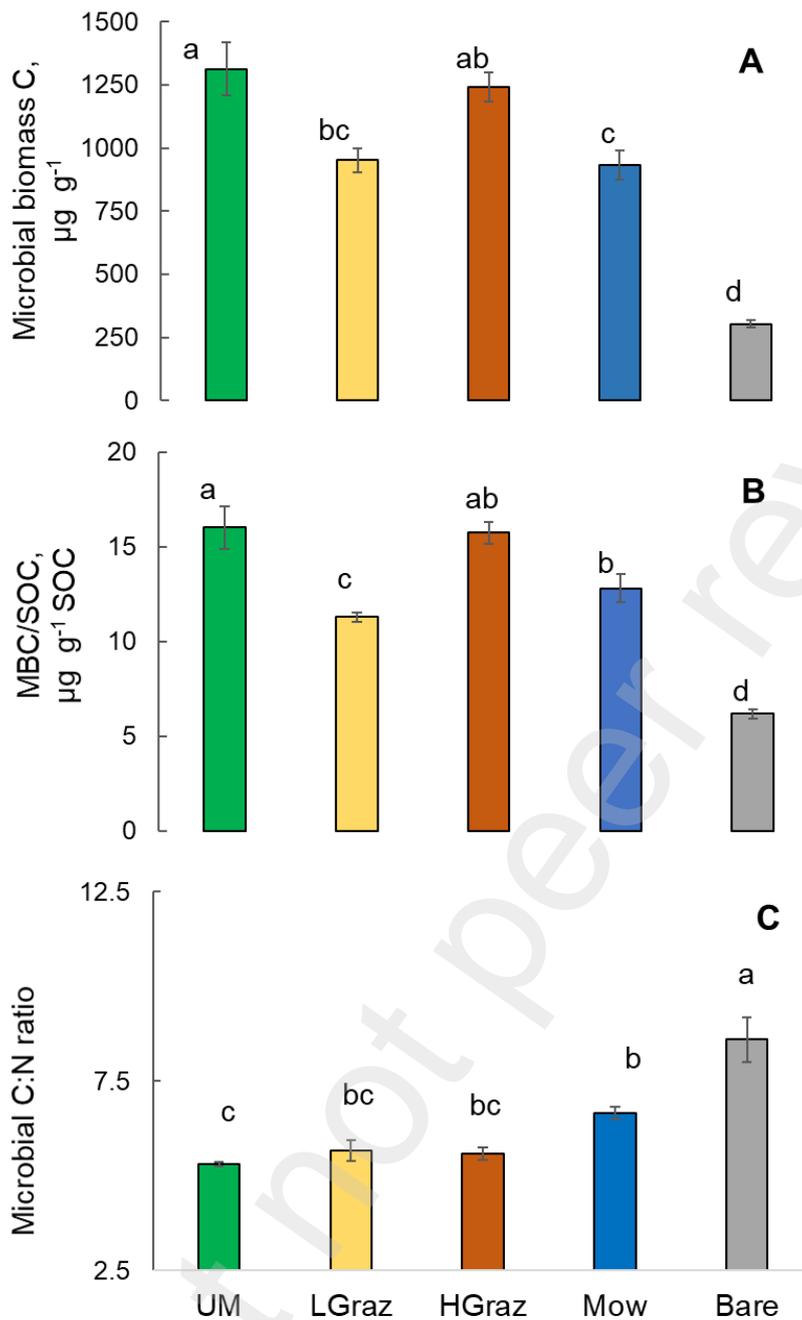
Figure. 1. Conceptual framework showing the management practices on the plant

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biomass input gradient

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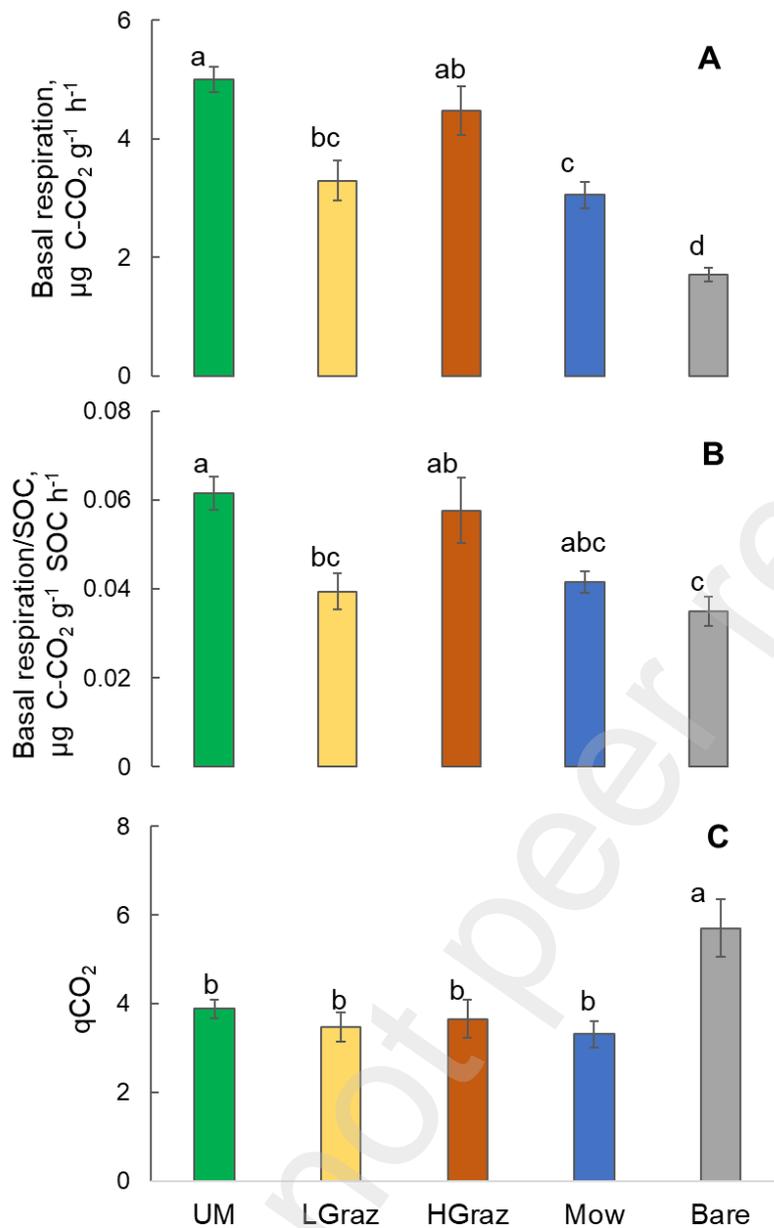
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737

738 **Figure 2.** Microbial biomass C concentration (MBC) and content (MBC per SOC), microbial
 739 C:N ratio under three grassland management practices (low intensity grazing (LGraz), high
 740 intensity grazing (HGraz) and mowing (Mow)), unmanaged (UM) and bare fallow (Bare).
 741 Values are shown as the average of six (four for Bare soil) replicates and \pm SE. Significant
 742 differences between the treatments are indicated by lower case letters ($P < 0.05$).

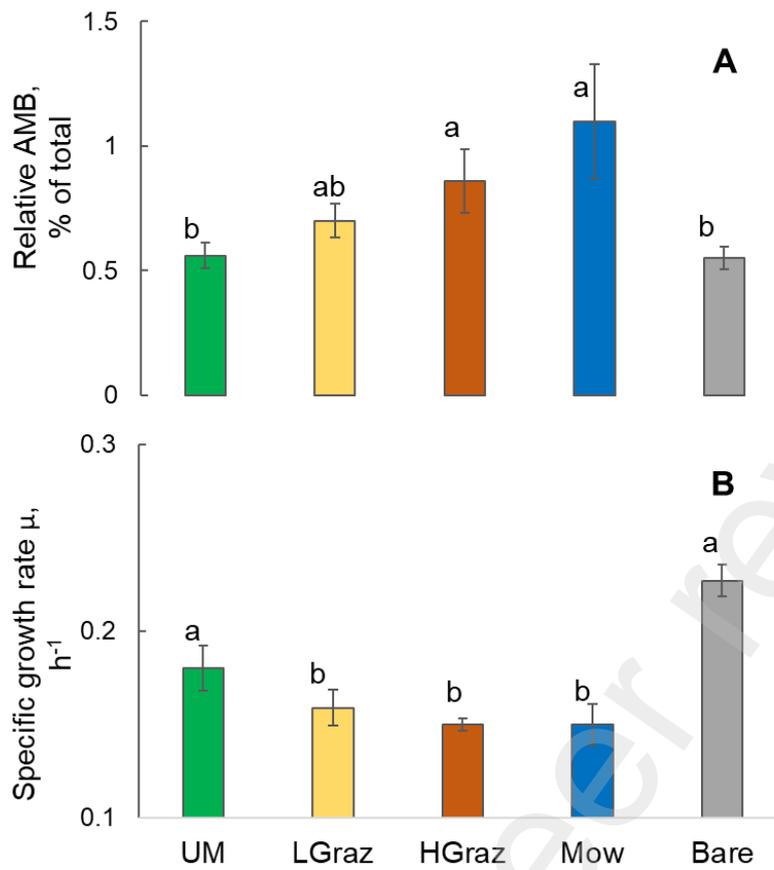
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744

745 **Figure 3.** Basal respiration (A), Basal respiration (CO_2 per SOC) (B) and metabolic quotient
 746 $q\text{CO}_2$ (C) under three grassland management practices (low intensity grazing (LGraz), high
 747 intensity grazing (HGraz) and mowing (Mow)), unmanaged (UM) and bare fallow (Bare).
 748 Values are shown as the average of six (four for Bare fallow) replicates and $\pm\text{SE}$. Significant
 749 differences between the treatments are indicated by lower case letters ($P < 0.05$).

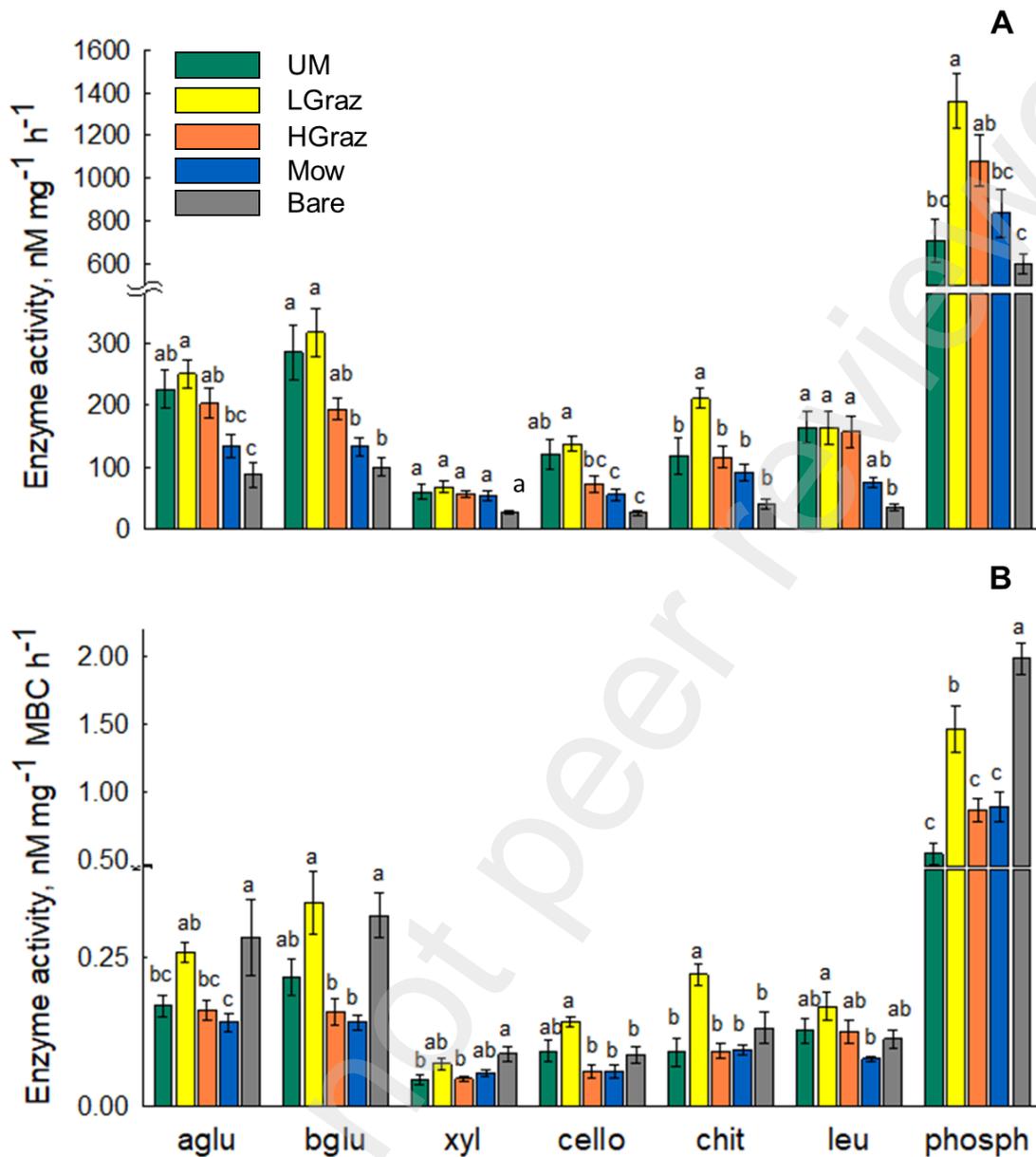
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751

752 **Figure 4.** Active microbial biomass (AMB) (A) and specific growth rate μ (B) under three
 753 grassland management practices (low intensity grazing (LGraz), high intensity grazing
 754 (HGraz) and mowing (Mow)), unmanaged (UM) and bare fallow (Bare). Values are shown as
 755 the average of six (four for Bare fallow) replicates and \pm SE. Significant differences between
 756 the treatments are indicated by lower case letters ($P < 0.05$).

757



758

759 **Figure 5.** Absolute enzyme activity (A) and enzyme activity per MBC for the 7 enzymes
 760 under three grassland management practices (low intensity grazing (LGraz), high intensity
 761 grazing (HGraz) and mowing (Mow)), unmanaged (UM) and bare fallow (Bare). Aglu, bglu,
 762 xyl, cello, chit, leu, phosph represent α -glucoside, β -glucoside, xylosidase, cellobiosidase,
 763 chitinase, leucin aminopeptidase and phosphatase, accordingly. Values are shown as the
 764 average of six (four for Bare soil) replicates and \pm SE. Significant differences between the
 765 treatments are indicated by lower case letters ($P < 0.05$).

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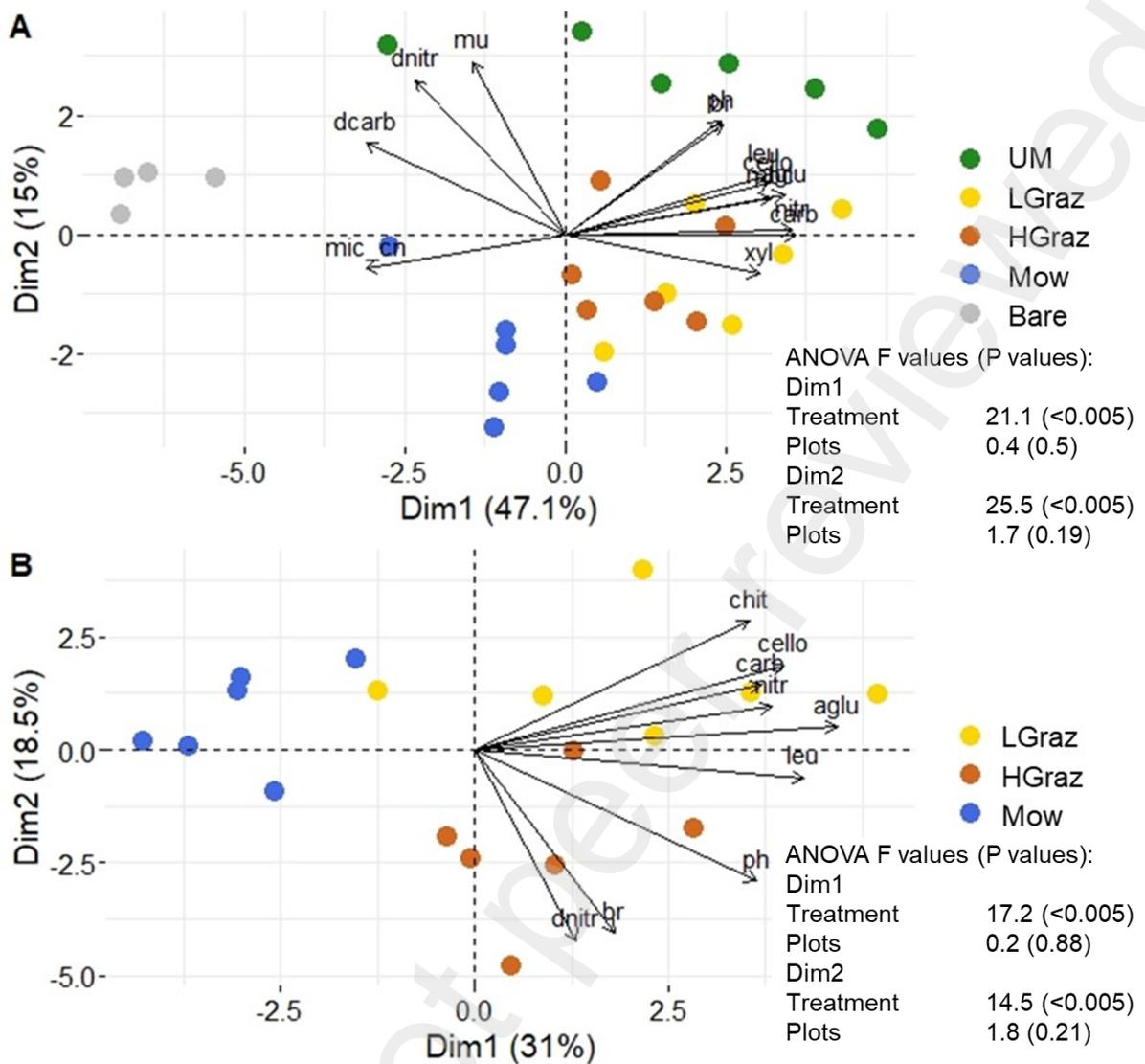
Name of dependence		Properties
Linear - Positive		Microbial C:N ratio
- negative		Amino sugars content
Bell-like form		SOC and N content Active microbial biomass Absolute enzyme activity
Reverse bell-like form		Specific growth rate
Ripple-like form		pH Microbial biomass C Basal respiration Specific enzyme activity
Specific - sensitive to any disturbance		Amino sugars <u>GluN/GaIN</u>
- sensitive to absence of any input		Metabolic quotient qCO_2

767

768 **Figure 6.** The response patterns of measured soil biogeochemical parameters to

769 disturbance gradient based on aboveground plant biomass leftover level.

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Figure 7. Principal component analysis (PCA) of all measured soil variables under (A) three grassland management practices (low intensity grazing (LGraz), high intensity grazing (HGraz) and mowing (Mow)), unmanaged (UM) and bare fallow (Bare). PCA score plot (B) represents only three grassland management practices (low intensity grazing, high intensity grazing and mowing). Only variables with quality of representation (\cos^2) higher than 0.6 were shown on PCA plots.

780 Table 2. Aboveground net primary production and aboveground plant biomass leftover under
781 four grassland management practices.

Treatments	Aboveground net primary production (ANPP) t ha ⁻¹ year ⁻¹	Used biomass t ha ⁻¹ year ⁻¹	Used %	Aboveground plant biomass leftover (APBL) t ha ⁻¹ year ⁻¹
UM	5.28±0.27	0	0	5.28
LGraz	5.28±0.27	2.88±0.09	50	2.4
HGraz	6.34±0.57	5.71±0.15	90	0.63
Mow	9.01±0.23	9.01±0.23	100	0
Bare	0	0	0	0

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