

This is the accepted manuscript version of the contribution published as:

Diel, J., Franko, U. (2020):

[Sensitivity analysis of agricultural inputs for large-scale soil organic matter modelling](#)
Geoderma **363** , art. 114172

The publisher's version is available at:

<http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.geoderma.2020.114172>

1 Sensitivity analysis of agricultural 2 inputs for large-scale Soil Organic 3 Matter modelling

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14 **Key words:**

15 uncertainty assessment; '4 per mille'; regional data;

16

17 **Software availability**

18 R and all its packages are freely available and licenced under the GNU General Public License ([www.r-](http://www.r-project.org)
19 project.org). CCB can freely be downloaded from <https://www.ufz.de/index.php?en=39729>.

20

21 **Highlights**

- 22 • First Sensitivity Analysis of regionalized cultivation data for SOM modelling
- 23 • Estimation of possible soil carbon stock changes for the federal state of Saxony
- 24 • Estimation of nitrogen mineralisation as source for ground water pollution
- 25 • Future data improvement should focus more on carbon stocks
- 26

Abstract

The dynamics of Soil Organic Matter (SOM) and its relation to the carbon and nitrogen cycle affect many environmental problems (e.g. climate change, food security and water quality). The development of adaptation strategies requires model predictions, but for the necessary large-scale SOM dynamic studies, the quality of the input data is often limiting the reliability of the results.

So we performed a uncertainty and sensitivity analysis at different sites of the federal state of Saxony, Germany, and assessed the importance of aggregated agricultural data, namely organic amendments, crop yields, area share of by-product incorporation, area share of conservation tillage and initial soil organic carbon (SOC) concentration (p_{oram} , p_{yield} , p_{bp} , p_{cons} and p_{soc} respectively) on the result uncertainty by assuming an uniform error of $\pm 10\%$. The agricultural data was regionalized from 717 long-term observation fields throughout the study region.

We assessed the uncertainties of relative SOC stock change (ΔC_{rel}) and total nitrogen mineralisation from the organic matter ($OM-N_{min}$) and explored the changing sensitivities over the model period (1998-2014).

Our results show that p_{soc} was the most important source of uncertainty for all sites of this study. For ΔC_{rel} , it is over the whole time constantly the by far most sensitive input parameter, with p_{bp} being the only factor of agricultural practice with some substantial influence on almost all sites. In the mountainous regions, p_{cons} ranks equal to p_{bp} , while for the sandy heathlands, none of them mark a substantial influence besides p_{soc} .

For $OM-N_{min}$, p_{soc} loses its importance over time, being outranked by p_{oram} in the heathlands after 8 years and in the mountainous regions after 13 years. p_{oram} furthermore places second for all others but one other region, where p_{cons} is slightly more important. We therefore see the initial carbon content, the share of by-product removal, and the amount of organic amendments as those factors, where improved data quality would bring the highest effect to reduce the uncertainty in regional SOM modelling.

52 1 Introduction

53 For regional to global soil organic matter (SOM) dynamic studies, the quality of input data is often a
54 main issue for the plausibility of the results (e.g. Grosz et al., 2017; Hoffmann et al., 2016; Luo et al.,
55 2016). While data sets of different detail are available for soil and climate, the necessary agricultural
56 data must either be modelled itself (with usually only one or two reference crops (Hoffmann et al.,
57 2016; Luo et al., 2013)) or be aggregated from existing survey data.

58 The inherent uncertainties of input data naturally lead to an uncertainty of the model outputs as
59 well. A sensitivity analysis can help to rank uncertainties of different data classes, which we will refer
60 to as factors from now on, to identify where a reduction of uncertainty would lead to the biggest
61 reduction of the respective output uncertainty, i. e. where further effort for data quality would be
62 put to best use (Saltelli et al., 2007).

63 The relation between SOM accumulation and agricultural management has gained a lot of interest
64 through the ongoing discussion about the '4 per mille: Soils for Food Security and Climate' initiative
65 (see for example Minasny et al., 2018 and references therein). Considering uncertain model inputs,
66 we investigated the possibility to reach the 4‰ goal, as a relative carbon stock change (ΔC_{rel}).
67 Dynamics of C and N in soil have a strong interaction and must not be assessed separately. Therefore
68 we also investigated the development of overall mineralisation of organic nitrogen (OM-N_{min}) as an
69 N source that reacts over several years on management changes and needs special consideration in
70 long term developments, like when building up SOM stocks.

71 We used the CCB model (Franko et al., 2011) to predict the SOM dynamics on agricultural land
72 depending on the individual site conditions given by soil texture, air temperature and rainfall as well
73 as land management data concerning cropping (crop type, yield and usage of by-products), organic
74 amendments (amount of slurry and farm yard manure) and soil tillage (conventional or
75 conservational). (Witing et al., 2019) showed that the CCB model does not need spatially or
76 temporally explicit data as can work well with aggregated data (several fields/years with the same

77 shares of cultivation). This dramatically simplifies regional studies of SOM dynamics, because it
78 reduces the heterogeneity of the necessary input data.

79 In our study, we used aggregated data from a scenario simulation of the federal state of Saxony,
80 Germany, covering the years 1990 to 2014. While climate data and soil physical parameters were
81 available at high spatial resolution, data regarding management and initial SOM concentration of
82 agricultural soils resulted from generalizing procedures that were based on 717 long-term
83 observation fields. The predicted variability of the state-wide scenario results from a combination of
84 real data variability (like climate data, soil types and crop yields) and stochastic variability within the
85 aggregated data (like share of conservation tillage and amount of organic amendments). Beside the
86 Sensitivity Analysis of five selected management parameters (see. section 2.3), we therefore also
87 compared the uncertainty given by our assumed data error with that given by “true” regional
88 heterogeneity.

89 There exists a vast amount of sensitivity measures, with constantly new developments. Overviews
90 are given in (Helton et al., 2006; Iooss and Lemaître, 2014; Iooss and Saltelli, 2016; Nguyen and Reiter,
91 2015; Saltelli et al., 2007). Depending on the model complexity and available computational time,
92 different measures may suit the question at hand better or worse. However, all of them relate the
93 change of a model output Y to the change of each model input X_i for which a probability distribution
94 or an uncertainty interval is defined. As our chosen model is based on first-order kinetics (Franko et
95 al., 2011 and Appendix), we assume linear relations between changing input quantities and results.
96 Hence we will compare the suitability of the computationally cheap squared Standardized Regression
97 Coefficient (sSRC) and the total sensitivity T index after Sobol', the latter being often referred to as a
98 standard procedure, but with high computational cost (Saltelli et al., 2010). We chose T over the First-
99 order Sensitivity Index S (that shall mathematically coincide with the sSRC for linear models) to
100 account for unforeseen nonlinearities in terms of higher-order interactions.

101 Altogether, in this study we analysed the importance of different sources of uncertainty on the
102 assessment of model results concerning SOM-C accumulation and SOM-N mineralisation.

103 **2 Material and methods**

104 **2.1 Model description**

105 CCB (Candy Carbon Balance) is a simplified version of the carbon dynamic model in CANDY (Franko
106 et al., 2011). It describes the turnover of soil organic carbon of the topsoil (0-30 cm) with first-order
107 kinetics in annual time steps for specific site conditions depending on crop yields, input rates of fresh
108 organic matter and the initial soil organic carbon (SOC) content (see Appendix for some formulas).
109 The turnover conditions are characterized by biologic active time (BAT) that is calculated from soil
110 texture, tillage system (Franko and Spiegel, 2016), and annual averages of rainfall and air
111 temperature (Franko and Oelschlägel, 1995). The annual BAT sum represents the hypothetical time
112 in days that is needed under optimal conditions in a laboratory to get the same amount of turnover
113 as in the real world over one year. Outputs of CCB include dynamics of SOC, SOM reproduction and
114 coupled SOM-N mineralization. The model was validated for a range of agricultural management
115 options and site conditions (Franko et al., 2011; Franko and Merbach, 2017; Franko and Spiegel,
116 2016).

117 The CCB approach uses conceptual pools that subdivide organic matter in soil into four
118 compartments: (1) several pools of fresh organic matter (FOM), (2) biological active soil organic
119 matter (A-SOM) where mineralization takes part and which is filled up with a matter specific part of
120 FOM turnover (C_{rep}), (3) stabilized soil organic matter (S-SOM) where a matter exchange is assumed
121 with the A-SOM pool and (4) long term stabilized soil organic matter (LTS-SOM) that was considered
122 inert in this study. For each year, the resulting amount of C_{org} is represented by the sum of all SOM
123 pools. The nitrogen flows are coupled through pool-specific C:N-ratios.

124 Fluxes are calculated with a first order approach depending on pool sizes and BAT. The
125 aforementioned C_{rep} summarizes the effect on SOM by: crop residues like stubble and roots, by-
126 products that were left on the field and org. amendments like slurry and manure and therefore, it
127 can be used as an area specific measure for the impact of agricultural practice on SOM.

2.2 Used data

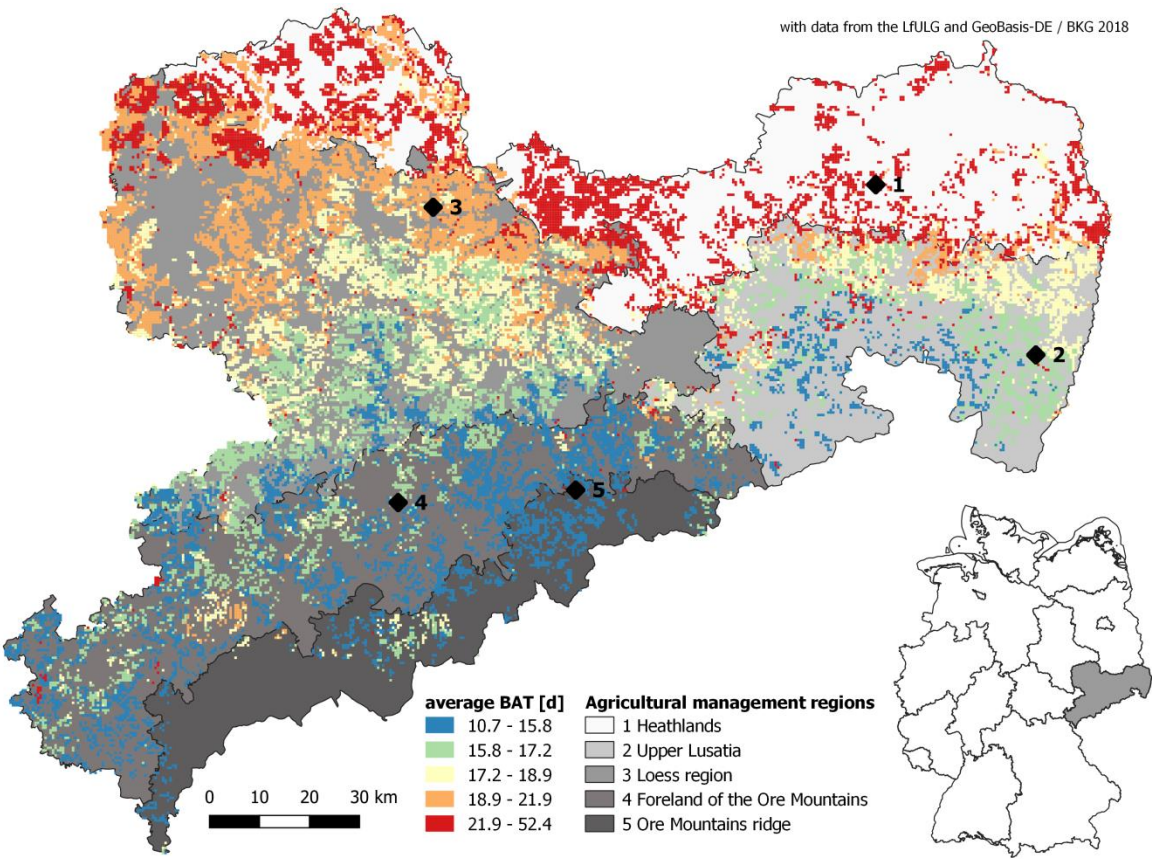
The data sets for our study were available from a survey aiming at a quantification of land use on the nitrogen load of surface waters. Soil texture was taken from the soil map BK50, provided by the Saxon State Office for the Environment, Agriculture and Geology (*Landesamt für Umwelt, Landwirtschaft und Geologie*, LfULG) on a 500 x 500 m grid, on which we performed our calculations. Climate data (temperature and precipitation) was provided at a 1x1 km grid by ReKIS (www.rekis.org, LfULG) and interpolated to fit our 500x500 m grid. The share of each crop was taken from the Integrated Administration and Control System IACS of the EU and - according to - as the primary goal of this scenario data - averaged annually for each catchment area of surface water bodies.

The initial SOC stock was calculated according to soil type, climate conditions and agricultural management, as described by (Witing et al., 2019). We let the model run for seven years (1990-1997) to account for the error of the initial steady-state assumptions and started evaluating the results from 1998 onwards.

Agricultural data comprised yields of main crops, crop specific amount of organic amendments (with a constant slurry /manure ratio of 67/33) considering their abundance, a constant share of by-product incorporation (40%) and the share of catch crops, which were assumed to be always left on the field. This data set from 717 long term observation fields (so called *Dauerbeobachtungsflächen*, provided by the LfULG) from all over Saxony, was averaged for five sub regions. Thus, although the general spatial resolution was high all management data had a more general character.

For our sensitivity analysis we focused on five factors, as described in Chapter 2.3, and their influence on a) the long-term change of SOM-C stocks over time (average change of stock between start year and model year, ΔC_{rel}), to see if and when the 4 per mille goal might be reached and b) on the corresponding yearly mineralisation of organic nitrogen ($OM-N_{min}$), as a measure for possible nitrate excess. Furthermore, we assessed the sensitivity onto these parameters regarding the length of the model period and the environmental conditions.

153 2.2.1 Site Description



154
155 **Figure 1: average Biologic Active Time (BAT [d]) for the model period (1998-2014). The classes have equal counts.**
156 **Black dots show the selected grid cells and the ID of the management region they represent**

157
158 Saxony is divided into five agricultural management regions (AMR, in german *Agrarstrukturgebiete*)
159 that are considered to be homogeneous. Specific agricultural recommendations are regularly
160 published for them by the local authorities LfULG. The main site characteristics are shown in Table 1.
161 For each agricultural management region we selected one site, i.e. grid cell, with the most
162 representative conditions. We therefore looked for cells that were closest to the mode of first the
163 turnover conditions (BAT), then of the carbon reproduction flux (C_{rep}) and finally of the initial SOC
164 stock. These characteristics are shown in Table 2.

165
166
167 **Table 1: Average environmental conditions and standard deviation of the regions for the time period of 1990-2014.**

region ID	Temperature [°C/a]	Precipitation [mm/a]	Main soil texture classes	C _{rep} [kg/ha/a]	SR / BP / OA [%]
1	9.6 ± 0.8	715 ± 137	S: 67%, SiL: 16%	841 ± 217	59 / 19 / 21
2	8.9 ± 0.9	825 ± 151	SiL: 84%, L: 8%	944 ± 223	57 / 23 / 20
3	9.5 ± 0.8	750 ± 141	SiL: 88%, L: 5%	966 ± 227	56 / 24 / 20
4	8.3 ± 0.9	903 ± 174	SiL: 77%, L: 18%	1038 ± 252	54 / 19 / 27
5	7.0 ± 0.8	1051 ± 165	SiL: 44%, L: 36%	1046 ± 261	59 / 13 / 28

Soil texture classes from the WRB (IUSS Working Group WRB, 2015). C_{rep}: amount of Carbon that actually enters SOM;

SR / BP / OA: share of Stubble and Roots, By-Products and Organic Amendments to C_{rep} (only averages)

For region 1, the Heathlands (“Heidegebiet”) we selected a pixel with sandy soil which is the dominant soil type here. It is both the warmest and driest region in Saxony and has good turnover conditions. It is characterized by low yields and low SOM stocks.

Silty loams dominate in region 2, Upper Lusatia (“Oberlausitz”), followed by loams. Together with region 3, the Loess Region (“Lößgebiet”), it is the most important agricultural area with the highest yield potential for demanding crops such as maize and wheat. The soil data discriminates the dominant WRB soil type SiL in region 3 after the German soil classification KA5 (Boden, 2006)) into two texture classes with almost equal share, namely Ut2 (clay/silt/sand: 12.5/70.83/16.67) and Us (clay/silt/sand: 4/77.5/18.5), while in region 2 it is almost exclusively classified as Ut2. These soils differ in their calculated initial SOC concentration; hence we selected a soil with higher clay content (Ut2) in region 2 and a soil with low clay content in region 3.

The Foreland of the Ore Mountains, region 4 (“Erzgebirgsvorland”) is characterized by higher precipitation and a lower average temperature as the aforementioned three regions. It is again dominated by silty loams, resulting altogether in a lower BAT compared to regions 2 and 3. It has a higher share of more robust cereals such as triticale and rye as well as pastures, with which the amount of organic amendments and overall C_{rep} increases.

In region 5, the Ore Mountains Ridge (“Erzgebirgskamm”), silty loams and loamy soils are almost equally frequent. Being the coldest and rainiest region, it has a large share of pastures and less

demanding cereals. Due to a combination of poor turnover conditions (the lowest BAT) with high amount of C input to soil (highest C_{rep}) we find here the highest SOM concentration of all regions.

Table 2: Average environmental conditions for the selected grid cells.

grid cell	BAT [d]	C_{rep} [kg/ha/a]	SOC_{ini} [M%]	C / U [M%]	WRB
G1	50.80	829	0.95	2.5 / 5	S
G2	17.2	944	1.66	12.5 / 70.8	SiL
G3	19.8	981	1.27	4 / 77.5	SiL
G4	15.8	1046	1.76	12.5 / 70.8	SiL
G5	12.7	1037	2.29	21 / 35.6	L

grid cell: selected grid cell of the respective region, BAT (Biologic Active Time) in [d], C_{rep} (Carbon reproduction flux) in [kg/ha/a], SOC_{ini} (initial SOC value) in [M%], C / U (Clay and Silt content, each in [M%], WRB (WRB soil texture class)

2.3 Sensitivity analysis

We used the values obtained from the data set described in section 2.2 as a baseline and assume an uniform distributed error of 10 per cent around this baseline for each input factor X_i under investigation (with $i = 1, \dots, k$, $k = 5$), as we had no better information on the distribution (Table 3). For the range, we oriented us on (Post et al., 2008) who show probability distributions for yield, org. amendments and initial SOC stock. But as we found no information for a possible error of tillage system or left by-product shares, we decided to simplify the error range overall by equalizing them.

Table 3: assumed error distributions of the input factors X_i .

input factor X_i	assumed error distribution
p_yield Yield of the main crops, from which the C-input is derived	uniform $\pm 10\%$
p_oram Fresh matter amount of organic amendments from livestock	uniform $\pm 10\%$
p_cons Tillage system (represented as share of conservational tillage)	uniform $\pm 10\%$
p_bp Spatial share where by-products are left on the field	uniform $\pm 10\%$
p_soc Initial SOC stock	uniform $\pm 10\%$

We characterised the sensitivities by two different indices, namely the squared Standardized Regression Coefficient (sSRC) and the Total Sensitivity Index after Sobol' (T) (Saltelli et al., 2007). Both indices build upon random (or in our case quasi-random) samplings from the devised uncertainty ranges of the input factors and relate the variance for each input factor to the variance of the model output.

208 The sSRC builds upon a linear regression with no interaction terms included, Y being the respective
 209 model output (ΔC_{rel} or OM- N_{min}):

$$210 \quad Y = \sum_{i=1}^k b_i \cdot X_i \quad (1)$$

$$211 \quad sSRC_i = \left(b_i \cdot \frac{\sigma(X_i)}{\sigma(Y)} \right)^2 \quad (2)$$

212 The parameters b_i were calculated through the `lm()`-function in R (R Core Team, 2018) and then
 213 standardised by multiplying with $\sigma(X_i)/\sigma(Y)$, with σ being the standard deviation. Squaring the value,
 214 $sSRC(X_i)$ becomes directly correlated to the Variances (σ^2) of X_i and Y. As the sSRC is based on a linear
 215 regression its exploratory power decreases the more the model is non-linear. However, as the sum
 216 of the sSRCs equals R^2 , it can give estimate for the fitness of this index (the closer the sum gets to 1,
 217 the better the fitness).

218 The Total order Sensitivity Index after Sobol' (T) has a more abstract, generalizing formulation, since
 219 it does not assume a linear relationship, but rather averages partial variances for N distinct values
 220 per factor. This 'model-free' approach of sensitivity measurement comes however at a higher
 221 computational cost. For a thorough derivation of the formula we refer the reader to (Saltelli et al.,
 222 2007).

223

224 The sensitivity analysis was conducted within the R environment, using the packages *sensitivity* and
 225 *multisensi*, to assess the temporal behaviour of ΔC_{rel} and OM- N_{min} for each year (Bidot et al., 2018;
 226 looss et al., 2018; Lamboni et al., 2009; R Core Team, 2018). We used the arithmetic average of the
 227 calculated yearly indices as a measure of the total importance.

228 We divided one Sobol' sequence of 10 dimensions (2k) and N= 1024 observations as implemented in
 229 the *randtoolbox*-package (Dutang et al., 2019) into two parts to get the necessary "independent"
 230 samples as they are required for the sensitivity analysis after Sobol' (Lo Piano et al., 2019; Saltelli et
 231 al., 2010), totalling in 7168 computations ($N_t = N \cdot (k+2)$) for each of the five pixels. During the
 232 computations, the sampled error was held constant. Afterwards, we computed the total-order
 233 sensitivity indices T_i after Jansen, for all $N = 2^m$ with $m = 4 \dots 10$, to be sure the indices became

numerically stable (Jansen, 1999; Saltelli et al., 2010, 2007). The squared SRC values were only calculated for the first set of samples, again for $N_t = N = 2^m$ computations with $m = 4 \dots 10$. They became stable after 128 runs. For the results shown, N of 1024 was used, as the calculation of T_i sometimes yielded negative numbers for small indices with $N = 512$.

3 Results

3.1 Uncertainty of the model results

The development of the relative change of the SOC stock ΔC_{rel} , with reference to 1997, is almost steady with only little exceptions Figure 2. For the first years up to around 2003, the stock is declining at all selected sites. From then onwards, there are increases at G1, G3 and G5 resulting in total increases of 2.72‰, 3.4‰ and 2.07‰, respectively. The stocks are more or less stable at G2 and G4. The interquartile ranges decrease slightly over time, ranging from 0.36‰ at G1 to 0.80‰ at G3 on average. They are always very close to the average and smaller than the overall respective changes, indicating little influence of the changed setup for most of the model runs. The maximum result range decreases too and is again smallest for G1 with 1.21‰ and biggest for G3 with 3.30‰ on average. Except for G1, the induced uncertainty is only slightly smaller than the respective regional uncertainty, where we evaluated all grid cells with the same soil in each region, so climatic influences and different crop share developments are present as well.

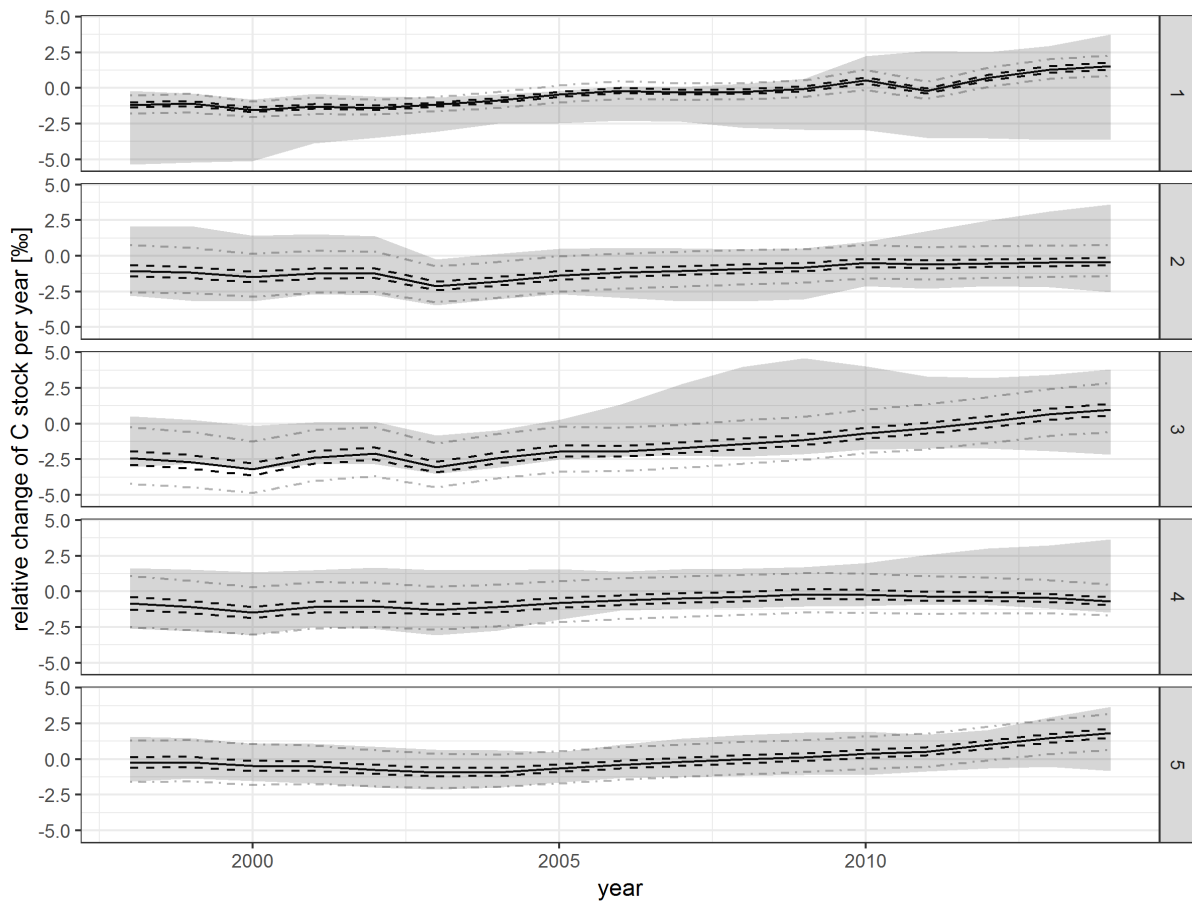


Figure 2: possible result range of relative SOC stock changes ΔC_{rel} to the year 1997 [%]. Black solid: mean value, black dashed: q25 and q75, grey dashed: minimum and maximum, grey ribbon: possible result range of all grid cells with the same soil in that region

OM- N_{min} shows a different picture, as it is much more influenced by yearly climate conditions (Figure 3). This can be seen for the year 2003, where an extremely dry and warm weather resulted in lower yields and high mineralisation rates for G2 and G3, and from the year 2010 onwards, from where on the share of cultivated crops became more differentiated. This leads to a two to six fold increase of the overall regional variability and a differing mineralisation only on the first of our five grid cells.

For the most part, the uncertainty interval (dotted lines in Figure 3) is quite stable for every grid cell with an average interquartile range of 5.2 kg/ha with a maximum uncertainty of 27.1 kg/ha for G4 in 2014. Overall, the induced uncertainty is smaller than the already existing uncertainty through environmental or agricultural changes.

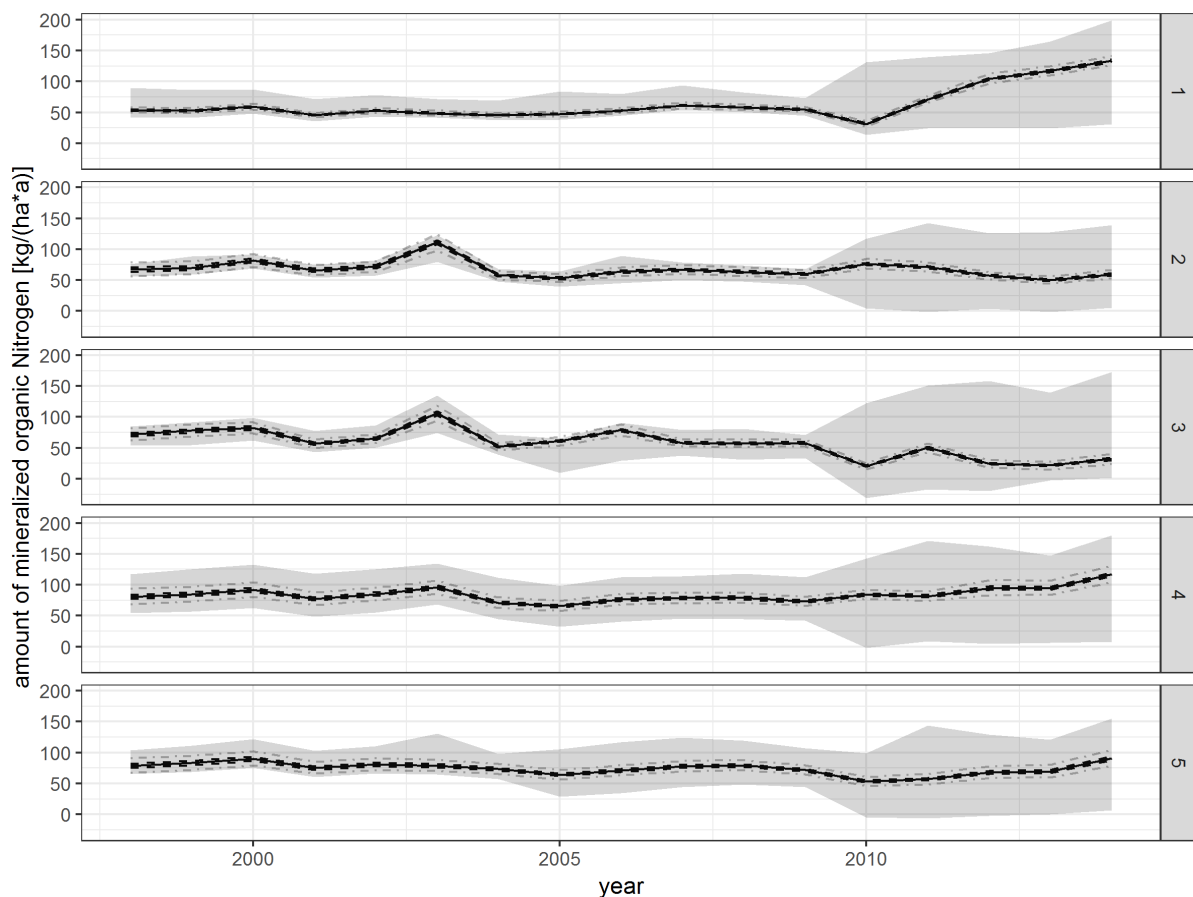


Figure 3: Possible result range of mineralised organic nitrogen ([kg/(ha*a)]). Black solid: mean value, black dashed: q25 and q75, grey dashed: minimum and maximum, grey ribbon: possible result range of all grid cells with the same soil in that region

3.2 Sensitivities

As stated above, OM-N_{min} is a highly dynamic variable. Therefore its sensitivity onto our input factors changes throughout the years. Figure 4 gives an example on how the nitrogen mineralisation responses on the given inputs. It shows in blue the slope of the standardized regression as indicator for sSRC that is the square of slope. The steepest regressions indicate the most sensitive input factors and the sign is not of importance. In the first year of the model run, the initial SOC content is by far the most dominant input parameter (little scattering, steepest regression). With time, its dominance is decreasing and other parameters may influence the result more (e.g. p_cons in 2014). Years with abrupt changes in the input constellations (like 2003) influence the slope of the regressions as well.

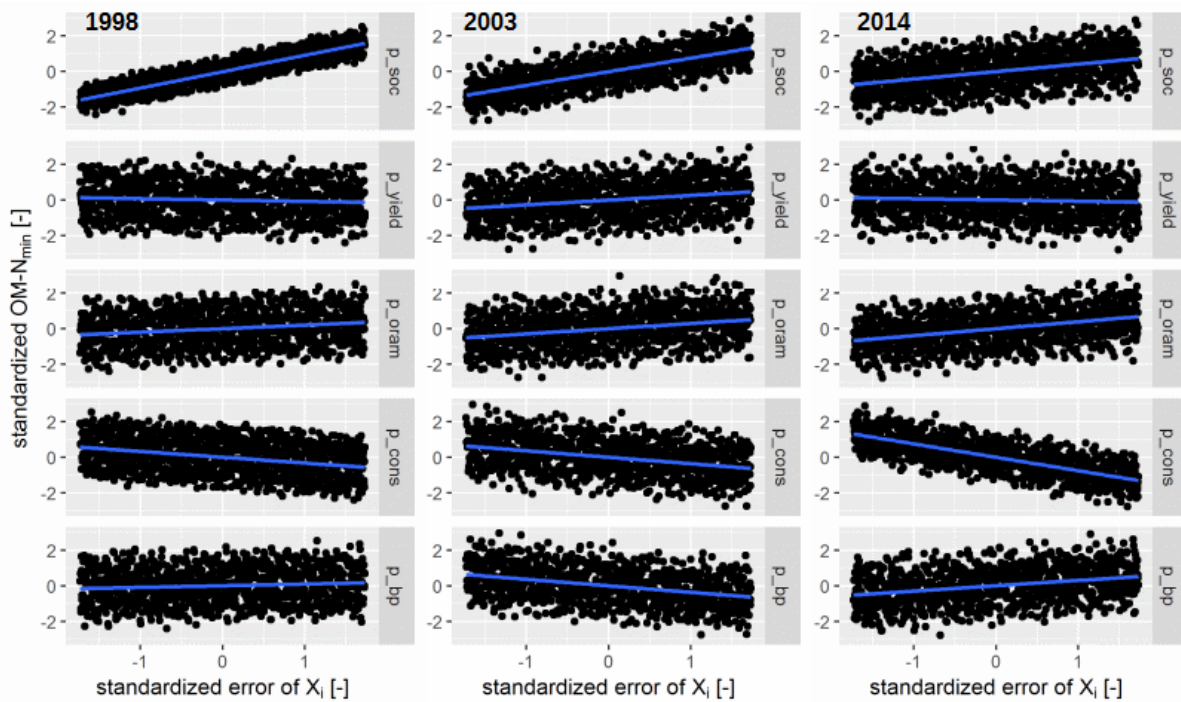


Figure 4: Scatterplots with linear regression of standardized OM-N_{min} (mineralized organic nitrogen, [-]) at G3 against the assumed standardized errors for all X_i [-] and the time steps 1998, 2003, 2014. p_{soc} : error of initial SOC stock, p_{oram} : error of amount of organic amendments, p_{cons} : error of area share of conservartional tillage, p_{bp} : error of by-product incorporation, p_{yield} : error of yield

Figure 5 shows the stacked sSRC values for both our target variables to get an overview over the changing importance of our input factors with time. As the values always sum up to (approximately) 1, our model can indeed be considered linear. A further indication is that for T_i , we get almost identical values, as the interaction terms were negligible (see Figure 6 for averaged values over the whole model period).

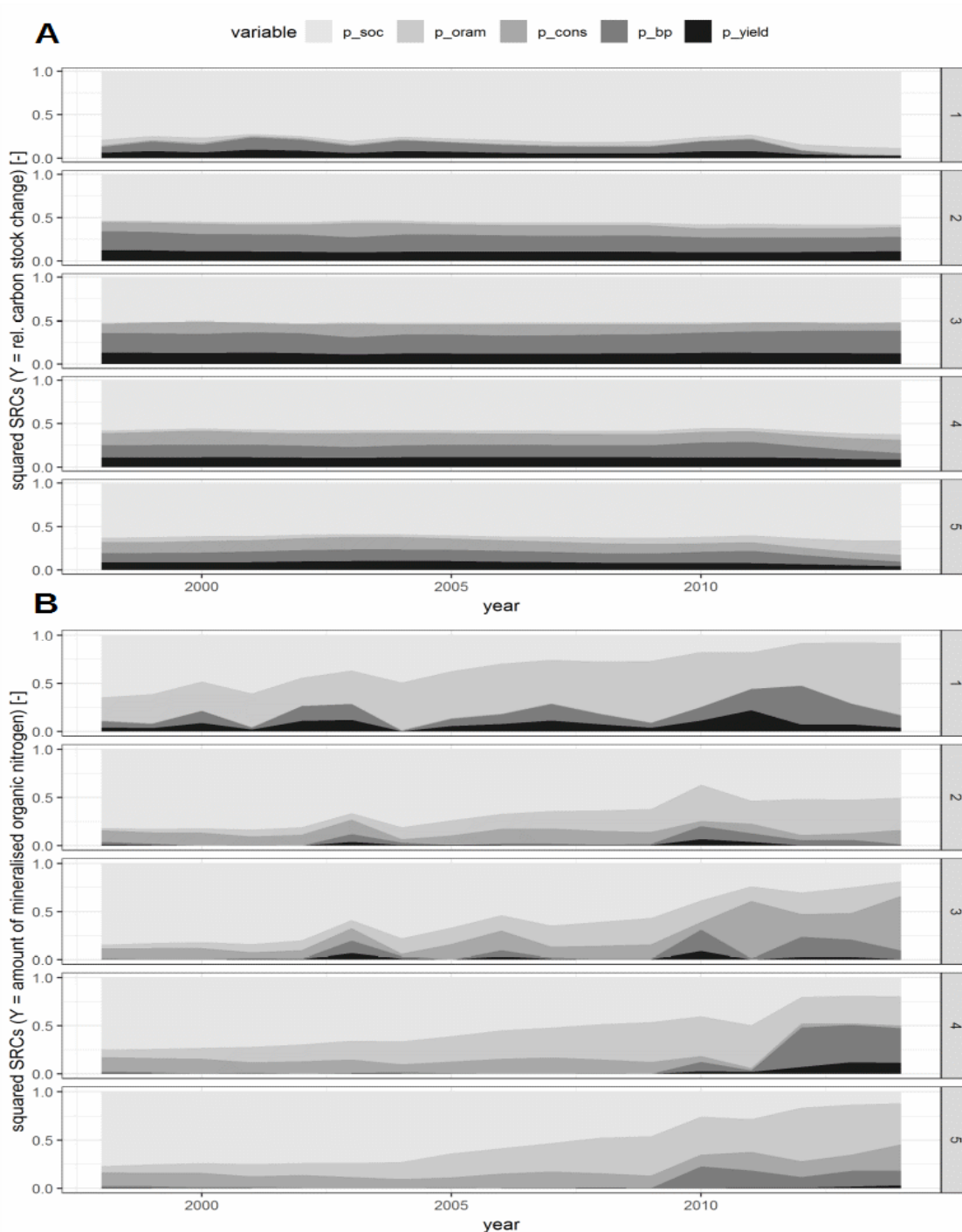


Figure 5: squared SRC values for all time steps and all Xi at each of the five sites.

A) Y = relative carbon stock change. B) Y = amount of mineralised organic Nitrogen. p_soc: error of initial SOC stock, p_oram: error of amount of organic amendments, p_cons: error of area share of conservational tillage, p_bp: error of by-product incorporation, p_yield: error of yield

297

298 As ΔC_{rel} develops quite steadily, the sensitivity indices of the input factors are quite steady as well.

299 The largest fluctuations are caused by p_{bp} . ΔC_{rel} is always dominated at least by 50% through p_{soc} .

300 For G2 and G3, p_{bp} has higher influence as well, which is almost always more important than

301 p_{yield} . The influence of p_{oram} is always very low, though it gains some importance after 2012 for

302 G1 and G5. p_{cons} has everywhere more or less the same importance, except for the sandy soil of

303 G1, where it has virtually no influence.

304

305 The dynamic of the sensitivity indices for the fluxes of $OM-N_{min}$ is, as the fluxes itself, higher. The

306 sensitivity onto p_{soc} decreases steadily over time, mostly to be replaced through an increasing

307 sensitivity onto p_{oram} . Again, the sensitivity against p_{yield} is always below the sensitivity against

308 p_{bp} . After 2010, the respective sensitivities change very differently throughout the sites. While for

309 G1 and G4, p_{bp} becomes more important, and G2 and G5 show the main increase at p_{oram} , G3

310 becomes more sensitive to p_{cons} .

311

312 The averaged sensitivity indices over the whole model period show in condensed form the dominant

313 role of the initial carbon stock, especially for ΔC_{rel} . But also for $OM-N_{min}$, only on the sandy soil with

314 low initial carbon (G1) the p_{oram} is more important, which again ranks second on all other sites but

315 G3, where it is close behind p_{cons} . The only agricultural factor that can have some notable influence

316 on ΔC_{rel} is p_{bp} .

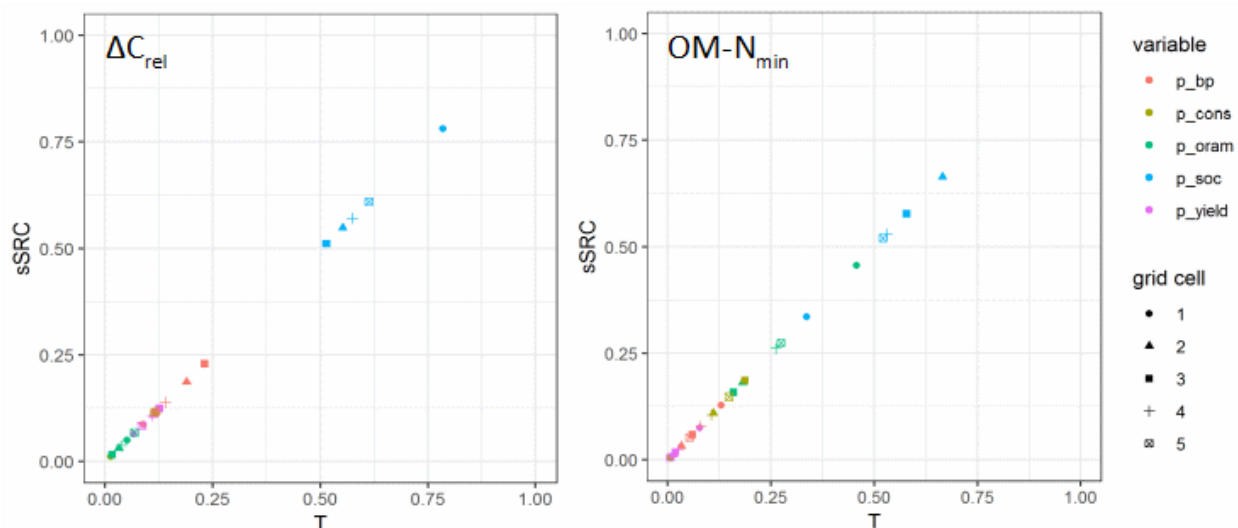


Figure 6: Averaged sensitivity indices over time. ΔC_{rel} : relative Carbon stock change, $OM-N_{min}$: mineralised organic Nitrogen. sSRC: squared Standardized Regression Coefficient, T: Total-order sensitivity index. p_{soc} : error of initial SOC stock, p_{oram} : error of amount of organic amendments, p_{cons} : error of area share of conservartional tillage, p_{bp} : error of by-product incorporation, p_{yield} : error of yield

4 Discussion

The initial SOC content, our most sensitive input factor, was also identified by other studies as one of the most influencing parameters (Post et al., 2008; Qin et al., 2017). Furthermore, it is probably one of the most uncertain factors as well, as it is almost always derived from the assumption to be in steady-state with a certain management that is extrapolated several years into the past. The question whether this steady-state, both in terms of quantity and quality (i.e. the distribution between the conceptual pools), is always reached, is an ongoing dilemma for SOM modelling (Luo et al., 2014; Wutzler and Reichstein, 2007). Here, we only assumed the quantity to be uncertain, but the presented approach could also account for the uncertainty of the quality. This would most certainly increase the uncertainty of the results and its importance even further.

(Qin et al., 2017) further lists the amount of organic amendments and the share of incorporated by-products within the four most influential parameters, which corresponds to our observations, despite the fact that a different model was used. We therefore consider these three as the variables on which future data collection should focus the most.

336

337 The spatial variability and differentiability of the model results within the regions is to be questioned,
338 especially regarding the carbon stock changes. Only for the sandy site of the Heathlands, with the
339 lowest initial SOC content and hence lowest “absolute error”, environmental and agricultural
340 influences account for remarkably more variability than our assumed error. To use an uniform error
341 of 10% might be a very general, but if the error distributions are known better, they can become
342 helpful in setting up well-differentiable regional data. If they are not known however, we think that
343 such a simple approach can already help to better assess the results in their reliability.

344 Already before 2010, the regional variability of OM-N_{min} is higher than for ΔC_{rel} , compared to our
345 assumed uncertainty at the respective grid cells. This shows, that for OM-N_{min}, different drivers that
346 were not accounted for in this study, have a substantial influence as well. These are for one, different
347 cropping spectra with different amounts of organic amendments, for another, varying weather
348 conditions. After 2010, changing survey methods lead to drastically changing data about crop shares
349 and hence drastically changing mineralisation rates, which is certainly a problem of many long-term
350 census data, as this is a kind of variability that is hard to cope with.

351

352 With 1997 as reference year, no grid cell would reach the 4‰ goal within the time span, no matter
353 of the sampled input uncertainty. Only with 2000 as reference, G3 would reach it for all sampled
354 combinations. That raises the question on the respective timespan under consideration. But it is also
355 a question, whether the selected soils are already close to their SOM content optimum (White et al.,
356 2018), if even the most benevolent conditions (lowest p_{soc} and highest p_{cons}, p_{yield}, p_{bp} and
357 p_{oram}) are sometimes far from 4‰. Also for OM-N_{min}, the factor ranking is very dependent on the
358 respective time frame, as the initial SOC content loses its priority after 8, 13 or more than the 17
359 years that were modelled, depending on the respective environmental and agricultural conditions.

360

361 (Luo et al., 2016; Ogle et al., 2010; Post et al., 2008) showed, that the biggest source of uncertainty
362 lies within the model parametrization itself, so the shown trends for the SOC stock may not be
363 significant at all. However, in this study we were not interested in the overall uncertainty, but on a
364 factor ranking to offer guidance for future data collection, given that CCB is a validated model that
365 should not be too far from reality.

366

367 For linear models, the most common type for soil carbon modelling, a simple and computationally
368 cheap sensitivity index is completely sufficient, especially with an economic sampling as provided by
369 the Sobol'-sequence. After already 128 model runs, the $sSRC_i$ became quite stable, whereas the
370 model-free approach of T_i required 7168 runs to not compute some negative indices at certain years
371 without adding any new information. With this, existing models could implement an uncertainty and
372 sensitivity framework with little effort, as this is partly done already in the Yasso07 model (Liski et
373 al., 2009).

374 5 Conclusions

375 Our selected approach was able to show how much uncertainty of selected model input factors was
376 transferred to the model results and how their influences may change over time. For short time
377 spans, the initial SOC content is the most influencing factor for both target variables. Regarding the
378 relative SOC stock change, all sensitivities are quite steady and the agricultural practices do not gain
379 influence over the whole model period of 17 years. Regarding the nitrogen mineralisation, it takes
380 more than 10 years for the agricultural practices to have more influence than the initial SOC content,
381 except for sandy soils with the lowest SOC content, where they dominate after already 7 years. For
382 this highly dynamic variable a sensitivity analysis, as it was conducted here, can help to disentangle
383 the various overlapping and contradicting influences.

384

385 For our model CCB, the linear sSRC_i and the “model free” T_i both yielded the same result, however at
386 totally different computational costs. So also for other SOM models that usually are linear, the sSRC
387 should be preferred.

388 **6 Declaration of interest / Funding**

389 Declarations of interest: none

390 The research was partly funded by the LfULG and partly by the Bundesanstalt für Landwirtschaft und
391 Ernährung, grant number: 281B302516

392

393 **7 Acknowledgements**

394 We would like to thank the LfULG and GALF (Gesellschaft für Angewandte Landschaftsforschung bR)
395 for the provision and pre-processing of data within the framework of the research project
396 “Dynamische Bilanzierung von Humushaushalt und Nährstoffaustrag im regionalen Maßstab im
397 Kontext von Landnutzungs- und Klimawandel – Phase 2: Bilanzierung von Stickstoffeinträgen in
398 sächsische Gewässer”

399 **8 Data availability**

400 The agricultural and soil data used is owned by the Landesamt für Umwelt, Landwirtschaft und
401 Geologie (LfULG), Sachsen, Germany and can be made available with prior consent.

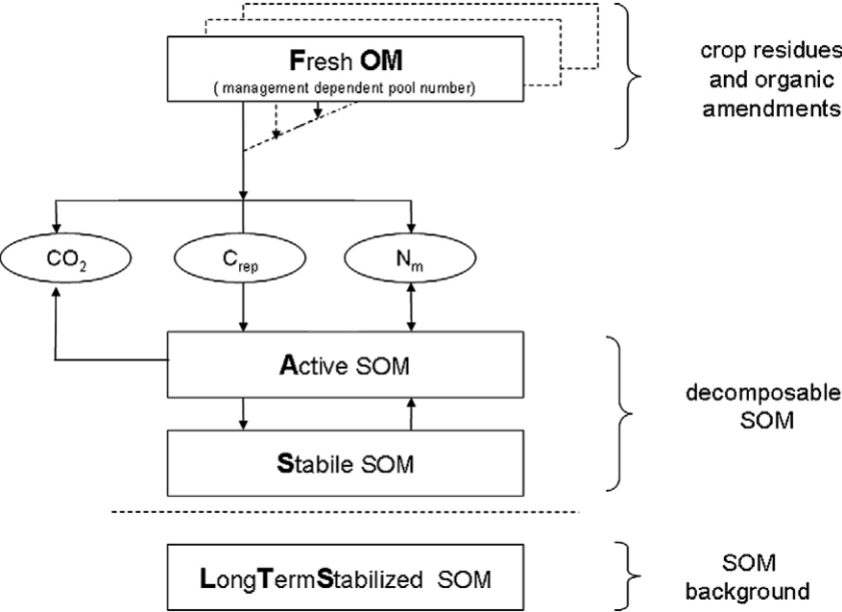
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494
495 **Figure A-1: Block scheme of the CCB model with pools (rectangles) and fluxes (ovals) (from Franko et al. 2011).** C_{rep} :
496 **carbon reproduction flux from fresh organic matter (FOM) to soil organic matter (SOM).** N_m : **nitrogen flux changing the**
497 **external pool of mineral nitrogen, which is not included in the model.** CO_2 : **release of carbon dioxide.** **LTS-SOM: long-**
498 **term stabilized soil organic matter with no turnover during simulation time**

499
500 The turnover of the pools is based on first order kinetics. The time step is represented through
501 Biologic Active Time (BAT) concept, that is further explained in (Franko and Oelschlägel, 1995 and
502 Franko and Spiegel, 2016) or the CCB manual. Each FOM is characterised by a specific turnover rate
503 k_i (A1) and a synthesis coefficient η_i (A2). Also the SOM pools have specific k_i values, with k_m being
504 the loss of CO_2 into the atmosphere (A3). For the initial distribution between C_{A-SOM} and C_{S-SOM} , please
505 refer to (Franko et al., 2011). In our study, p_{yield} , p_{bp} and p_{oram} had influence on the amount
506 of C_{FOM} , p_{cons} influenced the BAT and p_{soc} influenced the amount of the initial values of A-SOM
507 and S-SOM.

508

509

510

$$\dot{C}_{FOM} = \frac{dC_{FOM}}{dt} = -k_{FOM} \cdot C_{FOM} \quad (A1)$$

$$\dot{C}_{rep} = \dot{C}_{fom} \cdot \eta_{fom} \quad (A2)$$

$$\dot{C}_{A-SOM} = \dot{C}_{rep} + k_a \cdot C_{S-SOM} - k_s \cdot C_{A-SOM} - k_m \cdot C_{A-SOM} \quad (A3)$$

$$\dot{C}_{S-SOM} = k_s \cdot C_{A-SOM} - k_a \cdot C_{S-SOM} \quad (A4)$$

515

516 The carbon and Nitrogen fluxes are coupled via pool-specific C/N ratios, indicated as γ_i . Each FOM
 517 can have a different γ_i and the needed amount of N (N_{rep} , Eq. A6) for the reproduction of A-SOM
 518 might vary from year to year, so there can be a surplus (positive values) or a demand (negative
 519 values) of mineralized N ($OM-N_{min}$).

520

$$\dot{N}_{FOM} = \dot{C}_{FOM} \cdot \frac{1}{\gamma_{FOM}} \quad (A5)$$

$$\dot{N}_{rep} = \dot{C}_{fom} \cdot \eta_{fom} \cdot \frac{1}{\gamma_{A-SOM}} \quad (A6)$$

$$\dot{N}_{A-SOM} = k_m \cdot C_{A-SOM} \cdot \frac{1}{\gamma_{A-SOM}} \quad (A7)$$

$$OM - N_{min} = \dot{N}_{rep} + \dot{N}_{A-SOM} - \dot{N}_{FOM} \quad (A8)$$

525