

1 **Pruning residues incorporation and reduced tillage improve soil organic**
2 **matter stabilization and structure of salt-affected soils in a semi-arid**
3 **Citrus tree orchard**

4 Noelia Garcia-Franco^{1*}, Martin-Wiesmeier^{1,2}, Luis Carlos Colucho Hurtarte^{1,3}, Franziska Fella¹,
5 María Martínez-Mena⁴, María Almagro⁴, Eloisa García Martínez⁴, Ingrid Kögel-Knabner^{1,5}

6 ¹Chair of Soil Science, TUM School of Life Sciences Weihenstephan, Technical University of
7 Munich, Freising, Germany.

8 ²Bavarian State Research Center for Agriculture, Freising, Germany.

9 ³European Synchrotron Radiation Facility, Beamline ID21, Grenoble 38100, France.

10 ⁴Soil and Water Conservation Department, CEBAS-CSIC (Spanish Research Council), Campus de
11 Espinardo, P.O. Box 164, 30100 Murcia, Spain.

12 ⁵Institute for Advanced Study, Technical University of Munich, Garching, Germany.

13 Contact: *noelia.garcia-franco@wzw.tum.de

14 **Keywords:** drip-irrigation, particulate organic matter, aggregate stability, semi-arid
15 agroecosystems, irrigation; soil organic carbon

16 **Abstract**

17 Soil salinization is an emerging problem worldwide as a result of unsustainable land
18 management practices and climate change. However, salt-affected soils under agricultural use
19 could act as a C sink if these negative effects can be offset by combination of sustainable land
20 management practices (SLM). In this study, we assessed the effect of (i) intensive tillage along
21 with flood irrigation (IT); (ii) combination of no-tillage with pruning residues (branches and
22 leaves) as mulch, and drip-irrigation (NT+PM); and (iii) combination of reduced tillage with the

23 incorporation of pruning residues and drip-irrigation (RT+PI), on physico-chemical soil
24 parameters, aggregate stability, amount and quality of organic matter fractions and soil organic
25 carbon (SOC) sequestration in a lemon tree orchards (*Citrus limon* var. *Verna*) under semi-arid
26 climate conditions. The RT+PI management system showed a decrease in salinity and bulk
27 density, and increased soil porosity, soil OC and N stocks, and percentage of OC-rich
28 macroaggregates as compared to the IT system. The aggregate-occluded particulate organic
29 matter fraction (oPOM) played a key role in macroaggregate stability. The NT+PM treatment
30 also showed positive effects on the investigated soil properties, but this was limited to the
31 upmost topsoil (0-5 cm). The IT management system revealed highest values of salinity and bulk
32 density, and considerably lower SOC stocks. Moreover, a degradation of soil structure with a low
33 percentage of macroaggregates depleted in SOC was observed. We conclude that the
34 incorporation of pruning residues in combination with reduced tillage and drip-irrigation is an
35 effective management system to improve soil structure and facilitate SOC sequestration.
36 Therefore, conventional management systems based on intensive tillage and flood irrigation
37 should be abandoned in salt-affected soils under semi-arid climate conditions in favour of
38 systems with higher organic matter inputs incorporated into the soil combined with measures
39 to reduce the salt content.

40 **1. Introduction**

41 Around 40% of the world's food is produced on irrigated arid and semi-arid soils. However,
42 nearly 11% of these irrigated soils are saturated with salts (primary and/or secondary
43 formation), which is a widespread problem that threatens food security (FAO 2001; FAO 2009;
44 Qadir et al. 2001; Wicke et al. 2011, 2013). Environmental problems related to soil salinization
45 have existed for millennia and historical records displayed that many civilizations failed due to
46 increases in the salinity of agricultural fields, e.g. in Mesopotamia (Shahid et al. 2018). The
47 intensive land use of salt-affected soils (poor drainage, inappropriate irrigation, high

48 evaporation rate, excessive use of chemical fertilizer) causes severe degradation of these soils
49 (Amini et al. 2016; Wicke et al. 2011). These degraded soils are characterized by low soil organic
50 matter (SOM) contents and poor soil structure leading to reduced farmers' profits and finally to
51 land abandonment (Bernstein 1975; Brinck and Frost 2009; Cuevas et al. 2019; Lakhdar et al.
52 2009; Smedema and Shiati 2002). On the other hand, salt-affected soils can be very productive
53 if a properly management is done according to the environmental conditions, adapted crops and
54 soil properties (Amini et al., 2016; Gonçalo Filho et al., 2019; Rengasamy and Olsson, 1991).

55 Currently, the extent of salinization and sodification is projected to increase in the next decades
56 by up to 40% in arid and semi-arid ecosystems as a result of climate change (Bischoff et al. 2018;
57 Wong et al. 2010). Since global warming is leading to temperature increases and more frequent
58 droughts, evapotranspiration and thus salt accumulation increases in the root zone leading to a
59 decline of soil quality (Cuevas et al., 2019; Leogrande and Vitti, 2019; Shahid et al., 2018). The
60 decrease of organic matter (OM) inputs and the salinity-induced dispersion of clay particles with
61 the subsequent disruption of soil aggregates, resulting in decomposition of stabilized SOM, lead
62 to an overall decrease of soil organic carbon (SOC) stocks (Adu and Oades, 1978; Amini et al.,
63 2016; Manukyan, 2018; Wong et al., 2010). The SOC level is mainly dependent on C inputs from
64 vegetation/crops, which can be adversely impacted by salinity and sodicity, leading to less SOC
65 in these soils (Wong et al., 2010). However, salt-affected soils could act as a C sink if these
66 negative effects can be reversed (Bischoff et al., 2018; Omar et al., 2017). Thus, adequate
67 implementation of sustainable land management (SLM) practices in the long-term may change
68 the role of salt-affected soils from a source to a sink for greenhouse gases. The global technical
69 potential of C sequestration through the reclamation of salt-affected soils was estimated by 0.4-
70 1.0 Pg C yr⁻¹ (Lal, 2010). Therefore, the improvement of salt-affected soils is an urgent priority
71 to break the vicious circle of soil degradation.

72 Flood irrigation, which is the main irrigation system used for salt-affected soils, can lead to water
73 and nutrient losses by runoff and leaching losses, favoring the destruction of the soil structure
74 (Fentabil et al., 2016; Uckoo, 2005). As a result of an inappropriate irrigation management,
75 salinization and sodification of land continue to occur at an estimated rate of 0.25-0.5 M ha each
76 year (Wicke et al., 2013). There is ample evidence that agricultural SLM practices have positive
77 effects on soil aggregation and aggregate-related stabilization of SOC in many semi-arid
78 agroecosystems (Almagro et al., 2017; Garcia-Franco et al., 2015, 2018; Gu et al., 2016; Nieto et
79 al., 2011). The incorporation of OM in salt-affected soils (such as green manure, compost,
80 biochar, and food processing wastes) has been identified as a technique to reduce the negative
81 effects of salts on soil structure (Leogrande and Vitti, 2019; Tejada et al., 2006; Wang et al.,
82 2014) while improving physical conditions. However, studies on the fate of OM amended to salt-
83 affected soils and its effect on SOC stabilization and soil aggregate stability are scarce (Amini et
84 al., 2016; Chorom and Rengasamy, 1997; Wicke et al., 2013; Wong et al., 2010). Thus, there is a
85 knowledge gap regarding the amount and composition of different functional SOM pools and
86 the formation of aggregates in salt-affected soils as affected by SLM practices (Cong et al., 2017).

87 Eastern Spain (mainly the regions of Murcia and Valencia) is one of the semi-arid irrigated areas
88 where a high amount of Citrus (mainly oranges and lemons) is produced in Europe (Díez Calpena
89 et al., 2009; Hondebrink et al., 2017). Some of these citrus tree orchards were established on
90 Calcisols and Solonchaks. In the early 1980s, conservation tillage was implemented to improve
91 the retention of water in the soil and reduce erosion (Giráldez et al., 1995). Input of OM to the
92 soils is limited, as it is common practice to burn the tree pruning residues (branches and leaves)
93 (Acar et al., 2018; Hondebrink et al., 2017). However, some recent studies showed that OM
94 amendments such as green manure, compost, biochar, and food processing wastes (Amini et al.,
95 2016; Cong et al., 2017; Cuevas et al., 2019; Wicke et al., 2011) improved physical conditions in
96 salt-affected soils.

97 Here, we investigated different combinations of SLM management options including pruning
98 residues incorporation and drip-irrigation to off-set negative physical and chemical conditions
99 in salt-affected soils under citrus orchards. We took advantage of a long-term experiment (17
100 years) under citrus trees in SE Spain to identify how such combinations of management practices
101 affect the amount and quality of SOM, as well as soil structure delineated from aggregate
102 stability and stabilization of OC in aggregates.

103 **2. Material and methods**

104 2.1. Site description and experimental design

105 The study was conducted in an irrigated agricultural orchard of citrus trees (*Citrus limon* var.
106 *Verna*) located in “Paraje la Alberquilla” between “Sierra de Carrascoy” mountains and Librilla’s
107 town (Murcia), Southeast Spain (37° 52’ 18.8’’N, 1° 20’ 58.6’’W; 119 m a.s.l.). This citrus variety
108 is widely cultivated in the Segura Valley (Murcia) (Blanco et al., 1989). Citrus trees were
109 established in rows with a 6 m x 6 m spacing in 1987 under a flood irrigation system called
110 “furrow irrigation“. This type of irrigation is frequently used in orchards and row crops in this
111 region. Approximately 576 m³ of water were used each year for irrigation of the orchard (4400
112 ha⁻¹) in January, April, June, August and September. The climate is semi-arid, with an average
113 annual precipitation of 350 mm, concentrated in the spring and autumn. The mean annual
114 temperature is 18°C and mean annual potential evapotranspiration ranges between 900 and
115 1000 mm yr⁻¹ (calculated by the Thornthwaite method), so the mean annual water deficit is
116 around 600 mm. The soil is classified as Calcaric Solonchak (IUSS Working Group WRB, 2015).

117 Since 1987, the traditional soil management system carried out by the farmers in the study area
118 was intensive tillage (until 40 cm soil depth and 3 times per year) with flood irrigation only in
119 the topsoil (IT). The irrigation water comes from the river Tajo. The quality of the water is
120 regularly evaluated (Directive 2000/60/ EC) to avoid pollution.

121 In 2000, at two adjacent fields SLM practices were implemented (Table 1): (i) no-tillage plus
122 lemon pruning residues applied on the topsoil as mulch and drip-irrigation (NT+PM), and (ii)
123 reduced tillage plus incorporation of the lemon pruning residues to a soil depth of 15 cm (RT +
124 PI) and drip-irrigation (Table 1). The drip-irrigation system consists of an automatic flow of water
125 (approximately an average of 760 L per tree and per month adjusted to the varying climatic site
126 conditions). Since 2015, 0.044 kg total nitrogen and 0.028 kg potassium chloride (KCl) (per tree
127 and per month) were applied with the water of the drip-irrigation system. In addition, the
128 farmers added 0.22 kg m⁻² of a commercial solution of 15% of CaO and 0.5% of MgO per tree
129 and per month in NT+PM and RT+PI management systems, because gypsum, calcite, calcium
130 chloride, and other chemical agents that provide Ca tend to replace exchangeable Na, effectively
131 ameliorating salt-affected soils (Hanay et al., 2004; Wang et al., 2014).

132 The experimental design consisted of three replicated plots per treatment of approximately 432
133 m² per plot and with 12 lemon trees per plot. The reduced tillage (RT+PI) system consisted of
134 chisel plowing to 15 cm depth using a rotovator once per year. The pruning residues of the lemon
135 trees orchards were ground (< 5 cm) every year in September and added as mulch on the soil
136 surface in the NT+PM treatment or incorporated into the soil to 15 cm soil depth in the RT+PI
137 treatment. The weeds were controlled in all management systems using a commercial herbicide
138 (usually glyphosate i.e. N-(phosphonomethyl)glycine).

139 2.2. Soil sampling and analysis

140 Soil samples were collected from two soil layers (0-5 and 5-15 cm) in May 2017. The soil samples
141 were collected in the inter-rows between the lemon trees with a distance from the tree trunks
142 of 2.6 m. Two disturbed composite soil samples of 4 sub-samples per plot and treatment were
143 collected. In total 36 samples of the whole experiment were taken (3 management systems x 3
144 plots x 2 depths x 2 replicates). Undisturbed samples were also collected at the same locations
145 and soil layers (0-5 and 5-15 cm) using steel cylinders with a volume of 98.175 cm³.

146 2.2.1. Determination of chemical and physical soil properties

147 The disturbed soil samples were air-dried, sieved to <2 mm, and analyzed in the laboratory, in
148 triplicate. The pH (1:5 soil: water) was determined with a pH meter (CRISON 20). As soil salinity
149 parameters, electric conductivity (EC) and the sodium adsorption ratio (SAR) were determined
150 according to Bischoff et al. (2018). Because of the equilibrium between the soil and soil solution,
151 it is possible to measure the sodicity from SAR derived from the concentrations of Na⁺, Ca²⁺ and
152 Mg²⁺ in the soil solution (Choudhary and Kharche, 2015). The concentration of Na⁺, Ca²⁺, and
153 Mg²⁺ that were used to calculate the SAR according to Eq. (1) were determined by using
154 inductively coupled plasma optical emission spectrometry (ICP-OES, Vista Pro CCD
155 Simultaneous, Varian, Darmstadt, Germany).

$$156 \quad SAR = \frac{Na^+}{(Ca^{2+}+Mg^{2+})^{0.5}} \quad (1)$$

157 The base saturation of the soil was determined using the ICP-OES (Vista Pro CCD Simultaneous,
158 Varian, Darmstadt, Germany) after previous extraction with a solution of 0.5 M NH₄Cl according
159 to the method of Trüby and Aldinger (1989). Soil texture was determined using a Coulter LS200
160 'Laser particle sizer' (Coulter corporation, Miami, Florida), which analyzes particle sizes from 0.4
161 to 2000 µm diameter. Previously, samples were sieve at 2 mm and treated with hydrogen
162 peroxide to remove OM before being dispersed using sodium hexametaphosphate for 12 h. Soil
163 bulk density (BD) was calculated from the oven-dried mass (105 °C, 24 h) corrected for the
164 content of coarse fragments (Robertson and Paul, 2000). The soil water holding capacity (WHC)
165 at matrix potentials of -33 kPa and -1500 kPa was determined using pressure ceramic plate
166 extractors (Soil Moisture Equipment Corp., Santa Barbara, CA). The available water content
167 (AWC) was calculated as the difference in soil moisture content at field capacity (-33 kPa) and
168 wilting point (-1500 kPa). The wilting point was considered as indirect measurement of the
169 distribution of fine pores in the soil (Heitman, 2017). In fact, the AWC may be considered as an
170 indirect measure of the soil medium porosity size distribution (pores between 0.0002-0.05 mm

171 of diameter) of the soil (Hamblin, 1986). The total porosity (%) was estimated for each
172 agricultural management system and for each soil depth according to (Heitman, 2017):

$$173 \quad \text{Total porosity (\%)} = \left(\frac{\text{Real density} - \text{Bulk density}}{\text{Real density}} \right) * 100 \quad (2)$$

$$174 \quad \text{Real density (g cm}^{-3}\text{)} = \text{Density of the mineral fraction} - \text{Density of the OM fraction} \quad (3)$$

175 The amount of the large pores of the soil (> 0.05 mm) was also estimated according to
176 Heitman (2017) as the difference between total porosity and field capacity (-33 kPa).

177 2.2.2. Separation of water-stable soil aggregates

178 The aggregate-size class separation was carried out for each sample using a modified wet sieving
179 method adapted from Elliott, (1986). Briefly, a 100-g sample of air-dried soil, which was gently
180 disaggregated by hand, was placed on top of a 2 mm sieve and submerged for 5 min in deionized
181 water at room temperature. The sieving was done manually by moving the sieve up and down
182 3 cm, 50 times in 2 min, to achieve aggregate separation. A series of three sieves (2000, 250,
183 and 63 μm) was used to obtain four aggregate size classes: (i) >2000 μm (large macroaggregates;
184 LM), (ii) 250–2000 μm (small macroaggregates; SM), (iii) 63–250 μm (microaggregates; m), and
185 (v) <63 μm (silt plus clay-sized particles; s + c). The aggregate-size classes were oven-dried (50
186 $^{\circ}\text{C}$), weighed, and stored in glass jars at room temperature (21 $^{\circ}\text{C}$). The mean weight diameter
187 (MWD), calculated by summing the product of aggregate fractions (\bar{X}_i) and mean diameter for
188 each class (W_i), was used as a measure for macroaggregate stability (Kemper and Rosenau,
189 1986).

$$190 \quad \text{MWD} = \sum_{i=1}^n \bar{X}_i * W_i \quad (4)$$

191 2.2.3. SOM fractionation

192 Bulk soil samples were fractionated using a physical fractionation method (Figure 1). Briefly, 20
193 g of air-dried soil sieved to 2 mm were added to 200 mL of a sodium polytungstate (SPT) solution

194 with a density of 1.6 g cm^{-3} (Cerli et al., 2012) and left for 16 hours. Then, the floating material
195 ($< 1.6 \text{ g cm}^{-3}$), representing free particulate organic matter (fPOM), was dried with a freeze-
196 drying machine (BETA 1-16, CHRIST, Germany) and weighed. The fraction $> 1.6 \text{ g cm}^{-3}$ was
197 dispersed using a calibrated ultrasonic probe-type with an output energy of 450 J ml^{-1} in order
198 to destroy soil aggregates (Figure 1). Then, the mixture was centrifuged at 1000 g for 30 min and
199 the dispersed suspension, representing occluded particulate matter (oPOM), was decanted,
200 dried and weighed. The residue ($> 1.6 \text{ g cm}^{-3}$) which contained the mineral-associated organic
201 matter (MAOM) fraction was decanted, dried and weighed (Figure 1). Before drying, this fraction
202 was washed with deionized water to remove SPT.

203 2.2.4. SOC and N determination

204 Total C and N contents were determined for bulk soils, aggregate size classes and SOC fractions
205 using an Elemental Analyzer (CNS Vario Max Cube, Elementar, Germany). Inorganic C (IC) was
206 determined in the same way after SOM removal by heating samples at 550°C for 4 hours. The
207 SOC concentration was obtained as the difference between total C and IC. All samples were
208 analyzed in triplicate. The SOC and N stocks (kg m^{-2}) of bulk soils were calculated on an
209 “equivalent mass”, except for those whose BD was comparable (Wendt and Hauser, 2013).

210 2.2.5. Determination of molecular composition of SOM fractions

211 The molecular composition of SOM fractions was determined by solid-state ^{13}C cross-
212 polarization magic angle spinning (CPMAS) nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) spectroscopic
213 analysis, using a DSX 200 spectrometer (Bruker Biospin, Rheinstetten, Germany). The frequency
214 was 50.32 MHz and the spinning speed 5 kHz . The contact time was 1 ms and the recycle delay
215 was 1 s for all fractions. Depending on the SOC content of the samples, between 2,000 and
216 250,000 scans were accumulated and a line broadening between 0 and 50 Hz was applied. For
217 the calibration of the ^{13}C chemical shifts, tetramethylsilane was used and set to 0 ppm . Spectral
218 analysis was performed using the spectrometer software Bruker TopSpin 3.2 (Bruker, Billerica,

219 USA). Integrated chemical shift regions were: i) aliphatic or Alkyl-C (0–45 ppm) of lipids, fatty
220 acids, and plant aliphatic polymers; ii) N-Alkyl/Methoxyl-C (45-60 ppm), O-Alkyl-C (65-95 ppm)
221 and Di-O-Alkyl-C (95-110), the sum of them considered as total O-N—Alkyl-C deriving primarily
222 from polysaccharides (cellulose and hemicelluloses), but also proteins and side chains of lignin;
223 iii) aromatic-C (110-145 ppm) and phenolic-C (145-165 ppm), considered as the sum of both as
224 total Aryl-C deriving from lignin and/or protein; and finally (iv) Amide/Carboxyl-C (165–215 ppm)
225 from aliphatic esters, carboxyl groups, and amide carbonyls (Wilson 1987). All NMR spectra were
226 baseline corrected and phased. The integration of the peaks within each of the chemical shift
227 regions allowed an estimation of the relative C contents expressed as percentages of the total
228 area. From this data, the ratio between Alkyl-C and total O-N-Alkyl-C (A: OA ratio) was calculated
229 as an indicator of the decomposition state of SOM (Baldock and Skjemstad, 2000).

230 2.3. Statistical analyses

231 All data were analyzed with General Linear Models (GLM) using the IBM SPSS statistics 23.0
232 software (SPSS Inc., Chicago, Illinois). The normal distribution of the data was analyzed by the
233 Kolgomorov-Smirnov test, and the homogeneity of the variances according to the Levene test.
234 Data that was not normally distributed, such as the permanent wilting point, soil available water
235 content, weight distribution of MAOM and the C:N ratio of LM were ln-transformed. To compare
236 the different management systems and soil depths using GLM analyses, first, we considered
237 treatment and depth as a fixed factor. When significant, differences among management
238 systems were identified at the 0.05 probability level of significance using Tukey's test. Pearson
239 correlations were used to explore the relationships between SOM fractions and percentage of
240 LM and SM and between the MWD and SOC of the bulk soil. Principal component analysis (PCA)
241 was used to select those variables that affect SOM stabilization and aggregate stability. Variables
242 which showed significant differences between management systems were considered for the
243 PCA analysis (carbonate content, clay content, MWD, macro-porosity, pH, BD, SAR and OC and

244 A: OA ratios of fPOM, oPOM and MAOM) using the package FactorMineR (Lê et al., 2008) in the
245 statistical software R (R Core Team, 2018). The number of components was chosen according to
246 the eigen value criteria (PC with eigen value >1; Supplementary table 1A). Within the PCA, the
247 variables that explained a high proportion of the variance on their respective dimension (> 10%,
248 or loading > 0.9) were then used (Supplementary table 2A) to construct a structural equation
249 model (SEM), using the Lavaan package (Rosseel, 2012). If pairs of variables that are highly
250 correlated in salt-affected soils (namely pH – carbonate content, and SAR and EC) were selected
251 by the PCA, we tested the SEM model using each variable individually and assessed our model
252 using fit statistics and the cut-offs that indicate a good fit: a) TLI: Tucker Lewis index, b)
253 Comparative fit index (CFI), c) root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), and d)
254 Standardized Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR), and e) Akaike information criterion (AIC)
255 (Hooper et al., 2008; Medrano and Muñoz-Navarro, 2017; Sallan et al., 2012; Tabri and Elliott,
256 2012).

257 **3. Results**

258 3.1. Basic soil properties

259 Electric conductivity was significantly higher in the topsoil under the intensive management
260 system (IT) compared to both SLM management systems (RT+PI and NT+PM). Below 5 cm soil
261 depth, no significant differences were found between management systems (Table 2). The pH
262 values were 8.5 and BS was 100% in all soils. The SAR was significantly higher under intensive
263 tillage than in both SLM practices. Soil texture was comparable among the study sites with silt
264 contents ranging between 65 and 71% and clay contents between 23 and 28 %. Sand contents
265 were around 6% with somewhat higher values in the upmost soil layer (0-5 cm) of the NT+PM
266 system. BD was significantly higher in IT compared to NT+PM and RT+PI management systems
267 in both soil depths (Table 2). Total porosity as well as contents of medium- and large pores were
268 significantly higher under RT+PI compared to NT+PM and IT management systems. Bulk soil OC

269 and N contents were significantly higher in RT+PI than in NT+PM and IT at 0-5 and 5-15 cm soil
270 depth. No differences in the C:N ratio between management systems were found (Table 2).

271 3.2. SOC and N stocks

272 The SOC stocks increased by 38.6% in the NT+PM system and by 82.3% in the RT+PI system
273 compared to the IT system at 0-5 cm soil depth (Figure 2A). Below 5 cm soil depth, the SOC
274 stocks in NT+PM were not significantly different from IT. For the RT+PI system, the SOC stocks
275 in the 5-15 cm depth increased by 95.2% compared to the IT system (Figure 2A). The N stocks
276 showed the same trend as the SOC stocks with increases of 55.6% and 133.3% in NT+PM and
277 RT+PI, respectively, compared to the IT system in the topsoil, while in the subsoil increases of
278 38.5% in NT+PM and 215.4% in RT+PI systems were determined (Figure 2B).

279 3.3. Distribution of aggregate size classes

280 The silt+clay-sized fraction ($<63 \mu\text{m}$) was the predominant size class in NT+PM and IT systems,
281 representing between 64 and 79% of the bulk soil, respectively (Figure 3). The microaggregate
282 distribution was similar for all systems and depths. With respect to large macroaggregates ($>$
283 $2,000 \mu\text{m}$) and small macroaggregates ($250\text{-}2,000 \mu\text{m}$), we found a significantly higher
284 proportion in the RT+PI system (27-32%) than in NT+PM (6-18%) and IT (1-7%) systems in both
285 soil depths (Figure 3). In the topsoil, the MWD was significantly higher in RT+PI (1.5 ± 0.2)
286 compared to NT+PM and IT systems (0.7 ± 0.2 and 0.3 ± 0.1 , respectively). In the subsoil, we
287 found the same trend for MWD: RT+PI $>$ NT+PM $>$ IT ($1.5 \pm 0.2 > 0.5 \pm 0.1 > 0.2 \pm 0.0$, respectively)
288 (Table 2).

289 3.4. OC and N associated within aggregate-size classes

290 The highest OC concentration was found for both macroaggregate sizes classes LM ($> 2,000 \mu\text{m}$)
291 and SM ($250\text{-}2,000 \mu\text{m}$) in the RT+PI system, whereas lower OC concentrations were found for
292 the s+c fraction in the IT management system (Table 3) at 0-5 cm soil depth. In the RT+PI system,

293 the OC concentration decreased with the aggregate size-class (LM>SM>m>S+C). The IC
294 concentration was higher in IT compared to NT+PM and RT+PI for all aggregate size classes and
295 both soil depths. The N concentration in LM, SM, and m showed the same trend than OC with
296 decreasing concentrations in the order RT+ PI > NT+PM > IT at 0-5 and 5-15 cm soil depth.
297 However, we found no differences in the N concentration of the s+c fraction between tillage
298 systems in the topsoil (Table 3).

299 In the topsoil, the OC associated with LM represented 43% of the total SOC in RT+PI, whereas
300 for NT+PM and IT, its contribution to total SOC was lower (with 17 % and 7%, respectively; Figure
301 4). Below 5 cm soil depth, the OC associated with LM represented 44% of total SOC in RT+PI,
302 whereas in NT+PM and IT, it represented 11% and 3% of total SOC (Figure 4). In RT+PI, the OC
303 of the s+c fraction and the microaggregates showed the lowest contribution to total SOC (12-
304 13%) in both soil layers (Figure 4). The contribution of N in aggregate size classes to total N of
305 the bulk soil followed the same trend as SOC (Figure 4).

306 3.5. Mass distribution, OC and N in SOM fractions

307 The MAOM fraction had the highest mass contribution in all tillage systems and soil depths,
308 followed by fPOM and oPOM (Table 4). In addition, the mass contribution of the MAOM fraction
309 was significantly higher in IT than in NT+PM and RT+PI management systems in the topsoil.
310 Below 5 cm soil depth, we observed no differences for MAOM among tillage systems. The fPOM
311 was the fraction with the lowest mass contribution among tillage systems. Despite the lower
312 mass contribution of fPOM, this fraction was significantly higher in RT+PI compared to NT +PM
313 and IT at 0-5 cm soil depth. In the topsoil, the mass contribution of the oPOM fraction showed
314 the following trend: NT+PM>RT+PI>IT. However, below 5 cm soil depth, we found a higher mass
315 contribution of oPOM in the RT+PI than in NT+PM and IT systems (Table 4).

316 The MAOM was the fraction with the highest OC contribution to total SOC in all tillage systems
317 and in both soil depths (Figure 5). The OC of the oPOM fraction followed the trend

318 RT+PI>NT+PM>IT in both soil depths. The OC in oPOM decreased with depth only in NT+PM,
319 whereas for RT+PI and IT, the OC in oPOM did not change with depth. The fraction with the
320 lowest OC content in all tillage systems and depths was the fPOM. Regarding the N content of
321 the fractions, the MAOM was the fraction with the highest contribution to total N. The N content
322 of oPOM was higher in RT+PI compared to NT+PM and IT. The N content in fPOM showed the
323 lowest values compared to the other SOM fractions in all tillage systems and depths.

324 3.6. Molecular composition of OC in SOM fractions

325 The ¹³C NMR spectra showed significant differences between tillage systems with regard to the
326 quality of SOM fractions (Table 5 and Supplementary fig. 2A). In the topsoil, the content of total
327 O-N-Alkyl (45-110 ppm) in fPOM was slightly higher in RT+PI and NT+PM than in IT. However,
328 the Alkyl-C and Aryl C compounds were higher in the IT system. The ratio A:OA indicated that in
329 the IT system, the OC in the fPOM was more decomposed compared to NT+PM and RT+PI
330 systems. The total O-N-Alkyl content of the oPOM decreased in the order NT+PM>IT>RT+PI,
331 whereas the content of Alkyl C and Carbonyl-C decreased in the order IT>RT+PI>NT+PM. The
332 A:OA ratio in the oPOM was significantly higher in IT and RT+PI compared to NT+PM system.
333 Furthermore, in the oPOM fraction, the relative content of Alkyl-C was significantly higher in all
334 management systems compared to the fPOM fraction (Table 5 and Supplementary fig. 2A).
335 However, the opposite trend was found for total O-N-Alkyl-C compounds in the oPOM fraction
336 (44.9, 46.1 and 43.5% in IT, NT+PM and RT+PI, respectively). with significantly lower contents
337 compared to the fPOM fraction in all the systems in the topsoil (50.9, 53.1 and 55.2% in IT,
338 NT+PM and RT+PI, respectively). The same trend was found for Aryl-C compounds. The content
339 of Alkyl-C was significantly higher in RT+PI than in NT+PM and IT. The content of total O-N-Alkyl-
340 C was higher in NT+PM compared to IT and RT+PI systems. The Aryl-C content was higher in IT
341 than in NT+PM and RT+PI systems. The A:OA ratio of the MAOM fraction decreased in the order
342 RT+PI>IT>NT+PM in the topsoil.

343 In the 5-15 cm soil layer, the content of total O-N-Alkyl-C in the fPOM fraction was significantly
344 higher in RT+PI and NT+PM compared to IT system. In addition, the total O-N-Alkyl-C increases
345 with depth in RT+PI and NT+PM, whereas in IT, we observed no changes (Table 5). Regarding
346 Aryl-C and Carbonyl-C groups, their contents were higher in IT compared to NT+PM and RT+PI
347 systems. The A:OA ratio was higher for NT+PM and IT compared to RT+PI system. In general, the
348 same trends that we described above for the fPOM fraction for Alkyl-C compounds and the A:OA
349 ratio were found for the oPOM fraction. However, the content of total O-N-Alkyl C in the oPOM
350 fraction increased in RT+PI system with depth. In the NT+PM system, we observed a lower value
351 of total O-N-Alkyl C in the oPOM compared to the topsoil. The contents of Aryl-C and Carbonyl-
352 C were higher in RT+PI and NT+PM than in IT. Finally, the MAOM fraction displayed a higher
353 content of Alkyl-C in RT+PI and NT+PM compared to IT system, and higher total O-N-Alkyl-C
354 content in NT+PM than in RT+PI and IT systems. In addition, the contents of Aryl-C and Carbonyl-
355 C were higher in IT compared to the other management systems. The total O-N-Alkyl signal
356 decreased with depth in all systems, whereas the A:OA ratio increased with depth in all systems.

357 3.7. Multivariate analysis (PCA) and structural equation modelling (SEM) of 358 aggregate stability and soil OC stabilization

359 In the PCA, up to four factors fulfilled the eigen-value criterion. The factor 1, explaining 42.5%
360 of the total variance was loaded by the factors OC of oPOM, OC of MAOM fraction, BD, MWD
361 and SAR. Factor 2, explaining 21.1% of the total variance, was loaded by carbonate, clay contents
362 and the A:OA ratio of the fPOM and MAOM fraction (Supplementary table 1A). Factor 3,
363 explaining 12.8% of the total variance, was loaded by EC and OC of both fPOM and MAOM.
364 Factor 4, explaining 8.4% of the total variance, was loaded by pH (Figure 6, Supplementary table
365 1A). These four factors together explained 84.8% of the total variance. The variables that
366 explained a high proportion of the variance on their respective dimension (> 10% or loading >
367 0.9) were then used for the SEM (Supplementary table 2A). We found that the SAR and the OC-

368 oPOM were, by far, the main factors significantly affecting the macro-stability (estimate = -0.74
369 and 1, respectively). The carbonate content did not have significant importance, while other
370 variables like pH, and EC expressed similar physico-chemical phenomena.

371 **4. Discussion**

372 **4.1. Drawbacks of intensive tillage and flood irrigation in salt affected soils**

373 The use of the soil management practices in the IT system (tillage down to 40 cm soil depth and
374 flood irrigation) favored the accumulation of Na⁺ and the dispersion of clay particles, with a
375 subsequent breakdown of soil aggregates. This is indicated by high SAR and EC values (Table 2).
376 This is associated with high BD, low porosity (low content of total, medium and large pores) and
377 low values of MWD in the IT system (Table 2). This is due to the fact that the irrigation water
378 does not supply Ca²⁺ and Mg²⁺ ions to counteract the high Na⁺ concentrations in the IT
379 management system (Hanay et al., 2004; Wang et al., 2014). Under the high salinity conditions
380 in association with the intensive tillage, dispersion of OM and clay particles occurs and plugs soil
381 pores, resulting in increased soil permeability (Taboada et al., 2001). When soil is repeatedly
382 wetted and dried, as it occurs under the climatic conditions in the investigated sites, clay
383 dispersion occurs, soil particles are rearranged and solidify into an almost cement-like soil with
384 little or no structure (Wong et al., 2010). As a result, we observed salinity crusts in the IT system.
385 This kind of crusts, also called “hard setting”, is characteristic of poorly aerated, salt-affected
386 soils, which were not adequately managed under semi-arid conditions (high temperature, low
387 precipitation and high evapotranspiration) (Agassi et al., 1981; Qadir and Schubert, 2002).
388 Choudhary and Kharche (2015) suggested that in salt-affected soils, poor drainage can be
389 improved by breaking up a hardpan with deep tillage. However, in our case the combination of
390 intensive tillage with flood irrigation was not effective to remove the salt crust. In addition,
391 intensive tillage increased the soil compaction such as it was supported by the high BD and low

392 contents of medium and large pores (Table 2). This deterioration of the soil structure was also
393 evident by the relatively low SOC and N stocks in the IT system (Figure 2).

394 Our results further indicated that the occlusion of SOM in macroaggregates was reduced in the
395 IT treatment (Table 3). In a review by Amini et al. (2016), it was demonstrated that in salt-
396 affected soils, SOC storage decreased as a result of salinization and sodicity. In our study, the
397 PCA and the SEM analyses indicated that the IT system was far from a medium or high macro-
398 stability (Figure 6) and salt contents had also a strong negative correlation with macro-stability
399 and SOC sequestration. In the IT management system, OM return to the soil only occurred via
400 belowground OM inputs. A lack of other OM inputs is indicated by low amounts of labile organic
401 matter, such as fPOM (Table 4). If OM inputs are limited, the supply for the buildup of the oPOM
402 fraction within aggregates is also low, leading to a decline in the amount of aggregates (Figure
403 3). This is supported by the results of ¹³C NMR spectroscopy showing that both the fPOM and
404 oPOM fractions in the IT system had the lowest values of total O-N-Alkyl-C, which is indicative
405 of a high degree of degradation (Table 5, Supplementary figure 2A). In turn, the deterioration of
406 aggregation is consistent with the observed high contribution of the MAOM fraction. However,
407 this fraction was also negatively affected as it was depleted in OC and N compared to the other
408 management systems. The high signal intensity for the Carboxyl-C area (165-215 ppm) in the 5-
409 15 cm depth (Table 5, Supplementary figure 2A) is probably related to the frequent burning of
410 pruning residues in the past (17 years ago), which is part of the traditional residue management
411 in Spain, where it is still a legal practice, despite fire control restrictions (Hondebrink et al., 2017).

412 **4.2. Combination of no-tillage with pruning residues as mulch and drip-irrigation**

413 In the NT+PM management system, where pruning residues were left on the topsoil as mulch
414 and the cessation of tillage started 17 years ago, we found lower EC and SAR compared with the
415 IT system (Table 2). This is probably due to the combination of OM addition and application of
416 Ca²⁺ and Mg²⁺ supporting the flocculation of clay particles, which facilitated the leaching of

417 soluble salts. For salt-affected soils, the use of gypsum, calcite, calcium chloride, and other
418 chemical agents that provide Ca, has been shown effective to induce leaching of salts from these
419 soils (Hanay et al., 2004; Seenivasan et al., 2015; Wang et al., 2014).

420 Several studies in salt-affected soils also attributed soil structural improvements to the use of
421 mulch from crop residues, which moderates soil temperature variations, decreases BD,
422 enhances the balance among fine, medium and large pores, and reduces runoff and erosion
423 (Grigg et al., 2006; Iqbal et al., 2008; Kahlon et al., 2013; Kang et al., 2009; Leogrande and Vitti,
424 2019). Similarly, in a study carried out by Pang et al. (2010), the use of straw mulching in salt-
425 affected soils decreased the salt content of the soil surface by regulating the vertical distribution,
426 by salts avoiding the clay dispersion and by reducing the risk of soil salinization and erosion. In
427 our case, the NT+PM system did not affect the soil pore system, as the distribution of medium
428 and large pores showed not differences compared to the IT system (Table 2). In another study
429 under similar semi-arid climate conditions a no-tillage treatment was not effective to increase
430 the soil porosity and the soil water capacity in the long-term (López et al., 1996). Nieto et al.
431 (2011) also found that no-tillage in combination with the application of pruning residues of olive
432 trees as mulch, increased soil porosity only in the upmost 2-5 cm of the soil compared to
433 intensive tillage.

434 In the NT+PM system, we observed a higher proportion of small and large macroaggregates
435 compared to the IT system (Figure 2). However, these macroaggregates revealed only slightly
436 higher OC and N contents compared to the IT management system (Table 3). This can be
437 explained by the cessation of tillage, limiting the incorporation of the pruning residues into the
438 soil profile. In fact, the higher total SOC and N concentrations (Table 2) and stocks (Figure 2)
439 under NT+PM were only found in the topsoil (0-5 cm depth), where, also higher amounts of
440 fPOM and oPOM were observed (Figure 5). However, at deeper layers, reduced contact among
441 OM, soil particles and soil microbes probably led to decreased physical protection of SOC

442 through the formation of aggregates (Christopher et al., 2009; Garcia-Franco et al., 2015;
443 Wiesmeier et al., 2014; Zhao et al., 2012), which was supported by lower SOC and N
444 concentrations and stocks at 5-15 cm soil depth compared to RT+PI system.

445 **4.3. Combination of reduced tillage with incorporation of pruning residues and drip-irrigation**

446 Our results showed a significant improvement of both physical and chemical soil properties 17
447 years after the implementation of the RT+PI management system. The incorporation of pruning
448 residues with reduced-tillage and the application of Ca^{2+} and Mg^{2+} via drip irrigation enhanced
449 soil physical and chemical properties. This is supported by the lower BD, EC and SAR values in
450 the RT+PI management system compared to the other tillage systems; together with the higher
451 amount of total, medium and large pores, low EC, and higher MWD values also in the RT+PI
452 management system compared to IT and NT+PM systems (Tables 2). Some of these effects were
453 also evident in the NT+PM system, but in the case of RT+PI system, these effects were found for
454 both soil depths.

455 The higher values of MWD and higher SOC and N stocks in RT+PI compared to NT+PM and IT
456 systems indicated the offset of a breakdown of macroaggregates and the subsequent dispersion
457 of clay particles, and also the formation of new macroaggregates (Oster and Shainberg, 2001).
458 Our results are consistent with those of Abdollahi and Munkholm (2014), who reported that
459 reduced tillage systems increased MWD values, penetration resistance and water-stable
460 aggregates in salt-affected soils under semi-arid conditions. We also found a positive correlation
461 between the MWD and SOC of the bulk soil ($r = 0.97$, $p < 0.01$), which indicated that OM was the
462 major binding factor in macroaggregate formation. Reduced tillage favored the contact of the
463 mineral soil particles with OM in the deeper layer. Thus, SOM facilitated the formation of
464 macroaggregates and the occlusion of OM (Courtier-Murias et al., 2013; Trigalet et al., 2014),
465 indicated by higher amounts of oPOM and mineral-associated OM (Figure 5, Table 4). This was
466 also supported by the strong positive correlation between the OC-oPOM and OC-MAOM with

467 the percentage of LM ($r = 0.90$, $p < 0.01$; and $r = 0.95$, $p < 0.01$, respectively) and SM ($r = 0.88$, p
468 < 0.01 ; and $r = 0.78$, $p < 0.01$, respectively) observed in our study. Consistent with this, the oPOM
469 fraction was less degraded as shown by the low alkyl-to-O/N-alkyl ratio in the ^{13}C NMR spectra
470 (Table 5 and Supplementary figure 2A). In addition, the SEM model showed that OC-oPOM is a
471 valid measure to describe our latent variable called “macro-stability” (Figure 7), whereas the
472 salinity represented by SAR, indicated reduced macro-stability. Therefore, pruning residues
473 addition in combination with reduced tillage led to the formation of macroaggregates and
474 fostered SOC sequestration. Moreover, the drip irrigation system avoids a disruption of
475 macroaggregates and a loss of OM through processes such as runoff and erosion under semi-
476 arid climatic conditions (Blanco et al., 1989; Cuevas et al., 2019; Fentabil et al., 2016; Hondebrink
477 et al., 2017; Uckoo, 2005) and also avoids an excessive use of chemical fertilizer which in turn
478 could increase salinity (Bernstein, 1975; Lakhdar et al., 2009). A meta-analysis of 30 studies with
479 different soil-improving cropping systems for salt-affected soils demonstrated that besides
480 specific optimization of irrigation systems and combinations of soil amendments, conditioners
481 and residue management could contribute to significant reductions of salinity and improve the
482 soil structure (Cuevas et al., 2019).

483 5. Conclusions

484 Our results showed that sustainable land management practices in a Citrus tree orchard in salt-
485 affected soils offset the negative effects of salts on soil structure by i) decreasing SAR, EC, and
486 BD values; ii) increasing the amount of large and medium pores and macroaggregate formation
487 and iii); maximizing the accumulation of SOC. The incorporation of OM by tree pruning residues
488 combined with drip-irrigation makes soils less susceptible to the unfavorable influence of
489 exchangeable Na under semi-arid climate conditions. These improvements were higher when
490 the pruning residues were incorporated into the soil by reduced tillage. In our study, the assess
491 of macroaggregates and their relationship with the oPOM were s good indicators for soil macro-

492 stability and SOC sequestration. We conclude that pruning residues incorporation with reduced
493 tillage and drip-irrigation was the most effective combination of SLM practices in order to
494 sequester C in salt-affected soils under Citrus tree orchards. Intensive tillage systems, widely
495 used in salt-affected soils in semi-arid regions, need to be disregarded as usual practice in favour
496 of other management systems incorporating higher OM in the soil combined with measures to
497 reduce the salt content.

498 **Acknowledgments**

499 We would like to thank the families Ruiz Cayuela and Ruiz Pascual for inspiration for this project
500 and Juan Martínez García for the support in designing the graphical abstract; and Sigrid Hiesch
501 and Petra Bucher for laboratory work.

502 **References**

- 503 Abdollahi, L., Munkholm, L.J., 2014. Tillage System and Cover Crop Effects on Soil Quality: I.
504 Chemical, Mechanical, and Biological Properties. *Soil Sci. Soc. Am. J.* 78, 262–270.
505 <https://doi.org/10.2136/sssaj2013.07.0301>
- 506 Acar, M., Celik, I., Günal, H., 2018. Effects of long-term tillage systems on aggregate-associated
507 organic carbon in the eastern mediterranean region of Turkey. *Eurasian J. Soil Sci.*
508 <https://doi.org/10.18393/ejss.335329>
- 509 Adu, J.K., Oades, J.M., 1978. Physical factors influencing decomposition of organic materials in
510 soil aggregates. *Soil Biol. Biochem.* [https://doi.org/10.1016/0038-0717\(78\)90080-9](https://doi.org/10.1016/0038-0717(78)90080-9)
- 511 Agassi, M., Shainberg, I., Morin, J., 1981. Effect of Electrolyte Concentration and Soil Sodidity
512 on Infiltration Rate and Crust Formation. *Soil Sci. Soc. Am. J.*
513 <https://doi.org/10.2136/sssaj1981.03615995004500050004x>
- 514 Almagro, M., Garcia-Franco, N., Martínez-Mena, M., 2017. The potential of reducing tillage
515 frequency and incorporating plant residues as a strategy for climate change mitigation in

516 semiarid Mediterranean agroecosystems. *Agric. Ecosyst. Environ.* 246, 210–220.
517 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.agee.2017.05.016>

518 Amini, S., Ghadiri, H., Chen, C., Marschner, P., 2016. Salt-affected soils, reclamation, carbon
519 dynamics, and biochar: a review. *J. Soils Sediments*. [https://doi.org/10.1007/s11368-015-](https://doi.org/10.1007/s11368-015-1293-1)
520 1293-1

521 Baldock, J.A., Skjemstad, J.O., 2000. Role of the soil matrix and minerals in protecting natural
522 organic materials against biological attack. *Org. Geochem.* 31, 697–710.
523 [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0146-6380\(00\)00049-8](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0146-6380(00)00049-8)

524 Bernstein, L., 1975. Effects of Salinity and Sodidity on Plant Growth. *Annu. Rev. Phytopathol.*
525 <https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev.py.13.090175.001455>

526 Bischoff, N., Mikutta, R., Shibistova, O., Dohrmann, R., Herdtle, D., Gerhard, L., Fritzsche, F.,
527 Puzanov, A., Silanteva, M., Grebennikova, A., Guggenberger, G., 2018. Organic matter
528 dynamics along a salinity gradient in Siberian steppe soils. *Biogeosciences* 15, 13–29.
529 <https://doi.org/10.5194/bg-15-13-2018>

530 Blanco, M.J.S., Torrecillas, A., León, A., del Amor, F., 1989. The effect of different irrigation
531 treatments on yield and quality of Verna lemon. *Plant Soil*.
532 <https://doi.org/10.1007/BF02377080>

533 Brinck, E., Frost, C., 2009. Evaluation of amendments used to prevent sodification of irrigated
534 fields. *Appl. Geochemistry* 24, 2113–2122.
535 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.apgeochem.2009.09.001>

536 Cerli, C., Celi, L., Kalbitz, K., Guggenberger, G., Kaiser, K., 2012. Separation of light and heavy
537 organic matter fractions in soil - Testing for proper density cut-off and dispersion level.
538 *Geoderma* 170, 403–416. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.geoderma.2011.10.009>

539 Chorom, M., Rengasamy, P., 1997. Carbonate chemistry, pH, and physical properties of an

540 alkaline sodic soil as affected by various amendments. *Soil Res.* 35, 149.
541 <https://doi.org/10.1071/S96034>

542 Choudhary, O.P., Kharche, V.K., 2015. Soil Salinity and Sodicity Problems, in: *Soil Science: An*
543 *Introduction*. Indian Society of Soil Science, pp. 353–384.
544 <https://doi.org/10.1201/b10329-2>

545 Christopher, S.F., Lal, R., Mishra, U., 2009. Regional Study of No-Till Effects on Carbon
546 Sequestration in the Midwestern United States. *Soil Sci. Soc. Am. J.*
547 <https://doi.org/10.2136/sssaj2007.0336>

548 Cong, P., Ouyang, Z., Hou, R., Han, D., 2017. Effects of application of microbial fertilizer on
549 aggregation and aggregate-associated carbon in saline soils. *Soil Tillage Res.*
550 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.still.2016.12.005>

551 Courtier-Murias, D., Simpson, A.J., Marzadori, C., Baldoni, G., Ciavatta, C., Fernández, J.M.,
552 López-de-Sá, E.G., Plaza, C., 2013. Unraveling the long-term stabilization mechanisms of
553 organic materials in soils by physical fractionation and NMR spectroscopy. *Agric. Ecosyst.*
554 *Environ.* <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.agee.2013.03.010>

555 Cuevas, J., Daliakopoulos, I.N., Del Moral, F., Hueso, J.J., Tsanis, I.K., 2019. A review of soil-
556 improving cropping systems for soil salinization. *Agronomy.*
557 <https://doi.org/10.3390/agronomy9060295>

558 Díez Calpena, V., Fernández Muñoz, S.C., Gil Meseguer, E., Gómez Espín, J.M., Mata Olmo, R.,
559 Requena Galipienso, A., 2009. *Atlas de los paisajes de la región de Murcia*. Murcia.

560 Elliott, E.T., 1986. Aggregate Structure and Carbon, Nitrogen, and Phosphorus in Native and
561 Cultivated Soils. *Soil Sci. Soc. Am. J.* 50, 627–633.
562 <https://doi.org/10.2136/sssaj1986.03615995005000030017x>

563 FAO-Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations, 2001. *World soil resources*

564 reports - lecture notes on the major soils of the world, FAO.

565 FAO, 2009. Global network on integrated soil management for sustainable use of salt-affected
566 soils, Advances in the assessment and monitoring of salinization and status of biosaline
567 agriculture.

568 Fentabil, M.M., Nichol, C.F., Neilsen, G.H., Hannam, K.D., Neilsen, D., Forge, T.A., Jones, M.D.,
569 2016. Effect of micro-irrigation type, N-source and mulching on nitrous oxide emissions in
570 a semi-arid climate: An assessment across two years in a Merlot grape vineyard. Agric.
571 Water Manag. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.agwat.2016.02.021>

572 Garcia-Franco, N., Albaladejo, J., Almagro, M., Martínez-Mena, M., 2015. Beneficial effects of
573 reduced tillage and green manure on soil aggregation and stabilization of organic carbon
574 in a Mediterranean agroecosystem. Soil Tillage Res. 153, 66–75.
575 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.still.2015.05.010>

576 Garcia-Franco, N., Hobbey, E., Hübner, R., Wiesmeier, M., 2018. Climate-Smart Soil
577 Management in Semiarid Regions, in: Soil Management and Climate Change. Elsevier, pp.
578 349–368. <https://doi.org/10.1016/B978-0-12-812128-3.00023-9>

579 Gonzalez, P, Ordóñez, R., Laguna, A., De Haro, J.M. 1995 Conservation tillage under
580 meteorological conditions in southern Spain. Proceedings of the EC-Workshop-III, Concerted
581 Action No. AIR 3-CT 93-1464, Wissen-schaftlicher Fachverlag, Giessen (1995), pp. 119-125

582 Gonçalo Filho, F., da Silva Dias, N., Suddarth, S.R.P., Ferreira, J.F.S., Anderson, R.G., dos Santos
583 Fernandes, C., de Lira, R.B., Neto, M.F., Cosme, C.R., 2019. Reclaiming Tropical Saline-
584 Sodic Soils with Gypsum and Cow Manure. Water 12, 57.
585 <https://doi.org/10.3390/w12010057>

586 Grigg, A.H., Sheridan, G.J., Pearce, A.B., Mulligan, D.R., 2006. The effect of organic mulch
587 amendments on the physical and chemical properties and revegetation success of a

588 saline-sodic minespoil from central Queensland, Australia. *Aust. J. Soil Res.*
589 <https://doi.org/10.1071/SR05047>

590 Gu, C., Liu, Y., Mohamed, I., Zhang, R., Wang, X., Nie, X., Jiang, M., Brooks, M., Chen, F., Li, Z.,
591 2016. Dynamic changes of soil surface organic carbon under different mulching practices
592 in citrus orchards on sloping land. *PLoS One*.
593 <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0168384>

594 Hamblin, A.P., 1986. The Influence of Soil Structure on Water Movement, Crop Root Growth,
595 and Water Uptake, in: *Advances in Agronomy*. pp. 95–158.
596 [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0065-2113\(08\)60674-4](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0065-2113(08)60674-4)

597 Hanay, A., Büyüksönmez, F., Kiziloglu, F.M., Canbolat, M.Y., 2004. Reclamation of saline-sodic
598 soils with gypsum and msw compost. *Compost Sci. Util.*
599 <https://doi.org/10.1080/1065657X.2004.10702177>

600 Heitman, J.L., 2017. *Hartge/Horn. Soil Sci.* 182, 114.
601 <https://doi.org/10.1097/SS.0000000000000200>

602 Hondebrink, M.A., Cammeraat, L.H., Cerdà, A., 2017. The impact of agricultural management
603 on selected soil properties in citrus orchards in Eastern Spain: A comparison between
604 conventional and organic citrus orchards with drip and flood irrigation. *Sci. Total Environ.*
605 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2016.12.087>

606 Hooper, D., Coughlan, J., Mullen, M.R., Mullen, J., Hooper, D., Coughlan, J., Mullen, M.R., 2008.
607 *Structural Equation Modelling : Guidelines for Determining Model Fit* Structural equation
608 modelling : guidelines for determining model fit. *Dublin Inst. Technol. ARROW @ DIT 6*,
609 53–60.

610 Iqbal, M., Anwar-ul-Hassan, Ibrahim, M., 2008. Effects of Tillage Systems and Mulch on Soil
611 Physical Quality Parameters and Maize (*Zea mays L.*) Yield in Semi-Arid Pakistan. *Biol.*

612 Agric. Hortic. 25, 311–325. <https://doi.org/10.1080/01448765.2008.9755058>

613 IUSS Working Group WRB, 2015. Base referencial mundial del recurso suelo 2014, sistema
614 internacional de clasificación de suelos. Informes sobre recursos mundiales de suelos,
615 World Soil Resources Reports No. 106.

616 Kahlon, M.S., Lal, R., Ann-Varughese, M., 2013. Twenty two years of tillage and mulching
617 impacts on soil physical characteristics and carbon sequestration in Central Ohio. Soil
618 Tillage Res. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.still.2012.08.001>

619 Kang, Y., Khan, S., Ma, X., 2009. Climate change impacts on crop yield, crop water productivity
620 and food security - A review. Prog. Nat. Sci. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pnsc.2009.08.001>

621 Kemper, W.D., Rosenau, R.C., 1986. Aggregate Stability and Size Distribution, in: A. Klute (Ed.),
622 Methods of Soil Analysis: Part 1 Physical and Mineralogical Methods. ASA and SSSA,
623 Madison, WI, pp. 425–442. <https://doi.org/10.2136/sssabookser5.1.2ed.c17>

624 Lakhdar, A., Rabhi, M., Ghnaya, T., Montemurro, F., Jedidi, N., Abdelly, C., 2009. Effectiveness
625 of compost use in salt-affected soil. J. Hazard. Mater.
626 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhazmat.2009.05.132>

627 Lal, R., 2010. Enhancing eco-efficiency in agro-ecosystems through soil carbon sequestration.
628 Crop Sci. <https://doi.org/10.2135/cropsci2010.01.0012>

629 Lê, S., Josse, J., Husson, F., 2008. FactoMineR: An R package for multivariate analysis. J. Stat.
630 Softw. 25, 1–18. <https://doi.org/10.18637/jss.v025.i01>

631 Leogrande, R., Vitti, C., 2019. Use of organic amendments to reclaim saline and sodic soils: a
632 review. Arid L. Res. Manag. <https://doi.org/10.1080/15324982.2018.1498038>

633 López, M. V., Arrúe, J.L., Sánchez-Girón, V., 1996. A comparison between seasonal changes in
634 soil water storage and penetration resistance under conventional and conservation

635 tillage systems in Aragon. *Soil Tillage Res.* [https://doi.org/10.1016/0167-1987\(96\)01011-2](https://doi.org/10.1016/0167-1987(96)01011-2)

636 Manukyan, R.R., 2018. Development direction of the soil-formation processes for reclaimed
637 soda solonetz-solonchak soils of the Ararat valley during their cultivation. *Ann. Agrar. Sci.*
638 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.aasci.2017.08.007>

639 Medrano, L.A., Muñoz-Navarro, R., 2017. APROXIMACIÓN CONCEPTUAL Y PRÁCTICA A LOS
640 MODELOS DE ECUACIONES ESTRUCTURALES. *Rev. Digit. Investig. en Docencia Univ.* 219–
641 239. <https://doi.org/10.19083/ridu.11.486>

642 Muneer, M., Oades, J.M., 1989. The role of ca-organic interactions in soil aggregate stability. li.
643 field studies with 14c-labelled straw, CaCO₃ and CaSO₄.2H₂O. *Aust. J. Soil Res.* 27, 401–
644 409. <https://doi.org/10.1071/SR9890401>

645 Nieto, O.M., Castro, J., Fernandez, E., 2011. Long-Term Effects of Residue Management on Soil
646 Fertility in Mediterranean Olive Grove: Simulating Carbon Sequestration with RothC
647 Model, in: *Principles, Application and Assessment in Soil Science*. InTech.
648 <https://doi.org/10.5772/31064>

649 Omar, Z., Bouajila, A., Brahim, N., Grira, M., 2017. Soil property and soil organic carbon pools
650 and stocks of soil under oases in arid regions of Tunisia. *Environ. Earth Sci.*
651 <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12665-017-6745-z>

652 Oster, J.D., Shainberg, I., 2001. Soil responses to sodicity and salinity: challenges and
653 opportunities. *Soil Res.* 39, 1219. <https://doi.org/10.1071/SR00051>

654 Pang, H.-C., Li, Y.-Y., Yang, J.-S., Liang, Y.-S., 2010. Effect of brackish water irrigation and straw
655 mulching on soil salinity and crop yields under monsoonal climatic conditions. *Agric.*
656 *Water Manag.* 97, 1971–1977. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.agwat.2009.08.020>

657 Qadir, M., Schubert, S., 2002. Degradation processes and nutrient constraints in sodic soils. L.
658 *Degrad. Dev.* <https://doi.org/10.1002/ldr.504>

659 Qadir, M., Schubert, S., Ghafoor, A., Murtaza, G., 2001. Amelioration strategies for sodic soils:
660 A review. *L. Degrad. Dev.* 12, 357–386. <https://doi.org/10.1002/ldr.458>

661 R Core Team, 2018. R: A language and environment for statistical computing. *R A Lang.*
662 *Environ. Stat. Comput.*

663 Rengasamy, P., Olsson, K.A., 1991. Sodicty and soil structure. *Aust. J. Soil Res.*
664 <https://doi.org/10.1071/SR9910935>

665 Robertson, G.P., Paul, E.A., 2000. Decomposition and Soil Organic Matter Dynamics, in:
666 *Methods in Ecosystem Science.* https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4612-1224-9_8

667 Rosseel, Y., 2012. lavaan : An R Package for Structural Equation Modeling. *J. Stat. Softw.* 48.
668 <https://doi.org/10.18637/jss.v048.i02>

669 Sallan, J.M., Fernandez, V., Simo, P., Lordan, O., Gonzalez-, D., 2012. Análisis de modelos de
670 ecuaciones estructurales mediante el paquete lavaan. 6th Int. Conf. Ind. Eng. Ind. Manag.
671 XVI Congr. Ing. Organ.

672 Seenivasan, R., Prasath, V., Mohanraj, R., 2015. Restoration of sodic soils involving chemical
673 and biological amendments and phytoremediation by *Eucalyptus camaldulensis* in a
674 semiarid region. *Environ. Geochem. Health.* <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10653-014-9674-8>

675 Shahid, S.A., Zaman, M., Heng, L., 2018. Soil Salinity: Historical Perspectives and a World
676 Overview of the Problem, in: *Guideline for Salinity Assessment, Mitigation and*
677 *Adaptation Using Nuclear and Related Techniques.* Springer International Publishing,
678 Cham, pp. 43–53. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-96190-3_2

679 Smedema, L.K., Shiati, K., 2002. Irrigation and salinity: A perspective review of the salinity
680 hazards of irrigation development in the arid zone. *Irrig. Drain. Syst.*
681 <https://doi.org/10.1023/A:1016008417327>

682 Taboada, M., Lavado, R., Rubio, G., Cosentino, D., 2001. Soil volumetric changes in natric
683 soils caused by air entrapment following seasonal ponding and water table rises.
684 *Geoderma* 101, 49–64. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0016-7061\(00\)00089-6](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0016-7061(00)00089-6)

685 Tabri, N., Elliott, C.M., 2012. Principles and Practice of Structural Equation Modeling. *Can.*
686 *Grad. J. Sociol. Criminol.* 1, 59. <https://doi.org/10.15353/cgjisc-rcessc.v1i1.25>

687 Tejada, M., Garcia, C., Gonzalez, J.L., Hernandez, M.T., 2006. Use of organic amendment as a
688 strategy for saline soil remediation: Influence on the physical, chemical and biological
689 properties of soil. *Soil Biol. Biochem.* <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.soilbio.2005.10.017>

690 Trigalet, S., Van Oost, K., Roisin, C., van Wesemael, B., 2014. Carbon associated with clay and
691 fine silt as an indicator for SOC decadal evolution under different residue management
692 practices. *Agric. Ecosyst. Environ.* <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.agee.2014.06.011>

693 Trüby, P., Aldinger, E., 1989. Eine Methode zur Bestimmung austauschbarer Kationen in
694 Waldböden. *Zeitschrift für Pflanzenernährung und Bodenkd.*
695 <https://doi.org/10.1002/jpln.19891520307>

696 Uckoo, R., 2005. Irrigation and Fertilizer Efficiency in South Texas Grapefruit Production.
697 *Subtrop. Plant Sci.* 57, 23–28.

698 Wang, L., Sun, X., Li, S., Zhang, T., Zhang, W., Zhai, P., 2014. Application of organic
699 amendments to a coastal saline soil in north China: Effects on soil physical and chemical
700 properties and tree growth. *PLoS One.* <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0089185>

701 Wendt, J.W., Hauser, S., 2013. An equivalent soil mass procedure for monitoring soil organic
702 carbon in multiple soil layers. *Eur. J. Soil Sci.* 64, 58–65.
703 <https://doi.org/10.1111/ejss.12002>

704 Wicke, B., Smeets, E., Dornburg, V., Vashev, B., Gaiser, T., Turkenburg, W., Faaij, A., 2011a. The
705 global technical and economic potential of bioenergy from salt-affected soils. *Energy*

706 Environ. Sci. 4, 2669–2681. <https://doi.org/10.1039/c1ee01029h>

707 Wicke, B., Smeets, E., Dornburg, V., Vashev, B., Gaiser, T., Turkenburg, W., Faaij, A., 2011b. The
708 global technical and economic potential of bioenergy from salt-affected soils. *Energy*
709 *Environ. Sci. 4*, 2669–2681. <https://doi.org/10.1039/C1EE01029H>

710 Wicke, B., Smeets, E.M.W., Akanda, R., Stille, L., Singh, R.K., Awan, A.R., Mahmood, K., Faaij,
711 A.P.C., 2013. Biomass production in agroforestry and forestry systems on salt-affected
712 soils in South Asia: Exploration of the GHG balance and economic performance of three
713 case studies. *J. Environ. Manage.* 127, 324–334.
714 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jenvman.2013.05.060>

715 Wiesmeier, M., Schad, P., von Lütow, M., Poeplau, C., Spörlein, P., Geuß, U., Hangen, E.,
716 Reischl, A., Schilling, B., Kögel-Knabner, I., 2014. Quantification of functional soil organic
717 carbon pools for major soil units and land uses in southeast Germany (Bavaria). *Agric.*
718 *Ecosyst. Environ.* <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.agee.2013.12.028>

719 Wilson, M.A., 1987. Elementary N.M.R. Practice Applicable to Geochemistry, in: WILSON, M.A.
720 (Ed.), *NMR Techniques & Applications in Geochemistry & Soil Chemistry*. Pergamon
721 Elsevier, pp. 23–37. <https://doi.org/10.1016/b978-0-08-034852-0.50007-4>

722 Wong, V.N.L., Greene, R.S.B., Dalal, R.C., Murphy, B.W., 2010. Soil carbon dynamics in saline
723 and sodic soils: A review. *Soil Use Manag.* <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1475->
724 [2743.2009.00251.x](https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1475-2743.2009.00251.x)

725 Zhao, H., Lv, Y., Wang, X., Zhang, H., Yang, X., 2012. Tillage impacts on the fractions and
726 compositions of soil organic carbon. *Geoderma*.
727 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.geoderma.2012.06.001>

728

729

730

731 **Table 1.** Description of different management practices in the management systems: i) intensive
 732 tillage with flood irrigation (IT); ii) no-tillage plus lemon pruning residues on the topsoil as mulch
 733 (NT+PM); and iii) reduced tillage plus incorporation of lemon pruning residues (RT + PI).

Management practices	IT	NT+PM	RT+PI
	until 40 cm soil		until 15 cm soil
Tillage	depth, 3 times per year	-	depth, 1 time per year
Addition of pruning	-	Mulching	Incorporation into the soil
Addition of Ca ²⁺ and Mg ²⁺	-	+	+
Irrigation	Flood (since 1987)	Drip-irrigation (since 2000)	Drip-irrigation (since 2000)
Fertilization	-	+	+
Pesticides	+	+	+

734

735 **Table 2.** Bulk soil properties at two depths (0-5 and 5-15 cm) for IT (intensive tillage plus flood
 736 irrigation), NT+PM (no tillage plus pruning residues mulching plus drip-irrigation), and RT+PI
 737 (reduced tillage plus pruning residues incorporation plus drip-irrigation). Numerical values are
 738 means ± standard errors for n = 6. Different letters in rows indicate significant differences
 739 between management systems (Tukey's test, P < 0.05). EC: electrical conductivity, BS: base
 740 saturation, SAR: sodium adsorption ratio, BD: bulk density, WHC: water holding capacity, MWD:
 741 mean weight diameter; OC: soil organic carbon, N: total nitrogen

Soil properties	Soil depth	Management systems		
	(cm)	IT	NT+PM	RT + PI
pH (1:5)	0- 5	8.5 ± 0.1a	8.4 ± 0.0a	8.5 ± 0.0a
	5-15	8.6 ± 0.0a	8.5 ± 0.0a	8.5 ± 0.0a
EC ($\mu\text{S cm}^{-1}$)	0- 5	694.3 ± 69.3a	356.6 ± 14.0b	459.6 ± 36.3b
	5-15	391.7 ± 5.9a	317.5 ± 18.6a	356.1 ± 13.8a
BS (%)	0- 5	99.8 ± 0.2a	100.0 ± 0.0a	99.9 ± 0.0a
	5-15	99.8 ± 0.2a	99.8 ± 0.1a	99.9 ± 0.0a
SAR	0- 5	1.1 ± 0.0a	0.3 ± 0.2b	0.1 ± 0.0b
	5-15	1.1 ± 0.0a	0.3 ± 0.2b	0.1 ± 0.0b
CaCO ₃	0- 5	51.8 ± 0.9a	49.7 ± 1.6a	48.6 ± 2.3a
	5-15	53.4 ± 0.3a	49.3 ± 1.5a	48.3 ± 2.4a
Texture (%):				
Clay	0- 5	24.0 ± 0.1a	22.6 ± 2.0a	22.5 ± 0.0a
	5-15	25.1 ± 0.1a	28.2 ± 0.3a	26.5 ± 0.2a
Silt	0- 5	70.4 ± 0.7a	64.4 ± 3.1a	70.9 ± 0.0a
	5-15	69.8 ± 0.3a	69.3 ± 0.4a	67.8 ± 0.5b
Sand	0- 5	5.6 ± 0.3b	13.0 ± 5.1a	6.6 ± 0.0b
	5-15	5.2 ± 0.4a	2.5 ± 0.5b	5.7 ± 0.3a
BD (g cm^{-3})	0- 5	1.6 ± 0.0a	1.3 ± 0.0b	1.1 ± 0.1b
	5-15	1.6 ± 0.0a	1.3 ± 0.0b	1.2 ± 0.0b
Pore size distribution (%):				
Fine pores	0- 5	16.4 ± 3.3a	18.7 ± 0.8a	16.6 ± 1.6a
	5-15	15.1 ± 0.5c	18.2 ± 0.8a	16.9 ± 0.7b
Medium pores	0- 5	9.9 ± 1.5b	11.2 ± 0.3b	15.2 ± 0.6a

	5-15	10.1 ± 0.6b	10.4 ± 0.1b	15.5 ± 0.5a
Large pores	0- 5	15.0 ± 4.1b	22.0 ± 4.0ab	27.2 ± 2.2a
	5-15	12.6 ± 2.1b	21.1 ± 1.7a	20.1.5 ± 3.4a
WHC (%)	0- 5	26.2 ± 0.8c	29.9 ± 0.6b	31.8 ± 1.3a
	5-15	25.2 ± 1.0c	28.6 ± 0.7b	32.4 ± 1.6a
Total porosity (%)	0- 5	41.2 ± 4.7b	51.9 ± 8.2ab	59.0 ± 5.6a
	5-15	37.8 ± 3.1b	49.7 ± 2.3a	50.5 ± 4.1a
MWD (mm)	0- 5	0.3 ± 0.0c	0.7 ± 0.2b	1.5 ± 0.1a
	5-15	0.2 ± 0.0c	0.5 ± 0.1b	1.5 ± 0.3a
OC (mg g⁻¹)	0- 5	11.8 ± 1.0b	19.1 ± 1.0ab	31.6 ± 2.2a
	5-15	11.2 ± 0.5b	14.0 ± 1.9b	29.8 ± 4.3a
N (mg g⁻¹)	0- 5	1.4 ± 0.2b	2.2 ± 0.4b	3.3 ± 0.6a
	5-15	1.2 ± 0.1b	1.7 ± 0.3b	3.2 ± 0.6a
C:N ratio	0- 5	8.3 ± 0.8a	8.5 ± 0.9a	9.5 ± 0.9a
	5-15	9.6 ± 1.2a	8.3 ± 0.6a	9.4 ± 0.4a

742

743 **Table 3.** OC, IC and N concentration (mg g⁻¹ aggregate) of aggregate size classes LM (>2,000 µm),
744 SM (250–2,000 µm), m (63–250 µm), and s+c (<63 µm) in the 0–5 and 5–15 cm soil layers for IT
745 (intensive tillage plus flood irrigation), NT+PM (no-tillage plus pruning residues mulching plus
746 drip-irrigation), and RT+PI (reduced tillage plus pruning residues incorporation plus drip-
747 irrigation) at 0-5 and 5-15 cm soil depth. Numerical values are means ± standard errors. Different
748 lower-case letters in columns indicate significant differences between management systems for
749 each aggregate size classes (Tukey's test, P < 0.05).

OC (mg g⁻¹ aggregate)			
LM	SM	m	s+c

<u>0-5 cm</u>				
IT	18.7 ± 2.9b	24.4 ± 4.0b	18.6 ± 0.9b	9.0 ± 1.1c
NT+PM	26.0 ± 8.0b	28.8 ± 1.6ab	31.2 ± 3.4a	12.5 ± 1.0b
RT+PI	42.5 ± 3.0a	32.2 ± 1.2a	33.1 ± 3.3a	15.7 ± 1.0a
<u>5-15 cm</u>				
IT	22.0 ± 5.3b	20.8 ± 1.8b	16.2 ± 1.1c	9.2 ± 1.4a
NT+PM	27.1 ± 0.9b	21.4 ± 1.3b	23.0 ± 2.3b	9.1 ± 2.0a
RT+PI	40.2 ± 3.6a	33.4 ± 1.9a	33.0 ± 2.3a	14.2 ± 2.9a
IC (mg g⁻¹ aggregate)				
<u>0-5 cm</u>				
IT	61.3 ± 0.7a	61.6 ± 1.4a	61.1 ± 0.4a	63.7 ± 1.2a
NT+PM	58.2 ± 1.1b	56.6 ± 1.3b	55.3 ± 1.2b	60.5 ± 0.6b
RT+PI	56.6 ± 1.1b	57.0 ± 0.6b	56.5 ± 0.3b	60.9 ± 0.5b
<u>5-15 cm</u>				
IT	61.7 ± 2.3a	62.1 ± 0.6a	62.3 ± 1.0a	63.7 ± 2.2a
NT+PM	56.7 ± 2.6b	58.5 ± 0.5b	58.0 ± 0.2b	61.7 ± 0.9a
RT+PI	56.8 ± 1.3b	57.0 ± 0.5c	56.1 ± 0.9b	61.3 ± 0.2a
N (mg g⁻¹ aggregate)				
<u>0-5 cm</u>				
IT	2.2 ± 0.3b	2.5 ± 0.3b	2.0 ± 0.1b	1.2 ± 0.2a
NT+PM	3.1 ± 0.7ab	3.0 ± 0.1ab	3.5 ± 0.6a	1.6 ± 0.4a
RT+PI	4.1 ± 1.0a	3.5 ± 0.4a	3.7 ± 0.6a	1.9 ± 0.3a
<u>5-15 cm</u>				
IT	2.7 ± 1.0a	2.2 ± 1.0b	1.8 ± 0.1c	0.9 ± 0.1b
NT+PM	2.7 ± 0.1a	2.6 ± 0.7ab	2.5 ± 0.2b	1.2 ± 0.3ab

RT+PI	4.1 ± 0.5a	3.5 ± 0.4a	3.6 ± 0.3a	1.7 ± 0.4a
-------	------------	------------	------------	------------

750

751 **Table 4.** Weight distribution of SOM fractions (g fraction 100 g⁻¹ soil): fPOM (particulate organic
752 matter), oPOM (occluded particulate organic matter) MAOM (mineral-associated organic
753 matter) for IT (intensive tillage plus flood irrigation), NT+PM (no-tillage plus pruning residues
754 mulching plus drip-irrigation), and RT+PI (reduced tillage plus pruning residues incorporation
755 plus drip-irrigation) at 0-5 and 5-15 cm soil depth. Numerical values are means ± standard errors.
756 Different lower-case letters in columns indicate significant differences between management
757 systems for each fraction (Tukey's test, P < 0.05).

(g fraction 100 g⁻¹ soil)			
<u>0-5 cm</u>	fPOM	oPOM	MAOM
IT	0.2 ± 0.0c	0.7 ± 0.0c	99.2 ± 0.0a
NT+PM	0.4 ± 0.1b	4.2 ± 0.0a	95.4 ± 0.1c
RT+PI	0.7 ± 0.0a	3.0 ± 0.1b	96.4 ± 0.1b
<u>5-15 cm</u>			
IT	0.2 ± 0.0c	0.8 ± 0.1c	96.1 ± 0.2a
NT+PM	1.2 ± 0.1a	1.4 ± 0.0b	97.5 ± 0.1a
RT+PI	0.8 ± 0.1b	2.6 ± 0.1a	96.6 ± 0.2a

758

759 **Table 5.** Relative contents (%) of Alkyl-C, total O-N-Alkyl-C, Aryl-C, and Carbonyl-C and the A:OA
760 ratio (Alkyl-C : total O-N-Alkyl-C) in the fractions fPOM (particulate organic matter), oPOM
761 (occluded particulate organic matter), and MAOM (mineral-associated organic matter), for IT
762 (intensive tillage plus flood irrigation), NT+PM (no-tillage plus pruning residues mulching plus
763 drip-irrigation), and RT+PI (reduced tillage plus pruning residues incorporation plus drip-
764 irrigation) at 0-5 and 5-15 cm soil depth. Numerical values are means ± standard errors. Different

765 lower-case letters in columns indicate significant differences between management systems for
 766 each fraction (Tukey's test, $P < 0.05$).

<u>0-5 cm</u>	Alkyl-C	O-N-Alkyl-C	Aryl-C	Carboxyl-C	Ratio
	0-45 ppm	45-110 ppm	110-165 ppm	165-215 ppm	A:OA
fPOM					
IT	18.0 ± 1.4a	50.9 ± 1.4b	25.2 ± 0.6a	5.8 ± 0.8a	0.4 ± 0.0a
NT+PM	16.7 ± 1.0b	53.1 ± 0.2ab	24.6 ± 1.5a	5.6 ± 0.6a	0.3 ± 0.0b
RT+PI	18.6 ± 0.2a	55.2 ± 1.2a	21.7 ± 0.8b	4.5 ± 0.7a	0.3 ± 0.0b
oPOM					
IT	26.6 ± 1.2a	44.9 ± 1.1ab	19.1 ± 1.0a	9.4 ± 0.5a	0.6 ± 0.0a
NT+PM	24.6 ± 0.8b	46.1 ± 0.6a	22.1 ± 0.4a	7.2 ± 0.8ab	0.5 ± 0.0b
RT+PI	25.8 ± 0.3ab	43.5 ± 0.4b	21.2 ± 0.2a	9.5 ± 0.3a	0.6 ± 0.0a
MAOM					
IT	21.6 ± 1.4b	39.9 ± 2.0b	27.3 ± 1.7a	11.2 ± 1.2a	0.5 ± 0.0c
NT+PM	20.9 ± 0.8b	47.1 ± 2.1a	21.9 ± 1.8b	10.1 ± 1.6a	0.4 ± 0.0b
RT+PI	24.5 ± 0.1a	40.6 ± 1.5b	23.5 ± 0.7b	11.4 ± 1.6a	0.6 ± 0.0a
<u>5-15 cm</u>	Alkyl-C	O-N-Alkyl-C	Aryl-C	Carboxyl-C	Ratio
	0-45 ppm	45-110 ppm	110-165 ppm	165-215 ppm	A:OA
fPOM					
IT	15.1 ± 1.4b	50.9 ± 2.0b	25.8 ± 1.7 a	8.2 ± 0.5a	0.3 ± 0.0a
NT+PM	17.3 ± 0.7a	55.6 ± 0.1a	21.5 ± 0.9b	5.6 ± 0.2b	0.3 ± 0.0a
RT+PI	14.2 ± 0.5b	56.9 ± 0.3a	22.5 ± 0.8b	6.4 ± 0.2b	0.2 ± 0.0b
oPOM					
IT	30.1 ± 1.5a	48.4 ± 0.9b	18.8 ± 2.4a	2.7 ± 1.4b	0.6 ± 0.0a
NT+PM	25.3 ± 0.7b	44.5 ± 0.1c	22.1 ± 0.6a	8.1 ± 0.4a	0.6 ± 0.0a

RT+PI	14.5 ± 0.2c	54.9 ± 0.2a	23.0 ± 0.1a	7.6 ± 0.6a	0.3 ± 0.0b
-------	-------------	-------------	-------------	------------	------------

MAOM					
-------------	--	--	--	--	--

IT	17.8 ± 1.1b	39.3 ± 2.6a	29.8 ± 0.7a	13.1 ± 1.6a	0.5 ± 0.0b
----	-------------	-------------	-------------	-------------	------------

NT+PM	22.6 ± 1.7ab	42.9 ± 2.0a	23.6 ± 2.6b	10.9 ± 1.2a	0.5 ± 0.0b
-------	--------------	-------------	-------------	-------------	------------

RT+PI	24.5 ± 1.1a	39.9 ± 1.3a	23.7 ± 0.5b	11.9 ± 2.1a	0.6 ± 0.0a
-------	-------------	-------------	-------------	-------------	------------

Graphical abstract

Figure 1. Scheme of the SOM fractionation method: SPT (Sodium polytungstate), fPOM (free particulate organic matter, density $< 1.6 \text{ g cm}^{-3}$), oPOM (occluded particulate organic matter, ultrasonication and density $< 1.6 \text{ g cm}^{-3}$) and MAOM (mineral-associated organic matter, density $> 1.6 \text{ g cm}^{-3}$).

Figure 2. A) Soil OC stocks and **B)** N stocks (kg m^{-2}) (mean values \pm standard errors) among the different treatments: IT (intensive tillage plus flood irrigation), NT+PM (no-tillage plus pruning residues mulching plus drip-irrigation), and RT+PI (reduced tillage plus pruning residues incorporation plus drip-irrigation) at 0-5 and 5-15 cm soil depth. Different lowercase letters in bars indicate significant differences between management systems (Tukey's test, $P < 0.05$).

Figure 3. Aggregate size class distribution ($\text{g aggregate } 100 \text{ g}^{-1} \text{ soil}$): LM ($>2000 \mu\text{m}$), SM (250–2000 μm), m (63–250 μm), and s + c ($<63 \mu\text{m}$) in the 0–5 and 5–15 cm soil layers for IT (intensive tillage plus flood irrigation), NT+PM (no-tillage plus pruning residues mulching plus drip-irrigation), and RT+PI (reduced tillage plus pruning residues incorporation plus drip-irrigation). Numerical values are means \pm standard errors. Different lowercase letters in bars indicate significant differences between management systems for each aggregate size (Tukey's test, $P < 0.05$).

Figure 4. Contribution of OC (left) and N (right) contents ($\text{mg g}^{-1} \text{ soil}$) of aggregate size classes to total SOC and N of bulk soils (LM $>2,000 \mu\text{m}$, SM 250–2,000 μm , m 63–250 μm , and s+c $<63 \mu\text{m}$) for IT (intensive tillage plus flood irrigation), NT+PM (no-tillage plus pruning residues mulching plus drip-irrigation), and RT+PI (reduced tillage plus pruning residues incorporation plus drip-irrigation) at 0-5 and 5-15 cm soil depth. Different lowercase letters in bars indicate significant differences between management systems (Tukey's test, $P < 0.05$).

Figure 5. OC (left) and N (right) content ($\text{mg g}^{-1} \text{ soil}$) in SOM fractions fPOM (particulate organic matter), oPOM (occluded particulate organic matter), MAOM (mineral-associated organic

matter), in the 0–5 and 5–15 cm soil layers, for IT (intensive tillage plus flood irrigation), NT+PM (no-tillage plus pruning residues mulching plus drip-irrigation), and RT+PI (reduced tillage plus pruning residues incorporation plus drip-irrigation). Different lowercase letters in bars indicate significant differences between management systems (Tukey's test, $P < 0.05$).

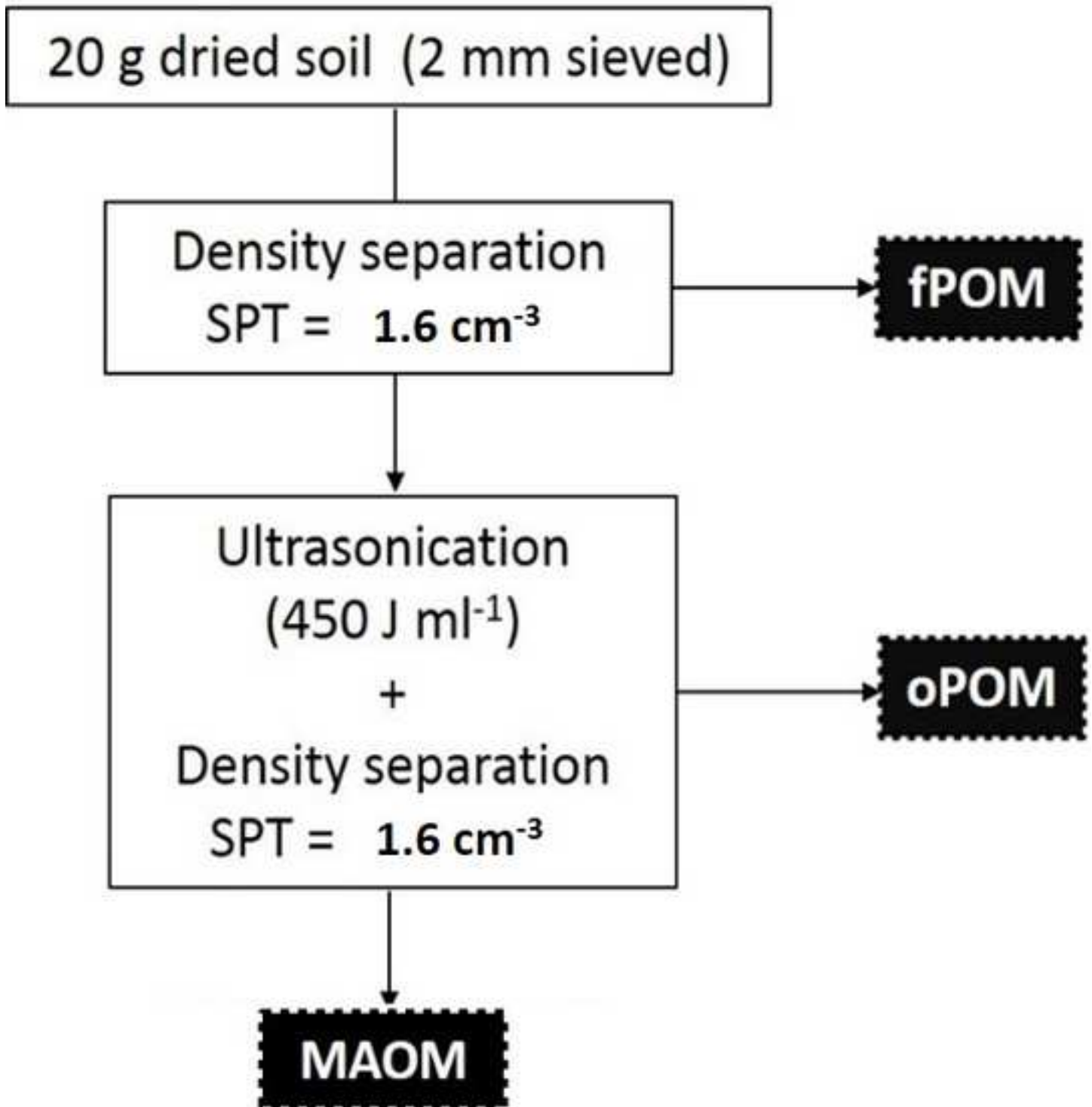
Figure 6. PCA (Principal Component Analysis) results of the factors facilitating macro-aggregation and SOC stabilization in IT (intensive tillage plus flood irrigation; red color), NT+PM (no tillage plus pruning residues mulching plus drip-irrigation; orange color) and RT+PI (reduced tillage plus pruning residues incorporation plus drip-irrigation; green color).

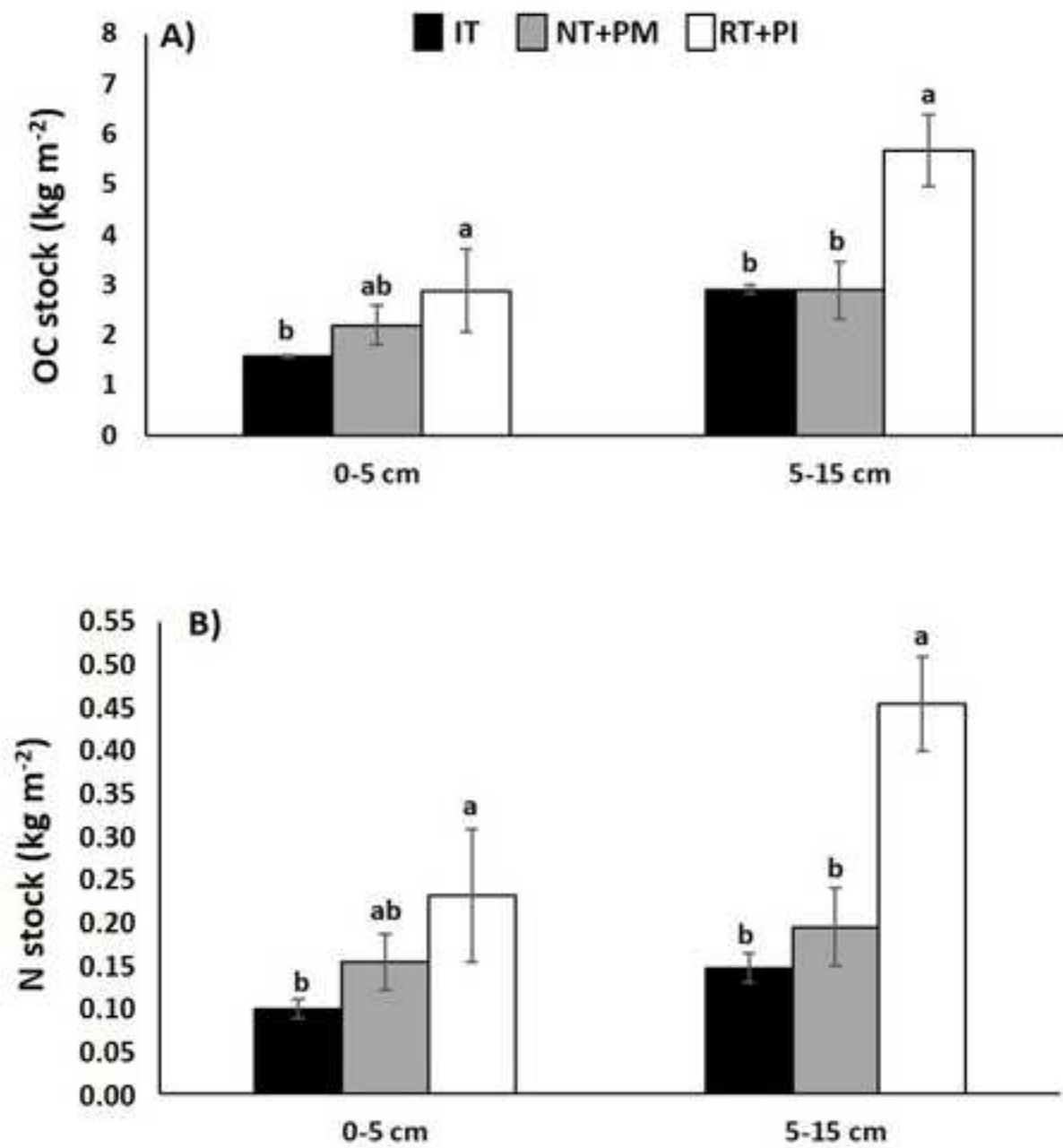
Supplementary table 1A. Loading of long-term macroaggregate forming and soil OC stabilization in a Principal Component Analysis (PCA) for the management practices.

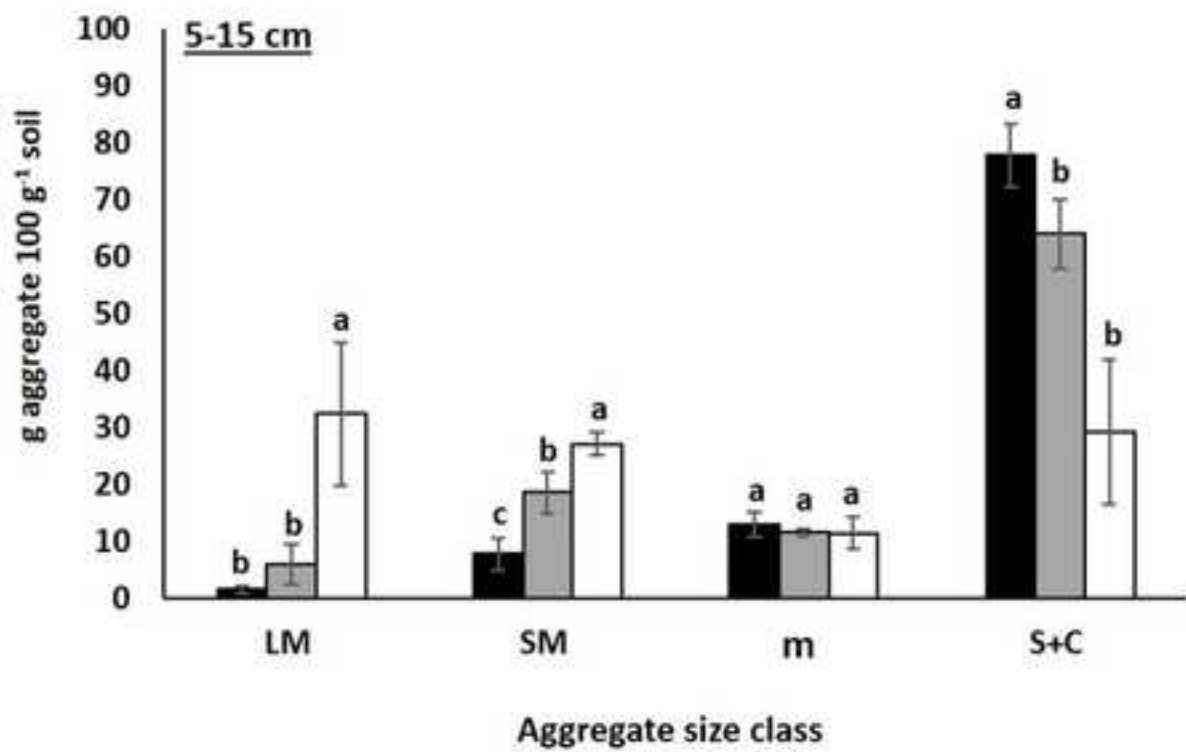
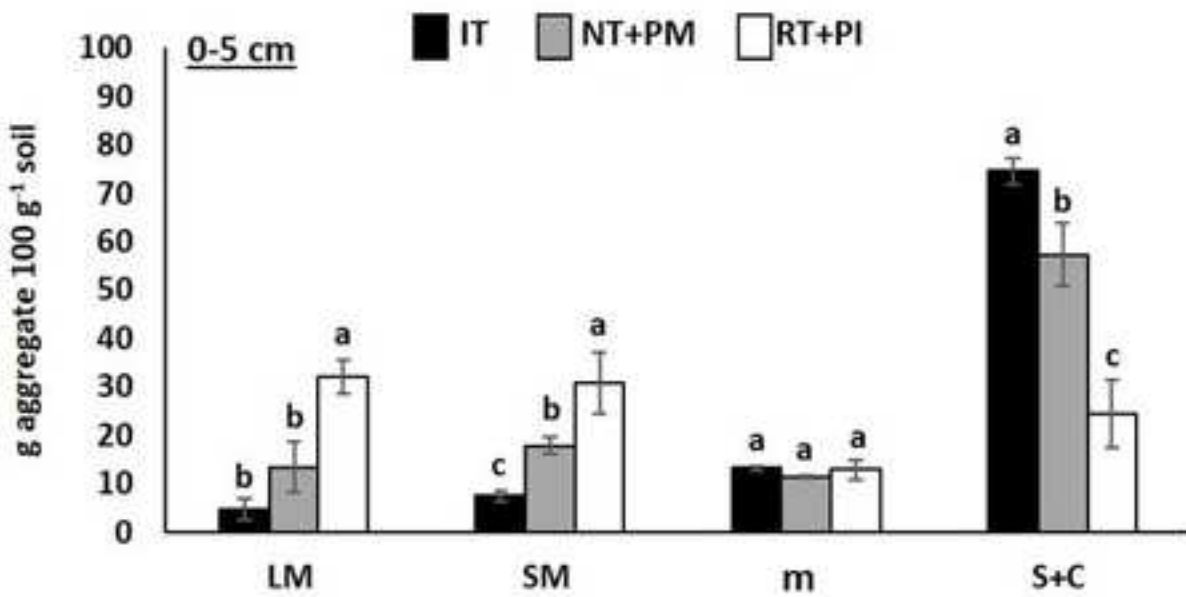
Supplementary figure 1A. Radar charts showing the difference between the main soil variables for IT (intensive tillage plus flood irrigation), NT+PM (no-tillage plus pruning residues mulching plus drip-irrigation), and RT+PI (reduced tillage plus pruning residues incorporation plus drip-irrigation) at 0-5 and 5-15 cm soil depth. BD (Bulk density), SAR (sodium adsorption ratio), fPOM (free particulate organic matter), oPOM, (particulate organic matter) MAOM (Mineral-associated organic matter), MWD (Mean Weight Diameter), EC (electric conductivity), A: OA (Alkyl: O-N-Alkyl ratio).

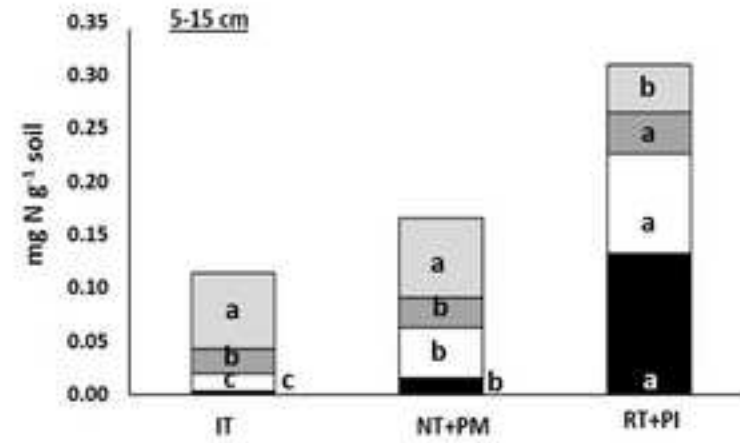
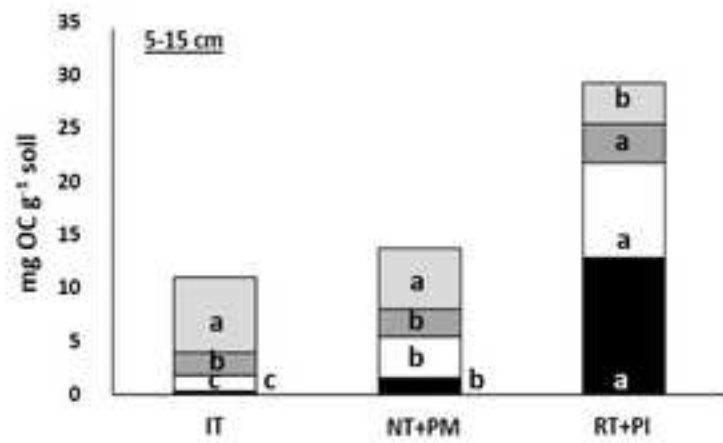
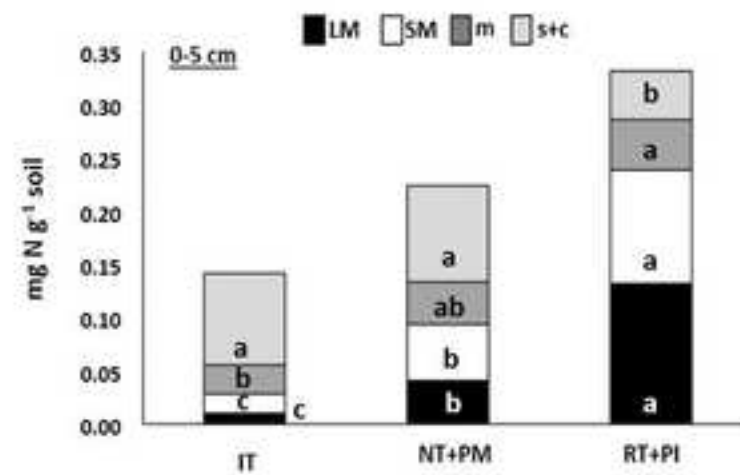
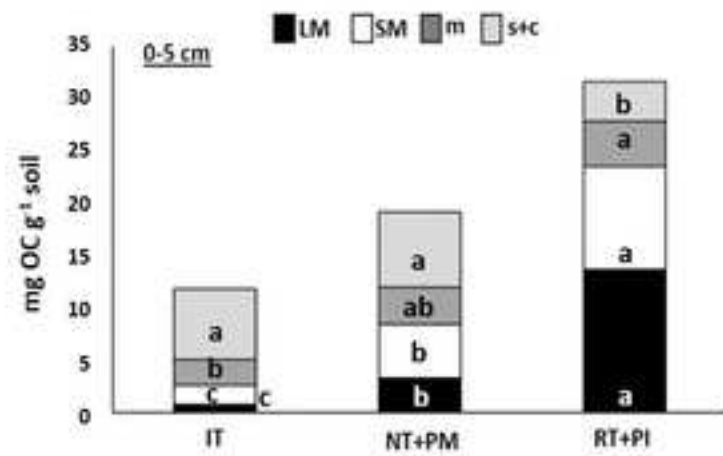
Supplementary figure 2A: ^{13}C NMR spectra with chemical shift regions of Alkyl-C, total O-N-Alkyl-C, Aryl-C, and Carbonyl-C and the ratio A:OA (Alkyl-C : total O-N-Alkyl-C ratio) for the fractions fPOM (particulate organic matter), oPOM (occluded particulate organic matter) and MAOM (mineral-associated organic matter) for IT (intensive tillage plus flood irrigation), NT+PM (no-tillage plus pruning residues mulching plus drip-irrigation), and RT+PI (reduced tillage plus pruning residues incorporation plus drip-irrigation) at 0-5 and 5-15 cm soil depth.

Supplementary figure 3A. Structural equation modelling (SEM) for the aggregate stability. TLI: Tucker Lewis index, CFI: Comparative fit index, RMSEA: root mean square error of approximation, and SRMR: Standardized Root Mean Square Residual.



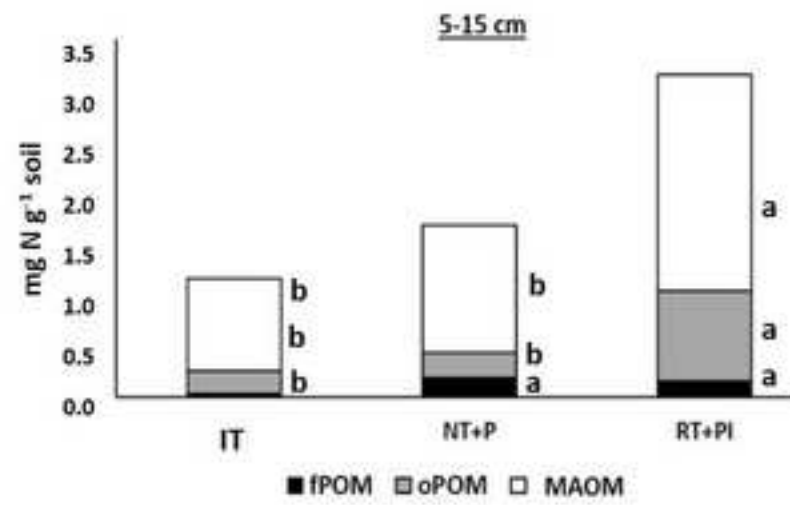
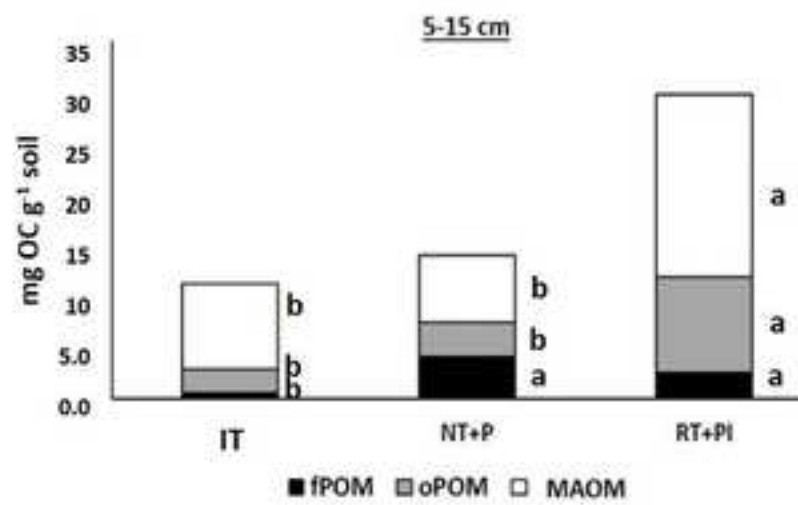
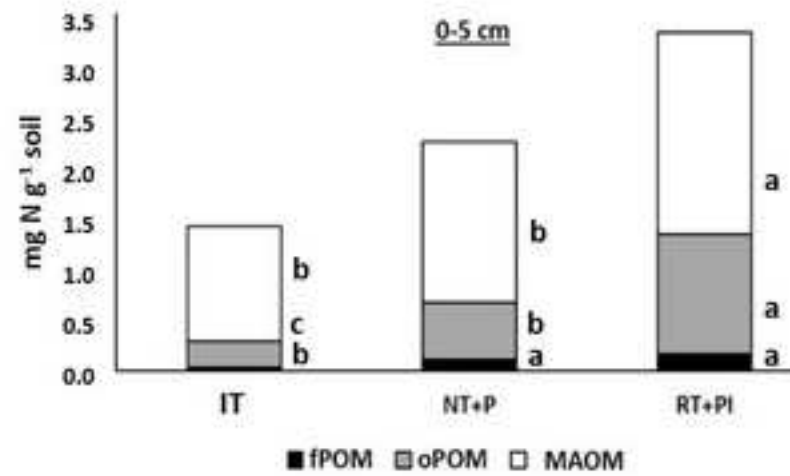
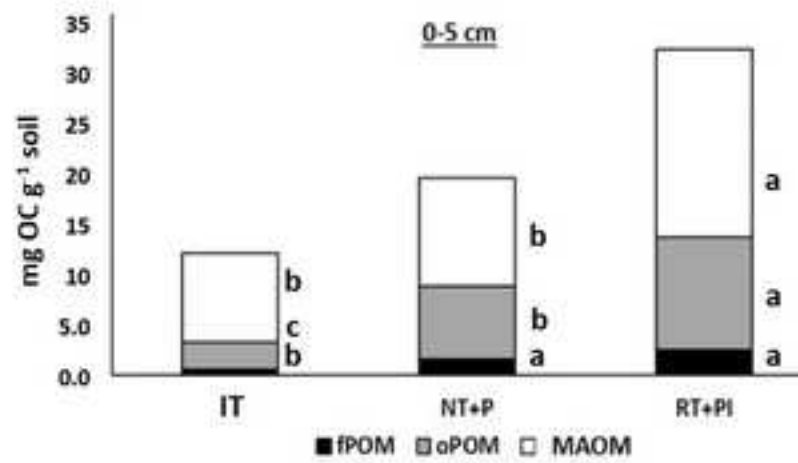






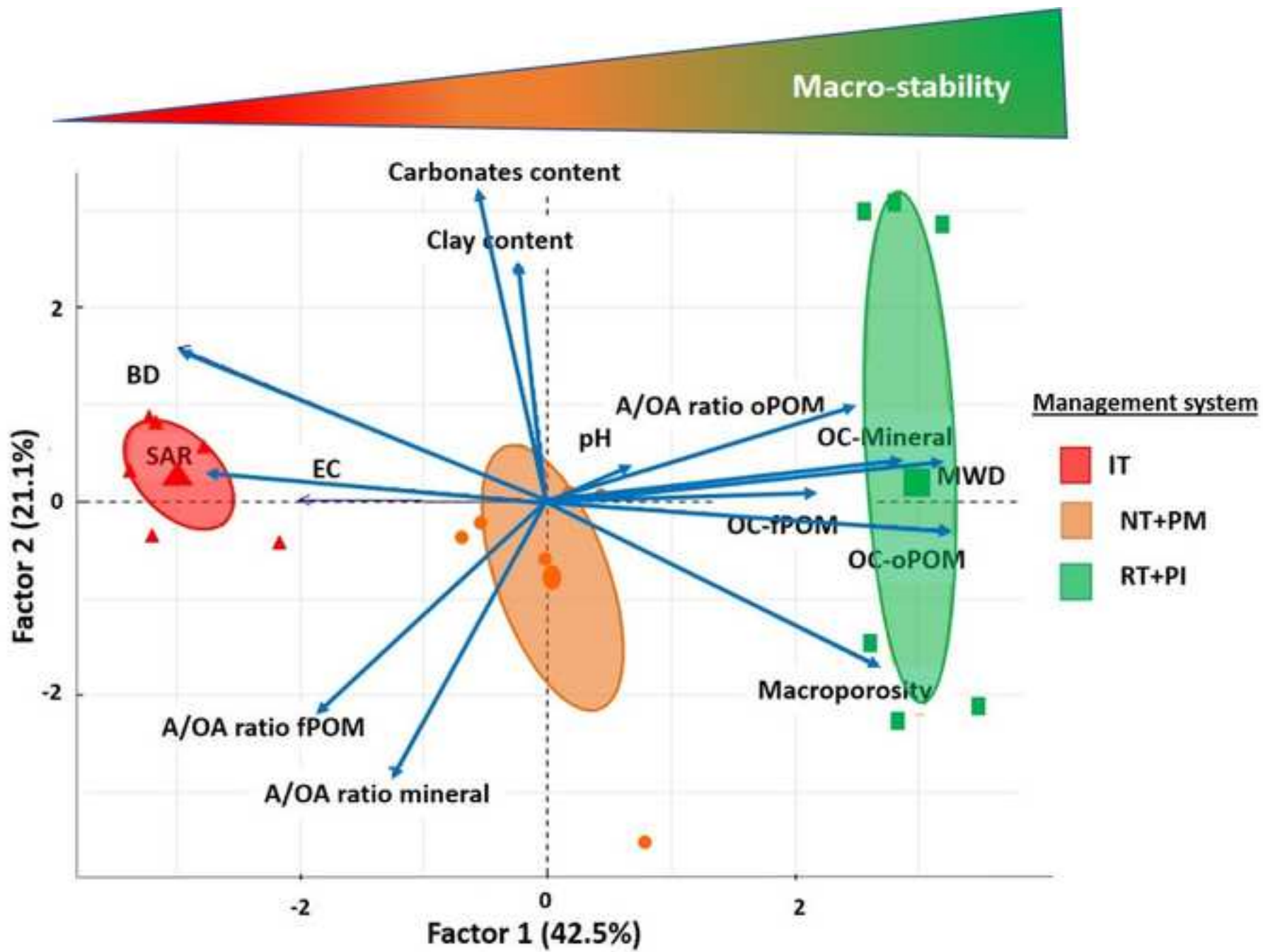
Management system

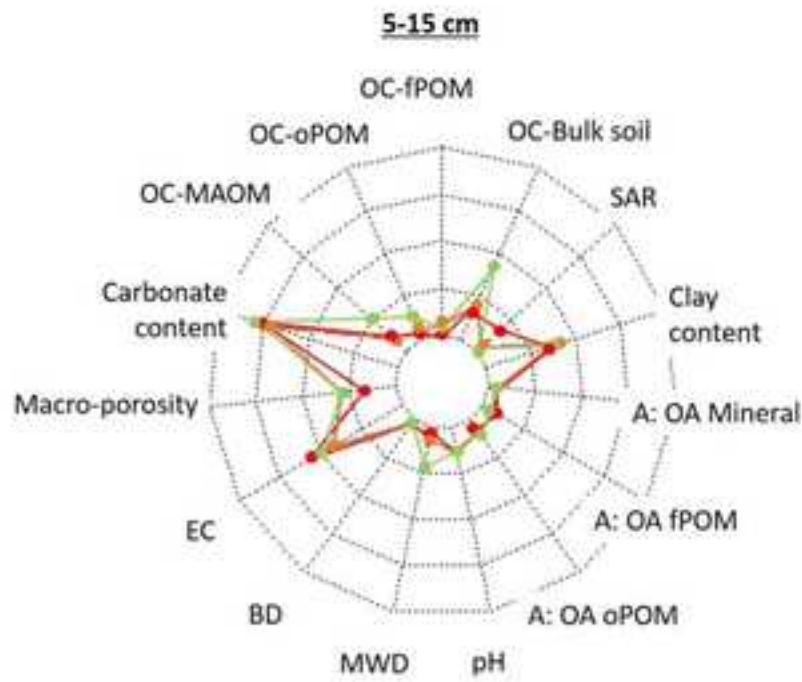
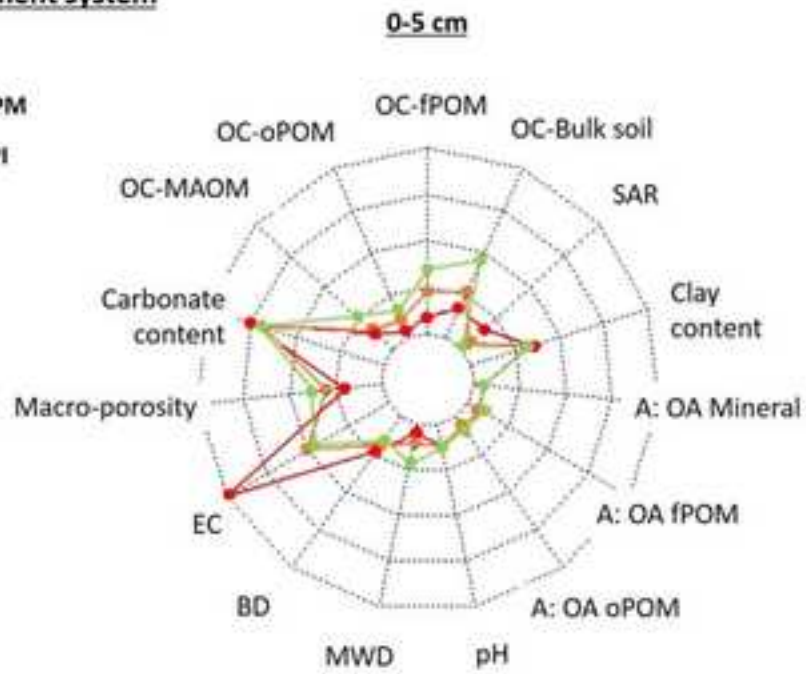
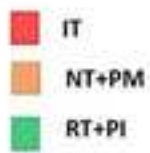
Management system

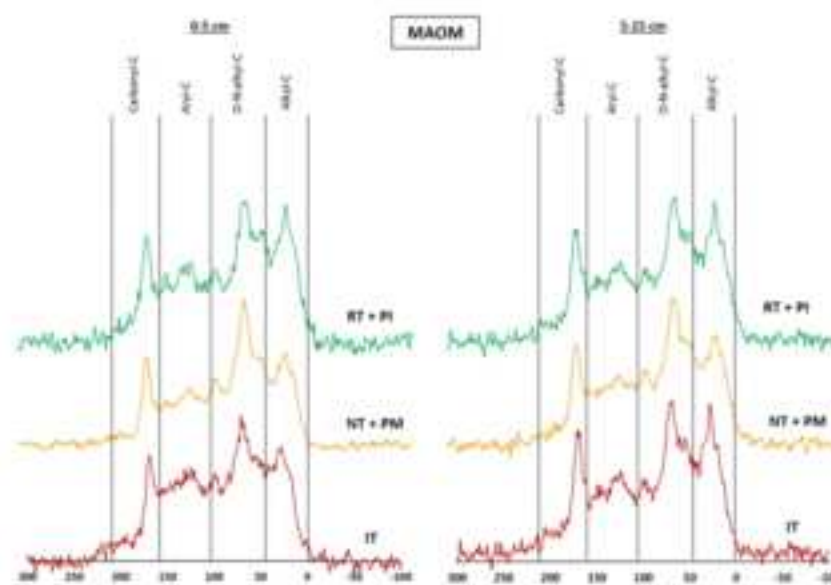
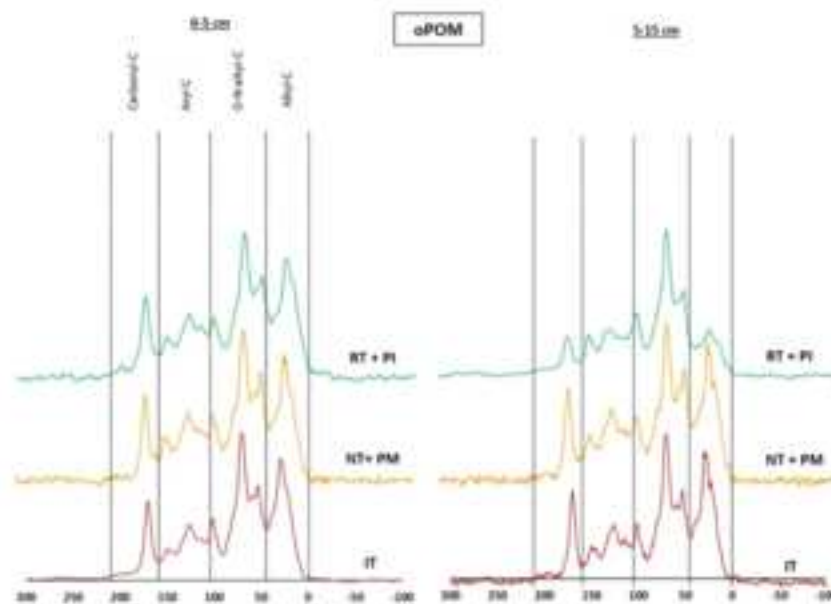
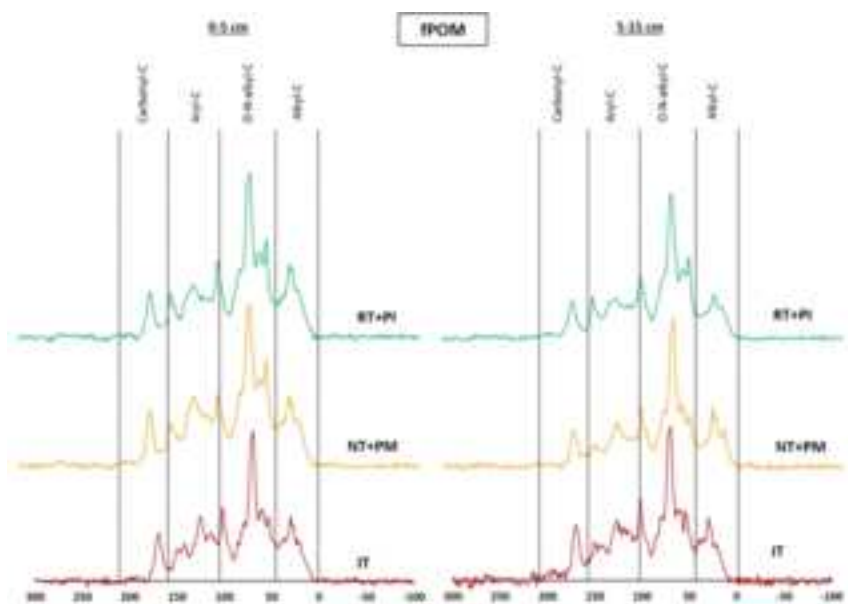


Density fraction

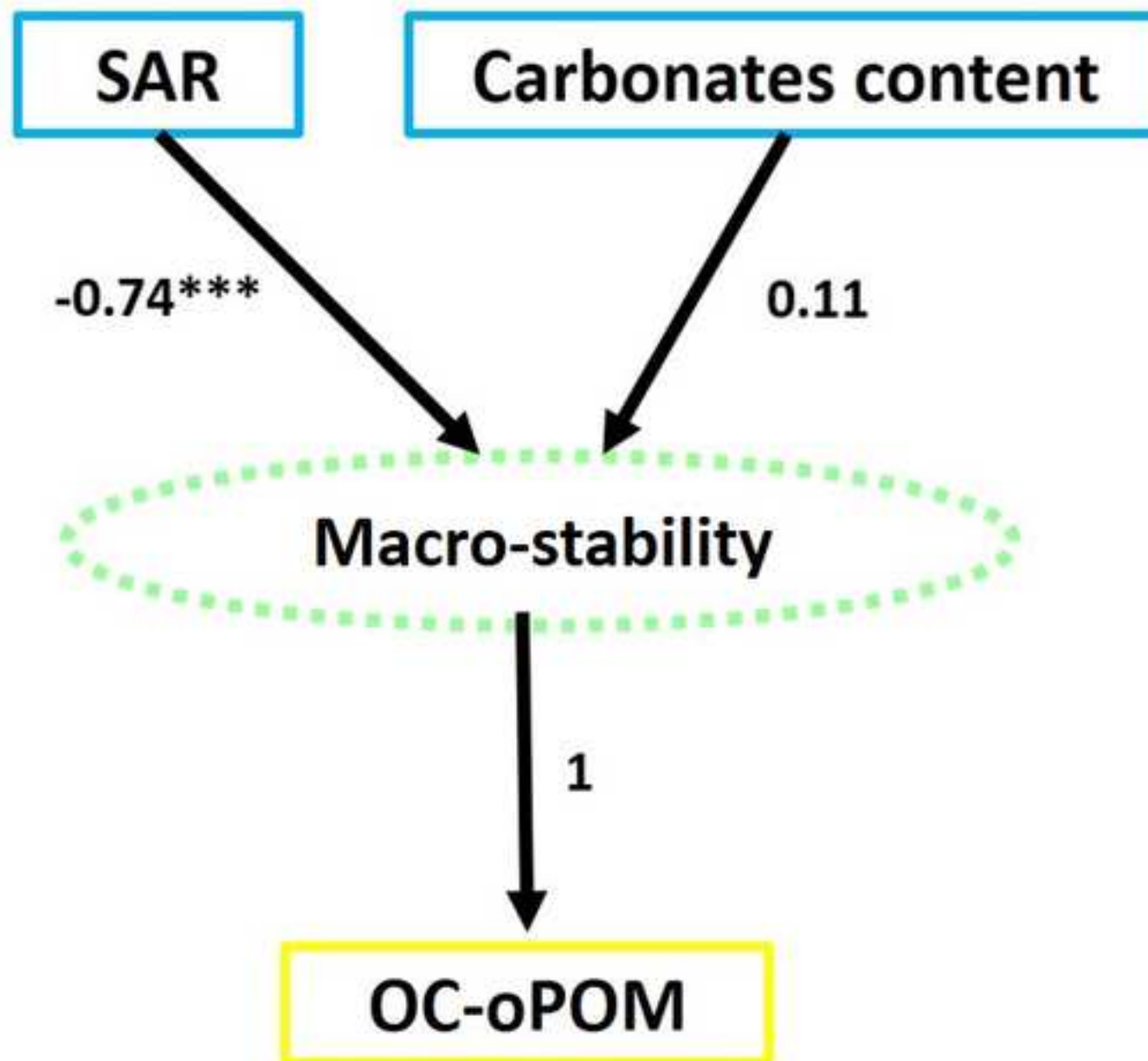
Density fraction



Management system



TLI: 1.00 CFI: 1.00 RMSA: 0.00 SRMR: 0.00



Supplementary Table 1A Eigenvalues of each PCA dimension

	Eigenvalue	Variance percent	Cumulative variance percent
Dim.1	6.0	42.5	42.5
Dim.2	3.0	21.1	63.6
Dim.3	1.8	12.8	76.4
Dim.4	1.2	8.4	84.8
Dim.5	0.9	6.6	91.4

Supplementary Table 2A Loadings of different soil variables on the two most important factors as identified in Principal Component Analysis

Explained variance	<i>Factor 1</i>	<i>Factor 2</i>	<i>Factor 3</i>	<i>Factor 4</i>
	0.43	0.21	0.13	0.08
<i>Fraction related with SOM pools (concentration in mg g⁻¹)</i>				
OC-fPOM	0.60	0.02	-0.61	-0.45
OC-oPOM	0.91	-0.25	0.28	0.10
OC-MAOM	0.80	-0.12	0.46	0.20
<i>Degradation status of SOM pools</i>				
A: OA ratio fPOM	-0.58	-0.68	-0.20	0.10
A: OA ratio oPOM	0.67	0.27	0.24	-0.08
A: OA ratio MAOM	-0.36	-0.75	0.15	-0.08
<i>Physical and chemical soil properties with influence in soil aggregation</i>				
Carbonate content (%)	-0.16	0.92	0.18	0.18
Clay content (%)	-0.07	0.68	-0.50	-0.29
Macro-porosity (%)	0.75	-0.48	-0.11	0.04
E.C. ($\mu\text{S cm}^{-1}$)	-0.56	0.01	0.59	-0.32
SAR (mmol L^{-1})	-0.91	0.10	0.21	0.24
pH	0.17	0.10	-0.47	0.79
Bulk density	-0.83	0.44	0.11	-0.03
MWD	0.89	-0.11	0.31	-0.03

Declaration of interests

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

The authors declare the following financial interests/personal relationships which may be considered as potential competing interests: