

Title: Simulating Soil Organic Carbon Sequestration in Cotton Production Systems with EPIC and the Soil Conditioning Index in the Southeastern USA

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1 **Simulating Soil Organic Carbon Sequestration in Cotton**
2 **Production Systems with EPIC and the Soil Conditioning Index in**
3 **the Southeastern USA**

4
5 **ABSTRACT:** Models are being developed and utilized by scientists and
6 government agencies to quantify the potential for carbon storage in soil. We used
7 the EPIC v. 3060 model and the soil conditioning index (SCI) to estimate long-term
8 SOC storage at Temple TX, McColl SC, and Watkinsville GA using four
9 management systems: (a) cotton (*Gossypium hirsutum* L.) with conventional
10 tillage, (b) cotton with no tillage, (c) corn (*Zea mays* L.)–cotton rotation with no
11 tillage, and (d) bermudagrass (*Cynodon dactylon* L.)–corn–cotton rotation with no
12 tillage. All no-tillage systems used wheat (*Triticum aestivum* L.) as a cover crop.
13 Simulated SOC sequestration averaged $0.46 \text{ Mg ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ under the three no-tillage
14 management systems and $-0.03 \text{ Mg ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ under conventional tillage with EPIC.
15 The SCI also predicted a strong difference in SOC sequestration between
16 conventional and no tillage. Differences in SOC sequestration among crop
17 rotations were not readily apparent with EPIC, but were with SCI. Predictions of
18 SOC sequestration with EPIC were related to the SCI, but not necessarily in a
19 linear manner as previously suggested. Under the simulated management and
20 environmental conditions selected, the SCI appears to be a valuable method for
21 making reasonable, cost-effective estimates of potential SOC sequestration in the
22 southeastern USA, although validations under actual field conditions are still
23 needed.

24

25 **Keywords:** Conservation tillage, cover cropping, crop rotation, modeling, water-
26 use efficiency

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29 **Carbon sequestration in soil has emerged as a technology with significant**
30 **potential for stabilizing atmospheric concentrations of greenhouse gases at**
31 **non-threatening levels (Izaurralde et al., 2006).** Estimates of long-term soil
32 organic carbon (SOC) storage in agricultural cropping systems are needed to
33 evaluate the effectiveness of different management systems across a wide range
34 of soils, crop, and climate conditions (Causarano et al., 2006).

35 The southeastern USA is a warm, humid region conducive to high C fixation
36 in plant biomass, but also known for high rates of decomposition (Franzluebbers,
37 2005). The region can be defined as an area from eastern Texas to Virginia and
38 southwards (Figure 1). The impact of agricultural management practices on SOC
39 will vary depending on climatic conditions that influence plant and soil processes
40 driving soil organic matter dynamics (Ogle et al., 2005). Comparing regions of
41 North America, the effect of conservation tillage on SOC sequestration was
42 greatest in the central and southeastern USA and lowest in the northeastern USA
43 and eastern Canada (Franzluebbers and Follett, 2005). In the southeastern USA,
44 SOC sequestration was most significant with forage management systems, cover
45 cropping, manure application, and conservation tillage (Franzluebbers, 2005).

46 Agronomic and environmental benefits of conservation tillage may be
47 greatly enhanced by diverse crop rotations and cover cropping (Reeves, 1994; Lal,
48 2003). In addition, several studies have shown how conservation tillage can
49 improve yield and crop water use efficiency (WUE), as well as reduce water runoff
50 and soil erosion (Unger and Vigil, 1998; Norwood, 1999; Hatfield et al., 2001;

51 Reddy et al., 2004; Truman et al., 2005). Conservation tillage, winter cover
52 cropping, crop rotation, and residue management improve soil quality, which avails
53 plant nutrients, conserves soil moisture, improves infiltration, and reduces erosion,
54 runoff, and surface crusting.

55 Sandy soils, such as those typical of the Coastal Plain region, are naturally
56 low in SOC. Coarse-textured soils provide less protection of SOC as residues
57 decompose and exhibit higher decomposition rates than fine-textured soils
58 (Franzluebbers, 1999; Krull et al., 2001). Before modern conservation tillage
59 technology was available, increasing SOC was believed to be nearly impossible in
60 sandy Coastal Plain soils. However, on a sandy soil in the South Carolina Coastal
61 Plain, long-term conservation tillage of row crops was shown to be a viable method
62 for increasing SOC (Hunt, et al., 1996). On coarse-textured soil in the Coastal Plain
63 of Alabama, SOC sequestration was 6 to 10 Mg ha⁻¹ with high-residue-producing
64 conservation systems and dairy manure application for 3 years, which was much
65 greater than expected for degraded soils of the southeastern USA (Terra et al.,
66 2005). Under forage management systems on medium-textured soils in Virginia,
67 Conant et al. (2003) found that SOC sequestration averaged 0.41 Mg C ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹.
68 In the Georgia Piedmont, particulate and biologically active soil C fractions
69 increased in all forage management systems, but more so in grazed than in
70 ungrazed systems, because of the return of feces to soil (Franzluebbers and
71 Stuedemann, 2003).

72 The amount of SOC sequestered in a field or region is costly to measure
73 and monitor with time, and protocols are still being developed making it difficult to
74 base policies directly on environmental performance (Feng et al., 2004). There are
75 relatively few long-term management studies within the southeastern USA that

76 holistically address SOC sequestration. Simulation modeling may be the most
77 efficient method for estimating management effects on soil properties for a wide
78 range of soil and climatic conditions (Williams et al., 1984).

79 The Erosion Productivity-Impact Calculator (renamed the Environmental
80 Policy Integrated Climate, EPIC) model simulates a multitude of important soil,
81 crop, and environmental processes relevant to ecosystem functioning (Williams et
82 al., 1984; Williams, 1990; Gassman et al., 2004). EPIC was recently updated to
83 include a C- and N-transformation submodel with concepts and equations derived
84 from the CENTURY model (Izaurralde et al., 2006). The revised EPIC model (v.
85 3060) was tested against field data from a 6-year experiment at five sites in the
86 Great Plains USA and from a 61-year agronomic experiment near Breton, Canada.
87 The model accounted for 91% of the variability in SOC at Breton, but
88 overestimated SOC at the Great Plains sites when initial SOC was low and
89 underestimated SOC when initial SOC was high (Izaurralde et al., 2006). After
90 optimization of the humus fraction in the passive C pool, the model was able to
91 simulate the observed decline in SOC with continuous conventional tillage and that
92 of restored grassland areas at three locations in central Texas (Gassman et al.,
93 2004).

94 The soil conditioning index (SCI) was recently incorporated into the Revised
95 Universal Soil Loss Equation 2, a model containing both empirical and process-
96 based science to predict erosion from rainfall and runoff (USDA-NRCS, 2006).
97 The USDA–Natural Resource Conservation Service uses the SCI to predict
98 changes in SOC based on different agricultural management practices employed.
99 The magnitude of the SCI is used to calculate payments to landowners enrolled in
100 the USDA-NRCS Conservation Security Program (Hubbs et al., 2002). The SCI is

101 a function of three components known to affect SOC: (1) organic material grown on
102 or added to soil, (2) field operations that alter organic material placement in the soil
103 profile and that stimulate organic matter breakdown, and (3) erosion that removes
104 and sorts surface soil organic matter (from sheet, rill, or wind erosion, but not from
105 concentrated flow erosion such as ephemeral or gully erosion) (USDA-NRCS,
106 2003). Testing of the SCI has been limited, suggesting that research is greatly
107 needed to document to what extent the model can be successful and under what
108 conditions the model may be deficient. In addition, long-term model projections of
109 SOC and WUE based on various conservation management systems are lacking in
110 the literature.

111 The objectives of our study were to (1) simulate long-term SOC, yield, and
112 WUE under conventional and conservation management systems using EPIC v.
113 3060 in three major land resource areas (MLRAs) of the southeastern USA and (2)
114 compare predictions of SOC change using EPIC and SCI. The management
115 systems represented a gradient of conservation management and crop diversity,
116 which were expected to affect soil disturbance and C input.

117

118 **Methods and Materials**

119 Simulations were conducted for locations in the Blackland Prairie in eastern Texas,
120 the Southern Piedmont in northern Georgia, and the Coastal Plain in South
121 Carolina (Figure 1). Soil properties at the three locations were obtained from the
122 USDA-NRCS SSURGO and STATSGO databases (<http://soils.usda.gov/>) included
123 with the EPIC model (Table 1).

124 The Blackland Prairie site was located on a Houston Black clay soil near
125 Temple, TX at 31° 5' N, 97° 35' W, elevation 689 feet (210 m). Grain sorghum

126 [*Sorghum bicolor* (L.) Moench], cotton, corn, small grains, and forage grasses are
127 common in the MLRA. Precipitation ranges from 30 to 45 inches (750 to 1150
128 mm), annual temperature ranges from 63° F to 70° F (17° C to 21° C), and the
129 growing season lasts 230 to 280 days.

130 The Coastal Plain site was located on a Norfolk loamy sand near McColl,
131 SC at 34° 67' N, 79° W, elevation 185 feet (56 m). Cotton, tobacco (*Nicotiana*
132 *tabacum* L.), soybean [*Glycine max* (L.) Merr.], peach [*Prunus persica* (L.) Batsch],
133 hay, wheat, and corn are common in the MLRA. Precipitation averages 48 inches
134 (1219 mm), annual temperature averages 74° F (23° C), and the growing season is
135 290 days.

136 The Southern Piedmont site was located on a Cecil sandy clay loam near
137 Watkinsville, GA at 33° 54' N, 83° 24' W, elevation 751 feet (229 m). Cotton, corn,
138 small grains, and forage grasses are common in the region. Precipitation averages
139 45 inches (1143 mm), annual temperature averages 63° F (17° C), and the growing
140 season lasts 200 to 250 days.

141 EPIC v. 3060 without calibration was used to simulate four management
142 systems in each MLRA, including (1) monoculture cotton with conventional tillage
143 (CT), (2) cotton/wheat cover under no tillage (NT), (3) corn/wheat cover (4-yr)–
144 cotton/wheat cover (4-yr) rotation under NT, and (4) bermudagrass (*Cynodon*
145 *dactylon* L.) pasture (5-yr)–corn/wheat cover (5-yr)–cotton/wheat cover (5-yr) under
146 NT. Management characteristics can be found in Table 2. Planting dates were
147 from averages reported in USDA-NASS (1997). Fertilizer application to
148 bermudagrass was based on a recommendation for the region (Dwight Fisher,
149 personal communication, 2006). Climatic inputs were generated using WXGEN in
150 the EPIC model (Williams and Sharpley, 1989), based on long-term climatic

151 conditions at weather stations near the three locations
152 (<http://www.ncdc.noaa.gov/oa/climate/dataset.html>). The potential heat unit
153 threshold to simulate cotton yield was set at 2800 in a standard simulation, but was
154 allowed to be lower (automatically set by the model) in a companion simulation to
155 evaluate the effect of altered yield on SOC sequestration.

156 Yearly estimates of SOC (0-2-m depth), crop yield, and WUE were
157 simulated by EPIC for a 50-yr period. Water-use efficiency (kg mm^{-1}) was
158 calculated as simulated yield (lint for cotton and grain for corn) divided by
159 simulated evapotranspiration during the growing season (generally May to October
160 for cotton and April to August for corn). Simulated estimates of yield and WUE
161 within a MLRA and management system were averaged across years prior to
162 analysis of variance. Simulated SOC estimates were regressed on year in each
163 MLRA and management system to obtain a linear rate of change with time. Yearly
164 estimates of SOC within a MLRA and management system were also fitted to a
165 non-linear exponential model [$Y = A + B \cdot (1 - e^{-k \cdot t})$] to obtain total SOC
166 sequestered during 50 years. The resultant single estimates for yield, WUE, and
167 SOC for each MLRA and management system were used as independent
168 estimates in an analysis of variance that included MLRA as a blocking variable ($n =$
169 3) and management system as a response variable ($n = 4$). Significance among
170 means with true replications was declared at $P \leq 0.1$. To test for potential
171 interactions between MLRA and management system, despite not having
172 replication of MLRA estimates, we used consecutive 5-year mean slope values of
173 SOC as pseudoreplications within the 50-year evaluation period. Significance
174 among means with pseudoreplications was declared at $P \leq 0.01$.

175 Using the same management conditions as for EPIC simulations, SCI
176 values for a 50-year period were developed for the four management scenarios
177 and three MLRAs using RUSLE2 (USDA-NRCS, 2006).

178 The relationship between SOC sequestration predicted by EPIC and SCI
179 was determined with linear regression (all 12 paired estimates) and non-linear
180 regression (excluding the NT bermudagrass-corn-cotton rotation, which deviated
181 the most from the linear regression). General linear models were analyzed with
182 SAS for Windows 9.1. Regressions were performed with SigmaPlot for Windows
183 8.02.

184

185 **Results and Discussion**

186 ***EPIC simulations of soil organic C.*** Organic C content within the surface 2 m of
187 soil generally remained unchanged with time under CT and increased with time in
188 all NT management systems (Figure 2). Averaged across MLRAs, the rate of
189 simulated SOC sequestration ($\text{Mg ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$) was greater under NT management
190 systems than under CT (Table 3). The total quantity of SOC sequestered during
191 the 50 years of simulation was also greater under NT management systems (27.0
192 $\pm 7.7 \text{ Mg ha}^{-1}$) than under CT (-1.5 Mg ha^{-1}). There was no statistical difference in
193 the simulated rate of SOC sequestration or total amount of SOC sequestered
194 among the three NT management systems.

195 The absolute amount of C in the soil profile was different among the three
196 MLRAs, but the relative change in SOC due to management did not differ among
197 MLRAs (Figure 2). The main effect of greater SOC sequestration rate with NT
198 systems than with CT (Table 3) did not interact significantly with MLRA ($P = 0.28$).
199 The interaction test used 5-year rates of SOC sequestration as observations.

200 Mean \pm standard deviation among the 5-year rates was $0.00 \pm 0.22 \text{ Mg ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$
201 under CT cotton, $0.51 \pm 0.65 \text{ Mg ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ under NT cotton/wheat cover, 0.52 ± 0.69
202 $\text{Mg ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ under NT corn/wheat cover–cotton/wheat cover, and $0.59 \pm 2.43 \text{ Mg}$
203 $\text{ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ under NT bermudagrass–corn/wheat cover–cotton/wheat cover. A
204 relatively large variation in the SOC sequestration rate was observed in all four
205 management systems, likely due to weather variations that may have affected crop
206 production and soil organic matter decomposition. Particularly large variation was
207 observed in the bermudagrass–corn–cotton rotation. The mean and standard
208 deviation of SOC sequestration rate under NT cotton and NT corn/wheat cover–
209 cotton/wheat cover were similar to those reported for 96 observations of NT versus
210 CT in 10 ± 5 -year-long studies across the southeastern USA region ($0.42 \pm 46 \text{ Mg}$
211 $\text{ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$; Franzluebbbers, 2005). Therefore, simulation of SOC sequestration with
212 EPIC was generally consistent with field-based data.

213 EPIC simulated very large SOC sequestration in the bermudagrass phase of
214 the bermudagrass–corn–cotton rotation and large declines immediately thereafter
215 (Figure 2). The large decline in SOC following termination of pasture was
216 unrealistic, since crops were managed under no tillage (Garcia-Prechac et al.,
217 2004). Although forage management systems have shown potential for high SOC
218 sequestration in the southeastern USA ($1.03 \pm 0.90 \text{ Mg ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$; Franzluebbbers,
219 2005), the simulated rate of SOC sequestration during the bermudagrass phase of
220 $6.06 \pm 0.94 \text{ Mg ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ was larger than expected and not justified by experimental
221 evidence. Therefore, simulation of SOC under forage management systems
222 should be reevaluated in EPIC v. 3060 to produce more accurate predictions. The
223 SOC module of EPIC v. 3060 was tested against data collected in various locations
224 and management conditions (Gassman et al., 2004; Williams et al., 2004;

225 Izaurre et al., 2006), but most of these conditions were under cropping systems.
226 Calibration of the model appears to be necessary for predicting SOC sequestration
227 in long-term forage management systems and for locations other than the few
228 already tested. Calibration would provide a better understanding of parameter
229 sensitivity, which would have implications for transfer of results across a region
230 (Abrahamson et al., 2005). Efforts are currently underway to test EPIC v. 3060 as
231 a decision-making tool for C management based on remotely sensed residue
232 management and tillage practices in the midwestern USA (NASA, 2005). A similar
233 effort would be useful in portions of the southeastern USA to verify that EPIC could
234 accurately simulate long-term changes in SOC throughout the entire southeastern
235 USA.

236 ***Soil conditioning index prediction of soil organic C change and***
237 ***relationship to EPIC predictions.*** The SCI predicted that SOC would decline
238 with time under CT and increase with time under all three NT management
239 systems (Table 3). The SCI also suggested that including 5 years of pasture in the
240 cropping system would lead to greater SOC than simpler NT crop rotations ($P =$
241 0.10). These results were qualitatively consistent with the predictions from EPIC,
242 although EPIC simulation of SOC sequestration was not statistically different
243 between NT rotation systems.

244 From the four management systems on three MLRAs, SCI was linearly
245 related to SOC sequestration simulated by EPIC (Figure 3). The greatest deviation
246 from this relationship was in the bermudagrass–corn/wheat cover–cotton/wheat
247 cover system. Excluding this management system, the best fit between EPIC and
248 SCI was an exponential growth function that suggested SOC sequestration was
249 insensitive to $SCI \leq 0$, but increased dramatically with values >0 . Hubbs et al.

250 (2002) presented linear relationships between the percent C change in soil and
251 SCI. Although the simulation results reported here were in general agreement with
252 the relationships in Hubbs et al. (2002), there is a need for much further evaluation
253 of SCI since both linear and non-linear relationships with SOC sequestration
254 appear to be possible, reflecting unexplained sources of variation. An even greater
255 need is to validate SCI against actual field data of SOC sequestration under a wide
256 range of agricultural systems with long-term management. The relationships
257 reported in Figure 3 should not be considered quantitative or be used as a
258 predictive tool, since SOC sequestration estimates were obtained only with EPIC v.
259 3060 and not actual field data.

260 ***EPIC simulations of crop yield and water-use efficiency (WUE).*** Cotton
261 lint yield was greater under CT than under NT management systems when
262 averaged across MLRAs (Table 4). There were no differences in simulated lint
263 yield among the three NT management systems. Cotton lint WUE was not
264 different among any of the treatments, averaging 2.4 kg mm^{-1} (Table 4). No tillage
265 was able to reduce evaporation from soil compared with CT, resulting in similar
266 WUE, despite a difference in yield. Although simulations of cotton lint yield were
267 relatively high (mean of 1.41 Mg ha^{-1} under CT and 1.24 Mg ha^{-1} under NT
268 systems) compared with actual field observations of $0.98 \pm 0.30 \text{ Mg ha}^{-1}$ under CT
269 and 1.05 ± 0.22 under NT (Johnson et al., 2001; Endale et al., 2002; Busscher and
270 Bauer, 2003; Schomberg et al., 2003), relative differences among treatments were
271 expected to occur to a similar extent, irrespective of absolute values. Calibration of
272 EPIC to specific growing conditions in these environments appears to be
273 necessary to improve yield estimates.

274 Simulation of $12 \pm 6\%$ lower cotton lint yield with NT management systems
275 compared with CT was different than reported for most field observations. In a
276 review of tillage impacts on soil and crop responses in the southeastern USA,
277 cotton lint yield across 18 pairs of observations (CT vs NT) averaged 1.1 Mg ha^{-1}
278 and was not different between tillage systems (Franzluebbers, 2005). Seed cotton
279 yield across 9 pairs of observations was 2.59 Mg ha^{-1} under CT and 2.69 Mg ha^{-1}
280 under NT. Terra et al. (2005) reported $17 \pm 9\%$ greater seed cotton yield under NT
281 than under CT. The negative effect of NT management on simulated cotton lint
282 yield during 50 years of management mandates that calibration of EPIC v. 3060 to
283 specific conditions at a site will be needed to account for differences among
284 management systems.

285 Cotton lint WUE from a silt loam soil in Alabama was $3.0 \pm 1.4 \text{ kg mm}^{-1}$
286 under both CT and NT, when using precipitation from May to September in
287 calculations (Reddy et al., 2004). On a loamy sand in South Carolina, cotton lint
288 WUE was $1.3 \pm 0.3 \text{ kg mm}^{-1}$ under both CT and NT (Busscher and Bauer, 2003).
289 On a silt loam in Mississippi, cotton lint WUE was $2.5 \pm 0.8 \text{ kg mm}^{-1}$ under CT and
290 $2.2 \pm 0.6 \text{ kg mm}^{-1}$ under NT (Pettigrew and Jones, 2001). On a sandy loam soil in
291 Alabama, seed cotton WUE was $5.1 \pm 2.0 \text{ kg mm}^{-1}$ under CT and $5.3 \pm 2.0 \text{ kg mm}^{-1}$
292 1 under strip tillage (Gordon et al., 1990). On a silt loam in Mississippi, seed cotton
293 WUE was $4.2 \pm 1.4 \text{ kg mm}^{-1}$ under CT and $4.9 \pm 1.9 \text{ kg mm}^{-1}$ under NT (Triplett et
294 al., 1996). The effect of tillage system on WUE in cotton has generally been
295 relatively small and inconsistent, and therefore, simulations of similar cotton WUE
296 efficiency between CT and NT systems during 50 years were reasonable
297 compared with available field data.

298 Simulated corn grain yield averaged 9% greater under the NT corn-cotton
299 rotation than under the NT pasture-crop rotation system (Table 4). Simulated corn
300 grain yield production was well within observed production levels of 6.7 ± 1.8 Mg
301 ha^{-1} under CT and 7.6 ± 1.7 Mg ha^{-1} under NT on soils in the same three MLRAs
302 evaluated (Hargrove, 1985; Karlen et al., 1989; Wagger and Denton, 1992; Torbert
303 et al., 2001; Terra et al., 2005). Water-use efficiency of corn was not different
304 between the two rotations, averaging 17.6 ± 1.4 kg grain mm^{-1} precipitation. On a
305 clay soil in Texas, corn grain WUE was 8.8 ± 4.6 kg mm^{-1} under CT and 11.5 ± 3.5
306 kg mm^{-1} under NT (Torbert et al., 2001). Under dryland conditions in Kansas, corn
307 grain WUE was 10.0 ± 4.9 kg mm^{-1} under CT and 12.8 ± 4.3 kg mm^{-1} under NT
308 (Norwood, 1999). On a fine sandy loam in Alabama, corn grain WUE was $20.1 \pm$
309 6.3 kg mm^{-1} under continuous corn and 21.3 ± 6.2 kg mm^{-1} under
310 wheat/soybean-corn (Edwards et al., 1988).

311 ***Effect of altered crop yield prediction on soil organic C.*** By lowering the
312 threshold heat unit level from 2800 to 2000, cotton lint yield increased 36% from a
313 mean of 1.28 Mg ha^{-1} to 1.75 Mg ha^{-1} , averaged across treatments (data not
314 shown). However, SOC sequestration declined from a mean of 0.34 Mg $\text{ha}^{-1} \text{yr}^{-1}$ to
315 0.28 Mg $\text{ha}^{-1} \text{yr}^{-1}$. Although conversion of crop-derived C into SOC cannot be
316 treated as a direct function of crop yield, the small decline in SOC sequestration
317 with a relatively large increase in crop yield suggests that simulated SOC
318 sequestration values may be less variable across a range of environments than
319 crop yield.

320

321 **Summary and Conclusions**

322 Simulations with the uncalibrated EPIC v. 3060 strongly suggested that no-
323 tillage management of cropland in the southeastern USA would lead to significant
324 sequestration of soil organic C compared with conventional-tillage management.
325 Increasing crop rotation diversity did not significantly alter simulated soil organic C
326 sequestration and cotton lint water-use efficiency. The soil conditioning index also
327 indicated that soil organic C sequestration would be greater with no-tillage
328 management than with conventional-tillage management, but in addition suggested
329 greater soil organic C sequestration with a more diverse crop rotation system than
330 with continuous cotton under no tillage. With the limited number of simulations
331 (12), the soil conditioning index was related to EPIC-simulated soil organic C
332 sequestration during 50 years. Relationships suggested that soil organic C
333 sequestration would be highly significant with relatively small changes in positive
334 values of the soil conditioning index. Long-term changes in soil organic C
335 appeared to be reasonably predicted with both EPIC v. 3060 and the soil
336 conditioning index. These prediction tools will be of great importance to land
337 managers and policy makers for making decisions to improve soil quality for future
338 use, but there is still an urgent need for long-term, field-based data to improve
339 these tools.

340

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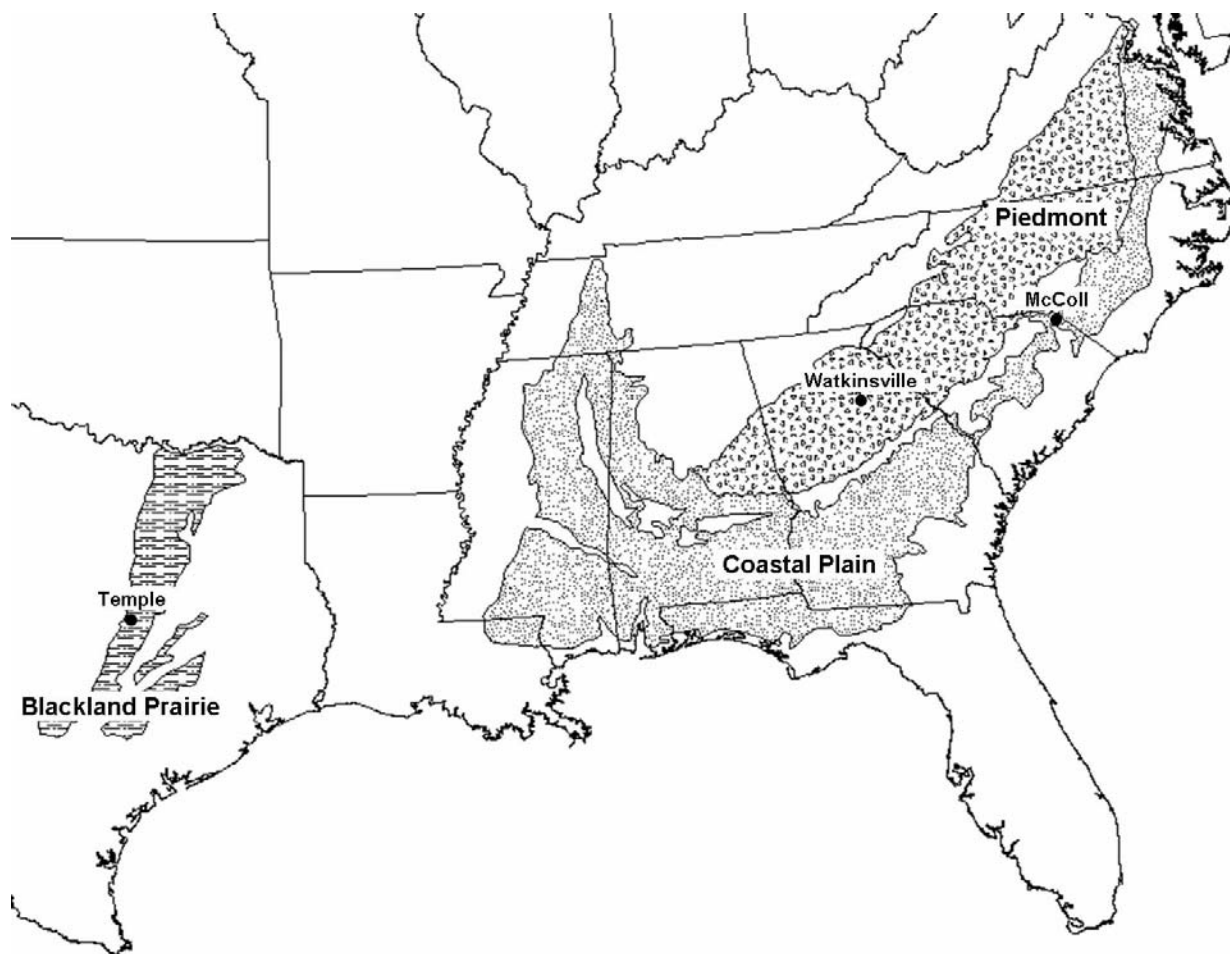
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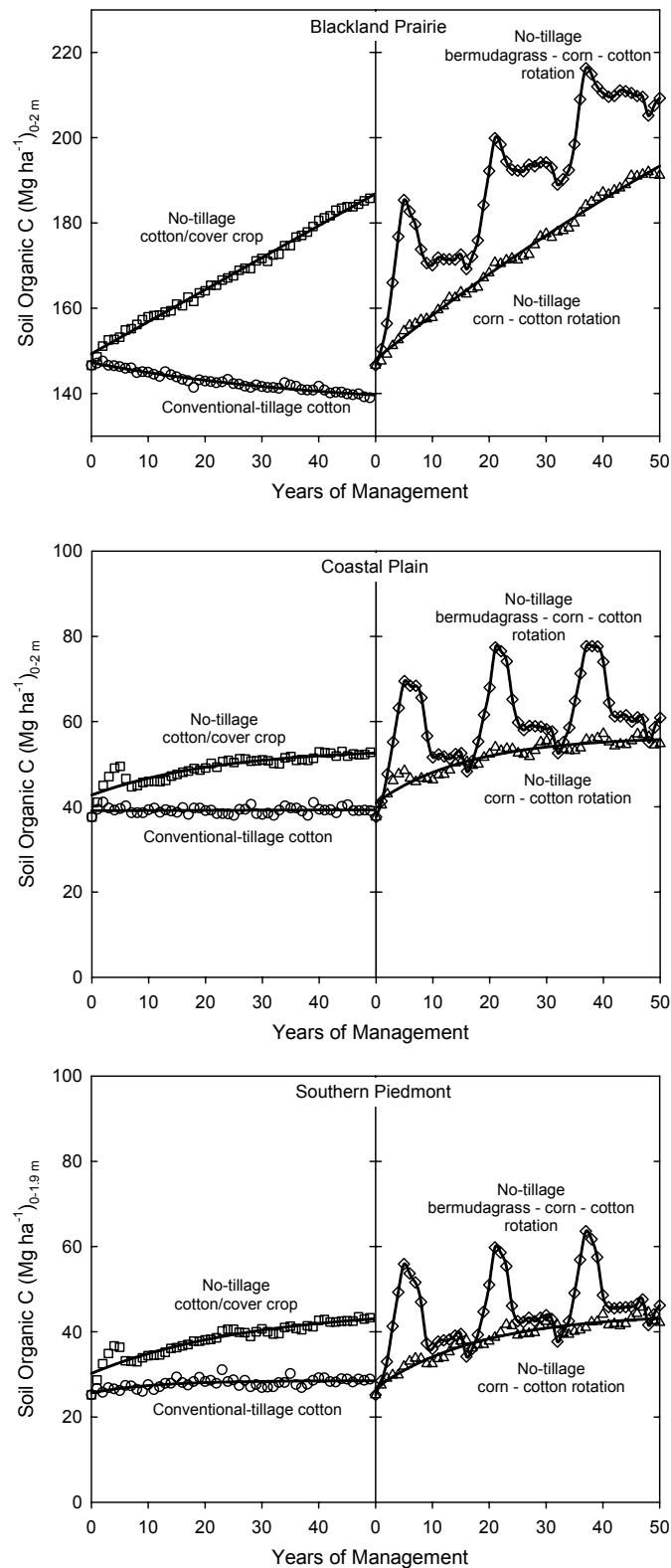
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474 Figure 1. Location of the three simulation sites within the Blackland Prairie, Coastal
475 Plain, and Southern Piedmont major land resource areas in the southeastern USA.



476 Figure 2. Simulated soil organic C during 50 years by the Environmental Policy
 477 Integrated Climate (EPIC) model in three major land resource areas as affected by four
 478 management systems.
 479



480 Figure 3. Soil organic C (SOC) sequestration simulated by the Environmental Policy
 481 Integrated Climate (EPIC) model in the surface 2 m of soil on a yearly basis (top panel)
 482 and throughout a 50-year period (bottom panel) in relationship with the soil conditioning
 483 index (SCI). Linear relationships were developed with all 12 observations (4
 484 management systems x 3 major land resource areas). Exponential growth curves were
 485 fitted to data, excluding the bermudagrass–corn/wheat cover–cotton/wheat cover
 486 system under no tillage (NT). CT is conventional tillage.
 487

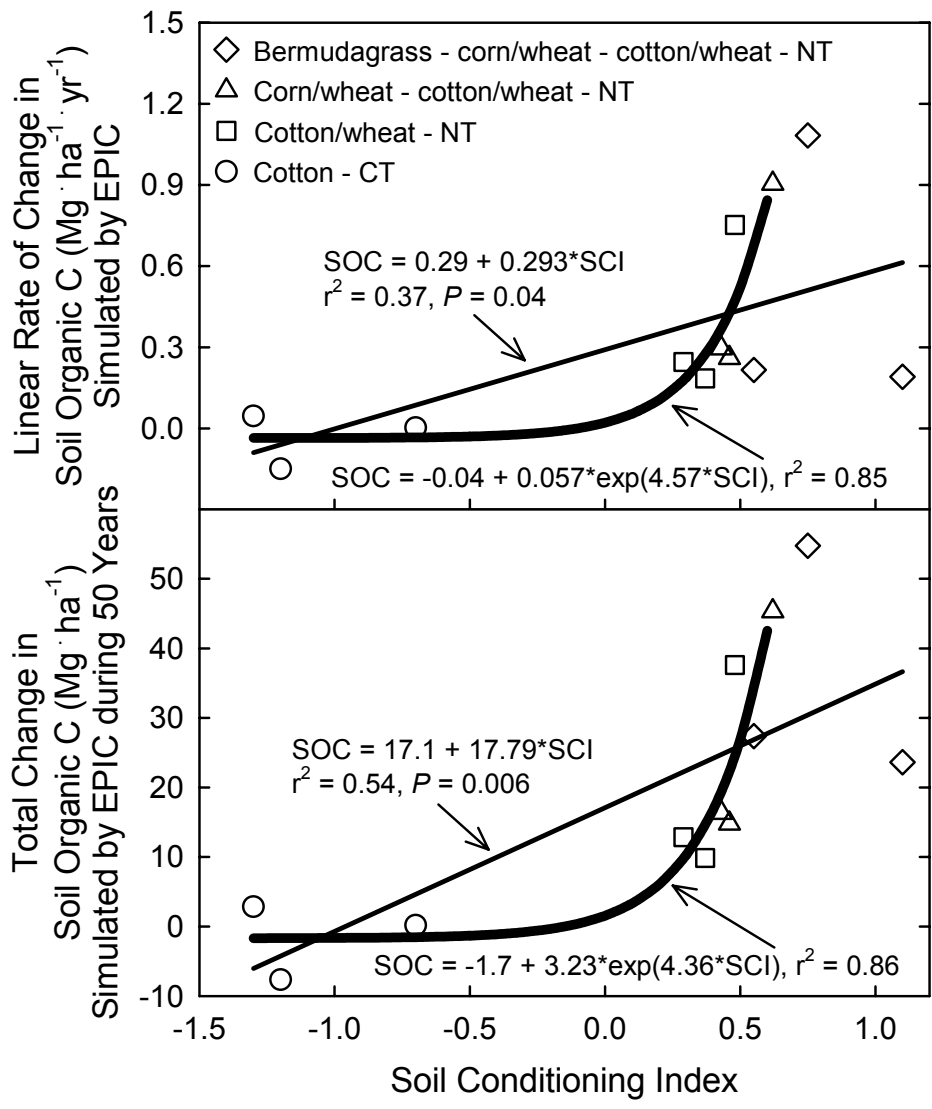


Table 1. Selected initial soil parameters from the SSURGO database used for the 50-yr simulations with the Environmental Policy Integrated Climate (EPIC) model.

Depth (m)	Bulk density	Sand	Silt	pH	Soil organic C
	Mg m ⁻³	----- kg kg ⁻¹ -----			g kg ⁻¹
----- Blackland Prairies (Houston Black clay) -----					
0.01-0.18	1.3	0.07	0.36	8.0	15
0.18-0.48	1.2	0.05	0.39	8.3	13
0.48-1.0	1.3	0.06	0.35	8.0	9
1.0-1.5	1.4	0.06	0.40	8.3	4
1.5-2.0	1.3	0.07	0.42	8.2	3
----- Coastal Plain (Norfolk loamy sand) -----					
0.01-0.18	1.6	0.76	0.22	4.9	6
0.18-0.48	1.7	0.55	0.25	4.7	2
0.48-1.0	1.4	0.56	0.13	4.6	<1
1.0-1.5	1.3	0.62	0.12	4.6	1
1.5-2.0	1.3	0.41	0.24	4.5	<1
----- Southern Piedmont (Cecil sandy clay loam) -----					
0.01-0.18	1.6	0.68	0.20	5.5	4
0.18-0.28	1.5	0.55	0.17	5.0	2
0.28-1.2	1.4	0.18	0.29	5.0	1
1.2-2.0	1.7	0.45	0.26	4.5	<1

Table 2. Management characteristics for 50-yr simulations by the Environmental Policy Integrated Climate (EPIC) model in each of the three major land resource areas and four management systems.

Management operation	Date of operation		
	Blackland Prairie	Coastal Plain	Southern Piedmont
Monoculture cotton with conventional tillage			
Fertilizer / plant cotton (150-37 kg N-P ha ⁻¹)	25 May	5 May	25 Apr
Cultivate	15 Jun	10 Jun	10 Jun
Harvest cotton	15 Nov	25 Oct	30 Oct
Offset disk	15 Nov	5 Nov	5 Nov
Tandem disk	30 Nov	30 Nov	30 Nov
Rotation repeated yearly			
Cotton / wheat cover crop with no tillage (NT)			
Cut / bale wheat	20 May	1 May	20 Apr
Fertilize / plant cotton (150-37 kg N-P ha ⁻¹)	25 May	5 May	25 Apr
Harvest cotton	25 Oct	30 Oct	30 Oct
Fertilize / plant wheat (56 kg N ha ⁻¹)	30 Oct	30 Oct	5 Nov
Rotation repeated yearly			
Corn / wheat cover (4 yr) – cotton / wheat cover (4 yr) with NT			
Years 1-4: Cut / bale wheat	25 Apr	10 Apr	25 Mar
Fertilizer / plant corn (168-37 kg N-P ha ⁻¹)	30 Apr	15 Apr	1 Apr
Harvest corn	5 Sep	1 Sep	5 Aug
Fertilizer / plant wheat (56 kg N ha ⁻¹)	10 Sep	10 Sep	5 Oct
Years 5-8: Cut / bale wheat	15 Apr	1 May	25 Mar
Fertilize / plant cotton (150-25 kg N-P ha ⁻¹)	25 May	5 May	25 Apr
Harvest cotton	15 Nov	25 Oct	30 Oct
Fertilize / plant wheat (56 kg N ha ⁻¹)	20 Nov	30 Oct	5 Nov
Rotation repeated every 8 years			
Bermudagrass (5 yr) – corn / wheat cover (5 yr) – cotton / wheat cover (5 yr) with NT			
Year 1: Fertilize / plant bermudagrass (80-37 kg N-P ha ⁻¹)	15 Mar	15 Mar	15 Mar
Cut bermudagrass	15 Jun	15 Jun	15 Jun
Fertilize bermudagrass (50 kg N ha ⁻¹)	15 Jul	15 Jul	15 Jul
Cut bermudagrass	15 Aug	15 Aug	15 Aug
Year 2: Fertilize bermudagrass (80 kg N ha ⁻¹)	15 Mar	15 Mar	15 Mar

Cut / bale bermudagrass	30 Apr	30 Apr	30 Apr
Fertilize bermudagrass (50 kg N ha ⁻¹)	1 May	1 May	1 May
Cut / bale bermudagrass	15 Jun	15 Jun	15 Jun
Fertilize bermudagrass (50 kg N ha ⁻¹)	20 Jun	20 Jun	20 Jun
Cut / bale bermudagrass	1 Aug	1 Aug	1 Aug
Fertilize bermudagrass (50 kg N ha ⁻¹)	15 Aug	15 Aug	15 Aug
Years 3-5: Fertilize bermudagrass (80 kg N ha ⁻¹)	15 Mar	15 Mar	15 Mar
Initiate grazing of bermudagrass	15 Apr	15 Apr	15 Apr
Fertilize bermudagrass (80 kg N ha ⁻¹)	15 Jun	15 Jun	15 Jun
Fertilize bermudagrass (50 kg N ha ⁻¹)	15 Aug	15 Aug	15 Aug
End grazing of bermudagrass	15 Sep	15 Sep	15 Sep
Years 6-10: Culture of corn with NT as above			
Years 11-15: Culture of cotton / wheat with NT as above			
Rotation repeated every 15 years			

489 Table 3. Estimates of soil organic C (SOC) sequestration (0- to 2-m depth) during 50 years of
 490 simulation by the Environmental Policy Integrated Climate (EPIC) model and the Soil
 491 Conditioning Index (SCI), averaged across three Major Land Resource Areas (i.e., Blackland
 492 Prairies, Coastal Plain, and Southern Piedmont).

Management system	EPIC		SCI
	Linear rate of SOC sequestration (Mg ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹)	Total quantity of SOC sequestration (Mg ha⁻¹)	Unit-less relative change
(1) CT cotton	-0.03	-1.5	-1.07
(2) NT cotton/wheat cover	0.39	20.1	0.38
(3) NT corn/wheat cover–cotton/wheat cover	0.49	25.5	0.50
(4) NT bermudagrass–corn/wheat cover– cotton/wheat cover	0.50	35.3	0.80
Analysis of variance	----- Pr > F -----		
CT vs NT systems (1 vs 2-3-4)	0.03	0.008	<0.001
NT ungrazed vs grazed (2-3 vs 4)	0.77	0.16	0.10
NT monoculture vs rotation (2 vs 3)	0.68	0.57	0.58

493 Table 4. Mean cotton lint and corn grain yields and their water-use efficiencies averaged across
 494 three Major Land Resource Areas (i.e., Blackland Prairie, Coastal Plain, and Southern
 495 Piedmont) during 50 years of simulation by the Environmental Policy Integrated Climate (EPIC)
 496 model.

Management system	Yield		Water-use efficiency	
	Cotton lint	Corn grain	Cotton lint	Corn grain
	----- Mg ha ⁻¹ -----	-----	----- kg mm ⁻¹ -----	-----
(1) CT cotton	1.41	N.A.	2.45	N.A.
(2) NT cotton/wheat cover	1.15	N.A.	2.29	N.A.
(3) NT corn/wheat cover– cotton/wheat cover	1.32	7.53	2.41	18.5
(4) NT bermudagrass–corn/wheat cover–cotton/wheat cover	1.24	6.90	2.34	17.0
Analysis of variance	----- Pr > F -----			
CT vs NT systems (1 vs 2-3-4)	0.06	N.A.	0.22	N.A.
NT ungrazed vs grazed (2-3 vs 4)	0.96	0.04	0.90	0.24
NT monoculture vs rotation (2 vs 3)	0.11	N.A.	0.21	N.A.

497 N.A. is not applicable.
 498