1	Reanalysis Validates Soil Health Indicator Sensitivity and
2	Correlation with Long-term Crop Yields
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5	Harold M. van Es ^{1*} and Douglas L. Karlen ²
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7	1 Section of Soil and Crop Sciences, Cornell University, 1005 Bradfield Hall, Ithaca, NY
8	14853-1901
9	² Research Soil Scientist, USDA-Agricultural Research Service (ARS), National Laboratory
10	for Agriculture and the Environment (NLAE), 1015 N. University Boulevard, Ames, IA
11	50011-3611
12	* Corresponding author (hmv1@cornell.edu)
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14	Keywords
15	Soil health, yield, tillage, organic, CASH, North Carolina
16	
17	Core Ideas
18	Soil health metrics were sensitive in North Carolina soils
19	• Tillage intensity and fertility practices were especially differentiated by biological
20	soil health metrics
21	Soil health metrics associated with labile organic matter correlated well with crop
22	yields
23	

24 Abstract

25 Soil health (SH) refers to the ability of a soil to function and provide ecosystem 26 services. This study reanalyzes data from long-term agronomic management experiments 27 in North Carolina and addresses previous conclusions regarding the utility of SH test 28 metrics. Data for 15 SH indicators in the Comprehensive Assessment of Soil Health 29 framework from three long-term trials in North Carolina were analyzed to assess effects of 30 tillage intensity and organic vs. conventional management. This included four soil 31 biological indicators - organic matter (OM), active carbon (ActC), respiration (Resp) and 32 protein (Prot); four soil physical indicators - available water capacity (AWC), water stable 33 aggregation (Agstab), surface and subsurface penetration resistance (SurfHard, SubHard); 34 and seven soil chemical (fertility) indicators (P, K, Mg, Fe, Mn, Zn, pH). Corn (Zea mays L.) 35 and soybean (*Glycine max* L. Merr.) yield data and SH indicator values were correlated 36 using site-specific and multi-site datasets. Long-term management practices most 37 commonly showed significant impacts with AgStab (up to 2.2x), ActC (2.1x), Prot (2.3x), 38 and most chemical indicators. Tillage intensity had a greater impact than organic vs. 39 conventional management and linear regression of multi-vear mean corn and sovbean 40 response to tillage showed significant correlations with eight SH indicators, highest among them ActC, Protein, Resp, and Mn (R²=0.85-0.93). Contrary to previous conclusions, CASH 41 42 indicators, especially those related to labile C and N, responded well to management 43 practices and showed utility for soil health assessment in agronomic trials. 44

45 Abbreviations: ActC, active carbon, also known as permanganate oxidizable carbon, POXC;
46 AgStab, water stable aggregation; AWC, available water capacity; CASH, Comprehensive

47 Assessment of Soil Health, OM, organic matter; Resp, respiration during a 4-day incubation;
48 SurfHard, penetration resistance within the 0 to 15-cm depth range; SubHard, penetration
49 resistance within the 15 to 45-cm depth range; SH, soil health.

50

51 Introduction

52 Healthy well-functioning soils that enhance water and air quality, support human 53 health and habitation, and sustain plant and animal productivity are essential to ensuring a 54 sustainable future for an ever-growing global population (Karlen et al., 2003; Karlen and 55 Rice, 2015). Soil health (SH) refers to the ability of a soil to perform such functions based on 56 its inherent and dynamic characteristics (Karlen et al., 1997; Andrews et al., 2004; Idowu et 57 al., 2009). Therefore, within the context of land use and management goals, SH represents 58 an understanding of this resource as a dynamic, complex, and living system (Doran and Zeiss, 59 2000). The terms "soil quality" and "soil health" are used interchangeably in the literature 60 and can be considered equivalent (Bünemann et al., 2018), but within the past five years 61 stakeholder audiences and media sources have shown a preference for the latter term, which 62 we use herein.

The assessment of SH can be used as an indicator of sustainable land management (Doran and Jones, 1996; Karlen et al., 1997). Traditional soil testing was and continues to be essential, but it primarily focuses on soil chemical property measurements (*i.e.*, pH and exchangeable or extractable nutrient concentrations) needed to evaluate soil fertility (Moebius-Clune et al., 2016). Without question, traditional soil testing and plant analysis have proven useful for increasing agricultural production, but the narrow focus on soil chemical properties and processes has been regarded as a contributor to physical and

Page 4 of 40

70 biological soil degradation (Tilman et al., 2002; Andrews and Carroll, 2001). The concept of 71 SH embraces a new comprehension of how soils function. It includes an understanding of 72 the physical, biological and chemical interactions that go well-beyond soil nutrient 73 quantities, and is needed to diagnose and quantify critical dynamic and inherent soil 74 properties and processes (Doran and Safley, 1997). 75 The Soil Management Assessment Framework (SMAF) was developed by Andrews et al. 76 (2004) as a comprehensive tool that is sensitive to textural class, sub-order soil organic 77 matter (SOM) content, Fe₂O₃ content, mineral class, climate, weathering class, slope, 78 sampling time, crop sequence, P analytical method and EC analytical method to evaluate 79 how land management practices impact soil functions (*i.e.*, physical, chemical, and 80 biological soil processes). Subsequently, the Comprehensive Assessment of Soil Health 81 (CASH) framework, initially referred to as the Cornell Soil Health Test (CSHT), was 82 developed based on the same paradigm and designed as a practical framework that directly 83 meets agricultural land manager and applied researcher needs. A CASH analysis 84 emphasizes identification of specific soil constraints within agroecosystems, thereby aiding 85 in the selection of land management solutions to increase productivity and minimize 86 environmental impact (Idowu et al., 2009). The utility of CASH indicators was initially 87 evaluated based on the relevance to soil functions/processes, sensitivity to land 88 management decisions, analytical cost, reproducibility of measurements, sampling 89 requirements, and potential to be estimated by statistical correlation or detected using 90 sensors (Moebius, 2007; Moebius-Clune et al., 2016). 91 The CASH framework was originally calibrated for soils within the northeastern USA,

92 but more recently has been applied to other geographic regions. A recent regional-scale

93 analysis of CASH showed significant SH differences between Midwestern. Northeastern and 94 Mid-Atlantic soils that were attributed in part to differences in farming systems (Fine et al., 95 2017). Soil health studies using CASH have also been conducted at the landscape scale 96 (Moebius-Clune et al., 2011; Svoray et al., 2015;) and plot scale (Idowu et al., 2009; 97 Congreves et al., 2015; Kinoshita et al., 2017; Nunes et al., 2018), demonstrating that it can 98 effectively detect differences among agronomic management practices at multiple spatial 99 levels and with different types of soil. Similarly, the SMAF has been successfully used for SH 100 (soil quality) analysis in Brazil (Cherubin et al., 2016), Spain (Apesteguía et al., 2017), and 101 for many different soil management comparisons throughout the U.S. (e.g., Veum et al., 2015; 102 Hammac et al., 2016; Ippolito et al., 2017). 103 Roper et al. (2017) assessed the utility of CASH as well as the Haney Soil Health Test

104 (HSHT; Haney et al., 2006) and a standard test by the North Carolina Department of 105 Agriculture and Consumer Services (NCDACS; Hardy, 2014) using long-term experiments 106 in three physiographic regions of North Carolina. This included an evaluation of CASH's 107 ability to detect effects of long-term tillage practices and organic vs. conventional 108 management, as well as an analysis of correlations between soil health indicators and crop 109 vield. Regarding the latter, few studies have been able to quantify positive relations 110 between SH and crop yield, which is ostensibly a critical issue for farmer adoption. 111 Contrary to most previous studies using either CASH or the SMAF, the authors concluded 112 that SH indicators generally did not differentiate among agronomic management systems, 113 and moreover that SH scores did not show any correlation with crop yield. Those 114 conclusions have recently been cited by others (e.g., Rinot et al., 2019).

115	Questioning those conclusions based on multiple decades of experience in numerous
116	geographic regions, we decided to re-examine the data and determine whether the
117	research procedures, data analysis approach, or other factors negatively influenced the
118	conclusions. We concluded that the Roper et al. (2017) data clearly document management
119	effects on CASH indicators and demonstrate positive correlations between SH indicators
120	and yields of corn (Zea mays L.) and soybean (Glycine max L. Merr.), an elusive goal of past
121	studies. This suggests that, in line with recent studies (Congreves et al., 2015; Kinoshita et
122	al., 2017; Nunes et al., 2018), the use of CASH or SMAF indicators may in fact be quite
123	valuable for evaluating agronomic practices in programs such as those being coordinated
124	by the Soil Health Partnership (SHP) [https://www.iowacorn.org/corn-
125	production/environmental/soil-health-partnership], Soil Health Institute (SHI)
126	[https://soilhealthinstitute.org/soil-health-research], USDA-NRCS Soil Health Division
127	(SHD) [https://www.nrcs.usda.gov/wps/portal/nrcs/main/soils/health/assessment/],
128	and Foundation for Food and Agricultural Research (FFAR)
129	[https://foundationfar.org/challenge/healthy-soils-thriving-farms/]. Our goal therefore
130	was to perform a rigorous re-analysis of the above-mentioned NC dataset addressing
131	concerns with the research procedures and thereby determining: (i) effects of long-term
132	agronomic management practices on CASH indicators, (ii) relationships between CASH
133	indicators and crop yield for a range of tillage practices, and (iii) the overall utility of the
134	CASH framework for assessing agronomic management practices. We are not addressing
135	the results or conclusions related to the HSHT and NCDACS tests in the Roper et al. (2017)
136	study which have a narrower focus than either CASH and were not available in the
137	supplemental information.

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139 Materials and Methods

140 Research Trials

Data for this analysis were derived from Roper et al. (2017; Table S1 therein), which 141 142 contained the measured values of the CASH indicators for three long-term experiments 143 conducted within coastal plain, piedmont, and mountain physiographic regions of North 144 Carolina. These soil provinces have variable soil genesis and properties that are reflected in 145 inherent characteristics like texture and mineralogy, as well as distinct climate differences. 146 Corn and soybean yield data were derived from Table 7 (ibid). Site and management 147 history details are described in the original paper and only summarized herein: 148 The Goldsboro (coastal plain) research trial was conducted for 17 years on a site 149 where Wickham sandy loam (fine-loamy, mixed semiactive, thermic Typic Hapludults) was 150 the predominant soil with inclusions of Tarboro loamy sand (mixed, thermic Typic 151 Udipsamments). Agronomic treatments involved tillage practices and organic vs. 152 conventional nutrient and pesticide management. The study was initiated in 1999 (Mueller et al., 2002) and included chemical no-till (NoTill) and conventional till (ConvTill) practices. 153 154 A 3-vr rotation, which since 2006 included corn, sorghum-sudangrass (Sorghum × 155 *drummondi*), and double-crop soybean with winter wheat (*Triticum aestivum* L.) was 156 followed. The original experimental design also included two organic treatments, both 157 involving conventional tillage methods and adaptive cropping patterns. Since 2011, 158 ConvTill-Org1 involved a three-year rotation with corn, soybean and a 1-yr stale seedbed 159 with a sorghum-sudangrass cover crop. During the same time period ConvTill-Org2 160 involved a 3-yr rotation of corn, soybean, and sunflower (Helianthus annuus L.) with a rye

161 (Secale cereal L.) cover crop before sovbean, and a rve and legume cover crop mixture before 162 corn and sunflower. The organic treatments utilized raw poultry litter as an external nutrient 163 source, while the conventional plots received an equivalent N rate using commercial fertilizer 164 sources. Yield measurements at this site were at times impacted by non-soil related factors, 165 notably extreme weed and insect pressures in the organic treatments and asynchronous crop-166 years (Roper et al., 2017). They were therefore not considered for relating SH to crop yield. 167 The Reidsville (piedmont) research trial was conducted for 32 years on soil mapped as 168 Toast coarse sandy loam (fine, kaolinitic, mesic Typic Kanhapludults) and involved a 169 multitude of tillage treatments. It was initiated in 1984 with nine tillage treatments and 170 conventional chemical management that represented different levels of soil disturbance 171 ranging from minimal to severe (Cassel et al., 1995; Meijer et al., 2013). The multitude of 172 treatments and very subtle differences among some of them - coupled with high sampling 173 variability - challenged statistical analyses so the nine treatments were consolidated into 174 three groupings: (i) MinimumTill, combining no-till and in-row subsoiling in spring, (ii) 175 ChiselTill combining chisel plowing in spring, chisel plowing in fall, chisel plowing and 176 disking in spring, and chisel plowing and disking in fall, and (iii) MoldboardPlow, combining 177 spring and fall moldboard plowing and disking. This experiment involved multiple years of 178 crop yield measurements for both corn and soybean (Roper et al., 2017) that were used to 179 identify relationships with SH indicators.

180 The Mills River (mountain) research trial was conducted for 22 years on soil mapped 181 as Delanco silt loam (fine-loamy, mixed, semiactive, mesic Aquic Hapludults). It was 182 initiated in 1994 and designed as a 2x2 factorial with chisel and no-till practices being used 183 with conventional and organic management. An additional chisel plus disk tillage treatment with no fertilizer or pesticide inputs was used as a control (Hoyt, 2005; 2007) but those
results were not used for this study. As with the Goldsboro site, yield measurements from
this experiment were impacted by non-soil related factors and complications related to crop
sequences (Roper et al., 2017), and therefore were not considered for SH correlations with
crop yield.

189

190 Soil Sampling

191 Soil samples were collected in late 2015 as discussed in Roper et al. (2017). Three sets of 192 penetrometer measurements (Field Scout SC-900, Spectrum, Aurora, IL) to a depth of 45 193 cm were collected from each plot when the soil moisture content was approximately at 194 field capacity. The highest resistance values within the 0-to-15-cm and 15-to-45-cm depths 195 were recorded as SurfHard and SubHard values. Three to five auger cores were collected to 196 a depth of 15 cm to obtain approximately 1400 cm³ of soil from each plot. Due to plot size 197 limitations, this sampling protocol deviated from recommended CASH procedures which 198 include more penetration measurements and a larger composite soil sample that is 199 subsequently mixed and subsampled (Moebius-Clune et al., 2016). This procedural 200 deviation likely increased sample variability and was the primary motivation to combine 201 treatments into more generalized groupings for statistical analysis, as discussed above. 202 After sampling, soil material was analyzed for multiple SH indicators at Cornell University 203 (Schindelbeck et al., 2016).

204

205 Quantification of soil health indicators

206 In addition to SurfHard and SubHard in-field measurements, a CASH analysis includes 207 measurements for two other soil physical indicators (Wet Aggregate Stability (AgStab), 208 Available Water Capacity (AWC); four biological indicators [organic matter (OM), active 209 carbon (ActC), autoclaved-citrate extractable protein (Protein), and soil respiration (Resp)] 210 as well as seven soil chemical property indicators (pH and extractable P, K, Mg, Fe, Mn, and 211 Zn). All analytical measurements were performed on disturbed, air-dried soil sieved to 212 pass a 2-mm screen. Appropriate corrections for sample water content after air-drving 213 were made after drying a subsample overnight at 105 °C. 214 Detailed laboratory procedures are available from Schindelbeck et al. (2016). In short, 215 AgStab was assessed using a rainfall simulator that generates 0.6 mm water drops and an

217 layer of aggregates was spread on a 0.25 mm mesh sieve that was placed 0.5 m below the 218 rainfall simulator to thus apply 2.5 J of energy over a 300-s period. AgStab was determined 219 as the fraction of soil remaining on the sieve after correcting for solid particles >0.25 mm 220 diameter.

adjustable Mariotte-type tube to control hydraulic pressure (Ogden et al., 1997). A single

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Soil AWC was determined as the difference between water content at field capacity (θ_{fc}) and permanent wilting point (θ_{pwp}) based on a gravimetric analysis (g water g soil⁻¹). Subsamples were saturated and equilibrated at -10 kPa (θ_{fc}) and -1500 kPa (θ_{pwp}) on ceramic high-pressure plates (Soil Moisture Equipment Corp., Goleta, CA; Topp et al., 1993). Soil OM content was determined by mass loss on ignition after two hours in a 500° C muffle furnace. Active C was quantified by measuring absorbance with a handheld spectrophotometer (Hach, Loveland, CO) after oxidizing duplicate, 2.5 g soil samples with 20 mL of 0.02 M potassium permanganate (KMnO₄) solution (pH 7.2). This measurement is also
referred to in the literature as permanganate oxidizable carbon, POXC.

Soil Resp was measured in duplicate after a 4-d incubation using a modified Haney and
Haney (2010) method where soil was placed in a glass jar with a KOH-based CO₂ trap. The
amount of CO₂ respired was determined by measuring the change in electrical conductivity
of the solution with an OrionTM DuraProbeTM 4-Electrode Conductivity Cell (ThermoFisher
Scientific, Inc., Waltham, MA). The necessary background correction for atmospheric CO₂
was quantified using blank (*i.e.*, no soil) incubations.

Protein content was measured by extracting a subsample with 0.02 M sodium citrate (pH
7), concentrating the sample through a series of centrifugation and autoclaving steps (Wright
and Upadhyaya, 1996), and then quantifying soil protein content using a bicinchoninic acid
assay with a bovine serum albumin standard curve.

Soil pH was measured in a 1:1 soil:water slurry. Plant available soil nutrient concentrations (P, K, Mg, Fe, Mn and Zn) were measured using inductively coupled plasma optical emission spectrometry (SPECTRO Analytical Instruments Inc., Mahwah, NJ) after extracting with a Modified Morgan solution (ammonium acetate plus acetic acid, pH 4.8; McIntosh, 1969). All nutrient contents were calculated per mass of soil (mg kg⁻¹).

245

246 Data analysis

Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients were computed for every pair of soil health indicators to create correlation matrices for the pooled dataset that included each individual trial, as well as all trials combined. Data for each trial were analyzed for significant treatment effects using analysis of variance and means separation with the Tukey post-hoc test for randomized complete block designs. Regression analysis was performed on corn and
soybean yields vs. SH indicators for the Reidsville (piedmont) experiment, which contained
16 years of continuous yield data (Roper et al., 2017). All statistical analyses and graphing

were performed using RStudio software version 1.0.143 (R Core Team, 2016).

255

256 **Results and Discussion**

257 Site Comparisons and Correlation Analysis

258 Soil health for each site was characterized by mean values (Table 1). The piedmont site 259 (Reidsville) generally showed the least favorable values for physical and biological 260 indicators, possibly because it only involved row crops and did not include any poultry litter 261 additions or cover crop. The coastal plain (Goldsboro) site showed lower OM, but not 262 commensurately lower Protein, ActC, and Resp, suggesting higher OM quality compared to 263 the piedmont and mountain sites. That response was quite likely associated with the organic 264 amendments and less organo-mineral bonds with coarser texture. The sites were strongly to 265 moderately acidic (pH 5.4-5.6) but generally showed adequate levels of crop nutrients based 266 on CASH interpretations (Moebius-Clune et al., 2016), confirming that the sites generally 267 had good fertility management.

The SH indicators from each research site were compared with mean CASH database values for coarse and medium textured soils in the Mid-Atlantic (Table 1). Those reference data represent a diverse group of cropping systems and management practices within the region (Fine et al., 2017). Mean AgStab values for the NC research sites were well below the Mid-Atlantic equivalents for the same textural groups, and the biological indicators (OM, Protein, Resp, and ActC) were also below the Mid-Atlantic average. Those results suggest 274 that the soils at the three research sites can be considered biologically and physically 275 degraded, which is consistent with the generally low crop productivity. For example, corn 276 grain yields averaged 6.21 and 4.89 Mg ha⁻¹ (99 and 78 bu ac⁻¹) for the coastal plain and 277 piedmont sites, which is well below the 3-yr (2013, 2015, and 2016) NC average of 8.03 Mg 278 ha⁻¹ (128 bu ac⁻¹; NASS, 2018). Soybean yields for the piedmont site averaged 2.94 Mg ha⁻¹ 279 (44 bu ac⁻¹) which was higher than the state average for the same 3-yr period (2.40 Mg ha⁻¹ 280 or 36 bu ac⁻¹), while fresh weight of sweetcorn averaged 12.7 Mg ha⁻¹ (1134 cwt ac⁻¹) at the 281 mountain site (Table 7 in Roper et al., 2017; Figs 1, 2). In addition to generally low crop 282 yields, interpretations in the previous analysis were based on CASH scores rather than 283 measured values (Roper et al., 2017). This could be problematic since CASH scores are based 284 on sigmoidal functions (Moebius-Clune et al., 2016) which show small rates of change at the 285 low end of the curve, thereby diminishing differences in measured values from agronomic 286 practices.

287 Pearson correlations among CASH indicators were developed for four cases: each of 288 the three trials individually, and all trials combined (Tables 2-5). When SH data from all trials 289 were pooled (n=64), half (53) of the 105 possible correlations among SH indicators were 290 significant at α =0.05 and a third (37) were significant at α =0.01. Significant correlations 291 were more or less equally found among physical, biological and chemical indicators, but the 292 highest r-values tended to involve biological indicators or Mg. Soil OM generally showed 293 only modest correlations with other biological indicators, suggesting some orthogonality 294 (*i.e.*, OM quantity and quality were somewhat independently expressed, e.g., the coastal plain 295 soils tended to have higher Protein and ActC contents relative to OM). Among these

indicators of labile organic matter, Protein, ActC, and Resp showed higher correlations, andwere better correlated with AgStab than OM.

298 Less significant correlations were observed for individual sites, presumably due to a 299 combination of less statistical power from a lower number of samples and smaller data 300 ranges within individual sites. Correlation patterns for each site (Tables 3-5) also differed 301 compared to the pooled data (Table 2), presumably reflecting treatment effects rather than 302 soil type differences. Notably, individual research sites showed high correlations of AWC 303 with OM, Mn, and Mg. Magnesium also correlated with other biological indicators and to a 304 lesser extent physical indicators. Otherwise, chemical indicators showed limited inter-305 correlations. Overall, different correlations among SH indicator data from pooled and 306 individual sites suggest variable impacts for dynamic soil properties related to agronomic 307 management practices compared to inherent soil properties associated with the 308 geographically separated trial sites and soil types (Table 2).

309

310 Treatment effects

The three trials focused on different agronomic management practices, utilized different crop sequences, and were conducted in different regions of the state with dissimilar soils, all critical factors which were differentially expressed (Table 6). For example, treatment factors were generally less significant (α =0.05) at the Goldsboro (coastal plain) site than at the Reidsville (piedmont) and Mills River (mountain) sites. Notably, the Reidsville site, which only involved tillage comparisons, showed more significant treatment effects than either site where different tillage practices were combined with conventional vs. organic management. For all three sites, treatment effects were significantly expressed (α =0.10) for ActC, Agstab, and P, and at two of three sites significant treatments were measured for Protein, pH, K, Mg, and Zn (Table 6). Other studies also found ActC and Agstab to be sensitive indicators, especially compared to OM, which often shows small non-significant effects from agronomic management practices (Idowu et al., 2009; Congreves et al., 2015; Kinoshita et al., 2017; Nunes et al., 2018).

For the Goldsboro (coastal plain) trial, average AgStab was significantly higher (α =0.05) for No-Till than ConvTill-Org2, but for plant-available P NoTill was the lowest (Table 7). This suggests that the organic system with poultry litter additions benefited from soil nutrient additions, but had greater soil physical impediments due to tillage. ActC also showed the highest numerical values for NoTill, but statistically they were not sufficient to be significant in a means comparison (α =0.05).

330 The Reidsville (piedmont) trial involved a range of tillage practices that were pooled 331 into three groups, MinimumTill, ChiselTill and MoldboardPlow (Table 7). For most biological 332 physical SH indicators, tillage effects followed a consistent pattern of and 333 MinimumTill>ChiselTill>MoldboardPlow, which were significant (α =0.05) for Agstab, 334 Protein, Resp, and ActC. Tillage effects on chemical indicators were more variable, with only 335 Mg and Mn showing the same pattern. Intensive tillage accelerates decomposition of plant 336 biomass due to higher O₂ availability and exposure of older, physically-protected soil organic 337 carbon (Reicosky, 1997; Reicosky et al., 2011).

Tillage has thus been shown to increase CO₂ emissions (Melland et al., 2017), reduce surface soil OM content (Kumar et al., 2017), and decrease the soil's ability to retain nutrients and maintain its physical quality (Martínez et al., 2016; Alhameid et al., 2017). Our results 341 support the hypothesis that intensive tillage affects OM decomposition and impacts labile C 342 and N fractions (Protein and ActC) more than total OM. Also, the Resp indicator shows higher 343 decomposition rates for reduced tillage soil after it is disturbed by sample processing, 344 suggesting that the labile organic material is better retained when left undisturbed. Low OM 345 was also associated with decreased AgStab, an important indicator of physical soil quality. 346 In a study with NC and Virginia soils, Franzluebbers (2018) and Franzluebbers et al. 347 (2018a,b) conclude that the assessment of readily-decomposed C and N through the Resp 348 test is a better predictor of plant N availability than Total N and can be used to optimize 349 supplemental N fertilizer rates. Yost et al. (2018) also found that Resp explained some of the 350 variability in corn N response in eight Midwest states.

351 The Mills River (mountain) trial involved a factorial experiment that we analyzed to 352 contrast organic vs. conventional and NoTill vs. ChiselTill (Table 7). Organic treatments 353 focused on the use of cover crops and poultry litter, two practices that generally resulted in 354 more favorable physical and biological indicator values than conventional treatments, but 355 the only significant (α =0.05) difference was for ActC and there were no significant 356 interaction effects. Many chemical indicators had higher values with organic management, suggesting that effective nutrient additions through poultry litter likely exceeded those from 357 358 inorganic fertilizer. Except for surface penetration resistance (SurfHard), NoTill practices 359 consistently showed more favorable physical and biological SH indicator values than ChiselTill, with significant differences (α =0.05) for AggStab, Protein, P and Zn. The Mills 360 361 River experiment thus suggests that tillage and organic vs. conventional treatment effects 362 are differentially expressed through SH indicators.

363 This re-analysis of the NC data counters previous interpretations (Roper et al., 2017) and 364 is consistent with results from New York trials involving tillage practices, crop rotations, and 365 cover crop treatments that showed CASH indicators could differentiate among various 366 management practices (Nunes et al., 2018). In these trials, ActC, Protein, Resp, AgStab and 367 SurfHard showed significant responses to tillage (no-till, conventional till), and AWC to cover 368 cropping. Similarly, Congreves et al. (2015) measured significant responses of CASH 369 indicators (AgStab, pH and Zn) to tillage treatments (no-till, conventional till) in an Ontario 370 study. AgStab, P, and Mn also responded to crop rotation effects. Furthermore, an 371 assessment of a long-term tillage (plow, no-till) and crop residue management (removed or 372 retained) study by Kinoshita et al. (2017) showed that 40-year effects were discernable in 373 the 0-15 cm layer for all measured biological indicators and the majority of physical (notably AgStab) and chemical indicators. Effects in some cases were also detected within the subsoil. 374 375 In ten European long-term experiments involving tillage and organic input management, 376 ActC (POXC) was determined to be the most sensitive and useful indicator for labile C 377 (Bünemann et al., 2018; Bongiorno et al., 2019). Collectively, these reports are in agreement 378 with our results showing that CASH indicators can differentiate agronomic management 379 effects.

380

381 Soil Health and Yield

382 Demonstrating positive relationships between soil health and crop yield is of great 383 interest to farmers as it could justify management investments in practices such as reduced 384 tillage, adding organic inputs, or altering rotations. But this has been difficult, especially in 385 experimental trials due to often inconsistent yield data or confounding impacts (e.g., pest 386 pressure, weather variability, and/or extraneous management factors). Roper et al., (2017: 387 Fig. 2 therein) used the NC dataset to determine relationships between overall soil health 388 scores and crop yield for the piedmont and mountain sites but found no correlation. We 389 hypothesize that this was primarily due to the use of overall soil health scores (masking 390 individual indicator effects) and confounding impacts associated with non-soil factors 391 (notably pest pressures). Nevertheless, the Reidsville (piedmont) site provided an excellent 392 experimental dataset to evaluate correlations between individual CASH indicators (rather 393 than scores) and vield, because (i) data were available from 17 corn harvests (between 394 1987 and 2015) and 10 soybean harvests (1990 to 2014), (ii) there was a gradient of tillage 395 intensities, and (iii) there were no apparent confounding factors affecting crop yields at 396 this site (as opposed to the coastal plain and mountain experiments). 397 Linear regression line plots showing relationships between various SH indicators and 398 yields of corn (Fig. 1) and soybean (Fig. 2) had high annual variability as expressed by 399 standard deviation (sd) bars (pooled values of 2.72 and 1.21 Mg ha⁻¹ for corn and soybean, 400 respectively). Corn yields were less than 7 Mg ha⁻¹ (112 bu ac^{-1}) with about half of the 401 means. Multi-year mean yield values, however, were often closely correlated with SH 402 indicators, especially for the biological properties and processes (Figs 1, 2). Eight soil 403 health indicators (Agstab, OM, Protein, Resp, ActC, P, Mg and Mn) showed significant 404 $(\alpha=0.10)$ linear regression effects with mean corn and soybean yields (Table 8). This 405 implies that tillage-related SH differences as indicated by the SH values can on average be 406 expected to result in higher crop yields. For each SH indicator the linear relationship with 407 mean corn and soybean yield generally followed the pattern MinimumTill > ChiselTill > 408 MoldboardPlow, especially for the biological measurements (Figs. 1, 2). This implies that

409	reduced tillage resulted in better SH indicator values that in turn were associated with
410	higher average crop yields. This experiment thus provides some of the very best-available
411	results linking agronomic management practices to both soil health and yield benefits, and
412	counters conclusions by Roper et al. (2017) that SH indicators could not be correlated to
413	crop yield, which is relevant to commercial farmers.
414	For corn yields, the highest significant regression coefficients and associated R^2_{adj}
415	values (Table 8) followed the order of Protein>ActC>Mn>Resp>Aggstab>P>Mg>OM, while
416	for soybean yield they were ActC>Resp>Mg>Mn>Protein>P>Aggstab>OM (Figs 1, 2; note:
417	X-Y plots are ordered by R^2_{adj} value). Several insightful conclusions can be drawn from this
418	re-analysis:
419	1. Biological indicators associated with labile C and N show the strongest linear
420	regression fit with mean yield for both crops: ActC had very high R^2_{adj} values of 0.93
421	and 0.85 for mean soybean and corn yields, respectively, and Resp shows R^2_{adj}
422	values of 0.90 for mean soybean yield and 0.75 for corn. Protein values showed the
423	highest fit with mean corn yield (R^2_{adj} =0.88), but a lower correlation with soybean
424	yield (0.55), suggesting that a legume crop would benefit less from high soil Protein
425	levels and presumably the associated organic nitrogen than a non-legume crop.
426	This makes biological sense.
427	2. Soil OM levels showed relatively weak regression fits with mean yield (ranked 8^{th}
428	for both corn and soybean; $p=0.06$ and 0.09, respectively), while OM quality
429	indicators (<i>i.e.</i> , Protein, ActC) correlated much better, suggesting that OM quality
430	may be more relevant to crop yield than OM quantity.

431	3.	Strong regression fits between crop yield and biological indicators suggest that the
432		negative impacts of intensive tillage on labile organic C fractions that are most
433		readily decomposed also adversely affect crop yield. Notably, Protein represents low
434		C:N organic matter that is readily used as a microbial food source and ActC mimics
435		organic matter decomposition including more recalcitrant forms (Weil et al, 2013;
436		Romero et al., 2018).
437	4.	Mn is strongly impacted by tillage intensity, which in turn correlates well with mean
438		corn and soybean yield (R^2_{adj} =0.85 and 0.65, respectively). Unlike other crop
439		nutrients, Mn was not managed through external applications and Mn contents for
440		this experiment were not out of line with regional averages (Table 1). Recent studies
441		have shown that Mn redox cycling is important in organic matter decomposition
442		(Keiluweit, 2015), which according to these results is impacted by tillage intensity.
443	5.	AgStab is negatively impacted by tillage intensity and shows modest correlations
444		with yield, presumably due to aggregation effects from higher biological activity
445		(Magdoff and van Es, 2009), as evidenced by the biological SH indicators (Table 8).
446	6.	Weaker correlations were observed for P and Mg (Fig. 1, 2), which presumably
447		relates to their enhanced availability with higher organic matter quality.

449 **Conclusions**

450 This study re-analyzed data from three long-term agronomic experiments in North
451 Carolina and conveys different perspectives from the paper by Roper at al. (2017), which
452 had concluded that the CASH framework and two other soil tests have limited ability to
453 discern among management practices. It had also concluded that there was a lack of

correlation between SH measurements and crop yield. Our analysis utilizes more nuanced 454 455 interpretations and is mostly in disagreement with those conclusions, but corroborates 456 other previous research on the utility of SH indicators. This is in part due to the fact that 457 the Roper et al. (2017) analysis was negatively impacted by low statistical power from high 458 sample variability, interpretations based on non-linear scoring functions that obscured 459 effects of individual treatments, as well as insufficient differentiation of the performance of 460 CASH from other soil tests (*i.e.*, NSHT and NCDACS). Moreover, their inference that overall 461 SH scores and crop yields were not correlated was strongly confounded by several non-soil 462 factors (i.e., very low crop yields in some years, and pest pressures related to organic 463 practices). Furthermore, the analyses considered SH scores rather than individual indicator 464 values, which was problematic due to the quality of the soils. 465 Our analysis provides a different perspective and concludes that multi-functional 466 soil health indicators (biological, physical, chemical) indeed offer valuable insights for

468 demonstrated that different management practices variably impact different aspects of SH,

interpreting long-term effects of agronomic management practices. Notably, we

469 especially indicators associated with labile organic matter (ActC, Protein, Resp, AgStab).

470 Changes in tillage intensity appear to have greater impacts than organic vs. conventional

471 practices. Also, correlations among SH indicators varied based on the geographic scope of

472 the analysis and whether it involved a single-location trial or multiple trials.

Furthermore, the piedmont trial involving a range of tillage intensities and 16-year cropping data offered unique insights into correlations between SH indicators and crop yields as impacted by tillage. Although annual variability of corn and soybean yields was high, the long-term average yields showed very good linear regression fits with SH indicators related to organic matter quality. This suggests that labile sources of C and N are

477

478 important to soil health and crop performance. Results also show that Mn, which plays a 479 role in organic matter dynamics, is impacted by tillage practices and in turn correlates with 480 yields. 481 Overall we conclude that, contrary to previous inferences from these trials, (i) 482 comprehensive soil health assessment through the CASH framework was able to discern 483 effects of agronomic management practices (tillage, organic practices), (ii) biological 484 indicators associated with labile C and N are most impacted by management practices, 485 especially tillage, and (iii) SH indicators can be related to yield of corn and soybean under 486 varying tillage intensities, but scoring curves for soil health may need to be regionalized. 487 Acknowledgements 488 489 The authors acknowledge the experimental work, data and funding associated with the 490 original paper by Roper et al., 2017. 491 492 References 493 Alhameid, A., Ibrahim, M., Kumar, S., Sexton, P., Schumacher, T.E., 2017. Soil organic carbon 494 changes impacted by crop rotational diversity under no-till farming in South Dakota, 495 USA. Soil Sci. Soc. Am. J. 81: 868-877. 496 Andrews, S.S., D.L. Karlen, and C.A. Cambardella. 2004. The soil management assessment 497 framework: A quantitative soil quality evaluation method. Soil Sci. Soc. Am. J. 68: 1945-498 1962.

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Page 30 of 40

647 List of Tables and Figures

- Table 1. Means of soil health indicators for the coastal plain, piedmont and mountain sites,
- as well as the CASH database for Mid-Atlantic soils (from Fine et al., 2017).
- Table 2. Pearson correlations among soil health indicators for all coastal plain, piedmont and mountain samples with p<0.05 (bolded numbers p<0.01; n=64).
- Table 3. Pearson correlations among soil health indicators for coastal plain (Goldsboro)
 samples with p<0.05 (bolded numbers p<0.01; n=12).
- Table 4. Pearson correlations among soil health indicators for all piedmont (Reidsville)
 samples with p<0.05 (bolded numbers p<0.01; n=32).
- Table 5. Pearson correlations among soil health indicators for mountain (Mills River)
 samples with p<0.05 (bolded numbers p<0.01; n=20).
- Table 6. P values for treatment effects for Goldsboro, Reidsville, and Mills River samples.
- Table 7. Soil management contrasts for Goldsboro, Reidsville, and Mills River samples. Bold
- 660 numbers indicate treatment effects at 2=0.05. Of those, treatments within the same site
- 661 followed by the same letter are not significantly different.
- 662 Table 8. Results for linear regression of mean corn and soybean yields on soil health
- 663 indicators, Reidsville site (all P<0.05; bolded: R^2_{adj} >0.75). SD is the pooled standard 664 deviation associated with annual yield variability.
- 665 Figure 1. Linear regression of corn yield on soil health indicators, organized from highest to
- 666 lowest R² value (cf. Table 7). Regression line is based on mean yields for tillage treatments,
- 667 and error bars represent standard deviations associated with annual yield variability.
- 668 Figure 2. Linear regression of soybean yield on soil health indicators, organized from
- highest to lowest R² value (cf. Table 7). Regression line is based on mean yields for tillage
- 670 treatments, and error bars represent standard deviations associated with annual yield
- 671 variability.

Table 1. Means of CASH soil health indicators for the coastal plain, piedmont and mountain sites, as well as the CASH database for Mid-Atlanticsoils (from Fine et al., 2017).

Site	region	n	texture	AWC ⁺	SurfHard	SubHard	Agstab	ОМ	Protein	Resp	ActC	рΗ	Ρ	к	Mg	Fe	Mn	Zn
				m3/m3	M	Pa	%	%	mg/g	mgCO2/g	mg/kg				- mg/k	(g		
Goldsboro	coastal plain	12	SL / LS	0.16	1.53	2.75	11	1.7	4.5	0.35	320	5.4	11.7	122	93	4.9	7.4	1.9
Reidsville	piedmont	32	SL	0.15	1.82	3.59	9	2.5	3.1	0.34	289	5.6	8.8	100	126	3.0	4.4	1.9
Mill River	mountain	20	SiL	0.21	1.48	2.61	12	2.6	4.0	0.39	312	5.6	6.3	123	151	4.2	6.6	0.8
database	Mid- Atlantic	101	coarse	0.11	1.25	2.21	45	2.2	6.4	0.52	335	6.0	14.2	92.5	87	3.5	7.4	1.9
database	Mid- Atlantic	317	medium	0.22	1.34	2.00	43	4.1	10.0	0.86	564	6.2	23.2	164	173	4.7	17.2	2.0

⁺AWC, available water capacity; SurfHard, penetration resistance within the 0 to 15-cm zone; SubHard, penetration resistance within the 15 to 45-cm zone; AgStab, water stable aggregation; OM, organic matter; Resp, respiration during a 4 day incubation; ActC, active carbon.

- Table 2. Pearson correlations among CASH soil health indicators for all coastal plain, piedmont and
- 677 mountain samples with p<0.05 (bolded numbers p<0.01; n=64).



[†]AWC, available water capacity; SurfHard, penetration resistance within the 0 to 15-cm zone; SubHard,

679 penetration resistance within the 15 to 45-cm zone; AgStab, water stable aggregation; OM, organic matter; Resp,

680 respiration during a 4-day incubation; ActC, active carbon.

Table 3. Pearson correlations among CASH soil health indicators for coastal plain (Goldsboro) samples





686 during a 4-day incubation; ActC, active carbon.

687

Table 4. Pearson correlations among CASH soil health indicators for all piedmont (Reidsville) samples

690 with p<0.05 (bolded numbers p<0.01; n=32).



resistance within the 15 to 45-cm zone; AgStab, water stable aggregation; OM, organic matter; Resp, respiration

693 during a 4-day incubation; ActC, active carbon.

- Table 5. Pearson correlations among CASH soil health indicators for mountain (Mills River) samples with
- 696 p<0.05 (bolded numbers p<0.01; n=20).



Table 6. P values for treatment effects on CASH soil health indicators for Goldsboro, Reidsville, and Mills River samples.

		Surf	Sub	Agg											
	AWC†	Hard	Hard	Stab	ОМ	Protein	Resp	ActC	рН	Р	К	Mg	Fe	Mn	Zn
Goldsboro	NS^{\ddagger}	NS	NS	0.020	NS	NS	NS	0.072	NS	0.035	NS	NS	NS	NS	0.046
Reidsville	NS	NS	NS	0.006	NS	0.002	0.001	< 0.001	0.01	0.06	0.008	0.016	NS	0.002	NS
Mills River	NS	NS	NS	0.052	NS	0.002	NS	< 0.001	0.014	<0.001	0.002	0.011	0.075	NS	<0.001

[†]AWC, available water capacity; SurfHard, penetration resistance within the 0 to 15-cm zone; SubHard, penetration resistance within the 15 to 45-cm zone; AgStab, water stable aggregation; OM, organic matter; Resp, respiration during a 4-day incubation; ActC, active carbon. [‡]NS: not significant at α=0.1.

704

Table 7. Soil management contrasts related to CASH soil health indicators for Goldsboro, Reidsville, and Mills River samples. Bold

numbers indicate treatment effects at α =0.05. Of those, treatments within the same site followed by the same letter are not significantly different.

Site	AWC [†]	Surf Hard	Sub Hard	Agg Stab	ОМ	Protein	Resp	ActC	рН	Р	К	Mg	Fe	Mn	Zn
<u>Goldsboro</u>															
ConvTill	0.160	1.72	2.877	1 3.07 a	1.433	4.37	0.287	277	5.00	9.37ab	93.1	57.0	4.57	9.03	1.30
ConvTill-Org1	0.147	1.45	3.023	9.83ab	1.433	4.33	0.400	304	5.57	17.10a	122.3	77.3	5.97	5.80	2.93
ConvTill-Org2	0.167	1.15	2.563	6.60b	1.933	4.23	0.383	294	5.57	12.13ab	161.9	128.0	2.80	7.70	2.10
NoTill	0.183	1.78	2.520	14.40a	1.833	5.00	0.347	406	5.37	8.00b	108.9	111.0	6.10	7.13	1.30
p-value	0.707	0.584	0.768	0.020	0.589	0.110	0.426	0.072	0.183	0.035	0.118	0.396	0.479	0.720	0.046
<u>Reidsville</u>															
MoldboardPlow	0.149	2.00	3.75	6.45b	2.16	1.95c	0.229b	181b	5.39b	5.36	83.8b	103.3b	2.78	3.59b	1.663
ChiselTill	0.149	1.61	3.71	8.34b	2.44	2.95b	0.379a	313a	5.77a	9.96	116.4a	132.4ab	3.16	4.34b	1.450
MinimumTill	0.160	1.84	3.30	12.17a	2.77	4.43a	0.414a	372a	5.53ab	11.16	100.1ab	141.0a	3.00	5.14a	2.438
p-value	0.233	0.206	0.333	0.006	0.139	<0.001	0.001	<0.001	0.011	0.066	0.007	0.016	0.894	0.002	0.129
Mills River															
Conventional	0.207	1.655	2.760	11.73	2.532	3.79	0.375	277b	5.55	4.79b	90.9b	133.2b	5.34a	6.17	0.793
Organic	0.212	1.455	2.471	13.68	2.660	4.36	0.424	387a	5.78	9.22a	160.0a	179.1a	2.24b	7.09	0.950
p-value	0.428	0.474	0.080	0.572	0.582	0.233	0.317	0.003	0.139	0.011	<0.001	<0.001	0.039	0.252	0.210
ChiselTill	0.209	1.405	2.606	8.38b	2.481	3.40b	0.391	296	5.78	4.84b	124.4	153.1	3.98	6.29	0.588b
NoTill	0.211	1.705	2.625	17.03a	2.711	4.76a	0.408	367	5.56	9.18a	126.6	159.2	3.60	6.97	1.075a
p-value	0.694	0.277	0.914	0.003	0.314	<0.001	0.743	0.085	0.168	0.013	0.918	0.704	0.817	0.393	0.004
[†] AWC, available wat	er capacit	v; SurfHa	rd, penet	ration resi	istance w	ithin the 0	to 15-cm z	one; SubH	ard, penet	ration resist	tance withir	n the 15 to 4	5-cm zon	e;	

710 AgStab, water stable aggregation; OM, organic matter; Resp, respiration during a 4-day incubation; ActC, active carbon.

- 712 Table 8. Results for linear regression of mean corn and soybean yields on CASH soil health indicators, Reidsville site (all
- p<0.05; bolded: R² _{adj} >0.75). SD is the pooled standard deviation associated with annual yield variability.

	AggStab ⁺	ОМ	Protein	Resp	ActC	Р	Mg	Mn
				mg CO2				
	%	%	mg g⁻¹	g ⁻¹		- mg kg ⁻¹		
				Corn Yield				
R ² adj	0.71	0.37	0.88	0.75	0.85	0.66	0.56	0.85
p-value, regr coeff	0.005	0.063	<0.001	0.003	<0.001	0.008	0.019	<0.001
intercept	1487	-1492	1822	1219	1284	2475	-333	-1946
slope	386	2606	1002	10478	12.26	266	41.1	1572
			Sc	ybean Yield				
R ² _{adj}	0.48	0.31	0.55	0.90	0.93	0.59	0.76	0.65
p-value, regr coeff	0.033	0.090	0.021	<0.001	<0.001	0.015	0.003	0.01
intercept	1483	447	1616	1132	1207	1695	469	400
slope	113	831	283	3855	4.34	87	15.8	479
	R ² _{adj} p-value, regr coeff intercept slope R ² _{adj} p-value, regr coeff intercept slope	AggStab ⁺ $\%$ R^2_{adj} 0.71 p-value, regr coeff 0.005 intercept 1487 slope 386 R^2_{adj} 0.48 p-value, regr coeff 0.033 intercept 1483 slope 113	AggStab ⁺ OM % % % % R ² _{adj} 0.71 0.37 p-value, regr coeff 0.005 0.063 intercept 1487 -1492 slope 386 2606 R ² _{adj} 0.48 0.31 p-value, regr coeff 0.033 0.090 intercept 1483 447 slope 113 831	AggStab*OMProtein%%mg g^{-1}%%mg g^{-1}R^2_{adj}0.710.370.88p-value, regr coeff0.0050.063<0.001	$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$

^{*} AgStab, water stable aggregation; OM, organic matter; Resp, respiration during a 4-day incubation; ActC, active carbon.

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Figure 1. Linear regression of corn yield on CASH soil health indicators, organized from highest to lowest R²_{adj} value (cf. Table 7). Regression line
 is based on mean yields for tillage treatments, and error bars represent standard deviations associated with annual yield variability.

O Chisel Till Minimum Till Moldboard Plow 4000 3000 Yield (kg/ha) 2000 1000 160 3.0 3.5 4.5 5.0 5.5 200 250 300 350 0.20 0.25 0.30 0.35 0.40 0.45 100 120 140 4.0 Mn (mg/kg) Active C (mg/kg) Mg (mg/kg) Respiration (mg CO2/g) 4000 3000 Yield (kg/ha) 2000 3000 1000 2.0 2.5 3.0 3.5 4.0 4.5 5.0 2 12 6 8 10 14 16 4 8 10 12 14 4 6 2.0 2.2 2.4 2.6 2.8 3.0 Protein (mg/g) P (mg/kg) Aggregate Stability (%)) Organic Matter (%)

723

Figure 2. Linear regression of soybean yield on CASH soil health indicators, organized from highest to lowest R²_{adj} value (cf. Table 7). Regression
 line is based on mean yields for tillage treatments, and error bars represent standard deviations associated with annual yield variability.

726