

## **Carbon budget in a Mediterranean peach orchard under different management practices**

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## 1 Abstract

2 The soil organic carbon (SOC) content of many Mediterranean soils is low (~1%) and this  
3 hinders both economic and ecologic progress. The climate in much of the Mediterranean  
4 region (low annual precipitation, cool wet winters, hot dry summers), combined with  
5 traditional agricultural practices has a major impact on the carbon (C) cycle. To increase  
6 our knowledge of C fluxes in Mediterranean agro-ecosystems, this paper examines the  
7 effects on the soil and biome C budgets of a peach (*Prunus persica* L. Batsch) orchard,  
8 seven years after adopting sustainable management practices ( $S_{mng}$ ). The result is compared  
9 with the continued use of locally conventional management practices ( $C_{mng}$ ). Sustainable  
10 management involved zero-tillage, weed mowing, retention of above-ground residues and  
11 the import of organic amendments, while  $C_{mng}$  involved tillage, removal of pruning  
12 residues and the application of mineral fertilisers. The annual net ecosystem production  
13 (NEP) was determined through field measurements of soil respiration (Li-6400, LI-COR,  
14 USA) and above- and below-ground biomass sampling. The mean annual NEP was close to  
15 320 and 475 g C m<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> in the  $C_{mng}$  and  $S_{mng}$  plots, respectively. As managed ecosystems,  
16 anthropogenic C imports/exports and related changes of soil C pool were then accounted  
17 for through the net ecosystem C balance (NECB). The NECB approximated 90 g C m<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>  
18 for  $C_{mng}$  and 730 g C m<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> for  $S_{mng}$ . This result highlights the critical role of appropriate  
19 management of the variable components on sustaining ecosystem resilience, including the  
20 management of pruning residues, the import of organic materials, and the maintenance of a  
21 cover crop. Over a 7-year study period, C stock (SOC and litter) increased at a mean rate of  
22 ~145 g C m<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> in the  $S_{mng}$  plot while it increased at only ~7.5 g C m<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> in the  $C_{mng}$   
23 plot. Whole-tree standing biomass was measured by tree excavation revealing that the C  
24 sequestered over the 14-year lifetime of the orchard was close to 25 t C ha<sup>-1</sup>. This study  
25 provides information on C stock variation (soil + biome) and on annual net atmospheric C  
26 removal (NEP) in a cultivated peach orchard under Mediterranean climate conditions.

27

28 **Key words:** carbon sequestration, conventional, NECB, soil respiration, standing biomass,  
29 sustainable

## 30 **1. Introduction**

31 Agriculture is a key socio-economic sector and thus a driving force for sustainable  
32 development as it relates to a number of crucial conditions of sustainability and ecosystem  
33 services delivery including conservation of natural capital (Costanza et al., 1997; Bithas  
34 and Nijkamp, 2006; Bithas, 2008). Agriculture is also pivotal to our response to climate  
35 change because it both contributes to greenhouse gas (GHG) sinks through photosynthesis  
36 and also to GHG emissions through the microbial processes of organic matter  
37 decomposition and through human management/disturbance of agro-ecosystems (Tubiello  
38 et al., 2015).

39  
40 Within the UN Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC), the European  
41 Commission (EC) is already taking actions to reduce GHG emissions in all economic  
42 sectors including agriculture as combined in the so-called LULUCF sector (land-use, land-  
43 use change and forestry) (see EC, 2013). Although rigorous accounting of the C fluxes in  
44 the agricultural sector is of high significance, standard accounting methods fail to  
45 approximate the relevant characteristics of certain agricultural activities (EC, 2013). In this  
46 regard, aspects of orchard and vineyard management relevant to climate change mitigation  
47 and adaptation strategy (e.g. carbon removal and storage in the soil and in woody biomass)  
48 are rarely reported under UNFCCC accounting protocols (Huffman et al., 2015). This is  
49 likely because orchards do not conform to the definition of a ‘forest’ with the result that  
50 orchards are sometimes listed under ‘grasslands’ so that the carbon (C) stored in orchard  
51 tree biomass is not accounted for (Arets et al., 2014). Similarly, variations in the C pools

52 (e.g. soil organic carbon and crop biomass) associated with land use change and with  
53 different management (e.g. sustainable, conventional) are often not accounted for in  
54 assessments of product life cycle greenhouse gas emissions due to limited information and  
55 inadequate accounting procedures (PAS 2050, 2008; Goglio et al., 2015).

56

57 The seasonal carbon removal capacity of biome is related to its metabolism, particularly to  
58 the balance between photosynthesis and respiration (Sala et al., 2012). Hence,  
59 environmental conditions (especially air temperature and soil moisture) are influential both  
60 on the photosynthetic capacity and also on the respiratory demand of trees (Grossman and  
61 DeJong, 1994). Therefore, climate is pivotal in understanding the balance between C  
62 removal, C sequestration and C release. As noted by Panzacchi et al. (2012) only a few  
63 reports provide annualised information on orchard C fluxes, especially in relation to the  
64 Mediterranean ecoregion, and such information as is available relates predominantly to  
65 evergreen species such as olives, oranges (Almagro et al., 2009; Liguori et al., 2009;  
66 Nardino et al., 2013; Palese et al., 2013). Because evergreen spp. have a year-round  
67 physiological activity (Nardino et al., 2013), they are likely to differ from deciduous ones  
68 in terms of their C sequestration capability. Hence, better information on C fluxes in  
69 deciduous orchards in Mediterranean climates is highly desirable if GHG accounting is to  
70 be improved.

71

72 Most ecologists describe imbalances in C uptake and loss by ecosystem respiration as net  
73 ecosystem production (NEP), where this reflects ecosystem metabolism and its interaction  
74 with the environment (e.g. weather, soil water) (Chapin III et al., 2006). However,

75 cultivated land is a managed ecosystem, hence analysis of its C fluxes should account for  
76 the net of all C imports/exports to/from the orchard, including those generated by  
77 anthropogenic activity. In cropland, organic C can enter the ecosystem through the  
78 additions of organic fertiliser (manure, compost, biochar etc.). Meanwhile, C can leave  
79 through a range of possible non-respiratory C losses (harvest removal, fire, erosion,  
80 leaching etc.). An assessment of these fluxes is necessary for proper identification of  
81 feasible GHG mitigation options at local, regional and national scales (Nayak et al., 2015).  
82 At the orchard scale, some management options (tillage, cover crops, burning or mulching  
83 of pruning residues, use of organic or inorganic fertilisers etc.) will have significant impacts  
84 on C fluxes (West and Marland, 2002), however the impacts of these practices on the  
85 overall C fluxes in a Mediterranean deciduous orchard have not been adequately explored.  
86 The overall C balance from all physical, biological and anthropogenic C imports/exports  
87 has been conceptualised within the framework of the Net Ecosystem Carbon Balance  
88 (NECB) (Chapin III et al., 2006) which identifies an orchard as a net sink, where  $NECB > 0$ ,  
89 or as a net source, where  $NECB < 0$ .

90

91 Despite some criticism of the significance of cultivated soil at the scale of global C cycles  
92 due to the issue of permanence of SOC stocks (Schlesinger, 1990; Smith et al., 2007), there  
93 is general consensus on the function of soil to potentially serve as a stable reservoir for  
94 atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub>. Thus, at the recent Paris climate conference (UNFCCC-COP21,  
95 December 2015) it was proposed that SOC sequestration be increased at the rate of 4 % per  
96 year to offset continuing global anthropogenic emissions (Lal et al., 2015). Sustainable  
97 agricultural ecosystems (including orchards) have the potential to sequester C at rates

98 similar to those of forests (Wu et al., 2012; Zanutelli et al., 2013), however their role in  
99 delivering climate change mitigation remains controversial (Powlson et al., 2016 and  
100 references therein). The contribution of agricultural ecosystems (soil + biome) to the  
101 overall C fluxes of the LULUCF sector is still debated, as can be inferred from the public  
102 consultation launched by EC on the integration of agriculture, forestry and land use into the  
103 EU's climate and energy policy for 2030 (see  
104 [http://ec.europa.eu/clima/consultations/articles/0026\\_en.htm](http://ec.europa.eu/clima/consultations/articles/0026_en.htm)).

105

106 With this as background, the first objective of this study was to test the hypothesis that in a  
107 sustainable Mediterranean peach orchard (*Prunus persica* L. Batsch), the absolute annual  
108 C change as affected by plant metabolism (NEP), as well as by the removal of harvested  
109 fruit, pruning residues etc., and by the import of organic fertilisers and cover crops, is net  
110 positive (i.e. NECB>0). This would allow it to be considered a C sink (*sensu* Chapin III et  
111 al., 2006). The second objective, was to examine whether a switch from conventional to  
112 sustainable cultivation over a medium temporal horizon in a Mediterranean peach orchard  
113 would significantly contribute to GHG mitigation through the growth of the soil C pools  
114 (SOC and litter). The third objective, was to quantify C sequestration in standing above-  
115 and below-ground biomass of fruit trees growing in a Mediterranean peach orchard  
116 throughout their commercial lifetime.

117

118

119

## 120 **2. Materials and methods**

### 121 *2.1 Study site and treatment application*

122 The study was conducted in southern Italy (N 40° 23' E 16° 42') under Mediterranean  
123 climatic conditions where long-term average annual rainfall is 550 mm and is highly  
124 seasonal, usually falling between October and May, with insignificant amounts between  
125 June and September. The mean annual maximum air temperature is 21.4°C, with mean  
126 peaks at 35.5 °C in July (SAL Service, ALSIA Basilicata Region). Trials were carried out  
127 in a peach (*Prunus persica* (L.) Batsch Nectarine) orchard cv. Super Crimson grafted on  
128 GF677 planted at the beginning of 1997 on a *Typic Xerofluvents*, WRB, sandy-loam soil  
129 (68.8% sand, 16% silt and 15.3% clay, 15%ww of soil coarse fraction >2mm), 23 m a.s.l..  
130 Trees were trained to delayed-vase and spaced 5 m between rows and 4 m along the row.  
131 The orchard was managed according to locally conventional practice ( $C_{mng}$ ); drip irrigation  
132 (approx. 6,500 m<sup>3</sup> ha<sup>-1</sup> per year) and fertilization were localised along the row (a 1.0 m  
133 wide band), on average the orchard received 140 (N), 70 (P) and 100 (K) kg ha<sup>-1</sup> each year.  
134 Soil was evenly tilled 4-5 times during the growing season (February-August) using an 18-  
135 disc harrow (10 cm depth) and pruning was done in winter and all residues were removed  
136 and burned.

137 A 1 ha block was subjected to sustainable management ( $S_{mng}$ ) for a 7-year period starting  
138 from 2004. Soil was untilled and the spontaneous understorey 'grass' was mowed three  
139 times (usually in March, May and June to 3-4 cm). Fertilisation was based on tree demand  
140 and on the availability of essential nutrients in the soil (soil analyses) (Xiloyannis et al.  
141 2006, Montanaro et al., 2010). In the  $S_{mng}$  block, only N was supplied as mineral fertiliser

142 (50-60 kg ha<sup>-1</sup> per year). Organic amendment (compost) was supplied in winter at a rate of  
143 15 t ha<sup>-1</sup> per year (fresh weight, 25% moisture content). The compost was localised in a ~1  
144 m wide band along the row. The compost (22.2 C/N; Eco-Pol SpA - Italy) on average  
145 contained on a dry matter basis 35% C, 2.02% total N, 1.8% organic N, 1.86% K<sub>2</sub>O, and  
146 0.9% P<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>. Pruning was done each year in December and January and the pruning biomass  
147 was chipped and evenly distributed in the alley.

148 Based on preliminary observations carried out at the beginning of the experiment, within  
149 each block there was no heterogeneity in SOC, in trees shape/size, in supply of nutrients  
150 and irrigation; application of treatments was uniform because it was easy to manipulate the  
151 compost application, tillage, pruning residues and cover crops mulching, etc. Therefore,  
152 according to Clewer and Skarisbrik (2001), under these fairly uniform conditions, the  
153 sampling programme employed a completely randomised design (CRD) with single-tree  
154 experimental plots with 3-20 independent replicates per treatment.

155

## 156 *2.2 Net Ecosystem Carbon Balance (NECB)*

157 The net annual rate of C change (accumulation/loss) in the orchard ecosystem was assessed  
158 through the NECB (Chapin III et al., 2006) based on the equation:

159

$$160 \text{ NECB} = \text{NEP} + \text{LTC}$$

161

162 where NEP is the net ecosystem production calculated as the difference between above-  
163 and below-ground net primary production (NPP) (assessed through the above- and below-  
164 ground annual biome biomass) and the heterotrophic component of soil respiration ( $R_h$ ); the



165 LTC represents the lateral transport of carbon related to anthropogenic imports/exports  
166 such as fruit harvest, removing of pruning residuals and import of organic fertilisers. The  
167 amount of C exported by fruit at harvest was that computed as NPP (see below). Whereas,  
168 the amount of lateral transport due to the removal of pruning residuals was determined  
169 collecting the pruning material in winter from 15 trees per treatment, and analysing their  
170 dry matter (DM) content and C concentration on pruned subsample shoots (see 2.4  
171 paragraph). Carbon imported through compost application was determined based on the  
172 amount of compost supplied and its declared C content.

173 The NECB was calculated on a yearly basis and expressed as  $\text{g C m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ , details on NECB  
174 components are reported below. Possible fluxes of C due to soil erosion were not  
175 considered because soil was flat, fluxes of methane, carbon monoxide, volatile organic  
176 carbon, and dissolved organic and inorganic C were also not considered in the present  
177 study.

178

### 179 *2.2.1 Above-ground NPP: current-year and standing biomass*

180 Newly produced above-ground annual biomass was calculated as dry mass and C content  
181 of current-year biomass (shoots, foliage, fruits) from both trees and cover crops and the  
182 increment of standing biomass from trees (trunk, branches).

183

#### 184 *2.2.1.1 Leaf and shoots*

185 Each year in October/November leaves were collected to estimate the NPP from leaves by  
186 placing nets on the ground underneath five trees per treatment, and eventually leaf fall was  
187 manually completed. The woody material removed by routine annual pruning in winter was

188 collected from 10 trees ( $\times 5$  per treatment) and partitioned in current-year shoots and  
189 branches. The total length of current-year shoots left after pruning on the trees was  
190 measured and their DM content estimated through pruned subsample shoots. Each year  
191 (mid-July) trees were subjected to summer pruning removing un-fruiting shoots. This  
192 summer pruning material was sampled from 5 trees per treatment. Subsamples ( $\times 3$  per tree)  
193 were used for DM determination.

194

#### 195 *2.2.1.2 Fruit*

196 At harvest (mid-June) fruit yield (fresh weights) were measured yearly on 20 trees per  
197 block and results expressed as  $\text{t ha}^{-1}\text{yr}^{-1}$ . Fruit DM was estimated through subsamples ( $\times 3$   
198 per tree). The NPP of thinned fruit was also measured picking thinned fruit from three  $1\text{m}^2$   
199 areas per tree ( $\times 5$  per treatment) in May.

200

#### 201 *2.2.1.3 Branches and trunk growth*

202 At the end of the last year of the experiment, 3 trees per treatment were sawn at ground  
203 level and aerial biomass partitioned in current-year shoots and branches including trunks.  
204 Then annual NPP of the standing biomass (branches + trunks) ( $\Delta_{\text{WOOD}}$ ) was calculated  
205 assuming a mean annual increment of  $7\text{ g DM g}^{-1}\text{DM}$  (Grossman and DeJong, 1994).

206

#### 207 *2.2.1.4 Cover crops*

208 At the time of each mowing operation, an ‘understory clippings’ sample was randomly  
209 taken from a typical 1 m<sup>2</sup> area (×3) in the  $S_{mng}$  and  $C_{mng}$  plots to estimate the amount of C  
210 returned to the soil by mowing.

211

### 212 *2.2.2 Below-ground NPP: current-year and coarse root biomass*

213 The 3 trees per treatment used for the above-ground biomass determination were excavated  
214 to measure the root biomass. A backhoe was used to excavate trenches 2.5 m from each tree  
215 to a depth of ~ 1.5 m. Then soil blocks (approx. 30 × 30 × 50 cm) were removed from a 5  
216 × 4 m area around each tree, blocks were manually sifted and all roots were collected.

217 According to Abrisqueta et al. (2008) roots were partitioned in two classes: current-year  
218 roots (<2 mm diameter) and coarse roots (>2 mm). Annual biomass increment of coarse  
219 roots ( $\Delta_{ROOT}$ ) were calculated as for the above-ground biomass (Grossman and DeJong,  
220 1994). Root biomass of the cover crops was estimated as 15% of the above-ground one (De  
221 Baets, 2011).

222

### 223 *2.3 Carbon sequestration in soil and in tree biomass*

#### 224 *2.3.1 SOC*

225 At the beginning of this study (winter 2003-2004), an initial composite soil sample was  
226 taken for SOC analysis. Nine soil cores at three depths (0-10, 10-20 and 20-40 cm) were  
227 collected at random from each  $S_{mng}$  and  $C_{mng}$  block with a soil probe in the row and the  
228 inter-row (visible crop residues were previously removed from the soil surface). Soil cores  
229 from the same depths were combined in 3 subsamples and passed through a 2-mm sieve

230 while still moist and then air dried. Soil coarse fraction (>2 mm) was similarly 15% ww in  
231 all layers. At the end of the study (late December 2010), the collecting of soil samples was  
232 repeated using the same procedures to quantify any changes in SOC. Determination of SOC  
233 was obtained by using the potassium-dichromate oxidation procedure. Soil bulk density  
234 was determined through the soil core method (Blake and Hartge, 1986) in soil samples  
235 collected in parallel with those collected for SOC determination. For calculation of aerial  
236 and C stock the bulk density was corrected for the coarse soil fraction assuming an average  
237 density of that fraction to be 2.65 Mg m<sup>-3</sup> (Page-Dumroese et al., 1999). Changes of soil C  
238 concentration (%) and stock (t C ha<sup>-1</sup>) were then calculated for each layer as the difference  
239 between initial and final values. After that, the mean annual carbon accumulation rate (g C  
240 m<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>) was calculated considering the 7-year duration of the experiment.

241

### 242 2.3.2 Litter

243 At the end of the experimental period (winter 2010), three randomly chosen 1×1 m areas  
244 were used in both  $S_{\text{mng}}$  and  $C_{\text{mng}}$  blocks to determine the litter carbon storage lying on the  
245 surface of the mineral topsoil. All leaf and weed residues, twigs and 1-3 cm diameter  
246 branches, fruits and bark were considered litter in line with IPCC (2006) guidance on C  
247 pools. All organic matter within each area was collected and washed through a series of  
248 sieves to remove all adhering soil particles before being dried for C determination. The  
249 change of litter C stock was calculated as the difference between the initial and final values,  
250 annual mean litter biomass accumulation rate was then calculated dividing collected  
251 biomass by the duration (7 years) of the experiment assuming no litter at the beginning of  
252 the experiment.

253

254 *2.3.3 Total standing biomass accumulated during the orchard lifetime*

255 The amount of C stored in tree above- and below-ground standing biomass throughout the  
256 orchard lifetime (14 years) was calculated as the difference between the initial tree standing  
257 biomass of a 1-year old peach seedling reported in Xiloyannis et al., (2007) and the tree  
258 biomass determined in this study through complete excavations of trees (see above the  
259  $\Delta_{\text{WOOD}}$  and  $\Delta_{\text{ROOT}}$  determinations).

260

261 *2.4. Dry matter and C determination*

262 After recording the fresh weights for each organ category and treatment, subsamples were  
263 weighed and dried to a constant weight at 105°C in a ventilated oven and reweighed for dry  
264 matter (DM) determination. The length of current-year shoots subsamples was also  
265 measured to determine the amount of DM per unit length used for dry weight estimates of  
266 unpruned current-year shoots. The dried samples were then weighed and ground in a mixer  
267 ball mill to a fine powder which was used for carbon determination (dry combustion  
268 method, LECO-SC). Carbon content was calculated for each organic component by  
269 multiplying the carbon fraction by the biomass (dry weight) produced per component and  
270 expressed as  $\text{g C m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ .

271

272 *2.5. Soil C input*

273 Amounts of annual C input were determined by the summation of C derived from compost  
274 and pruning residuals ( $S_{\text{mng}}$ ) and NPP values of those organs falling to the ground such as

275 leaves, thinned fruits, summer pruning, cover crops and 95% of the current-year root  
276 biomass of trees (Zanotelli et al., 2014).

277

## 278 2.6. Soil CO<sub>2</sub> emissions

279 At each plot, soil CO<sub>2</sub> emission ( $R_s$ ) was measured *in situ* through a non-dispersive infrared  
280 gas analyser (Li-6400, LI-COR, Lincoln, NE, USA) equipped with a soil respiration  
281 chamber (Model Li-6400-09) fitting to a PVC collar (a 10 cm long section of 10 cm OD  
282 PVC pipe). 30 collars per treatment were installed into the soil (4 cm depth) at the  
283 beginning of the experiment (January) and remained in place until the end of December  
284 2010. Only for the  $C_{mng}$  plots, collars were temporarily removed for approx. 20 min to  
285 allow tillage operations and were replaced in the same locations at the end of tillage.  
286 Soil CO<sub>2</sub> efflux measurements were made every two or three weeks from January to  
287 December during the central part of the day (11 am - 1 pm), all data from the 30 locations  
288 per treatment were then averaged. The CO<sub>2</sub> gas analyser operated between a maximum and  
289 minimum CO<sub>2</sub> levels which were equal to that measured close to the soil surface just before  
290 the measurements  $\pm 10$  ppm CO<sub>2</sub>. The soil temperature (from 0 to 15 cm depth) was  
291 measured a few centimetres away using the 6000-09TC Li-COR temperature probe. Daily  
292 estimates of the CO<sub>2</sub> soil emissions were derived multiplying by 24 the mean  
293 measurements made at each plot considering a 1.15 coefficient as recommended by Savage  
294 and Davidson (2003). Then integration of all daily fluxes of each treatment across the  
295 studied period was employed to calculate the annual  $R_s$ . Values of  $R_s$  were partitioned in  
296 their heterotrophic respiration ( $R_h$ ) component assuming  $R_h$  equal to 75% of  $R_s$  (Matteucci  
297 et al., 2015).

298

299 *2.7. Data analyses*

300 The analysis was performed using OriginPro 9.3 (OriginLab Corporation, USA), data were  
301 reported as mean and standard error of the mean ( $\pm$ SE). The comparisons of mean values  
302 between  $S_{\text{mng}}$  and  $C_{\text{mng}}$  treatments were made by using the Student's *t*-test.

303 After testing for normality (Kolmogorov–Smirnov test) and homogeneity of variance  
304 (Levene test), one-way ANOVA were used to separately examine (i) the differences  
305 between soil depths within each “initial” or “final” group, and (ii) the differences between  
306 treatments ( $C_{\text{mng}}$  and  $S_{\text{mng}}$ ) at each depth. A two-way ANOVA (main effects and  
307 interactions) for bulk density, SOC and C stock involved the management ( $C_{\text{mng}}$ ,  $S_{\text{mng}}$ )  
308 (factor 1) and the depth (0-10, 10-20 and 20-40 cm) (factor 2). In both one- and two-way  
309 ANOVA, the differences among means were identified by post hoc Tukey tests. For the  
310 Student's *t*-test and ANOVA *p*-values  $<0.05$  were considered significant. All the  
311 parameters used to track the effect of soil managements (bulk density, SOC concentration  
312 and C stock) were separately analysed.

313

314

315

### 316 **3. Results and discussion**

#### 317 *3.1 Above- and below-ground NPP*

318 Annual NPP of peach trees was  $\sim 655$  ( $S_{\text{mng}}$ ) and  $\sim 615$  ( $C_{\text{mng}}$ )  $\text{g C m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$  (Table 1). The  
319 reason for the  $\sim 6\%$  higher NPP at the  $S_{\text{mng}}$  plot was almost entirely due to the increased  
320 yield (see below) which is expected under increased C input (Wilhelm et al., 1986;  
321 Gebrekidan et al., 1999; Mesfine et al., 2005). Results on NPP are in line with mean annual  
322 NPP ( $700 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ ) estimated over a 20-year period at a plum and peach orchard grown  
323 in California under Mediterranean type climate conditions (Kroodsma and Field, 2006).  
324 Partitioning of annual NPP of trees reveals an  $\sim 82\%$  allocation of newly synthesised C to  
325 above-ground biomass (including increment of trunks and branches) in both  $S_{\text{mng}}$  and  $C_{\text{mng}}$   
326 treatments (Fig. 1) similarly to what was reported for a mid-August maturing peach cultivar  
327 (Grossman and DeJong, 1994). However, relative NPP of fruit was higher (and that of  
328 leaves lower) in  $S_{\text{mng}}$  plot than the  $C_{\text{mng}}$  one which could be interpreted as a better  
329 productive/vegetative ratio (Fig. 1). As expected, results on NPP allocation differed from  
330 that observed in olive groves that showed a preferential C allocation to roots (60-70% of  
331 total NPP) likely because of some specific adaptive mechanisms of olive species to dry  
332 conditions (Dichio et al., 2002; Almagro et al., 2010). Atmospheric C fixed by cover crops  
333 (above- and below-ground biomass) was approx.  $155$  and  $15 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$  for  $S_{\text{mng}}$  and  $C_{\text{mng}}$ ,  
334 respectively (Table 1), the latter was related to weed growth which occurred during two  
335 consecutive tillage operations. In this study, the soil coverage was due to spontaneous  
336 understorey ‘grass’, however, a double cover crops biomass (and in turn carbon



337 sequestration by the ecosystem) could be achieved when it is sowed (Xiloyannis *et al.*,  
338 2007).

339

340 Accounting also for the cover crops biomass a total NPP of approx. 810 and 630 g C m<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>  
341 was reached for  $S_{mng}$  and  $C_{mng}$  plots, respectively (Table 1). Values of NPP are in the  
342 magnitude of that reported for apple orchards (785-960 g C m<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>) grown at higher  
343 densities (approx. 2,600-3,300 p ha<sup>-1</sup>) in a more temperate area (Panzacchi *et al.*, 2012;  
344 Zanotelli *et al.*, 2013). Information on NPP for Mediterranean (deciduous) orchards are still  
345 limited preventing in-depth examination of results. In 50-100-year old Mediterranean olive  
346 ecosystems with a lower planting density, an annual NPP has been estimated ranging from  
347 324 (rainfed, 107 p ha<sup>-1</sup>) to 1,030 g C m<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> (irrigated, 156 p ha<sup>-1</sup>) (Almagro *et al.*, 2010;  
348 Palese *et al.*, 2013), while the NPP was on average 540 g C m<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> in an orange orchard  
349 (Liguori *et al.*, 2009).

350 Analysis of NPP in agricultural ecosystems should separately account for evergreen and  
351 deciduous fruit trees mainly because evergreens (such as olives, oranges and lemons) have  
352 a year round activity (Nardino *et al.*, 2013), in addition as a Mediterranean endogenous  
353 species olives have some peculiar functional and anatomical traits likely affecting its  
354 carbon capture ability (Dichio *et al.*, 2006 and 2013). To explain, at least in part, the NPP  
355 variability existing among various fruit tree species grown in different environments  
356 (temperate, Mediterranean), apart from intrinsic variable factors (e.g. training system, plant  
357 density, soils, tree age, disturbance/management events), the different balance between  
358 photosynthesis and respiration could be evoked.

359 Reduction of growth rates of new organs and tree stands (and in turn in NPP) may occur as  
360 a result of reduced C supply via photosynthesis or an increase of C demand due to an  
361 increase of the respiratory load (Sala et al., 2012). Under Mediterranean growing  
362 environmental conditions (e.g. air temperature and relative humidity) photosynthetic  
363 activity may be limited during summer by metabolic impairments of photosystem II  
364 (Montanaro et al., 2009) causing a decrease of C supply with a reasonable negative impact  
365 on NPP. Air temperature is also influential on respiratory demand of tree organs (Grossman  
366 and DeJong, 1994), this in turn could reduce NPP under Mediterranean type environmental  
367 conditions where the temperature is relatively high.

368

### 369 3.2 Soil respiration

370 Diurnal change of  $R_s$  is mainly driven by changes of soil temperature and plant activity  
371 (Kuzyakov, 2006) hence, it is expected that continuous (automated) measurements of  $\text{CO}_2$   
372 soil emissions are required to collect a whole h-24 determination of emissions. However,  
373 there is evidence that a daily (and in turn seasonal) flux could be estimated with a manual  
374 sampling schedule of late morning measurements. In this study, we adopted the approach  
375 proposed by Savage and Davidson (2003) to capture the most important variation of  
376 seasonal flux of  $\text{CO}_2$  from the soil starting from late-morning samplings, even if eventual  
377 site-specific bias of the method remains to be tested.

378

379 On the basis of a whole season, diurnal  $\text{CO}_2$  efflux rates showed a similar pattern in both  
380  $S_{\text{mng}}$  and  $C_{\text{mng}}$  plots with the lowest values of approx.  $\sim 1 \text{ g CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$  recorded in winter

381 time (i.e. January and December) according to the lowest soil temperatures and the  
382 conceivably negligible tree physiological activity (Fig. 2). During the first 4 months of the  
383 year, emissions steeply increased in both treatments but were significantly more  
384 pronounced in the  $S_{\text{mng}}$  peaking at  $\sim 7$  ( $S_{\text{mng}}$ ) and  $\sim 5.6$  g CO<sub>2</sub> m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup> ( $C_{\text{mng}}$ ) at the end of  
385 springtime, however a transient decrease of  $R_s$  was recorded in early April.  
386 The initial rapid increase in emissions occurred at the same time of the season as new plant  
387 organs (shoots, roots, leaves, flowers, fruits) develop rapidly (Rufat and DeJong 2001;  
388 Basile et al., 2007) implying a rise in canopy photosynthesis and root metabolism which are  
389 drivers of soil respiration (Tang et al., 2005).  
390 From May, emissions fell toward a minimum in mid-July (the hottest driest period). In mid-  
391 September, rates recovered to reach values similar to the earlier peaks, thereafter these  
392 emissions declined again and by mid-December they were comparable to those in January  
393 (Fig. 2).  
394 This seasonal trend agrees substantially with evaluations of  $R_s$  in orange (Liguori et al.,  
395 2009), apple (Panzacchi et al., 2012) and olive groves (Almagro et al., 2009).  
396 Annual  $R_s$  totalled  $1.51 \pm 0.06$  (SE) and  $1.63 \pm 0.21$  kg CO<sub>2</sub> m<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> in conventional and  
397 sustainable managed plots, respectively (Fig. 2). Such a difference of  $\sim 10\%$  was not  
398 statistically significant. However, our interpretation is that  $R_s$  at the  $S_{\text{mng}}$  plot had a  
399 tendency to be higher likely because of the increased root and microbial activity as it is  
400 expected under increased C supply conditions (mainly due to the application of an organic  
401 amendment and the return of crop residues in this study) (Han et al., 2007).

402

403 It is difficult to compare results of  $R_s$  against studies performed in similar Mediterranean  
404 ecosystems due to limited information existing. In a less dense (107 tree per ha) rainfed and  
405 regularly tilled Mediterranean olive groves, annual  $R_s$  has been estimated to approach 2.1  
406  $\text{kg CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$  as a mean value of areas beneath the canopy and inter-row positions  
407 (Almagro et al., 2009). Annual  $\text{CO}_2$  respiration reported in the present study is in the range  
408 also of that of apple ecosystems grown in a more temperate environment (1.2 – 2.9  $\text{kg CO}_2$   
409  $\text{m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ ) (Wu et al., 2012; Zanotelli et al., 2013).

410

411 The mean annual  $R_h$  was not significantly affected by treatment being estimated at  
412  $335.5 \pm 42.8$  and  $310.6 \pm 13.0 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$  for the  $S_{\text{mng}}$  and  $C_{\text{mng}}$  plots, respectively (Table 2).  
413 Consistency of C flux estimates in forest ecosystems has been appraised through a series of  
414 ratios between the C fluxes including  $R_h/\text{NPP}$  ratio (Luyssaert et al., 2009). At the  $S_{\text{mng}}$  plot,  
415 half of NPP (excluding fruit exports) has been respired by heterotrophs ( $R_h/\text{NPP} = 0.5$ )  
416 (Table 2) suggesting a good agreement between fluxes (Luyssaert et al., 2009); at the  $C_{\text{mng}}$   
417 plot the  $R_h/\text{NPP}$  ratio increased up to 0.78 because of the removal of fruit and wood and due  
418 to the exporting of pruning residuals, this fits with a similar increase in  $R_h/\text{NPP}$  ratio  
419 recorded in managed forests (Luyssaert et al., 2009).

420

421 Heterotrophic respiration was not directly measured in this study but calculated from  
422 measurements of total soil respiration assuming a  $R_h/R_s$  ratio equal to 0.75 according to  
423 Matteucci et al. (2015) who partitioned  $R_h$  throughout a relatively long period ( $\sim 1$  year) in  
424 a Mediterranean pine forest. A similar  $R_h/R_s$  ratio equal to 0.77 has been found when

425 accounting for space variability of soil CO<sub>2</sub> respiration in apple orchards (Zanotelli et al.,  
426 2013), this further supports the  $R_h/R_s$  ratio adopted in this study which tends to be 15-20%  
427 higher than that used in other studies (Ceccon et al., 2011; Scandellari et al., 2015).  
428 Emissions of CO<sub>2</sub> from soil vary with space (and time) particularly in drip irrigated  
429 orchards where water is supplied only along the row differentiating soil moisture across the  
430 alley throughout the whole irrigation season (Montanaro et al., 2012; Lardo et al., 2015).  
431 Consequently, root distribution is affected by localised irrigation causing root mass density  
432 at inter-row to be very low compare to that of row (~0.2 and 15 kg DM m<sup>-3</sup>, respectively)  
433 (Xylogiannis E., in preparation). The “regression approach” proposed to separate the  
434 various components of soil CO<sub>2</sub> efflux is based on the assumed linear relationship between  
435 root biomass and the amount of CO<sub>2</sub> respired by roots and rhizosphere microorganisms  
436 (Kuzyakov, 2006). Accordingly, considering the abovementioned very low root mass  
437 density at the inter-row, the  $R_h/R_s$  ratio reasonably sited at  $\cong 1$  at that position, this further  
438 supports the mean  $R_h/R_s$  value equal to 0.75 we adopted. However, more efforts are  
439 required to elucidate the space variability of  $R_h$  in Mediterranean orchards under localised  
440 irrigation.

441

### 442 3.3 Net Ecosystem Production

443 Net ecosystem production (NEP) is the balance of net primary production (NPP) and  
444 heterotrophic respiration (i.e.  $NEP = NPP - R_h$ ) and reflects the ecosystem metabolism  
445 as it responds to variations in environmental variables (e.g., soil, water availability,  
446 weather) and to disturbing events (including anthropogenic management) (Chapin III et al.,

447 2006). Net ecosystem production estimated in this study was significantly affected by  
448 management and ranged from  $\sim 320$  to  $\sim 475$  g C m<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> in C<sub>mng</sub> and S<sub>mng</sub> plot, respectively  
449 (Table 2).

450 Again results are comparable with those reported in apple orchards (380 g C m<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>) even  
451 if for apple ecosystem NEP could be as high as  $\sim 630$  g C m<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> (Panzacchi et al., 2012;  
452 Zanotelli et al., 2013). In Mediterranean orange orchards, NEP ranged from 240 to 330 g C  
453 m<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> (Liguori et al., 2009), while in irrigated olive ecosystems an annual net ecosystem  
454 exchange (equivalent to NEP) ranging from 760 to 1,250 g C m<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> has been estimated  
455 (Testi et al., 2008; Nardino et al., 2013).

456

457 Net carbon gain among orchards appears to be roughly variable. Similarly, net ecosystem  
458 carbon exchange in forest ecosystems has been reported to be variable to the extent that  
459 annual carbon balances range from an uptake of 660 g C m<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> to a release of  $\sim 100$  g C  
460 m<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> (Valentini et al., 2000). The observed variation in NEP has been explained by the  
461 different relative importance of ecosystem respiration (autotrophic + heterotrophic) that  
462 changes consistently across the sites as influenced by the temperature-induced soil and  
463 biome respiration (Valentini et al., 2000). Hence, isolation of the ecosystem respiration in  
464 various ecoregions could be beneficial for an accurate and more comparable assessment of  
465 the carbon balance of orchards.

466

467

468

### 469 3.4 Lateral transport of carbon

470 Although farmers decide on the options of tillage or cover crops having an anthropogenic  
471 nature, the C fluxes related to cover crops biomass were included in the NEP calculations.  
472 Increased supply of C to soil (through compost, retention of pruning residuals, mulch of  
473 cover crops) supported the increased yield (fresh weight) up to  $23.2 \pm 2.03 \text{ t ha}^{-1}$  under  $S_{\text{mng}}$   
474 (averaged over seven years), whilst it was  $17.9 \pm 2.3 \text{ t ha}^{-1}$  under  $C_{\text{mng}}$  likely because of the  
475 availability of improved nutrients and the overall soil fertility as discussed in Montanaro et  
476 al. (2012). The equivalent C fluxes exported with fruit from the field was approx. 93 and  
477  $134 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$  for the  $C_{\text{mng}}$  and  $S_{\text{mng}}$  plots, respectively (Table 3).

478 Average pruning material was  $3.1 \text{ t ha}^{-1}$  DM at the  $C_{\text{mng}}$  equivalent to  $-138 \pm 20.7 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$   
479 transferred out of the plot (see Table 3). Pruning material of the  $S_{\text{mng}}$  plot (mean annual  
480  $2.6 \text{ t ha}^{-1}$  DM) was entirely mulched *in loco*. Hence, it was not reported neither as export  
481 nor as import because it was already accounted for in the tree NPP. Hence, sustainable  
482 management caused the  $S_{\text{mng}}$  plot to be a net importer of C with approx.  $260 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$   
483 mainly due to the compost supply (approx.  $390 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ ) that compensated fruit export.  
484 The  $S_{\text{mng}}$  plot was therefore a net importer and will be in favour of the increased SOC (see  
485 below), by contrast, the  $C_{\text{mng}}$  plot was a net exporter of about  $-230 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$  (Table 3).

486

### 487 3.5 Net Ecosystem Carbon Balance

488 Agricultural fields are managed ecosystems, therefore external (anthropogenic) drivers are  
489 significant to determine whether an orchard is a C-sink or C-source. This study determined  
490 the NECB in a Mediterranean peach orchard accounting for the net of all C imports to and  
491 exports from the orchard according to the conceptual framework proposed by Chapin III et

492 al., (2006). However, some components of C fluxes (e.g. exudation from roots,  
493 mycorrhizas demand) were not considered because of the intrinsic difficulty of  
494 measuring as in most estimating NPP exercises (Luyssaert et al., 2009).

495

496 Table 3 reports the NECB determined for both management options considered in this  
497 study showing that apart from the exports of yield, some orchard management practices  
498 impacted the lateral transports of C and in turn the NECB. Anthropogenic disturbances (or  
499 mismanagement) of the orchard ecosystems at the  $C_{mng}$  plot contributed to maintain the  
500 NECB at  $\sim 89 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$  (Table 3). That level of NECB is comparable to that recently  
501 calculated in apple orchards ( $\sim 70 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ ), where the import of C as organic fertiliser  
502 was less than 10% of that supplied in the present study (Zanotelli et al., 2014). Despite the  
503 positive value of NECB, the conventionally managed plot remains highly susceptible to  
504 becoming a source (i.e. NECB  $< 0$ ), for example after an increased yield as occurred in a  
505 multi-year experiment in apple orchards (Zanotelli et al., 2014). The adoption of  
506 sustainable practices increased the NECB up to  $734 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ , which was attributable to  
507 NEP (65%) and to a net anthropogenic lateral transport of C (35%) (Table 3).

508

509 Although values of NEP could be comparable among various orchards because of a similar  
510 biome metabolism, final NECB could greatly differ mainly because of different net  
511 import/export C fluxes caused by different management strategies. For example, although  
512 results on NEP presented in this study for the  $S_{mng}$  plot are comparable to that measured in  
513 apple ecosystems, the value of NECB was  $\sim 10$ -fold greater, such a difference was mainly



514 related to the differences in C exported with yields (418 vs ~134 g C m<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>) and imported  
515 with organic fertilisers (36 vs ~394 g C m<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>) (see Table 3 this study and Zanotelli et al.,  
516 2014). In addition, we note that C export associated to yield would generally be lower in  
517 Mediterranean ecosystems because most of the cultivars ripen early in the season and  
518 therefore would have a reduced size and biomass compared to those which ripen later  
519 (Policarpo et al., 2002).

520

### 521 3.6 Carbon sequestration in soil and litter

522 Generally, the C sequestration rate by the ecosystem is related to C input as influenced by  
523 the management practices adopted (see Aguilera et al., 2013a). In this study, the amounts of  
524 C input rate reached approx. 900 and 270 g C m<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> in *S<sub>mng</sub>* and *C<sub>mng</sub>* treatments,  
525 respectively which was in the range (up to 2,400 g C m<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>) reported in a recent meta-  
526 analysis covering various Mediterranean cropping systems (Aguilera et al., 2013a). In  
527 addition, changes of soil management could impact soil bulk density which requires an  
528 appropriate sampling programme to avoid inaccuracy of soil C stock calculation (Lee et al.,  
529 2009). However, in this study, bulk density values were all in the range of 1.38-1.55 t m<sup>-3</sup>  
530 and not different for *S<sub>mng</sub>* and *C<sub>mng</sub>* treatments (Table 4). This is substantially in line with  
531 results gathered at tilled and no-tilled Mediterranean olive groves (Palese et al., 2014) and  
532 after a 10-year period of changed soil management practices in a corn field (Blevins et al.,  
533 1983). On the contrary, Lee et al. (2009) report a significant effect of tillage on bulk  
534 density. This apparent discrepancy could be explained considering that in the present study  
535 a relatively longer time (~5 months) elapsed from the last tillage and soil sampling

536 compared to Lee et al. (2009). In addition to the longer time, the rains may have also  
537 contributed to mask the effect of tillage on bulk density.

538 In this study, to improve C stock estimations, the total bulk density was corrected (not  
539 shown) to account for its soil coarse fraction (see Methods section). This 7-year period  
540 experiment allowed the detection of a significant increase of SOC concentration only in the  
541 0.1 m soil profile at the  $S_{mng}$  plot while it remained roughly stable at the other depths (Table  
542 4) according to the stratification of SOC with soil depth and management documented by  
543 Franzluebbbers (2002). Interpretation of results of the analysis of variance (main effects and  
544 interaction) (Table 4) further confirmed that the application of changed management  
545 practices was not significantly influential on SOC (and others parameters) changes when  
546 the whole 0-40 cm soil profile is considered, at least in a 7-year period.

547 The increase of SOC is a slow process usually not detectable within 2-5 years after  
548 changing to a conservative management (e.g. organic residue application and no tillage)  
549 (Franzluebbbers and Arshad, 1996; Montanaro et al., 2010). The analytical SOC change  
550 reported here for the  $S_{mng}$  plot fits with the idea that response of SOC to a change in  
551 management practices may only be expected from as ~10 year perspective (Al-Kaisi and  
552 Yin, 2005). This may explain why in relatively short-time experiments (1-2 years) the  
553 variations of SOC are considered negligible and thus the C flux analysis of orchard do not  
554 account for that negligible SOC (Almagro et al., 2010). This study reveals that sustainable  
555 management practices allow a net storage of approx.  $5.8 \text{ t ha}^{-1}$  of more stable C into soil  
556 (0.40 m depth) at a mean rate of approx.  $82.5 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ , and the upper 10 cm soil layer  
557 accounted for most of these C changes (Table 5). The increased mean annual SOC

558 accumulation rate was approx. 9% of mean annual soil C input (including compost) which  
559 is comparable to the fraction of biomass to be transformed in a stable C into soil proposed  
560 by Ventura et al., (2009).

561 The increased SOC rate falls in the range of C sequestration in agricultural top soils (5-100  
562  $\text{g C m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ ) generated by the adoption of the recommended management practices (e.g.  
563 conservation tillage with cover crops and crop residue mulch, use of compost and manure)  
564 (Lal, 2004). In a recent meta-analysis on C sequestration rate in various Mediterranean  
565 cropping systems, after compost supply and the adoption of cover crops the SOC was  
566 accumulated with a rate variable from  $\sim 50$  up to  $\sim 300 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$  (0.27 m mean soil depth)  
567 (Aguilera et al., 2013a). Hence, the C accretion rate detected in this study could potentially  
568 increase in forthcoming years likely upon (i) a higher incorporation of surface residues into  
569 the soil through improved soil fauna activity, (ii) a potential increase of SOC at deeper  
570 layers and (iii) a reduced bulk density of soil (Six et al., 2004; Brown and Cotton, 2011).

571 In cultivated land (annual and perennial crops), the dead organic matter (litter and dead  
572 wood) still represents a significant C pool (IPCC, 2006). Management options (mainly the  
573 retention of pruning residuals) allowed a C storage in the litter at a mean rate of  $\sim 62 \text{ g C m}^{-2}$   
574  $\text{yr}^{-1}$  at the  $S_{\text{mng}}$  plot while it was just  $4 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$  at the  $C_{\text{mng}}$  one conceivably due to the  
575 erratic fall of dead shoot/branch residuals (Table 5). A lower production of the above-  
576 ground litter equal to  $12 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$  was estimated in an olive grove (Almagro et al., 2010)  
577 likely because of a different pruning intensity compared to the present study. Considering  
578 both SOC and litter, the mean amount of C sequestered reached  $145 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$  at the  $S_{\text{mng}}$   
579 plot whilst it was only  $\sim 5\%$  of that at the  $C_{\text{mng}}$  plot (Table 5).

580 Based on the finite nature of SOC, it conceivably appears that its increasing rate could  
581 slow down in future decades approaching a new equilibrium value (Powlson et al., 2012).  
582 However, this would not be relevant for the next centuries for Mediterranean soils because  
583 of currently low levels of SOC (~1%) (Romanyà and Rovira, 2011). The issue of the  
584 permanence of C in soil as a stable SOC remains debatable because C could be re-emitted  
585 in the atmosphere upon mismanagement (e.g. future introduction of tillage) and/or  
586 increased soil respiration due to increasing air/soil temperature making soil a roughly  
587 unstable C stock (Smith et al., 2007; Luke and Cox, 2011). In this respect, it could be  
588 suggested to till the soil *una tantum* to move the soil with a higher C content (SOC and  
589 woody detritus) to deeper largely anaerobic layers which mimic the wood burial strategy  
590 proposed for the forestry sector (Zeng, 2008).

591

### 592 3.7 Lifetime C sequestration in standing biomass

593 The Kyoto Protocol has renewed the interest in growing trees to sequester C particularly in  
594 the forestry sector and some regulations have developed accordingly (Cannel et al., 1999;  
595 EC, 2013). In this study, the total C sequestered by trees has been calculated considering a  
596 14-year period which is on average the commercial lifetime of orchards in the area. As the  
597 standing biomass of trees was not significantly affected by the treatment (not shown), the  
598  $S_{mng}$  and  $C_{mng}$  data on the lifetime C sequestration were combined. The quantification of  
599 the C removed from the atmosphere by the orchard throughout the lifetime revealed that  
600 approx. 25 t C ha<sup>-1</sup> were stored in tree biomass (Table 6). That C removal capacity is  
601 approx. 20% higher than that of peach and plum orchards after a 15-20 year lifetime (i.e.

602 ~20 t C ha<sup>-1</sup>) estimated by Kroodsma and Field (2006) from wood and roots removed and  
603 commercialised by private companies in California. However, the permanence of that C  
604 conservation over a much longer period of time depends on the fate of that biomass. As  
605 noted by Aguilera et al. (2014) when fruit tree plantations are renewed the resulting  
606 biomass can be harvested and then burned in substitution of fossil fuels or sequestered as  
607 wood products.

608

#### 609 **4. Conclusions**

610 The contribution to climate change mitigation options requires a range of strategies  
611 involving all producing sectors including agriculture to effectively keep the atmospheric  
612 CO<sub>2</sub> concentration as low as below the critical level. In this paper, the role of sustainable  
613 commercial peach orchards has been documented, showing the positive impact of  $S_{mng}$   
614 practices on C fluxes via removal and storage of C in both soil and tree biomass. The  
615 adoption of  $S_{mng}$  practices promoted accretion of soil C pools such as SOC (approx. 82 g C  
616 m<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>) and litter (approx. 62 g C m<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>) which could be beneficial also for soil structure  
617 and functions on Mediterranean cultivated land (e.g. the soil water holding capacity and  
618 biodiversity). The supply of compost could also potentially be beneficial for the reduction  
619 of some non-CO<sub>2</sub> GHG emissions (Aguilera et al., 2013b; Palese et al., 2014; Garcia-  
620 Franco et al., 2015). Increasing the compost supply to fields would also contribute to the  
621 circular economy of those Mediterranean areas (e.g. Southern Italy) where organic raw  
622 materials are poorly separated from urban waste and not usually composted (Cementeró et  
623 al., 2014).

624 Through the NECB framework, the role of appropriate management practices (e.g. destiny  
625 of pruning residuals, supply of external organic material, adoption of cover crops) has also  
626 been emphasised to sustain the ecosystem resilience. In this context, the present study  
627 showed the influence of sustainable practices on NECB of the  $S_{mng}$  orchard which was  
628 approx.  $734 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ , in this way the ecosystem operated as a sink. At the  $C_{mng}$  plot, the  
629 NECB remained approx.  $90 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ , hence because  $NECB > 0$  the  $C_{mng}$  plot was a  
630 (weak) sink, too. However,  $C_{mng}$  orchard remains susceptible to be a source ( $NECB < 0$ )  
631 because the NECB may easily become negative, for example in case of increased lateral  
632 transport due to increased yield as occurred at an apple orchard (Zanotelli et al., 2014).  
633 Results on the lifetime C sequestration reflected the biological ability of the orchard to  
634 sequester atmospheric C under Mediterranean conditions (up to  $25 \text{ t C ha}^{-1}$ ) which is a clear  
635 potentially achievable GHG mitigation capacity of orchards depending on the fate of that  
636 woody product.

637 This study could be supportive for analysing and accounting C fluxes in Mediterranean  
638 orchard ecosystems if a wide range of land use possibilities are to be explored for a more  
639 solid contribution of agriculture sector to GHG mitigation.

640

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646

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- 877

878 Table 1 - Allocation of the mean ( $\pm$ SE) annual Net Primary Production (NPP,  $\text{g C m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ )  
 879 in various above- and below-ground components of tree and cover crops grown under  
 880 sustainable ( $S_{\text{mng}}$ ) and local conventional ( $C_{\text{mng}}$ ) management practices.  $\Delta_{\text{WOOD}}$  and  $\Delta_{\text{ROOT}}$   
 881 indicate the increase of the NPP of standing above-ground and coarse root (including  
 882 stump) biomasses, respectively. Comparing the values for  $S_{\text{mng}}$  and  $C_{\text{mng}}$  within the same  
 883 component \* indicates significant differences.

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		$S_{\text{mng}}$		$C_{\text{mng}}$		
TREE	Above	Fruit	134.6 $\pm$ 5.3*	93.2 $\pm$ 3.7		
		Summer pruning	100.4 $\pm$ 27.1	99.5 $\pm$ 26.8		
		Leaves	60.3 $\pm$ 3.0*	84.5 $\pm$ 4.6		
		Thinned fruit	15.8 $\pm$ 3.2	14.9 $\pm$ 4.0		
		Shoot <sub>CURRENT-YEAR</sub>	106.0 $\pm$ 7.4	107.8 $\pm$ 7.5		
		$\Delta_{\text{WOOD}}$	116.2 $\pm$ 9.3	108.9 $\pm$ 6.7		
	Below	Root <sub>CURRENT-YEAR</sub>	67.5 $\pm$ 5.4	58.1 $\pm$ 4.6		
		$\Delta_{\text{ROOT}}$	54.1 $\pm$ 2.7	48.7 $\pm$ 2.9		
		<b>Total tree NPP</b>	<b>654.9 <math>\pm</math> 52.3</b>	<b>615.6 <math>\pm</math> 39.2</b>		
COVER CROPS	Above	mowed biomass	135.0 $\pm$ 8.1*	13.5 $\pm$ 0.6		
	Below	Root	20.3 $\pm$ 1.5*	2.0 $\pm$ 0.2		
		<b>Total orchard NPP</b>	<b>810.2 <math>\pm</math> 62.1 *</b>	<b>630.9 <math>\pm</math> 40.1</b>		

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891 Table 2 – Mean ( $\pm$ SE) net ecosystem production ( $\text{NEP}=\text{NPP}-R_h$ ) ( $\text{g C m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ ) and  $R_h/\text{NPP}$   
 892 ratio in peach orchards under sustainable ( $S_{\text{mng}}$ ) and local conventional ( $C_{\text{mng}}$ ) management  
 893 practices. Note that for the  $R_h/\text{NPP}$  ratio values of the NPP have been reduced considering  
 894 the removal of fruit and pruning materials (see Table 3). Comparing the values for  $S_{\text{mng}}$  and  
 895  $C_{\text{mng}}$  within the same parameter \* indicates significant differences.

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	$S_{\text{mng}}$	$C_{\text{mng}}$
NPP	810.2 $\pm$ 62.1*	630.9 $\pm$ 40.1
$R_h$	335.3 $\pm$ 42.8	310.6 $\pm$ 13.0
NEP	474.9 $\pm$ 43.4*	320.3 $\pm$ 17.8
$R_h/\text{NPP}$	0.5	0.78

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900 Table 3 – Annual mean ( $\pm$ SE) fluxes ( $\text{g C m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ ) of lateral transport of carbon (LTC,  
 901 compost supply, pruning residuals and fruit harvest), net ecosystem production (NEP) and  
 902 net ecosystem carbon balance (NECB = NEP+LTC), recorded at the sustainable ( $S_{\text{mng}}$ ) and  
 903 conventional ( $C_{\text{mng}}$ ) plots. Note that negative values indicate an export of C from the  
 904 orchard ecosystems, *na*= not applicable. Comparing values for  $S_{\text{mng}}$  and  $C_{\text{mng}}$  within the  
 905 same parameter \* indicates significant differences.

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907

		$S_{\text{mng}}$	$C_{\text{mng}}$
LTC components	Compost	393.8 $\pm$ 2.8	<i>na</i>
	Pruning	<i>na</i>	-138.2 $\pm$ 20.7
	Yield	-134.6 $\pm$ 7.5*	-93.2 $\pm$ 3.2
<b>Total LTC</b>		259.2 $\pm$ 9.1*	-231.4 $\pm$ 25.4
<b>NEP</b>		474.9 $\pm$ 43.4*	320.3 $\pm$ 17.8
<b>NECB</b>		734.1 $\pm$ 47.7*	88.9 $\pm$ 6.2

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911 Table 4 – Mean values and standard errors ( $\pm$ SE) of total soil bulk density (BD) ( $\text{t m}^{-3}$ ),  
 912 SOC concentration (%) and C stock ( $\text{t ha}^{-1}$ ) measured at the beginning (initial) and at the  
 913 end (final) of the experiment in various soil layers at the sustainable ( $S_{\text{mng}}$ ) and  
 914 conventional ( $C_{\text{mng}}$ ) plots. For each parameter, comparing data within the same group  
 915 (initial or final), different small letters represent statistically significant differences;  
 916 comparing data within the same layer different capital letters represent statistically  
 917 significant differences. The underlined values represent those significantly different.  
 918 The two-way analysis of variance (main effects and interactions) for BD, SOC and C stock  
 919 involved the management ( $C_{\text{mng}}$ ,  $S_{\text{mng}}$ ) and the depth (0-10, 10-20 and 20-40 cm) as factors.  
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Soil layer (cm)	Bulk Density				SOC concentration				C stock			
	$C_{\text{mng}}$		$S_{\text{mng}}$		$C_{\text{mng}}$		$S_{\text{mng}}$		$C_{\text{mng}}$		$S_{\text{mng}}$	
	Initial	Final	Initial	Final	Initial	Final	Initial	Final	Initial	Final	Initial	Final
0-10	1.38aA ( $\pm 0.13$ )	1.40aA ( $\pm 0.15$ )	1.42aA ( $\pm 0.08$ )	1.44aA ( $\pm 0.12$ )	1.30aA ( $\pm 0.19$ )	1.31aA ( $\pm 0.20$ )	1.30aA ( $\pm 0.18$ )	<u>1.78bB</u> ( $\pm 0.11$ )	12.62aA ( $\pm 1.87$ )	12.88aA ( $\pm 1.82$ )	12.94aA ( $\pm 1.85$ )	<u>17.94bB</u> ( $\pm 1.06$ )
10-20	1.46aA ( $\pm 0.80$ )	1.49aA (0.13)	1.51aA ( $\pm 0.10$ )	1.50aA ( $\pm 0.08$ )	1.10aA ( $\pm 0.17$ )	1.10aA ( $\pm 0.16$ )	1.10aA ( $\pm 0.20$ )	1.09aA ( $\pm 0.15$ )	11.22aA ( $\pm 1.76$ )	11.42aA ( $\pm 1.08$ )	11.55aA ( $\pm 0.78$ )	11.38aA ( $\pm 1.51$ )
20-40	1.55aA ( $\pm 0.09$ )	1.55aA ( $\pm 0.07$ )	1.52aA ( $\pm 0.09$ )	1.52aA ( $\pm 0.08$ )	0.80aA ( $\pm 0.21$ )	0.78aA ( $\pm 0.23$ )	0.80aA ( $\pm 0.19$ )	0.89aA ( $\pm 0.17$ )	8.59aA ( $\pm 1.25$ )	8.38aA ( $\pm 1.33$ )	8.45aA ( $\pm 1.29$ )	9.40aA ( $\pm 1.75$ )
	Bulk Density				SOC concentration				C stock			
MAIN EFFECTS	df	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>p</i>
management	1	0.1249078	0.7255	1.9677413	0.1680	3.0758374	0.0868					
depth	2	3.5622245	0.0572	22.994095	<u>&lt;0.0001</u>	25.442464	<u>&lt;0.0001</u>					
INTERACTION												
management $\times$ depth	2	0.3375608	0.7154	1.5165329	0.2312	1.7172691	0.1919					

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931 Table 5 – Values of mean ( $\pm$ SE) carbon stock changes ( $\text{t C ha}^{-1}$ ) in the 0-40 cm soil profile  
 932 and in litter in both the sustainable ( $S_{\text{mng}}$ ) and conventional ( $C_{\text{mng}}$ ) plots, and the annual  
 933 carbon accumulation rates ( $\text{g C m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ ) calculated considering the 7 year duration of the  
 934 experiment; \* indicates significant differences between treatments.

	Soil		Litter	
	$C_{\text{mng}}$	$S_{\text{mng}}$	$C_{\text{mng}}$	$S_{\text{mng}}$
stock change	0.24 $\pm$ 0.1	5.78 $\pm$ 0.32*	0.28 $\pm$ 0.01	4.38 $\pm$ 0.16*
accumulation rate	3.42 $\pm$ 0.21	82.52 $\pm$ 3.7*	4.00 $\pm$ 1.6	62.57 $\pm$ 4.7*

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940 Table 6 – Carbon accumulated in above- and below-ground standing biomass ( $\text{t C ha}^{-1}$ )  
 941 during the 14-year lifetime of the orchard. Data for the 15-year old orchard are the mean of  
 942 that collected at the sustainable and conventional plots, the 1-year-old data were retrieved  
 943 from Xiloyannis et al. (2007).

	1-year-old	15-year-old	Lifetime removal
Above-ground	0.02	17.21	17.19
Below-ground	0.01	8.15	8.14
<b>Total</b>	0.03	25.36	25.33

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## 948 FIGURE LEGENDS

949

950 Figure 1 – Relative partitioning (%) of the annual net primary production (NPP) in various  
951 above- and below-ground components in trees grown under (A) sustainable and (B)  
952 conventional managements.  $\Delta_{\text{WOOD}}$  and  $\Delta_{\text{ROOT}}$  indicate the increase of NPP of standing  
953 above-ground and coarse root (including stump) biomasses, respectively.

954

955 Figure 2 – Seasonal trend of the daily soil CO<sub>2</sub> respiration ( $R_s$ ) ( $\text{g m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$ ) and soil  
956 temperature ( $^{\circ}\text{C}$ ) (dashed line) recorded at the conventional and sustainable plots during the  
957 year 2010. Vertical bars indicate the standard error of the mean temperature and respiration  
958 value ( $n=30$ ) and the filled areas indicate the annual CO<sub>2</sub> emissions ( $\text{kg m}^{-2} \text{yr}^{-1}$ ).  
959 Comparing values of  $R_s$  for sustainable and conventional treatment \* indicates significant  
960 differences. DOY = day of year.

961

Figure 1  
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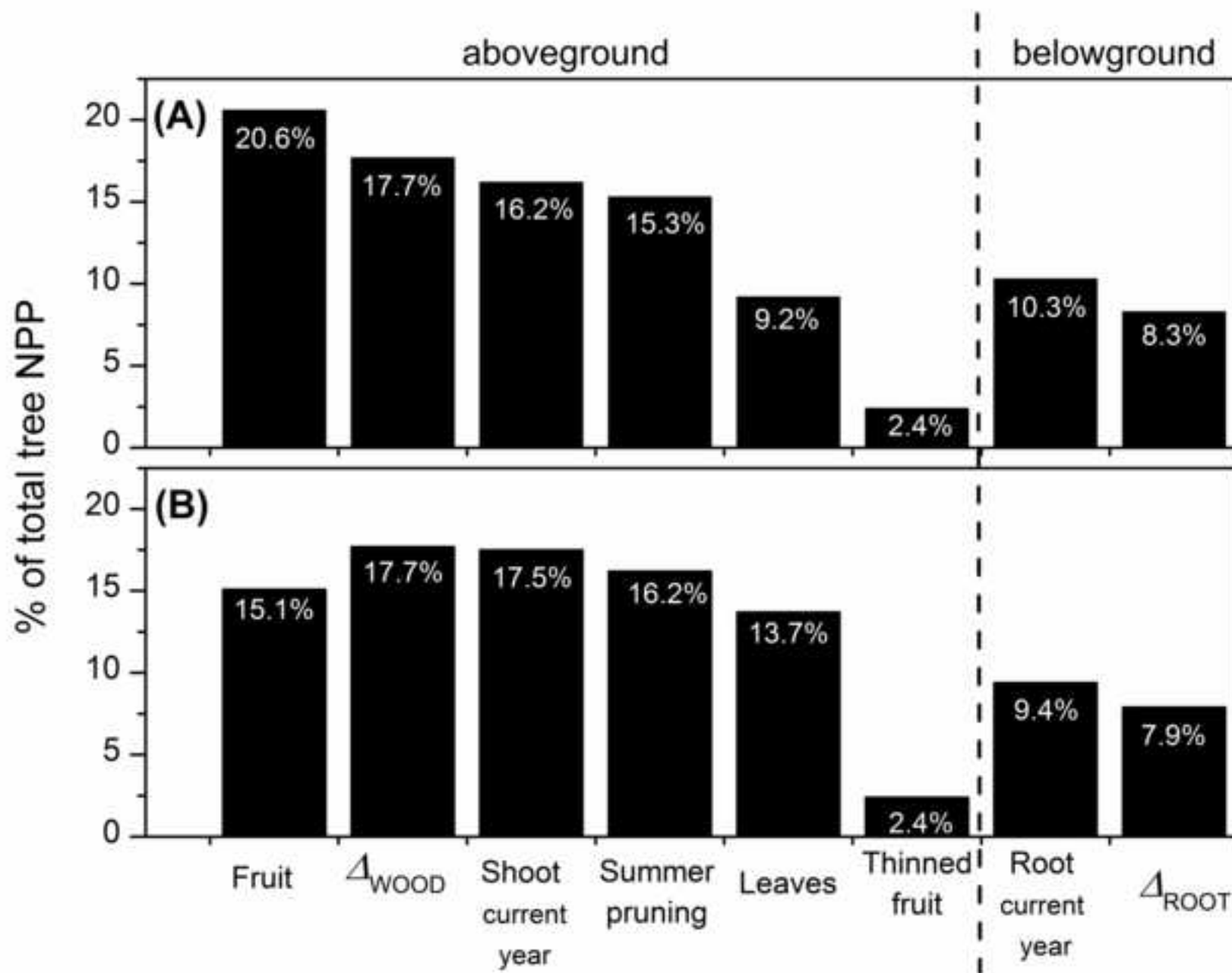


Figure 2  
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