

## Response to Reviewer #1 comments

1. To me this MS presents rather limited novelty to the study by Sanz-Cobena et al. (2014). Also the added  $^{15}\text{N}$  approach brings nothing really new to the current knowledge. The authors should therefore elaborate more clearly the novel and innovative character of their research.

We have tried to highlight in the Manuscript the novelty that our study has with respect to Sanz-Cobena et al. (2014). One of the main differences is the use of Integrated Soil Fertility Management (ISFM) in the current study as opposed to conventional fertilization in Sanz-Cobena et al. (2014). The results of the latter study hinted that the effects in soil N availability induced by contrasting cover-crops could represent an opportunity to adjust N fertilization for the cash crop accordingly, without significant yield penalties. This innovative point has now been highlighted in the title (“Effect of cover crops on greenhouse gas emissions in an irrigated field under integrated soil fertility management”) and the introduction: “Only one study has investigated the effect of CCs on  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  emissions in Mediterranean cropping systems (Sanz-Cobena et al., 2014). These authors found an effect of CCs species on  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  emissions during the intercrop period. After 4 years of CC (vetch, barley or rape)-maize rotation, vetch was the only CC species that significantly enhanced  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  losses compared to fallow, mainly due to its capacity to fix atmospheric  $\text{N}_2$  and because of higher N surplus from the previous cropping phases in these plots. In this study a conventional fertilization (same N synthetic rate for all treatments) was applied during the maize phase; how ISFM practices may affect these findings remains unknown.”

With regards to the  $^{15}\text{N}$  approach, we agree that there are some previous studies which have evaluated the interactive effects of different crop residues with N synthetic fertilization through  $^{15}\text{N}$  methods (e.g. Baggs et al., 2003; Garcia-Ruiz and Baggs, 2007; Frimpong et al., 2011). Furthermore,  $^{15}\text{N}$  has been used in different cover-cropping experiments (e.g. Bergstrom et al. 2001; Jayasundara et al., 2007; Gabriel and Quemada, 2011, Gabriel et al., 2016) but all of these studies were focused on plant recovery or N leaching. The study of Li et al. (2016) measured  $^{15}\text{N}_2\text{O}$  after the application of different CC residues (including roots) and N synthetic fertilizer but under laboratory conditions. To our knowledge, no previous studies have evaluated the relative contribution of CC residues/soil N (which involve the aboveground biomass and the decomposition of root biomass) and N synthetic fertilizers to  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  emissions under field conditions employing stable isotope techniques. We have elaborated more clearly this novel point in the introduction: “Moreover, the relative contribution of mineral N fertilizer, CC residues and/or soil mineral N to  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  losses during the cash crop has not been assessed yet. In this sense, stable isotope analysis (i.e.  $^{15}\text{N}$ ) represents a way to identify the source and the dominant processes involved in  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  production (Arah, 1997). Stable Isotope techniques have been used in field studies evaluating N leaching and/or plant recovery in systems with cover crops (Bergström et al., 2001; Gabriel and Quemada, 2011; Gabriel et al., 2016). Furthermore, some laboratory studies have evaluated the effect of different crop residues on  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  losses using  $^{15}\text{N}$  techniques (Baggs et al., 2003; Li et al., 2016); but to date, no previous studies have evaluated the relative contribution of cover crops (which include the aboveground biomass and the decomposition of root biomass) and N synthetic fertilizers to  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  emissions under field conditions.”

Baggs, E. M., Stevenson, M., Pihlatie, M., Regar, A., Cook, H., and Cadisch, G.: Nitrous oxide emissions following application of residues and fertiliser under zero and conventional tillage. *Plant Soil*, 254(2), 361-370, 2003.

Bergström, L. F., and Jokela, W. E.: Ryegrass Cover Crop Effects on Nitrate Leaching in Spring Barley Fertilized with (15)NH<sub>4</sub>(15)NO<sub>3</sub>. *J. Environ. Qual.*, 30(5), 1659-1667, 2001.

Frimpong, K. A., Yawson, D. O., Baggs, E. M., and Agyarko, K.: Does incorporation of cowpea-maize residue mixes influence nitrous oxide emission and mineral nitrogen release in a tropical luvisol? *Nutr. Cycl. Agroecosys.*, 91(3), 281-292, 2011.

Gabriel, J. L., and Quemada, M.: Replacing bare fallow with cover crops in a maize cropping system: yield, N uptake and fertiliser fate. *Eur. J. Agron.*, 34, 133-143, 2011.

Gabriel, J. L., Alonso-Ayuso, M., García-González, I., Hontoria, C., and Quemada, M.: Nitrogen use efficiency and fertiliser fate in a long-term experiment with winter cover crops. *Eur. J. Agron.*, 79, 14-22, 2016.

Garcia-Ruiz, R., and Baggs, E. M.: N<sub>2</sub>O emission from soil following combined application of fertiliser-N and ground weed residues. *Plant Soil*, 299(1-2), 263-274, 2007.

Jayasundara, S., Wagner-Riddle, C., Parkin, G., von Bertoldi, P., Warland, J., Kay, B., and Voroney, P.: Minimizing nitrogen losses from a corn-soybean-winter wheat rotation with best management practices. *Nutr. Cycl. Agroecosys.*, 79(2), 141-159, 2007.

Li, X., Sørensen, P., Olesen, J. E., and Petersen, S. O.: Evidence for denitrification as main source of N<sub>2</sub>O emission from residue-amended soil. *Soil Biol. Biochem.*, 92, 153-160, 2016.

Sanz-Cobena, A., García-Marco, S., Quemada, M., Gabriel, J. L., Almendros, P., and Vallejo, A.: Do cover crops enhance N<sub>2</sub>O, CO<sub>2</sub> or CH<sub>4</sub> emissions from soil in Mediterranean arable systems? *Sci. Total Environ.*, 466, 164-174, 2014.

2. What is rather “non-innovative” is the fact, that the cover crops are killed chemically with glyphosate. This is somewhat disappointing for research in agricultural sustainability, as the safe use of glyphosate is under discussion since years. There are alternatives in place also for Mediterranean regions and might be found among farmers applying organic no-till agriculture. The authors should address this topic in the discussion section, that the application of glyphosate for cover crop management is disputable and alternative measures to remove the cover crops with smart methods are needed (e.g. European project TILMAN-ORG).

We agree and are aware that the application of glyphosate is under discussion since years, and now more than ever in the European Union it is a matter under the spotlight. However, the use of non-selective herbicides is a standard and broadly used method followed by conservation tillage growers for cover crop killing in Spain and many other regions. Another alternative for this kind of systems would be mowing but the adequate control is not always achieved, mainly in the case of legumes, in which regrowth is very common. The roller-crimper may be an alternative method but, as well, the legume killing effectiveness is under discussion. Therefore, the glyphosate use seemed an appropriate option that would ensure the killing in both barley and vetch treatments. Moreover, as the study was carried out in a long-term

experiment of cover cropping system, it was decided to maintain the same killing method each year. Clearly, further research is needed to investigate this interesting topic, but we considered that it did not fit in any of the subsections of the discussion. Therefore, in the Materials and Methods section of the revised manuscript we have included more information with regards to the use of glyphosate as the killing method in our study: “The cover cropping phase finished on March 14<sup>th</sup> 2014 following local practices, with an application of glyphosate (N-phosphonomethyl glycine) at a rate of 0.7 kg a.e. ha<sup>-1</sup>. Even though the safe use of glyphosate is under discussion since years (Chang and Delzell, 2016), it was used in order to preserve the same killing method in all the campaigns in this long-term experiment under conservation tillage management”.

Chang, E. T., and Delzell, E.: Systematic review and meta-analysis of glyphosate exposure and risk of lymphohematopoietic cancers. *J. Environ. Sci. Heal. B*, 51(6), 402-434, 2016.

3. Cover crop establishment: I am wondering that a hand broadcast technique is used for CC seeding. This might cause too many heterogeneities and influence yield-scaled N<sub>2</sub>O emissions. Please discuss.

In order to reduce economic costs to farmers interested in cover crops, a suitable choice for sowing would be the use of a centrifugal spreader. As the plot size was 12 x 12 m<sup>2</sup>, the best way to emulate this type of sowing was by hand broadcasting. Results from several previous years and tests showed that this system ensures high homogeneity. Specifically, from cover crop emergence until its killing date, the ground cover was monitored by taking digital photos of four squares (0.5 x 0.5 m<sup>2</sup>) marked in each plot and lately analyzed with a software based on colorimetry. At the first sampling date (23/10/2013), no differences were observed between vetch samples (ground coverage: 4.3% ± 0.2%), nor in barley (6.7% ± 0.5%).

4. The authors use too many and sometimes unnecessary abbreviations, please adapt.

We thank the reviewer for this remark. Some unnecessary abbreviations, e.g. ammonium nitrate (AN), yield-scaled N<sub>2</sub>O emissions (YSNE), N use efficiency (NUE), dry matter (DM) have been removed. If the reviewer thinks that more abbreviations should be removed, we will do it.

5. Chambers for GHG sampling: I found it a bit too shallow to insert the stainless rings only 5 cm deep into the soil. There is a high risk of lateral N<sub>2</sub>O emission, when the rings/collars are inserted not deep enough (> 10 cm). Please explain.

We thank the reviewer for this comment and we agree that the stainless rings should have been inserted deeper. The rings we used had a height of approximately 10 cm and were inserted into the ground to a depth of ≥5 cm to get a practical height above soil surface of 4-5 cm needed to insert the chamber just above the ground, also preventing water accumulation in the soil surface due to irrigation. We have calculated our average air-filled porosity, which was slightly below 0.3 cm<sup>3</sup> cm<sup>-3</sup>. Considering our chamber closure time, the average error may be slightly above 5% (since 6.2 cm is the adequate insertion depth for an air-filled porosity of 0.3 cm<sup>3</sup> cm<sup>-3</sup> and one hour of closure time leading to an error of 5%) (Hutchinson and Livingston, 2001). In further experiments, we will adjust more accurately the insertion depth taking into account our experimental conditions, in order to reduce the error to a minimum.

Hutchinson, G. L., and Livingston, G. P.: Vents and seals in non-steady-state chambers used for measuring gas exchange between soil and the atmosphere. *Eur. J. Soil Sci.*, 52(4), 675-682, 2001.

## Response to Reviewer #2 comments

L. 1-2: The title “Integrated soil fertility management drives the effect of cover crops on GHG emissions in an irrigated field” is hard to understand, if not misleading; it gives the impression that we are dealing with a “mechanistic” which after all is not the case. Even though the <sup>15</sup>N experiment clearly showed that barley residues stimulated N<sub>2</sub>O emissions from AN fertilizer, the mechanisms behind remain elusive. This is a well conducted descriptive study, which should be reflected in the title. I suggest to change the title.

We agree with the reviewer's suggestion. We propose a new title more in line with descriptive studies: “Effect of cover crops on greenhouse gas emissions in an irrigated field under integrated soil fertility management”.

L. 19: Cumulative N<sub>2</sub>O emissions were indeed low; but who can say whether this was due to ISFM? It was due to the low fertilization rates, perhaps, but this is not specific for ISFM and there was no control following principals other than ISFM.

We agree with the reviewer that low fertilization rates caused N<sub>2</sub>O losses to be low, but these fertilization rates were a consequence of ISFM management, since the crop N requirements were partially supplied through soil inorganic N (measured after the CC killing) and N mineralization, thus reducing the amount of synthetic N. The specific pedo-climatic conditions of our study probably played a role too. The sentence has been changed for better understanding: “Our management (adjusted N synthetic rates due to ISFM) and pedo-climatic conditions resulted...” instead of “The ISFM resulted...”

L. 19. Cumulative N<sub>2</sub>O emissions lack time dimension

Thanks. This has been corrected (the units are now kg N<sub>2</sub>O-N ha<sup>-1</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>).

L. 67-69: This section sounds like making hypotheses after the event; if you want to make a point out of the fact that chemically mulched barley can lead to more N<sub>2</sub>O emissions during the cash crop phase because it fuels denitrification, offer some explanation why and when you would expect denitrification in a silty clay loam under irrigation. State more precisely that a stimulation of N<sub>2</sub>O emissions from denitrification by high C/N residues should strictly speaking only occur in the presence of ample nitrate, i.e. right after fertilization.

We thank the reviewer for this comment and we agree that this point should be better explained. More information and references have been added to this paragraph: “Conversely, it has been suggested that the higher C:N ratio of their residues as compared to those of legumes may provide energy (C) for denitrifiers, thereby leading to higher N<sub>2</sub>O losses in the presence of mineral N-NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> from fertilizers (Sarkodie-Addo et al., 2003). In this sense, the

presence of cereal residues can increase the abundance of denitrifying microorganisms (Gao et al., 2016), thus enhancing denitrification losses when soil conditions are favorable (e.g. high  $\text{NO}_3^-$  availability and soil moisture after rainfall or irrigation events, particularly in fine-textured soils) (Stehfest and Bouwman 2006; Baral et al., 2016)".

L. 127 ff.: Soil physico-chemical properties. The soil has a very high pH, high bulk density and low organic carbon. Being in its 8th year of intercropping versus winter fallow, should one expect differences in soil properties among these treatments? And could this explain slight differences in WFPS? Please comment or give soil properties per treatment.

On average, no significant differences between treatments were obtained with regards to soil WFPS. The higher values in B plots in some sampling dates could be a result of increased soil organic matter content in B plots (due to the high C:N residues in this long-term experiment), which could be associated to an enhancement of water-holding capacity (Dabney et al., 2001; Karhu et al., 2011; Hubbard et al., 2013). Since these higher WFPS values were found only in few sampling dates and mean contents did not differ between treatments, we have not discussed these issue in the manuscript, trying to avoid speculative statements.

Soil mineral N and DOC concentrations at the beginning of the experimental period were given in the manuscript for the different treatments. We did not expect differences between treatments in other physico-chemical properties (e.g. pH, texture) due to the different cover cropping treatments in the upper horizon, which was more influenced by the tillage system adopted (conservation tillage). These effects will be evaluated in further campaigns at the same experimental site.

Dabney, S. M., Delgado, J. A., and Reeves, D. W.: Using winter cover crops to improve soil and water quality. *Commun. Soil Sci. Plan.*, 32(7-8), 1221-1250, 2001.

Karhu, K., Mattila, T., Bergström, I., and Regina, K.: Biochar addition to agricultural soil increased CH<sub>4</sub> uptake and water holding capacity—results from a short-term pilot field study. *Agric. Ecosyst. Environ.*, 140(1), 309-313, 2011.

Hubbard, R. K., Strickland, T. C., and Phatak, S.: Effects of cover crop systems on soil physical properties and carbon/nitrogen relationships in the coastal plain of southeastern USA. *Soil Till. Res.*, 126, 276-283, 2013.

L. 159: Why does ISFM maize with barley as intercrop receive 20 kg more N than with traditional winter fallow? Please explain.

L. 162: How was N mineralization from vetch and barley residues estimated?

In order to explain L159 and L162 comments, we will describe in detail the calculation that justifies the choice of different fertilizer doses. For this calculation, the soil inorganic N, N crop requirements, and N mineralization were taken into account as follows:

- Crop requirements ( $N_c$ ) were  $236.3 \text{ kg N ha}^{-1}$  (Quemada et al., 2014).

- Soil inorganic N ( $N_{\text{min}}$ ) was determined to 1-m depth in April, after the CC killing. Values obtained were: fallow =  $47.7 \text{ kg N ha}^{-1}$ ; barley =  $29.9 \text{ kg N ha}^{-1}$ ; vetch =  $45.3 \text{ kg N ha}^{-1}$ .

For the fallow treatment, the N mineralization ( $N_{\text{mineralization}}$ ) considered was  $71 \text{ kg N ha}^{-1}$ , a value observed previous years in the same plots. For barley and vetch treatments, to this value was added the N coming from the mineralization of cover crop residues, estimated as 50% of

the cover crop N content. Biomass and %N concentration, necessary to calculate N content, were determined in each cover crop species at the killing moment.

Besides, an efficiency of Nitrogen use efficiency (Ef) of 70% was considered.

Therefore, the rate calculation was as follow:

$$N_f = [N_c - (N_{\min} + N_{\text{mineralization}})] / E_f$$

$$N_f \text{ fallow} = [236.3 - (47.7 + 71)] / 0.7 = 169.3 \rightarrow 170 \text{ kg N ha}^{-1}$$

$$N_f \text{ barley} = [236.3 - (29.9 + 74.6)] / 0.7 = 188.3 \rightarrow 190 \text{ kg N ha}^{-1}$$

$$N_f \text{ vetch} = [236.3 - (45.3 + 90.5)] / 0.7 = 143.5 \rightarrow 140 \text{ kg N ha}^{-1}$$

Quemada, M., Gabriel, J. L., and Zarco-Tejada, P.: Airborne hyperspectral images and ground-level optical sensors as assessment tools for maize nitrogen fertilization. *Remote Sens.*, 6(4), 2940-2962, 2014.

L. 170: Would you expect that ammonia volatilization at pH 8.2 differs in plots with and without mulched CCs, even after irrigation? Please comment

The presence of mulched CCs could have affected  $\text{NH}_3$  volatilization, but we think that these losses were small (due to irrigation after fertilization and the type of N source –ammonium nitrate and crop residues-) (Sanz-Cobena et al., 2011; Bittman et al., 2014) with respect to those of  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$ , and the differences between treatments were, therefore, negligible.

Bittman, S., Dedina, M., Howard, C.M., Oenema, O., Sutton, M.A., 2014. Options for ammonia mitigation: guidance from the UNECE task force on reactive nitrogen. *NERC/Centre for Ecology & Hydrology*.

Sanz-Cobena, A., Misselbrook, T., Camp, V., Vallejo, A., 2011. Effect of water addition and the urease inhibitor NBPT on the abatement of ammonia emission from surface applied urea. *Atmospheric Environment*, 45(8), 1517-1524.

L. 220: PLOT columns are primarily for separating inert gases, not for “transporting”

We thank the reviewer’s remark. The sentence has been changed: “Inert gases were separated by HP Plot-Q capillary columns. The gas chromatograph was equipped with a  $^{63}\text{Ni}$  electron-capture detector (Micro-ECD) to analyze  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  concentrations, and with a flame ionization detector (FID) connected to a methanizer to measure  $\text{CH}_4$  and  $\text{CO}_2$  (previously reduced to  $\text{CH}_4$ )”.

L. 223: replace “detector” with “ECD”. The FID is not heated.

Thanks. The change has been made.

L. 243: how was the temperature correction carried out? Opaque chambers deployed for 1 hour in a Mediterranean climate may lead to quite some heating of the chamber air. Did you measure temperatures within the chambers?

The chambers were all covered with radiant barrier reflective foil. In spite of this covering, the temperature inside the chamber increased compared to the temperature outside the chamber. For this reason, thermometers were placed inside three randomly selected

chambers during the closure period of each measurement and the fluxes were corrected for temperature. New information has been included to clarify this point: “The rings were only removed during management events. Each chamber had a rubber sealing tape to guarantee an airtight seal between the chamber and the ring and was covered with a radiant barrier reflective foil to reduce temperature gradients between inside and outside” and “To minimize any effects of diurnal variation in emissions, samples were always taken at the same time of the day (10–12 am), that is reported as a representative time (Reeves et al., 2015). Thermometers were placed inside three randomly selected chambers during the closure period of each measurement and the fluxes were corrected for temperature.”

L. 256: for equation 1, Senbayram et al. (2009) should be cited and not Loick et al. (2016).

Ok, we have replaced Loick et al. (2016) by Senbayram et al. (2009).

Equ. 1 requires the knowledge of  $^{15}\text{N}$  atm% excess of emitted  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  (L. 257). This is not equal to the atm% of a sample collected after 1 hour chamber deployment minus the atm% at natural abundance (L. 258)! Senbayram applied this equation to a He-flushed closed flow-through system in which subsampled  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  directly relates to emitted  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$ . In the present case, the sample is retrieved from a static chamber in which newly produced  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  mixes with abundant “old”  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$ . A Keeling plot approach or some mixing calculation should be applied to derive the true  $^{15}\text{N}$  excess of soil emitted  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  before calculating the fraction of  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  derived from AN.

We have followed Senbayram et al. (2009) instructions for the sampling and calculations, and there is no other mixing equation needed. The same equation has been used in several previous studies, such as Lampe et al. 2006 (Sources and rates of nitrous oxide emissions from grazed grassland after application of  $^{15}\text{N}$ -labelled mineral fertilizer and slurry) and Di and Cameron 2008 (Sources of nitrous oxide from  $^{15}\text{N}$ -labelled animal urine and urea fertiliser with and without a nitrification inhibitor, dicyandiamide (DCD)).

The text of Senbayram refers to static chamber as follows: “For ( $\text{N}_2\text{O}$ ) measurements, PVC chambers (60cm diameter  $\times$  25 cm height) were sealed onto the basal rings and gas samples were taken with 12-mL evacuated Exetainers, 0, 20 and 40 minutes after chamber closure.”

L. 271: Did you filter the extract before DOC analysis? Which pore size?

Yes, the extract was filtered before DOC analysis using qualitative filter paper 1300/80 (Filter-Lab<sup>®</sup>). This information has been added to the manuscript.

L. 323: : : : most of the time

Thanks. This has been corrected.

L. 325: add that the statistically significant difference in soil ammonium between treatments was found on one sampling date only.

Ok, this has been added to the sentence: “Mean  $\text{NH}_4^+$  content was significantly higher in B than in F ( $P<0.05$ ), but daily  $\text{NH}_4^+$  concentrations between treatments were only significantly different between treatments in one sampling date (210 days after CCs sowing)”.

L. 330: from figure 2e, it is not obvious that mean DOC contents were higher in B than in V, and if so, the difference was marginal. Besides, ordinary ANOVA on averaged time series data are not particularly helpful here. Did you use repeated-measure Anova?

We agree with the reviewer that differences in average contents were small, but with a high level of significance ( $P<0.01$ , this has been corrected in the text). New information has been included in the paragraph (“Average topsoil DOC content was significantly higher in B than in V and F (10% and 12%, respectively,  $P<0.01$ ) but differences were only observed in some sampling dates”). We included Fig. 2 as a qualitative and informative representation of the evolution of mineral N and DOC. We tried a repeated-measure ANOVA, but the results did not provide useful information in addition to that of the figure and the average data, besides that the time\*treatment interactions complicated the interpretation of the analysis.

L. 344. How can it be that  $\text{CO}_2$  emissions in plots with intercrops are only insignificantly higher than those in the fallow, if you include plants in your dark chambers and mulch half to 1 tons of dry matter per hectare. Any explanation? Was there a lot of weeds in the fallow? Please give details.

That was an unexpected result. During fall and early winter, low temperatures limited the growth of CCs, and soil respiration rates were small in all treatments. Conversely, from mid-February to the end of CC phase, differences between treatments were higher. We have carried out an ANOVA of average fluxes during this period, and  $\text{CO}_2$  emissions were significantly higher in B treatment with respect to F, with V showing intermediate values. This information has been added to the text in the Results (“Carbon dioxide fluxes (data not shown) remained below  $1 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$  during the intercrop period. Greatest fluxes were observed in B although differences in cumulative fluxes were not significant ( $P>0.05$ ; Table 1) in the whole intercrop period, but soil respiration was increased in B, with respect to F, from mid-February to the end of Period I”) and Discussion section (“Contrary to Sanz-Cobena et al.(2014), the presence of CCs did not increase  $\text{CO}_2$  fluxes (Table 1) during the whole Period I (which was longer than that considered by these authors), even though higher fluxes were associated to B (but not V) with respect to F plots in the last phase of the intercrop, probably as a consequence of higher root biomass and plant respiration rates in the cereal (B) than in the legume (V). Differences from fall to early-winter were not significant, since low soil temperatures limited respiration activity”).

L. 388: as outlined above, I believe the absolute numbers for this proportion are wrong. Interestingly, the proportions fluctuated strongly in time but less so across treatments. Did you try to correlate the proportions with any of your ancillary variables (WFPS, temperature,  $\text{NO}_3^-$ )?

Thanks for this remark. Please see our answer to the comment on line 256. Following your suggestion, we have tried to correlate the proportions with these variables. We obtained a significant correlation between DOC content and the proportion coming from the synthetic fertilizer ( $P<0.05$ ,  $n=12$ ,  $r=0.71$ ). This information has been added to the Results (“The mean



percentage of N<sub>2</sub>O losses from synthetic fertilizer throughout all sampling dates was 2.5 times higher in B compared to V ( $P < 0.05$ ) and was positively correlated with DOC concentrations ( $P < 0.05$ ,  $n = 12$ ,  $r = 0.71$ )” and the Discussion section (“the higher C:N residue of B ( $20.7 \pm 0.7$ ) while that of V was  $11.1 \pm 0.1$ , according to Alonso-Ayuso et al. (2014)) may have provided an energy source for denitrification (Sarkodie-Addo et al., 2003), favoring the reduction of the NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> supplied by the synthetic fertilizer and enhancing N<sub>2</sub>O emissions, as supported by the positive correlation of DOC with the proportion of N<sub>2</sub>O coming from the synthetic fertilizer”).

L. 447: the importance : : : for

Thanks. This has been corrected.

L. 447: not clear what you mean by “mineral N harbored in soil micropores”

The sentence has been changed. The new sentence is “...revealed the importance of soil mineral N contained in the micropores for the N<sub>2</sub>O bursts after the first irrigation events, with respect to the N released from CC residues”.

L. 449: I still don’t understand what your finding of larger fertilizer derived N<sub>2</sub>O emission in B treatments has to do with ISFM, if ISFM denotes the simple fact that the three treatments received slightly different amounts of fertilizer N. Wouldn’t you expect the same without ISFM?

We agree, the term “ISFM” is unnecessary here. The sentence “As we hypothesized, although ISFM practices were adopted, the different CCs played a key role in the N<sub>2</sub>O emissions during Period II”, has been changed to “As we hypothesized, the different CCs played a key role in the N<sub>2</sub>O emissions during Period II”.

L. 491 ff.: include soil pH in the discussion of possible reasons for the overall low emissions and emission factors

New information about the effect of soil pH on N<sub>2</sub>O emissions has been included: “We hypothesized that management practices may have contributed to these low emissions, but other inherent factors such as the high soil pH could have played a role too. Indeed, a higher N<sub>2</sub>O/N<sub>2</sub> ratio has been associated to acidic soils, so lower N<sub>2</sub>O emissions from denitrification could be expected in alkaline soils (Mørkved et al., 2007; Baggs et al., 2010)”.

L. 536 and 568: optimal balance between GHG emissions and agronomic efficiency provided by ISFM; I do not think you have evidence enough in your data to claim an optimal balance, as long as there is no control experiment receiving equal amounts of mineral fertilizers.

Thanks for your remark.

The following sentence has been deleted from the Manuscript: “Our results highlight the critical importance of the cash crop period on total N<sub>2</sub>O emissions, and demonstrate that the use of either non-legume and –particularly- legume CCs combined with ISFM may provide an optimum balance between GHG emissions from crop production and agronomic efficiency (i.e. lowering synthetic N requirements for a subsequent cash crop, and leading to similar YSNE as a fallow)”.

New information and references about the effect of adjusting N synthetic rate has been added: “Adjusting fertilizer N rate to soil endogenous N led to lower N<sub>2</sub>O fluxes than previous experiments conducted under similar environmental conditions where conventional N rates were applied (e.g. Adviento-Borbe et al., 2007; Hoben et al., 2011; Sanz-Cobena et al., 2012; Li et al., 2015), in agreement with the study of Migliorati et al. (2014). Moreover, CO<sub>2</sub> equivalent emissions associated to manufacturing and transport of N synthetic fertilizers (Lal, 2004) can be reduced when low synthetic N input strategies, such as ISMF, are employed”.

The second sentence (in the Conclusions) has been changed for better understanding: “Our results highlight the critical importance of the cash crop period on total N<sub>2</sub>O emissions, and demonstrate that the use of non-legume and –particularly– legume CCs combined with ISFM could be considered an efficient practice from both environmental and agronomic points of view, leading to similar N<sub>2</sub>O losses per kilogram of aboveground N uptake as fallow”.

1 [Effect of cover crops on greenhouse gas emissions in an irrigated field under](#)  
2 [integrated soil fertility management](#) ~~Integrated soil fertility management drives the~~  
3 [effect of cover crops on GHG emissions in an irrigated field](#)

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10 **Abstract**

11 Agronomical and environmental benefits are associated with replacing winter fallow by  
12 cover crops (CC). Yet, the effect of this practice on nitrous oxide (N<sub>2</sub>O) emissions  
13 remains poorly understood. In this context, a field experiment was carried out under  
14 Mediterranean conditions to evaluate the effect of replacing the traditional winter fallow  
15 (F) by vetch (*Vicia sativa* L.; V) or barley (*Hordeum vulgare* L.; B) on greenhouse gas  
16 (GHG) emissions during the intercrop and the maize (*Zea mays* L.) cropping period.  
17 The maize was fertilized following Integrated Soil Fertility management (ISFM)  
18 criteria. Maize nitrogen (N) uptake, soil mineral N concentrations, soil temperature and  
19 moisture, dissolved organic carbon (DOC) and GHG fluxes were measured during the  
20 experiment. ~~The ISFM~~Our management (adjusted N synthetic rates due to ISFM) and  
21 ~~pedo-climatic~~ ~~resulted~~ ~~conditions~~ ~~resulted~~ in low cumulative N<sub>2</sub>O emissions (0.57 to  
22 0.75 kg N<sub>2</sub>O-N ha<sup>-1</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> kg N<sub>2</sub>O-N ha<sup>-1</sup>), yield-scaled N<sub>2</sub>O emissions (3-6 g N<sub>2</sub>O-N kg  
23 aboveground N uptake<sup>-1</sup>) and N surplus (31 to 56 kg N ha<sup>-1</sup>) for all treatments. Although  
24 CCs increased N<sub>2</sub>O emissions during the intercrop period compared to F (1.6 and 2.6

25 times in B and V, respectively), the ISFM resulted in similar cumulative emissions for  
26 the CCs and F at the end of the maize cropping period. The higher C:N ratio of the B  
27 residue led to a greater proportion of N<sub>2</sub>O losses from the synthetic fertilizer in these  
28 plots, when compared to V. No significant differences were observed in CH<sub>4</sub> and CO<sub>2</sub>  
29 fluxes at the end of the experiment. This study shows that the use of both legume and  
30 non-legume CCs combined with ISFM could provide, in addition to the advantages  
31 reported in previous studies, an opportunity to maximize agronomic efficiency  
32 (lowering synthetic N requirements for the subsequent cash crop) without increasing  
33 cumulative or yield-scaled N<sub>2</sub>O losses.

## 34 **1. Introduction**

35 Improved resource-use efficiencies are pivotal components of a sustainable  
36 agriculture that meets human needs and protects natural resources (Spiertz, 2010).  
37 Several strategies have been proposed to improve the efficiency of intensive irrigated  
38 systems, where nitrate (NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>) leaching losses are of major concern, both during cash  
39 crop and winter fallow periods (Quemada et al., 2013). In this sense, replacing winter  
40 intercrop fallow with cover crops (CCs) has been reported to decrease NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> leaching via  
41 retention of post-harvest surplus inorganic nitrogen (N) (Wagner-Riddle and Thurtell,  
42 1998), consequently improving N use efficiency (NUE) of the cropping system (Gabriel  
43 and Quemada, 2011). Furthermore, the use of CCs as green manure for the subsequent  
44 cash crop may further increase soil fertility and N use efficiency (Tonitto et al.,  
45 2006; Veenstra et al., 2007) through slow release of N and other nutrients from the crop  
46 residues, leading to synthetic fertilizer saving.

47 From an environmental point of view, N fertilization is closely related with the  
48 production and emission of nitrous oxide (N<sub>2</sub>O) (Davidson and Kanter, 2014), a

49 greenhouse gas (GHG) with a molecular global warming potential c. 300 times that of  
50 carbon dioxide (CO<sub>2</sub>) (IPCC, 2007). Nitrous oxide released from agricultural soils is  
51 mainly generated by nitrification and denitrification processes, which are influenced by  
52 several soil variables (Firestone and Davidson, 1989). Thereby, modifying these  
53 parameters through agricultural management practices (e.g. fertilization, crop rotation,  
54 tillage or irrigation) aiming to optimize N inputs, can lead to strategies for reducing the  
55 emission of this gas (Ussiri and Lal, 2012). In order to identify the most effective GHG  
56 mitigation strategies, side-effects on methane (CH<sub>4</sub>) uptake and CO<sub>2</sub> emission (i.e.  
57 respiration) from soils, which are also influenced by agricultural practices (Snyder et al.,  
58 2009), need to be considered.

59 To date, the available information linking GHG emission and maize-winter CCs  
60 rotation in the scientific literature is scarce. The most important knowledge gaps include  
61 effects of plant species selection and CCs residue management (i.e. retention,  
62 incorporation or removal) (Basche et al., 2014). Cover crop species may affect N<sub>2</sub>O  
63 emissions in contrasting ways, by influencing abiotic and biotic soil factors. These  
64 factors include mineral N availability in soil and the availability of carbon (C) sources  
65 for the denitrifier bacterial communities, soil pH, soil structure and microbial  
66 community composition (Abalos et al., 2014). For example, non-legume CCs such as  
67 winter cereals could contribute to a reduction of N<sub>2</sub>O emissions due to their deep roots,  
68 which allow them to extract soil N more efficiently than legumes (Kallenbach et al.,  
69 2010). Conversely, it has been suggested that the higher C:N ratio of their residues as  
70 compared to those of legumes may provide energy (C) for denitrifiers, thereby leading  
71 to higher N<sub>2</sub>O losses in the presence of mineral N-NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> from fertilizers (Sarkodie-Addo  
72 et al., 2003). In this sense, the presence of cereal residues can increase the abundance of  
73 denitrifying microorganisms (Gao et al., 2016), thus enhancing denitrification losses

74 [when soil conditions are favorable \(e.g. high NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> availability and soil moisture after](#)  
75 [rainfall or irrigation events, particularly in fine-textured soils\) \(Stehfest and Bouwman](#)  
76 [2006; Baral et al., 2016\)](#)~~Conversely, the higher C:N ratio of their residues as compared~~  
77 ~~to those of legumes may provide energy for denitrifiers, thereby leading to higher N<sub>2</sub>O~~  
78 ~~losses in the presence of mineral N from fertilizers (Sarkodie Addo et al., 2003).~~  
79 ~~Moreover~~[Besides](#), winter CCs can also abate indirect gaseous N losses through the  
80 reduction of leaching and subsequent emissions from water resources (Feyereisen et al.,  
81 2006). Thus, the estimated N<sub>2</sub>O mitigation potential for winter CCs ranges from 0.2 to  
82 1.1 kg N<sub>2</sub>O ha<sup>-1</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> according to Ussiri and Lal (2012).

83 In a CC-maize rotation system, mineral fertilizer application to the cash crop  
84 could have an important effect on [N use efficiency](#)~~NUE~~ and N losses from the agro-  
85 ecosystem. Different methods for calculating the N application rate (e.g. conventional or  
86 integrated) can be employed by farmers, affecting the amount of synthetic N applied to  
87 soil and the overall effect of CCs on N<sub>2</sub>O fluxes. Integrated Soil Fertility Management  
88 (ISFM) (Kimani et al., 2003) provides an opportunity to optimize the use of available  
89 resources, thereby reducing pollution and costs from over-use of N fertilizers  
90 (conventional management). ISFM involves the use of inorganic fertilizers and organic  
91 inputs, such as green manure, aiming to maximize agronomic efficiency (Vanlauwe et  
92 al., 2011). When applying this technique to a CC-maize crop rotation, N fertilization  
93 rate for maize is calculated taking into account the background soil mineral N and the  
94 expected available N from mineralization of CC residues, which depends on residue  
95 composition. Differences in soil mineral N during the cash crop phase may be  
96 significantly reduced if ISFM practices are employed, affecting the GHG balance of the  
97 CC-cash crop cropping system.

98            Only one study has investigated the effect of CCs on N<sub>2</sub>O emissions in  
99 Mediterranean cropping systems (Sanz-Cobena et al., 2014). These authors found an  
100 effect of CCs species on N<sub>2</sub>O emissions during the intercrop period. After 4 years of CC  
101 (vetch, barley or rape)-maize rotation, vetch was the only CC species that significantly  
102 enhanced N<sub>2</sub>O losses compared to fallow, mainly due to its capacity to fix atmospheric  
103 N<sub>2</sub> and because of higher N surplus from the previous cropping phases in these plots. In  
104 this study a conventional fertilization (same N synthetic rate for all treatments) was  
105 applied during the maize phase; how ISFM practices may affect these findings remains  
106 unknown. Moreover, the relative contribution of mineral N fertilizer, CC residues  
107 and/or soil mineral N to N<sub>2</sub>O losses during the cash crop has not been assessed yet. In  
108 this sense, stable isotope analysis (i.e. <sup>15</sup>N) represents a way to identify the source and  
109 the dominant processes involved in N<sub>2</sub>O production (Arah, 1997). Stable Isotope  
110 techniques have been used in field studies evaluating N leaching and/or plant recovery  
111 in systems with cover crops (Bergström et al., 2001; Gabriel and Quemada, 2011;  
112 Gabriel et al., 2016). Furthermore, some laboratory studies have evaluated the effect of  
113 different crop residues on N<sub>2</sub>O losses using <sup>15</sup>N techniques (Baggs et al., 2003; Li et al.,  
114 2016); but to date, no previous studies have evaluated the relative contribution of cover  
115 crops (which include the aboveground biomass and the decomposition of root biomass)  
116 and N synthetic fertilizers to N<sub>2</sub>O emissions under field conditions. Moreover, the  
117 relative contribution of mineral N fertilizer, CC residues and/or soil mineral N to N<sub>2</sub>O  
118 losses during the cash crop has not been assessed yet. In this sense, stable isotope  
119 analysis (i.e. <sup>15</sup>N) has emerged as a way to identify the source and the dominant  
120 processes involved in N<sub>2</sub>O production (Arah, 1997). A comprehensive understanding  
121 of the N<sub>2</sub>O biochemical production pathways and nutrient sources is crucial for the  
122 development of effective mitigation strategies.

123           The objective of this study was to evaluate the effect of two different CC species  
124 (barley and vetch) and fallow on GHG emissions during the CC period and during the  
125 following maize cash crop period in an ISFM system. An additional objective was to  
126 study the contribution of the synthetic fertilizer and other N sources to N<sub>2</sub>O emissions  
127 using <sup>15</sup>N labelled fertilizer. We hypothesized that: 1) the presence of CCs instead of  
128 fallow would affect N<sub>2</sub>O losses, leading to higher emissions in the case of the legume  
129 CC (vetch) in accordance with the studies of Basche et al. (2014) and Sanz-Cobena et  
130 al. (2014); and 2) in spite of the ISFM during the maize period, which theoretically  
131 would lead to similar soil N availability for all plots, the distinct composition of the CC  
132 residues would affect N<sub>2</sub>O emissions. In order to test these hypotheses, a field  
133 experiment was carried out using the same management system for 8 years, measuring  
134 GHGs during the 8<sup>th</sup> year. To gain a better understanding of the effect of the  
135 management practices tested on the overall GHG budget of a cropping system, CH<sub>4</sub>,  
136 CO<sub>2</sub> and yield-scaled N<sub>2</sub>O emissions were also analyzed during the experimental  
137 period. The relative contribution of each N source (synthetic fertilizer or soil  
138 endogenous N, including N mineralized from the CCs) to N<sub>2</sub>O emissions was also  
139 evaluated by <sup>15</sup>N-labelled ammonium nitrate (~~AN~~) in a parallel experiment.

140

## 141           **2. Materials and methods**

### 142           *2.1. Site characteristics*

143           The study was conducted at “La Chimenea” field station (40°03’N, 03°31’W,  
144 550 m a.s.l.), located in the central Tajo river basin near Aranjuez (Madrid, Spain),  
145 where an experiment involving cover cropping systems and conservation tillage has  
146 been carried out since 2006. Soil at the field site is a silty clay loam (*Typic Calcixerept*;



147 Soil Survey Staff, 2014). Some of the physico-chemical properties of the top 0–10 cm  
148 soil layer, as measured by conventional methods, were:  $\text{pH}_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}$ , 8.16; total organic C,  
149  $19.0 \text{ g kg}^{-1}$ ;  $\text{CaCO}_3$ ,  $198 \text{ g kg}^{-1}$ ; clay, 25%; silt, 49% and sand, 26%. Bulk density of  
150 the topsoil layer determined in intact core samples (Grossman and Reinsch, 2002) was  
151  $1.46 \text{ g cm}^{-3}$ . Average ammonium ( $\text{NH}_4^+$ ) content at the beginning of the experiment  
152 was  $0.42 \pm 0.2 \text{ mg N kg soil}^{-1}$  (without differences between treatments). Nitrate  
153 concentrations were  $1.5 \pm 0.2 \text{ mg N kg soil}^{-1}$  in fallow and barley and  $0.9 \pm 0.1 \text{ mg N kg}$   
154  $\text{soil}^{-1}$  in vetch. Initial dissolved organic C (DOC) contents were  $56.0 \pm 7 \text{ mg C kg soil}^{-1}$  in  
155 vetch and fallow and  $68.8 \pm 5 \text{ mg C kg soil}^{-1}$  in barley. The area has a Mediterranean  
156 semiarid climate, with a mean annual air temperature of  $14 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ . The coldest month is  
157 January with a mean temperature of  $6 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ , and the hottest month is August with a mean  
158 temperature of  $24 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ . During the last 30 years, the mean annual precipitation has been  
159 approximately 350 mm (17 mm from July to August and 131 mm from September to  
160 November).

161 Hourly rainfall and air temperature data were obtained from a meteorological  
162 station located at the field site (CR10X, Campbell Scientific Ltd, Shepshed, UK). A  
163 temperature probe inserted 10 cm into the soil was used to measure soil temperature.  
164 Mean hourly temperature data were stored on a data logger.

165

## 166 *2.2 Experimental design and agronomic management*

167 Twelve plots ( $12\text{m} \times 12\text{m}$ ) were randomly distributed in four replications of  
168 three cover cropping treatments, including a cereal and a legume: 1) barley (B)  
169 (*Hordeum vulgare* L., cv. Vanessa), 2) vetch (V) (*Vicia sativa* L., cv. Vereda), and 3)  
170 traditional winter fallow (F). Cover crop seeds were broadcast by hand over the stubble

171 of the previous crop and covered with a shallow cultivator (5 cm depth) on October 10<sup>th</sup>  
172 2013, at a rate of 180 and 150 kg ha<sup>-1</sup> for B and V, respectively. The cover cropping  
173 phase finished on March 14<sup>th</sup> 2014 [following local practices](#), with an application of  
174 glyphosate (N-phosphonomethyl glycine) at a rate of 0.7 kg a.e. ha<sup>-1</sup>. [Even though the  
175 safe use of glyphosate is under discussion since years \(Chang and Delzell, 2016\), it was  
176 used in order to preserve the same killing method in all the campaigns in this long-term  
177 experiment under conservation tillage management.](#) All the CC residues were left on top  
178 of the soil. Thereafter, a new set of N fertilizer treatments was set up for the maize cash  
179 crop phase. Maize (*Zea mays* L., Pioneer P1574, FAO Class 700) was direct drilled on  
180 April 7<sup>th</sup> 2014 in all plots, resulting in a plant population density of 7.5 plants m<sup>-2</sup>;  
181 harvesting took place on September 25<sup>th</sup> 2014. The fertilizer treatments consisted of  
182 [ammonium nitrate AN](#) applied on 2<sup>nd</sup> June at three rates: 170, 140 and 190 kg N ha<sup>-1</sup> in  
183 F, V and B plots, respectively, according to ISFM practices. For the calculation of each  
184 N rate, the N available in the soil (which was calculated following soil analysis as  
185 described below), the expected N uptake by maize crop, and the estimated N  
186 mineralized from V and B residues were taken into account, assuming that crop  
187 requirements were 236.3 kg N ha<sup>-1</sup> (Quemada et al., 2014). Estimated [N use  
188 efficiencyNUE](#) of maize plants for calculating N application rate was 70% according to  
189 the [N use efficiencyNUE](#) obtained during the previous years in the same experimental  
190 area. Each plot received P as triple superphosphate (45% P<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>, Fertiberia<sup>®</sup>, Madrid,  
191 Spain) at a rate of 69 kg P<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> ha<sup>-1</sup>, and K as potassium chloride (60% K<sub>2</sub>O, Fertiberia<sup>®</sup>,  
192 Madrid, Spain), at a rate of 120 kg K<sub>2</sub>O ha<sup>-1</sup> just before sowing maize. All N, P and K  
193 fertilizers were broadcast by hand, and immediately after N fertilization the field was  
194 irrigated to prevent ammonia volatilization. The main crop previous to sowing CCs was

195 sunflower (*Helianthus annuus* L., var. Sambro). Neither the sunflower nor the CCs were  
196 fertilized.

197 In order to determine the amount of N<sub>2</sub>O derived from the N fertilizers, double-  
198 labelled [AN-ammonium nitrate](#) (<sup>15</sup>NH<sub>4</sub><sup>15</sup>NO<sub>3</sub>, 5 % atom <sup>15</sup>N, from Cambridge Isotope  
199 Laboratories, Inc., Massachusetts, USA) was applied on 2m x 2m subplots established  
200 within each plot at a rate of 130 kg N ha<sup>-1</sup>. In order to reduce biases due to the use of  
201 different N rates (e.g. apparent priming effects or different mixing ratios between the  
202 added and resident soil N pools) the same amount of N was applied for all treatments. In  
203 each subplot, the CC residue was also left on top of the soil. This application took place  
204 on 26<sup>th</sup> May by spreading the fertilizer homogenously with a hand sprayer, followed by  
205 an irrigation event.

206 Sprinkler irrigation was applied to the maize crop in a total amount of 688.5 mm  
207 in 31 irrigation events. Sprinklers were installed in a 12m x 12m framework. The water  
208 doses to be applied were estimated from the crop evapotranspiration (ET<sub>c</sub>) of the  
209 previous week (net water requirements). This was calculated daily as  $ET_c = K_c \times ET_o$ ,  
210 where ET<sub>o</sub> is reference evapotranspiration calculated by the FAO Penman–Monteith  
211 method (Allen et al., 1998) using data from the meteorological station located in the  
212 experimental field. The crop coefficient (K<sub>c</sub>) was obtained using the relationship for  
213 maize in semiarid conditions (Martínez-Cob, 2008).

214 Two different periods were considered for data reporting and analysis: Period I  
215 (from CC sowing to N fertilization of the maize crop), and Period II (from N  
216 fertilization of maize to the end of the experimental period, after maize harvest).

217

218 *2.3 GHG emissions sampling and analyzing*

219 Fluxes of N<sub>2</sub>O, CH<sub>4</sub> and CO<sub>2</sub> were measured from October 2013 to October  
220 2014 using opaque manual circular static chambers as described in detail by Abalos et  
221 al. (2013). One chamber (diameter 35.6 cm, height 19.3 cm) was located in each  
222 experimental plot. The chambers were hermetically closed (for 1 h) by fitting them into  
223 stainless steel rings, which were inserted at the beginning of the study into the soil to a  
224 depth of 5 cm to minimize the lateral diffusion of gases and to avoid the soil disturbance  
225 associated with the insertion of the chambers in the soil. The rings were only removed  
226 during management events. Each chamber had a rubber sealing tape to guarantee an  
227 airtight seal between the chamber and the ring and was covered with a radiant barrier  
228 reflective foil to reduce temperature gradients between inside and outside.~~The rings~~  
229 ~~were only removed during management events. Each chamber had a rubber sealing tape~~  
230 ~~to guarantee an airtight seal between the chamber and the ring.~~ A rubber stopper with a  
231 3-way stopcock was placed in the wall of each chamber to take gas samples.  
232 Greenhouse gas measurements were always made with barley/vetch plants inside the  
233 chamber. During the maize period, gas chambers were set up between maize rows.

234 During Period I, GHGs were sampled weekly or every two weeks. During the  
235 first month after maize fertilization, gas samples were taken twice per week.  
236 Afterwards, gas sampling was performed weekly or fortnightly, until the end of the  
237 cropping period. To minimize any effects of diurnal variation in emissions, samples  
238 were always taken at the same time of the day (10–12 am), that is reported as a  
239 representative time (Reeves et al., 2015).

240 Measurements of N<sub>2</sub>O, CO<sub>2</sub> and CH<sub>4</sub> emissions were made at 0, 30 and 60 min  
241 to test the linearity of gas accumulation in each chamber. Gas samples (100 mL) were  
242 removed from the headspace of each chamber by syringe and transferred to 20 mL gas  
243 vials sealed with a gas-tight neoprene septum. The vials were previously flushed in the

244 field using 80 mL of the gas sample. Samples were analyzed by gas chromatography  
245 using a HP-6890 gas chromatograph equipped with a headspace autoanalyzer (HT3),  
246 both from Agilent Technologies (Barcelona, Spain). Inert gases were separated by HP  
247 Plot-Q capillary columns, ~~transported gas samples to a~~ The gas chromatograph was  
248 equipped with a <sup>63</sup>Ni electron-capture detector (Micro-ECD) to analyze N<sub>2</sub>O  
249 concentrations, and ~~to with~~ a flame ionization detector (FID) connected to a methanizer  
250 to measure CH<sub>4</sub> and CO<sub>2</sub> (previously reduced to CH<sub>4</sub>). The temperatures of the injector,  
251 oven and ~~detector-ECD~~ were 50, 50 and 350°C, respectively. The accuracy of the gas  
252 chromatographic data was 1% or better. Two gas standards comprising a mixture of  
253 gases (high standard with 1500 ± 7.50 ppm CO<sub>2</sub>, 10 ± 0.25 ppm CH<sub>4</sub> and 2 ± 0.05 ppm  
254 N<sub>2</sub>O and low standard with 200 ± 1.00 ppm CO<sub>2</sub>, 2 ± 0.10 ppm CH<sub>4</sub> and 200 ± 6.00 ppb  
255 N<sub>2</sub>O) were provided by Carbueros Metálicos S.A. and Air Products SA/NV, respectively,  
256 and used to determine a standard curve for each gas. The response of the GC was linear  
257 within 200–1500 ppm for CO<sub>2</sub> and 2–10 ppm CH<sub>4</sub> and quadratic within 200–2000 ppb  
258 for N<sub>2</sub>O.

259 The increases in N<sub>2</sub>O, CH<sub>4</sub> and CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations within the chamber  
260 headspace were generally (80% of cases) linear ( $R^2 > 0.90$ ) during the sampling period  
261 (1h). Therefore, emission rates of fluxes were estimated as the slope of the linear  
262 regression between concentration and time (after corrections for temperature) and from  
263 the ratio between chamber volume and soil surface area (MacKenzie et al., 1998).  
264 Cumulative N<sub>2</sub>O, CH<sub>4</sub> and CO<sub>2</sub>, emissions per plot during the sampling period were  
265 estimated by linear interpolations between sampling dates, multiplying the mean flux of  
266 two successive determinations by the length of the period between sampling and adding  
267 that amount to the previous cumulative total (Sanz-Cobena et al., 2014). The

268 measurement of CO<sub>2</sub> emissions from soil including plants in opaque chambers only  
269 includes ecosystem respiration but not photosynthesis (Meijide et al., 2010).

270

#### 271 2.4 <sup>15</sup>N Isotope analysis

272 Gas samples from the subplots receiving double-labelled AN fertilizer were  
273 taken after 60 min static chamber closure 1, 4, 9, 11, 15, 18, 22 and 25 days after  
274 fertilizer application. Stable <sup>15</sup>N isotope analysis of N<sub>2</sub>O contained in the gas samples  
275 was carried out on a cryo-focusing gas chromatography unit coupled to a 20/20 isotope  
276 ratio mass spectrometer (both from SerCon Ltd., Crewe, UK). Ambient samples were  
277 taken occasionally as required for the subsequent isotopic calculations. Solutions of 6.6  
278 and 2.9 atom% ammonium sulphate [(NH<sub>4</sub>)<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>] were prepared and used to generate  
279 6.6 and 2.9 atom% N<sub>2</sub>O (Laughlin et al., 1997) which were used as reference and  
280 quality control standards. In order to calculate the atom percent excess (ape) of the N<sub>2</sub>O  
281 emitted in the sub-plots, the mean natural abundance of atmospheric N<sub>2</sub>O from the  
282 ambient samples (0.369 atom% <sup>15</sup>N) was subtracted from the measured enriched gas  
283 samples. To obtain the N<sub>2</sub>O flux that was derived from fertilizer (N<sub>2</sub>O - N<sub>diff</sub>), the  
284 following equation was used (Senbayram et al., 2009):

$$285 \quad \underbrace{N_2O - N_{diff}} = \underbrace{N_2O - N} \times \left( \frac{N_2O_{ape_{sample}}}{ape_{fertilizer}} \right) \quad (1)$$

286 in which 'N<sub>2</sub>O - N' is the N<sub>2</sub>O emission from soil, 'N<sub>2</sub>O - ape<sub>sample</sub>' is the <sup>15</sup>N  
287 atom% excess of emitted N<sub>2</sub>O, and 'ape<sub>fertilizer</sub>' is the <sup>15</sup>N atom% excess of the applied  
288 fertilizer (Senbayram et al., 2009).

289 ~~Gas samples from the subplots receiving double labelled AN fertilizer were~~  
290 ~~taken after 60 min static chamber closure 1, 4, 9, 11, 15, 18, 22 and 25 days after~~

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291 fertilizer application. Stable  $^{15}\text{N}$  isotope analysis of  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  contained in the gas samples  
 292 was carried out on a trace gas analyzer (using cryo trapping and cryo focusing) coupled  
 293 to a 20/22 isotope ratio mass spectrometer (both from SerCon Ltd., Crewe, UK), at  
 294 Rothamsted Research North Wyke. Solutions of 6.6 and 2.9 atom% ammonium  
 295 sulphate  $[(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{SO}_4]$  were prepared and used to generate 6.6 and 2.9 atom%  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$   
 296 (Laughlin et al., 1997) which were used as reference and quality control standards.  
 297 During the experiment, the mean natural abundance of atmospheric  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  (0.369 atom%  
 298  $^{15}\text{N}$ ) was subtracted from measured enriched samples to calculate the atom percent  
 299 excess. To obtain the  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  flux that was derived from fertilizer ( $N_2\text{O} - N_{diff}$ ), the Eq. (1)  
 300 was used (Loick et al., 2016):

$$301 \quad N_2\text{O} - N_{diff} = N_2\text{O} - N \times \left( \frac{N_2\text{O} - \text{atom percent excess}_{\text{sample}}}{\text{atom percent excess}_{\text{fertilizer}}} \right) \quad (1)$$

302 in which ' $N_2\text{O} - N$ ' is the  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  emission from soil, ' $N_2\text{O} - ape_{\text{sample}}$ ' is the  $^{15}\text{N}$   
 303 atom% excess of emitted  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  (being equal to ' $^{15}\text{N}$  atom% of measured samples' minus  
 304 0.369 atom% where 0.369 atom% is the mean natural  $^{15}\text{N}$  abundance of 'background  
 305  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$ ' obtained in our experiment), and ' $ape_{\text{fertilizer}}$ ' is the  $^{15}\text{N}$  atom% excess of the  
 306 applied fertilizer (Loick et al., 2016).

307

## 308 2.5 Soil and crop analyses

309 In order to relate gas emissions to soil properties, soil samples were collected at  
 310 0-10 cm depth during the growing season on almost all gas-sampling occasions,  
 311 particularly after each fertilization event. Three soil cores (2.5 cm diameter and 15 cm  
 312 length) were randomly sampled close to the ring in each plot, and then mixed and  
 313 homogenized in the laboratory. Soil  $\text{NH}_4^+$  and  $\text{NO}_3^-$  concentrations were analyzed using

314 8 g of soil extracted with 50 mL of KCl (1 M), and measured by automated colorimetric  
315 determination using a flow injection analyzer (FIAS 400 Perkin Elmer) provided with a  
316 UV-V spectrophotometer detector. Soil (DOC) was determined by extracting 8 g of  
317 homogeneously mixed soil with 50 mL of deionized water (and subsequently filtering),  
318 and analyzed with a total organic C analyser (multi N/C 3100 Analytik Jena) equipped  
319 with an IR detector. The Waterwater-Filled-filled Pore-pore Space-space (WFPS) was  
320 calculated by dividing the volumetric water content by total soil porosity. Total soil  
321 porosity was calculated according to the relationship: soil porosity = (1- soil bulk  
322 density/2.65), assuming a particle density of 2.65 g cm<sup>-3</sup> (Danielson and Sutherland,  
323 1986). Gravimetric water content was determined by oven-drying soil samples at 105  
324 °C with a MA30 Sartorius ®.

325 Four 0.5m × 0.5m squares were randomly harvested from each plot, before  
326 killing the CC by applying glyphosate. Aerial biomass was cut by hand at soil level,  
327 dried, weighed and ground. A subsample was taken for determination of total N content.  
328 From these samples was determined CC biomass and N contribution to the subsequent  
329 maize.

330 At maize harvest, two 8 m central rows in each plot were collected and weighed  
331 in the field following separation of grain and straw. For aboveground N uptake  
332 calculations, N content was determined in subsamples of grain and biomass. Total N  
333 content on maize and CC subsamples were determined with an elemental analyzer  
334 (TruMac CN Leco).

335

336 *2.6 Calculations and statistical analysis*



337 Yield-scaled N<sub>2</sub>O emissions and N surplus in the maize cash crop were  
338 calculated as the amount of N<sub>2</sub>O emitted (considering the emissions of the whole  
339 experiment, i.e. Period I + Period II) per unit of above-ground N uptake, and taking the  
340 difference between N application and above-ground N uptake, respectively (van  
341 Groenigen et al., 2010).

342 Statistical analyses were carried out with Statgraphics Plus 5.1. Analyses of  
343 variance were performed for all variables over the experiment (except climatic ones),  
344 for both periods indicated in section 2.2. Data distribution normality and variance  
345 uniformity were previously assessed by Shapiro-Wilk test and Levene's statistic,  
346 respectively, and transformed (log10, root-square, arcsin or inverse) before analysis  
347 when necessary. Means of soil parameters were separated by Tukey's honest  
348 significance test at  $P < 0.05$ , while cumulative GHG emissions, [YSNE-yield-scaled N<sub>2</sub>O](#)  
349 [emissions](#) and N surplus were compared by the orthogonal contrasts method at  $P < 0.05$ .  
350 For non-normally distributed data, the Kruskal–Wallis test was used on non-  
351 transformed data to evaluate differences at  $P < 0.05$ . Linear correlations were carried out  
352 to determine relationships between gas fluxes and WFPS, soil temperature, DOC, NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>  
353 and NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>. These analyses were performed using the mean/cumulative data of the  
354 replicates of the CC treatments (n=12), and also for all the dates when soil and GHG  
355 were sampled, for Period I (n=16), Period II (n=11) and the whole experimental period  
356 (n=27).

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357

### 358 **3. Results**

#### 359 *3.1 Cover crop (Period I)*

##### 360 *3.1.1 Environmental conditions and WFPS*

361 Mean soil temperature during the intercrop period was 8.8°C, ranging from 1.8  
362 (December) to 15.5°C (April) (Fig. 1a), which were typical values in the experimental  
363 area. Mean soil temperature during maize cropping period was 24.6°C, which was also  
364 a standard value for this region. The accumulated rainfall during this period was 215  
365 mm, whereas the 30-year mean is 253 mm. Water-Filled Pore Space ranged from 40 to  
366 81% (Fig. 1b). No significant differences were observed for WFPS mean values  
367 between the different treatments ( $P>0.05$ ).

368

### 369 3.1.2 Mineral N and DOC and cover crop residues

370 Topsoil  $\text{NH}_4^+$  content was below 5 mg N kg soil<sup>-1</sup> ~~almost~~most of the time in  
371 Period I, although a peak was observed after maize sowing (55 days after CCs kill date)  
372 (Fig. 2a), with the highest values reached in B (50 mg N kg soil<sup>-1</sup>). Mean  $\text{NH}_4^+$  content  
373 was significantly higher in B than in F ( $P<0.05$ ), but daily  $\text{NH}_4^+$  concentrations between  
374 treatments were only significantly different between treatments in one sampling date  
375 (210 days after CCs sowing). Nitrate content increased after CCs killing, reaching  
376 values above 25 mg N kg soil<sup>-1</sup> in V treatment (Fig. 2c). Mean  $\text{NO}_3^-$  content during  
377 Period I was significantly higher in the V plots than in the B and F plots ( $P<0.001$ ).  
378 Dissolved Organic C ranged from 60 to 130 mg C kg soil<sup>-1</sup> (Fig. 2e). Average topsoil  
379 DOC content was significantly higher in B than in V and F (10% and 12%, respectively,  
380  $P<0.0501$ ) but differences were only observed in some sampling dates. The total  
381 amount of cover crop biomass left on the ground was 540.5±26.5 and 1106.7±93.6 kg  
382 DM-dry matter ha<sup>-1</sup> in B and V, respectively. Accordingly, the total N content of these  
383 residues was 11.0±0.6 and 41.3±4.5 kg N ha<sup>-1</sup> in B and V, respectively.

384

385           3.1.3 GHG fluxes

386           Nitrous oxide fluxes ranged from -0.06 to 0.22 mg N m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup> (Fig. 3a) in Period  
387 I. The soil acted as a sink for N<sub>2</sub>O at some sampling dates, especially for the F plots.  
388 Cumulative fluxes at the end of Period I were significantly greater in CC treatments  
389 compared to F (1.6 and 2.6 higher in B and V, respectively) (*P*<0.05; Table 1). Net CH<sub>4</sub>  
390 uptake was observed in all intercrop treatments, and daily fluxes ranged from -0.60 to  
391 0.25 mg C m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup> (data not shown). No significant differences were observed between  
392 treatments in cumulative CH<sub>4</sub> fluxes at the end of Period I (*P*>0.05; Table 1). Carbon  
393 dioxide fluxes (data not shown) remained below 1 g C m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup> during the intercrop  
394 period. Greatest fluxes were observed in B although differences in cumulative fluxes  
395 were not significant (*P*>0.05; Table 1) in the whole intercrop period, but soil respiration  
396 was increased in B, with respect to F, from mid-February to the end of Period I~~Carbon~~  
397 ~~dioxide fluxes (data not shown) remained below 1 g C m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup> during the intercrop~~  
398 ~~period. Greatest fluxes were observed in B although differences in cumulative fluxes~~  
399 ~~were not significant (*P*>0.05; Table 1).~~ Nitrous oxide emissions were significantly  
400 correlated to CO<sub>2</sub> fluxes (*P*<0.01, n=17, r=0.69) and soil temperature (*P*<0.05, n=17,  
401 r=0.55).

402

403           3.2 Maize crop (Period II)

404           3.2.1 Environmental conditions and WFPS

405           Mean soil temperature ranged from 19.6 (reached in September) to 32.3°C  
406 (reached in August) with a mean value of 27.9°C (Fig. 1a). Total rainfall during the  
407 maize crop period was 57 mm. Water-Filled Pore Space ranged from 19 to 84% (Fig.

408 1c). Higher mean WFPS values ( $P<0.01$ ) were measured in B during some sampling  
409 dates.

410

### 411 3.2.2 Mineral N and DOC

412 Topsoil  $\text{NH}_4^+$  content increased rapidly after N fertilization (Fig. 2b) decreasing  
413 to values below 10 mg N kg soil<sup>-1</sup> from 15 days after fertilization to the end of the  
414 experimental period. Nitrate concentrations (Fig. 2d) also peaked after AN addition,  
415 reaching the highest value (170 mg N kg soil<sup>-1</sup>) 15 days after fertilization in B ( $P<0.05$ ).  
416 No significant differences ( $P>0.05$ ) between treatments were observed in average soil  
417  $\text{NH}_4^+$  or  $\text{NO}_3^-$  during maize phase. Dissolved Organic C ranged from 56 to 138 mg C kg  
418 soil<sup>-1</sup> (Fig. 2f). Average topsoil DOC content was 26 and 44% higher in B than in V and  
419 F, respectively ( $P<0.001$ ).

420

### 421 3.2.3 GHG fluxes, Yield-Scaled $\text{N}_2\text{O}$ emissions and N surplus

422 Nitrous oxide fluxes ranged from 0.0 to 5.6 mg N m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup> (Fig. 3b). The highest  
423  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  emission peak was observed 1-4 days after fertilization for all plots. Other peaks  
424 were subsequently observed until 25 days after fertilization, particularly in B plots  
425 where  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  emissions 23 and 25 days after fertilization were higher ( $P<0.05$ ) than those  
426 of F and V (Fig. 3b). No significant differences in cumulative  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  fluxes were  
427 observed between treatments throughout or at the end of the maize crop period (Table  
428 1), albeit fluxes were numerically higher in B than in V ( $0.05<P<0.10$ ). Daily  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$   
429 emissions were significantly correlated with  $\text{NH}_4^+$  topsoil content ( $P<0.05$ ,  $n=12$ ,  
430  $r=0.84$ ).

431 As in the previous period, all treatments were CH<sub>4</sub> sinks, without significant  
432 differences between treatments ( $P>0.05$ ; Table 1). Respiration rates ranged from 0.15 to  
433 3.0 g C m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>; no significant differences ( $P>0.05$ ; Table 1) were observed among the  
434 CO<sub>2</sub> values for the different treatments. Yield-scaled N<sub>2</sub>O emissions and N surplus are  
435 shown in Table 1. No significant differences were observed between treatments  
436 although these values were generally lower in V than in B ( $0.05<P<0.15$ ).

437 Considering the whole cropping period (Period I and Period II), N<sub>2</sub>O fluxes  
438 significantly correlated with WFPS ( $P<0.05$ , n=12, r=0.61), NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> ( $P<0.05$ , n=27,  
439 r=0.84) and NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> ( $P<0.05$ , n=27, r=0.50).

440

#### 441 *3.2.4 Fertilizer-derived N<sub>2</sub>O emissions*

442 The proportion (%) of N<sub>2</sub>O losses from [ANammonium nitrate](#), calculated by  
443 isotopic analyses, is represented in Fig. 4. The highest percentages of N<sub>2</sub>O fluxes  
444 derived from the synthetic fertilizer were observed one day after fertilization, ranging  
445 from 34% (V) to 67% (B). On average, almost 50% of N<sub>2</sub>O emissions in the first  
446 sampling event after N synthetic fertilization came from other sources (i.e. soil  
447 endogenous N, including N mineralized from the CCs). The mean percentage of N<sub>2</sub>O  
448 losses from synthetic fertilizer throughout all sampling dates was 2.5 times higher in B  
449 compared to V ( $P<0.05$ ) [and was positively correlated with DOC concentrations](#)  
450 [\( \$P<0.05\$ , n=12, r=0.71\)](#). There were no significant differences between V and F  
451 ( $P>0.05$ ).

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452

## 453 **4. Discussion**

454 *4.1 Role of CCs in N<sub>2</sub>O emissions: Period I*

455 Cover crop treatments (V and B) increased N<sub>2</sub>O losses compared to F, especially  
456 in the case of V (Table 1). These results are consistent with the meta-analysis of Basche  
457 et al. (2014), which showed that overall CCs increase N<sub>2</sub>O fluxes (compared to bare  
458 fallow), with highly significant increments in the case of legumes and a lower effect in  
459 the case of non-legume CCs. In the same experimental area, Sanz-Cobena et al. (2014)  
460 found that V was the only CC significantly affecting N<sub>2</sub>O emissions. The greatest  
461 differences between treatments were observed at the beginning (13-40 days after CCs  
462 sowing), and at the end of this period (229 days after CCs sowing) (Fig. 3a). On these  
463 dates, the mild soil temperatures and the relatively high moisture content were more  
464 suitable for soil biochemical processes, which may trigger N<sub>2</sub>O emissions (Fig. 1a, b)  
465 (Firestone and Davidson, 1989). Average topsoil NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> was significantly higher in V  
466 (Fig. 2b), which was the treatment that led to the highest N<sub>2</sub>O emissions. Legumes such  
467 as V are capable of biologically fixing atmospheric N<sub>2</sub>, thereby increasing soil NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>  
468 content with potential to be denitrified. Further, the mineralization of the most  
469 recalcitrant fraction of the previous V residue (which supplies nearly four times more N  
470 than the B residue, as indicated in section 3.1.2) together with high C-content sunflower  
471 residue could also explain higher NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> contents in V plots (Frimpong et al., 2011), and  
472 higher N<sub>2</sub>O losses from denitrification (Baggs et al., 2000). After CCs kill date, N  
473 release from decomposition of roots and nodules and faster mineralization of V residue  
474 compared to that of B (shown by NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> in soil in Fig. 2c) are the most plausible  
475 explanation for the N<sub>2</sub>O increases at the end of the intercrop period (Fig. 3a) (Rochette  
476 and Janzen, 2005; Wichern et al., 2008).

477 Some studies (e.g. Justes et al., 1999; Nemecek et al., 2008) have pointed out  
478 that N<sub>2</sub>O losses can be reduced with the use of CCs, due to the extraction of plant-

479 available N unused by previous cash crop. However, in our study lower N<sub>2</sub>O emissions  
480 were measured from F plots without CCs during the intercrop period. This may be a  
481 consequence of higher NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> leaching in F plots (Gabriel et al., 2012; Quemada et al.,  
482 2013), limiting the availability of the substrate for denitrification. Frequent rainfall  
483 during the intercrop period (Fig. 1a) and the absence of N uptake by CCs may have led  
484 to N losses through leaching, resulting in low concentrations of soil mineral N in F  
485 plots.

486 Nitrous oxide emissions were low during this period, but in the range of those  
487 reported by Sanz-Cobena et al. (2014) in the same experimental area. Total emissions  
488 during Period I represented 8, 10 and 21% of total cumulative emissions in F, B and V,  
489 respectively (Table 1). The absence of N fertilizer application to the soil combined with  
490 the low soil temperatures during winter – which were far from the optimum values for  
491 nitrification and denitrification (25-30 °C) processes (Ussiri and Lal, 2012) – may have  
492 caused these low N<sub>2</sub>O fluxes. The significant positive correlation between soil  
493 temperature and N<sub>2</sub>O fluxes during this period highlights the key role of this parameter  
494 as a driver of soil emissions (Schindlbacher et al., 2004; García-Marco et al., 2014).

495

#### 496 *4.2 Role of CCs in N<sub>2</sub>O emissions: Period II*

497 Isotopic analysis during Period II, in which ISFM was carried out, showed that a  
498 significant proportion of N<sub>2</sub>O emissions came from endogenous soil N or the  
499 mineralization of crop residues, especially after the first days following N fertilization  
500 (Fig. 4). In this sense, even though an interaction between crop residue and N fertilizer  
501 application has been previously described (e.g. in Abalos et al., 2013), the similar  
502 proportion of N<sub>2</sub>O losses coming from fertilizer in B and F (without residue) one day

503 after N fertilization revealed the importance of soil mineral N ~~harbored in~~ contained in  
504 the soil micropores ~~in for~~ the N<sub>2</sub>O bursts after the first irrigation events, with respect to  
505 the N released from CC residues.

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506 As we hypothesized, ~~although ISFM practices were adopted,~~ the different CCs  
507 played a key role in the N<sub>2</sub>O emissions during Period II. Barley plots had higher N<sub>2</sub>O  
508 emissions than fallow or V-residue plots (at the 10% significance level; Table 1).  
509 Further, a higher proportion of N<sub>2</sub>O emissions was derived from the fertilizer in B-  
510 residue than in V-residue plots (Fig. 4). These results are in agreement with those of  
511 Baggs et al. (2003), who reported a higher percentage of N<sub>2</sub>O derived from the <sup>15</sup>N-  
512 labeled fertilizer using a cereal (ryegrass) as surface mulching instead of a legume  
513 (bean), in a field trial with zero-tillage management. The differences between B and V  
514 in terms of cumulative N<sub>2</sub>O emissions and in the relative contribution of each source to  
515 these emissions (fertilizer- or soil-N) could be explained by: i) the higher C:N residue of  
516 B (20.7±0.7 while that of V was 11.1±0.1, according to Alonso-Ayuso et al. (2014))  
517 may have provided an energy source for denitrification (Sarkodie-Addo et al., 2003),  
518 ~~increasing favoring~~ the reduction of the NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> supplied by the synthetic fertilizer and  
519 enhancing N<sub>2</sub>O emissions, as supported by the positive correlation of DOC with the  
520 proportion of N<sub>2</sub>O coming from the synthetic fertilizer; ii) NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> concentrations, which  
521 tended to be higher in B during the maize cropping phase, could have led to incomplete  
522 denitrification and larger N<sub>2</sub>O/N<sub>2</sub> ratios (Yamulki and Jarvis, 2002); iii) the easily  
523 mineralizable V residue (with low C:N ratio) provided an additional N source for soil  
524 microorganisms, thus decreasing the relative amount of N<sub>2</sub>O derived from the synthetic  
525 fertilizer (Baggs et al., 2000; Shan and Yan, 2013); and iv) V plots were fertilized with  
526 a lower amount of immediately available N (i.e. ammonium nitrate ~~AN~~) than B plots,  
527 which could have resulted in better synchronization between N release and crop needs

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528 (Ussiri and Lal, 2012) in V plots. Supporting these findings, Bayer et al. (2015) recently  
529 concluded that partially supplying the maize N requirements with winter legume cover-  
530 crops can be considered a N<sub>2</sub>O mitigation strategy in subtropical agro-ecosystems.

531 The mineralization of B residues resulted in higher DOC contents for these plots  
532 compared to the F or V plots ( $P < 0.001$ ). This was observed in both Period I (as a  
533 consequence of soil C changes after the 8-year cover-cropping management) and Period  
534 II (due to the CC decomposition). Although in the present study the correlation between  
535 DOC and N<sub>2</sub>O emissions was not significant, positive correlations have been previously  
536 found in other low-C Mediterranean soils (e.g. Vallejo et al., 2006; López-Fernández et  
537 al., 2007). Some authors have suggested that residues with a high C:N ratio can induce  
538 microbial N immobilization (Frimpong and Baggs, 2010, Dendooven et al., 2012). In  
539 our experiment, a N<sub>2</sub>O peak was observed in B plots 20-25 days after fertilization (Fig.  
540 3b) after a remarkable increase of NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> content (Fig. 2d), which may be a result of a re-  
541 mineralization of previously immobilized N in these plots.

542 The positive correlation of N<sub>2</sub>O fluxes and soil NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> content and WFPS during  
543 the whole cycle further supports the importance of denitrification process for explaining  
544 N<sub>2</sub>O losses in this agro-ecosystem (Davidson et al., 1991; García-Marco et al., 2014).  
545 However, the strong positive correlation of N<sub>2</sub>O with NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> indicated that nitrification  
546 was also a major process leading to N<sub>2</sub>O fluxes, and showed that the continuous drying-  
547 wetting cycles during a summer irrigated maize crop in a semi-arid region can lead to  
548 favorable WFPS conditions for both nitrification and denitrification processes (Fig. 1c)  
549 (Bateman and Baggs, 2005). Emission Factors ranged from 0.2 to 0.6% of the synthetic  
550 N applied, which were lower than the IPCC default value of 1%. As explained above,  
551 ecological conditions during the intercrop period (rainfall and temperature) and maize  
552 | phase (temperature) could be considered as normal (based on the ~~the~~ 30-year average)

553 in Mediterranean areas. Aguilera et al. (2013) obtained a higher emission factor for high  
554 (1.01%) and low (0.66%) water-irrigation conditions in a meta-analysis of  
555 Mediterranean cropping systems. We hypothesized that management practices may  
556 have contributed to these low emissions, but other inherent factors such as soil pH  
557 should be also considered. Indeed, a higher N<sub>2</sub>O/N<sub>2</sub> ratio has been associated to acidic  
558 soils, so lower N<sub>2</sub>O emissions from denitrification could be expected in alkaline soils  
559 (Mørkved et al., 2007; Baggs et al., 2010).

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#### 561 *4.3 Methane and CO<sub>2</sub> emissions*

562 As is generally found in non-flooded arable soils, all treatments were net CH<sub>4</sub>  
563 sinks (Snyder et al., 2009). No significant differences were observed between treatments  
564 in any of the two periods (Table 1), which is similar to the pattern observed by Sanz-  
565 Cobena et al. (2014). Some authors (Dunfield and Knowles, 1995; Tate, 2015) have  
566 suggested an inhibitory effect of soil NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> on CH<sub>4</sub> uptake. Low NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> contents during  
567 almost all of the CCs and maize cycle may explain the apparent lack of this inhibitory  
568 effect (Banger et al., 2012). However, during the dates when the highest NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> contents  
569 were reached in V and B (225 days after CCs sowing) (Fig. 3a), CH<sub>4</sub> emissions were  
570 significantly higher for these plots (0.12 and 0.16 mg CH<sub>4</sub>-C m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup> for V and B,  
571 respectively) than for F (-0.01 mg CH<sub>4</sub>-C m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>) (data not shown). Similarly, the NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>  
572 peak observed two days after fertilization (Fig. 3b) decreased in the order V>F>B, the  
573 same trend as CH<sub>4</sub> emissions (which were 0.03, -0.04 and -0.63 mg CH<sub>4</sub>-C m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup> in V,  
574 F and B, respectively; data not shown). Contrary to Sanz-Cobena et al.(2014), the  
575 presence of CCs did not increase CO<sub>2</sub> fluxes (Table 1) during the whole Period I (which  
576 was longer than that considered by these authors), even though higher fluxes were

577 associated to B (but not V) with respect to F plots in the last phase of the intercrop,  
578 probably as a consequence of higher root biomass and plant respiration rates in the  
579 cereal (B) than in the legume (V). Differences from fall to early-winter were not  
580 significant, since low soil temperatures limited respiration activity~~Contrary to Sanz-~~  
581 ~~Cobena et al. (2014), the presence of CCs did not increase CO<sub>2</sub> fluxes (Table 1) during~~  
582 ~~Period I (which was longer than that considered by these authors), even though higher~~  
583 ~~fluxes tended to be associated to B plots, probably as a consequence of higher root~~  
584 ~~biomass and plant respiration rates in the cereal (B) than in the legume (V).~~ The  
585 decomposition of CC residues and the growth of maize rooting system resulted in an  
586 increase of CO<sub>2</sub> fluxes during Period II (Oorts et al., 2007; Chirinda et al., 2010),  
587 although differences between treatments were not observed.

588

#### 589 *4.4 Yield-scaled emissions, N surplus and general assessment*

590 Yield-scaled N<sub>2</sub>O emissions ranged from 1.74 to 7.15 g N<sub>2</sub>O-N kg aboveground  
591 N uptake<sup>-1</sup>, which is about 1-4 times lower than those reported in the meta-analysis of -  
592 van Groenigen et al. (2010) for a fertilizer N application rate of 150-200 kg ha<sup>-1</sup>. Mean  
593 N surpluses of V and F (Table 1) were in the recommended range (0-50 kg N ha<sup>-1</sup>) by  
594 van Groenigen et al. (2010), while the mean N surplus in B (55 kg N ha<sup>-1</sup>) was also  
595 close to optimal. In spite of higher N<sub>2</sub>O emissions in V during Period I (which  
596 accounted for a low proportion of total cumulative N<sub>2</sub>O losses during the experiment),  
597 these plots did not emit greater amounts of N<sub>2</sub>O per kg of N taken up by the maize  
598 plants, and even tended to decrease yield-scaled N<sub>2</sub>O emissions~~YSNE~~ and N surplus  
599 (Table 1).

600 Adjusting fertilizer N rate to soil endogenous N led to lower N<sub>2</sub>O fluxes than  
601 previous experiments where conventional N rates were applied (e.g. ~~Sanz-Cobena et al.,~~  
602 ~~2012~~; Adviento-Borbe et al., 2007; [Hoben et al., 2011](#); [Sanz-Cobena et al., 2012](#); [Li et](#)  
603 [al., 2015](#)), in agreement with the study of Migliorati et al. (2014). Moreover, CO<sub>2</sub>  
604 equivalent emissions associated to manufacturing and transport of N synthetic fertilizers  
605 (Lal, 2004) can be reduced when low synthetic N input strategies, such as ISMF, are  
606 employed. Our results highlight the critical importance of the cash crop period on total  
607 N<sub>2</sub>O emissions, and demonstrate that the use of either non-legume and –particularly–  
608 legume CCs combined with ISFM may provide an optimum balance between GHG  
609 emissions from crop production and agronomic efficiency (i.e. lowering synthetic N  
610 requirements for a subsequent cash crop, and leading to similar YSNE as a fallow).

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611 The use of CCs has environmental implications beyond effects on direct soil  
612 N<sub>2</sub>O emissions. For instance, CCs can mitigate indirect N<sub>2</sub>O losses (from NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>  
613 leaching). In the study of Gabriel et al. (2012), conducted in the same experimental area,  
614 NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> leaching was reduced (on average) by 30% and 59% in V and B, respectively.  
615 Considering an emission factor of 0.075 from N leached (De Klein et al., 2006), indirect  
616 N<sub>2</sub>O losses from leaching could be mitigated by 0.23±0.16 and 0.45±0.17 kg N ha<sup>-1</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>  
617 if V and B are used as CCs, respectively. Furthermore, the recent meta-analysis of  
618 Poeplau and Don (2015) revealed a C sequestration potential of 0.32±0.08 Mg C ha<sup>-1</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>  
619 with the introduction of CCs. These environmental factors together with CO<sub>2</sub>  
620 emissions associated to CCs sowing and killing, should be assessed in future studies in  
621 order to confirm the potential of CCs for increasing both the agronomic and  
622 environmental efficiency of irrigated cropping areas.

623

624 **Conclusions**

625 Our study confirmed that the presence of CCs (particularly V) during the  
626 intercrop period increased N<sub>2</sub>O losses, but the contribution of this phase to cumulative  
627 N<sub>2</sub>O emissions considering the whole cropping cycle (intercrop-cash crop) was low (8-  
628 21%). The high influence of the maize crop period over total N<sub>2</sub>O losses was not only  
629 due to N synthetic fertilization, but also to CC residue mineralization and especially  
630 endogenous soil N. The type of CC residue determined the N synthetic rate in a ISFM  
631 system and affected the percentage of N<sub>2</sub>O losses coming from N fertilizer/soil N as  
632 well as the pattern of N<sub>2</sub>O losses during the maize phase (through changes in soil NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>,  
633 NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> and DOC concentrations). By employing ISFM, similar N<sub>2</sub>O emissions were  
634 measured from CCs and F treatments at the end of the whole cropping period, resulting  
635 in low yield-scaled N<sub>2</sub>O emissionsYSNE (3-6 g N<sub>2</sub>O-N kg aboveground N uptake<sup>-1</sup>) and  
636 N surplus (31 to 56 kg N ha<sup>-1</sup>). Replacing winter F by CCs did not affect significantly  
637 CH<sub>4</sub> uptake or respiration rates neither during intercrop or maize cropping periods. Our  
638 results highlight the critical importance of the cash crop period on total N<sub>2</sub>O emissions,  
639 and demonstrate that the use of ~~either legume or non-legume~~non-legume and –  
640 particularly- legume CCs combined with ISFM ~~may~~ could be considered as an efficient  
641 practice from both environmental and agronomic points of view, leading to similar N<sub>2</sub>O  
642 losses per kilogram of aboveground N uptake as bare fallow. ~~provide an optimum~~  
643 balance between GHG emissions from crop production and agronomic efficiency.

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644

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653

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883 | **Table 1** Total cumulative N<sub>2</sub>O-N, CH<sub>4</sub>-C and CO<sub>2</sub>-C fluxes, yield-scaled N<sub>2</sub>O emissions (YSNE) and N surplus in the three cover crop treatments (fallow, F,  
884 | vetch, V, and barley, B) at the end of both cropping periods. *P* value was calculated with Student's *t*-test and d.f.=9. (\*) and S.E. denote significant at *P*<0.05  
885 | and the standard error of the mean, respectively.

886 |

Treatment		N <sub>2</sub> O kg N <sub>2</sub> O-N ha <sup>-1</sup>	CH <sub>4</sub> kg CH <sub>4</sub> -C ha <sup>-1</sup>	CO <sub>2</sub> kg CO <sub>2</sub> -C ha <sup>-1</sup>	Surplus kg N ha <sup>-1</sup>	Yield-scaled N <sub>2</sub> O emissions YSNE g N <sub>2</sub> O-N kg aboveground N uptake <sup>-1</sup>	
<b>End of Period I</b>	F	0.05	-0.30	443.02			
	V	0.13	-0.28	463.01			
	B	0.08	-0.24	582.13			
	S.E.	0.03	0.07	46.33			
	F versus CCs	Estimate	-11.48	-11.45	-134.37		
		t-test	-2.5	-0.61	-1.00		
		<b>P value</b>	<b>0.03 (*)</b>	<b>0.56</b>	<b>0.34</b>		
	V versus B	Estimate	5.29	-6.23	-127.50		
		t-test	1.99	-0.57	-1.64		
		<b>P value</b>	<b>0.08</b>	<b>0.58</b>	<b>0.14</b>		
<b>End of Period II</b>	F	0.57	-0.46	2595.07	31.47	4.21	
	V	0.48	-0.33	2778.84	13.72	3.06	
	B	0.74	-0.35	2372.07	55.94	5.64	
	S.E.	0.10	0.08	177.35	15.30	0.85	
	F versus CCs	Estimate	-7.46	-23.69	83.36	-3.16	-0.12
		t-test	-0.30	-1.25	0.19	-0.08	-0.14
		<b>P value</b>	<b>0.77</b>	<b>0.24</b>	<b>0.86</b>	<b>0.94</b>	<b>0.89</b>
	V versus B	Estimate	-26.59	2.08	417.8	-38.67	-2.59
		t-test	-1.90	0.19	1.62	-1.79	-2.16
		<b>P value</b>	<b>0.09</b>	<b>0.85</b>	<b>0.14</b>	<b>0.11</b>	<b>0.06</b>

887 **Figure captions:**

888 **Figure 1.** Daily mean soil temperature (°C) rainfall and irrigation (mm) (**a**) and soil  
889 WFPS (%) in the three cover crop (CC) treatments (fallow, F, vetch, V, and barley, B)  
890 during Period I (**b**) and II (**c**). Vertical lines indicate standard errors.

891 **Figure 2a, b**  $\text{NH}_4^+$ -N; **c, d**  $\text{NO}_3^-$ -N; and **e, f** DOC concentrations in the 0–10 cm soil  
892 layer for the three cover crop (CC) treatments (fallow, F, vetch, V, and barley, B) during  
893 both cropping periods. The black arrows indicate the time of spraying glyphosate over  
894 the cover crops. The dotted arrows indicate the time of maize sowing. Vertical lines  
895 indicate standard errors.

896 **Figure 3.**  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  emissions for the three cover crop (CC) treatments (fallow, F, vetch, V,  
897 and barley, B) during Period I (**a**) and II (**b**). The black arrows indicate the time of  
898 spraying glyphosate over the cover crops. The dotted arrows indicate the time of maize  
899 sowing. Vertical lines indicate standard errors.

900 **Figure 4.** Proportion of  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  losses (%) coming from N synthetic fertilizer during  
901 Period II, for the three cover crop treatments (fallow, F, vetch, V, and barley, B).  
902 Vertical lines indicate standard errors. “NS” and \* denote not significant and significant  
903 at  $P < 0.05$ , respectively.

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