



1 **Integrated soil fertility management drives the effect of cover crops on GHG**  
2 **emissions in an irrigated field**

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9 **Abstract**

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



25 of N<sub>2</sub>O losses from the synthetic fertilizer in these plots, when compared to V. No  
26 significant differences were observed in CH<sub>4</sub> and CO<sub>2</sub> fluxes at the end of the  
27 experiment. This study shows that the use of both legume and non-legume CCs  
28 combined with ISFM could provide, in addition to the advantages reported in previous  
29 studies, an opportunity to maximize agronomic efficiency (lowering synthetic N  
30 requirements for the subsequent cash crop) without increasing cumulative or yield-  
31 scaled N<sub>2</sub>O losses.

## 32 **1. Introduction**

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

45 From an environmental point of view, N fertilization is closely related with the  
46 production and emission of nitrous oxide (N<sub>2</sub>O) (Davidson and Kanter, 2014), a  
47 greenhouse gas (GHG) with a molecular global warming potential c. 300 times that of  
48 carbon dioxide (CO<sub>2</sub>) (IPCC, 2007). Nitrous oxide released from agricultural soils is



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

57 To date, the available information linking GHG emission and maize-winter CCs  
58 rotation in the scientific literature is scarce. The most important knowledge gaps include  
59 effects of plant species selection and CCs residue management (i.e. retention,  
60 incorporation or removal) (Basche et al., 2014). Cover crop species may affect N<sub>2</sub>O  
61 emissions in contrasting ways, by influencing abiotic and biotic soil factors. These  
62 factors include mineral N availability in soil and the availability of carbon (C) sources  
63 for the denitrifier bacterial communities, soil pH, soil structure and microbial  
64 community composition (Abalos et al., 2014). For example, non-legume CCs such as  
65 winter cereals could contribute to a reduction of N<sub>2</sub>O emissions due to their deep roots,  
66 which allow them to extract soil N more efficiently than legumes (Kallenbach et al.,  
67 2010). Conversely, the higher C:N ratio of their residues as compared to those of  
68 legumes may provide energy for denitrifiers, thereby leading to higher N<sub>2</sub>O losses in the  
69 presence of mineral N from fertilizers (Sarkodie-Addo et al., 2003). Moreover, winter  
70 CCs can also abate indirect gaseous N losses through the reduction of leaching and  
71 subsequent emissions from water resources (Feyereisen et al., 2006). Thus, the  
72 estimated N<sub>2</sub>O mitigation potential for winter CCs ranges from 0.2 to 1.1 kg N<sub>2</sub>O ha<sup>-1</sup>  
73 yr<sup>-1</sup> according to Ussiri and Lal (2012).



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

89           Only one study has investigated the effect of CCs on N<sub>2</sub>O emissions in  
90 Mediterranean cropping systems (Sanz-Cobena et al., 2014). These authors found an  
91 effect of CCs species on N<sub>2</sub>O emissions during the intercrop period. After 4 years of CC  
92 (vetch, barley or rape)-maize rotation, vetch was the only CC species that significantly  
93 enhanced N<sub>2</sub>O losses compared to fallow, mainly due to its capacity to fix atmospheric  
94 N<sub>2</sub> and because of higher N surplus from the previous cropping phases in these plots. In  
95 this study a conventional fertilization (same N synthetic rate for all treatments) was  
96 applied during the maize phase; how ISFM practices may affect these findings remains  
97 unknown. Moreover, the relative contribution of mineral N fertilizer, CC residues  
98 and/or soil mineral N to N<sub>2</sub>O losses during the cash crop has not been assessed yet. In



99 this sense, stable isotope analysis (i.e.  $^{15}\text{N}$ ) has emerged as a way to identify the source  
100 and the dominant processes involved in  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  production (Arah, 1997). A comprehensive  
101 understanding of the  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  biochemical production pathways and nutrient sources is  
102 crucial for the development of effective mitigation strategies.

103 The objective of this study was to evaluate the effect of two different CC species  
104 (barley and vetch) and fallow on GHG emissions during the CC period and during the  
105 following maize cash crop period in an ISFM system. An additional objective was to  
106 study the contribution of the synthetic fertilizer and other N sources to  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  emissions  
107 using  $^{15}\text{N}$  labelled fertilizer. We hypothesized that: 1) the presence of CCs instead of  
108 fallow would affect  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  losses, leading to higher emissions in the case of the legume  
109 CC (vetch) in accordance with the studies of Basche et al. (2014) and Sanz-Cobena et  
110 al. (2014); and 2) in spite of the ISFM during the maize period, which theoretically  
111 would lead to similar soil N availability for all plots, the distinct composition of the CC  
112 residues would affect  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  emissions. In order to test these hypotheses, a field  
113 experiment was carried out using the same management system for 8 years, measuring  
114 GHGs during the 8<sup>th</sup> year. To gain a better understanding of the effect of the  
115 management practices tested on the overall GHG budget of a cropping system,  $\text{CH}_4$ ,  
116  $\text{CO}_2$  and yield-scaled  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  emissions were also analyzed during the experimental  
117 period. The relative contribution of each N source (synthetic fertilizer or soil  
118 endogenous N, including N mineralized from the CCs) to  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  emissions was also  
119 evaluated by  $^{15}\text{N}$ -labelled ammonium nitrate (AN) in a parallel experiment.

120

## 121 **2. Materials and methods**

### 122 *2.1. Site characteristics*



123           The study was conducted at “La Chimenea” field station (40°03'N, 03°31'W,  
124 550 m a.s.l.), located in the central Tajo river basin near Aranjuez (Madrid, Spain),  
125 where an experiment involving cover cropping systems and conservation tillage has  
126 been carried out since 2006. Soil at the field site is a silty clay loam (*Typic Calcixerept*;  
127 Soil Survey Staff, 2014). Some of the physico-chemical properties of the top 0–10 cm  
128 soil layer, as measured by conventional methods, were: pH<sub>H2O</sub>, 8.16; total organic C,  
129 19.0 g kg<sup>-1</sup>; CaCO<sub>3</sub>, 198 g kg<sup>-1</sup>; clay, 25%; silt, 49% and sand, 26%. Bulk density of  
130 the topsoil layer determined in intact core samples (Grossman and Reinsch, 2002) was  
131 1.46 g cm<sup>-3</sup>. Average ammonium (NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>) content at the beginning of the experiment  
132 was 0.42±0.2 mg N kg soil<sup>-1</sup> (without differences between treatments). Nitrate  
133 concentrations were 1.5±0.2 mg N kg soil<sup>-1</sup> in fallow and barley and 0.9±0.1 mg N kg  
134 soil<sup>-1</sup> in vetch. Initial dissolved organic C (DOC) contents were 56.0±7 mg C kg soil<sup>-1</sup> in  
135 vetch and fallow and 68.8±5 mg C kg soil<sup>-1</sup> in barley. The area has a Mediterranean  
136 semiarid climate, with a mean annual air temperature of 14 °C. The coldest month is  
137 January with a mean temperature of 6 °C, and the hottest month is August with a mean  
138 temperature of 24 °C. During the last 30 years, the mean annual precipitation has been  
139 approximately 350 mm (17 mm from July to August and 131 mm from September to  
140 November).

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

145

146           2.2 *Experimental design and agronomic management*



147 Twelve plots (12m × 12m) were randomly distributed in four replications of  
148 three cover cropping treatments, including a cereal and a legume: 1) barley (B)  
149 (*Hordeum vulgare* L., cv. Vanessa), 2) vetch (V) (*Vicia sativa* L., cv. Vereda), and 3)  
150 traditional winter fallow (F). Cover crop seeds were broadcast by hand over the stubble  
151 of the previous crop and covered with a shallow cultivator (5 cm depth) on October 10<sup>th</sup>  
152 2013, at a rate of 180 and 150 kg ha<sup>-1</sup> for B and V, respectively. The cover cropping  
153 phase finished on March 14<sup>th</sup> 2014, with an application of glyphosate (N-  
154 phosphonomethyl glycine) at a rate of 0.7 kg a.e. ha<sup>-1</sup>. All the CC residues were left on  
155 top of the soil. Thereafter, a new set of N fertilizer treatments was set up for the maize  
156 cash crop phase. Maize (*Zea mays* L., Pioneer P1574, FAO Class 700) was direct drilled  
157 on April 7<sup>th</sup> 2014 in all plots, resulting in a plant population density of 7.5 plants m<sup>-2</sup>;  
158 harvesting took place on September 25<sup>th</sup> 2014. The fertilizer treatments consisted of AN  
159 applied on 2<sup>nd</sup> June at three rates: 170, 140 and 190 kg N ha<sup>-1</sup> in F, V and B plots,  
160 respectively, according to ISFM practices. For the calculation of each N rate, the N  
161 available in the soil (which was calculated following soil analysis as described below),  
162 the expected N uptake by maize crop, and the estimated N mineralized from V and B  
163 residues were taken into account, assuming that crop requirements were 236.3 kg N ha<sup>-1</sup>  
164 (Quemada et al., 2014). Estimated NUE of maize plants for calculating N application  
165 rate was 70% according to the NUE obtained during the previous years in the same  
166 experimental area. Each plot received P as triple superphosphate (45% P<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>,  
167 Fertiberia<sup>®</sup>, Madrid, Spain) at a rate of 69 kg P<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> ha<sup>-1</sup>, and K as potassium chloride  
168 (60% K<sub>2</sub>O, Fertiberia<sup>®</sup>, Madrid, Spain), at a rate of 120 kg K<sub>2</sub>O ha<sup>-1</sup> just before sowing  
169 maize. All N, P and K fertilizers were broadcast by hand, and immediately after N  
170 fertilization the field was irrigated to prevent ammonia volatilization. The main crop



171 previous to sowing CCs was sunflower (*Helianthus annuus* L., var. Sambro). Neither  
172 the sunflower nor the CCs were fertilized.

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

182 Sprinkler irrigation was applied to the maize crop in a total amount of 688.5 mm  
183 in 31 irrigation events. Sprinklers were installed in a 12m x 12m framework. The water  
184 doses to be applied were estimated from the crop evapotranspiration (ET<sub>c</sub>) of the  
185 previous week (net water requirements). This was calculated daily as ET<sub>c</sub> = K<sub>c</sub> × ET<sub>o</sub>,  
186 where ET<sub>o</sub> is reference evapotranspiration calculated by the FAO Penman–Monteith  
187 method (Allen et al., 1998) using data from the meteorological station located in the  
188 experimental field. The crop coefficient (K<sub>c</sub>) was obtained using the relationship for  
189 maize in semiarid conditions (Martínez-Cob, 2008).

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

193

194 2.3 GHG emissions sampling and analyzing





195 Fluxes of N<sub>2</sub>O, CH<sub>4</sub> and CO<sub>2</sub> were measured from October 2013 to October  
196 2014 using opaque manual circular static chambers as described in detail by Abalos et  
197 al. (2013). One chamber (diameter 35.6 cm, height 19.3 cm) was located in each  
198 experimental plot. The chambers were hermetically closed (for 1 h) by fitting them into  
199 stainless steel rings, which were inserted at the beginning of the study into the soil to a  
200 depth of 5 cm to minimize the lateral diffusion of gases and to avoid the soil disturbance  
201 associated with the insertion of the chambers in the soil. The rings were only removed  
202 during management events. Each chamber had a rubber sealing tape to guarantee an  
203 airtight seal between the chamber and the ring. A rubber stopper with a 3-way stopcock  
204 was placed in the wall of each chamber to take gas samples. Greenhouse gas  
205 measurements were always made with barley/vetch plants inside the chamber. During  
206 the maize period, gas chambers were set up between maize rows.

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

213 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  
214 to test the linearity of gas accumulation in each chamber. Gas samples (100 mL) were  
215 removed from the headspace of each chamber by syringe and transferred to 20 mL gas  
216 vials sealed with a gas-tight neoprene septum. The vials were previously flushed in the  
217 field using 80 mL of the gas sample. Samples were analyzed by gas chromatography  
218 using a HP-6890 gas chromatograph equipped with a headspace autoanalyzer (HT3),  
219 both from Agilent Technologies (Barcelona, Spain). HP Plot-Q capillary columns



220 transported gas samples to a  $^{63}\text{Ni}$  electron-capture detector (Micro-ECD) to analyze  
221  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  concentrations and to a flame ionization detector (FID) connected to a methanizer  
222 to measure  $\text{CH}_4$  and  $\text{CO}_2$  (previously reduced to  $\text{CH}_4$ ). The temperatures of the injector,  
223 oven and detector were 50, 50 and  $350^\circ\text{C}$ , respectively. The accuracy of the gas  
224 chromatographic data was 1% or better. Two gas standards comprising a mixture of  
225 gases (high standard with  $1500 \pm 7.50$  ppm  $\text{CO}_2$ ,  $10 \pm 0.25$  ppm  $\text{CH}_4$  and  $2 \pm 0.05$  ppm  
226  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  and low standard with  $200 \pm 1.00$  ppm  $\text{CO}_2$ ,  $2 \pm 0.10$  ppm  $\text{CH}_4$  and  $200 \pm 6.00$  ppb  
227  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$ ) were provided by Carburros Metálicos S.A. and Air Products SA/NV, respectively,  
228 and used to determine a standard curve for each gas. The response of the GC was linear  
229 within 200–1500 ppm for  $\text{CO}_2$  and 2–10 ppm  $\text{CH}_4$  and quadratic within 200–2000 ppb  
230 for  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$ .

231 The increases in  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$ ,  $\text{CH}_4$  and  $\text{CO}_2$  concentrations within the chamber  
232 headspace were generally (80% of cases) linear ( $R^2 > 0.90$ ) during the sampling period  
233 (1h). Therefore, emission rates of fluxes were estimated as the slope of the linear  
234 regression between concentration and time (after corrections for temperature) and from  
235 the ratio between chamber volume and soil surface area (MacKenzie et al., 1998).  
236 Cumulative  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$ ,  $\text{CH}_4$  and  $\text{CO}_2$ , emissions per plot during the sampling period were  
237 estimated by linear interpolations between sampling dates, multiplying the mean flux of  
238 two successive determinations by the length of the period between sampling and adding  
239 that amount to the previous cumulative total (Sanz-Cobena et al., 2014). The  
240 measurement of  $\text{CO}_2$  emissions from soil including plants in opaque chambers only  
241 includes ecosystem respiration but not photosynthesis (Meijide et al., 2010).

242

243 *2.4  $^{15}\text{N}$  Isotope analysis*



244 Gas samples from the subplots receiving double-labelled AN fertilizer were  
 245 taken after 60 min static chamber closure 1, 4, 9, 11, 15, 18, 22 and 25 days after  
 246 fertilizer application. Stable  $^{15}\text{N}$  isotope analysis of  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  contained in the gas samples  
 247 was carried out on a trace gas analyzer (using cryo-trapping and cryo-focusing) coupled  
 248 to a 20/22 isotope ratio mass spectrometer (both from SerCon Ltd., Crewe, UK), at  
 249 Rothamsted Research North Wyke. Solutions of 6.6 and 2.9 atom% ammonium  
 250 sulphate  $[(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{SO}_4]$  were prepared and used to generate 6.6 and 2.9 atom%  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$   
 251 (Laughlin et al., 1997) which were used as reference and quality control standards.  
 252 During the experiment, the mean natural abundance of atmospheric  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  (0.369 atom%  
 253  $^{15}\text{N}$ ) was subtracted from measured enriched samples to calculate the atom percent  
 254 excess. To obtain the  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  flux that was derived from fertilizer ( $N_2O - N_{diff}$ ), the Eq. (1)  
 255 was used (Loick et al., 2016):

$$256 \quad N_2O - N_{diff} = N_2O - N \times \left( \frac{N_2O - \text{atom percent excess}_{sample}}{\text{atom percent excess}_{fertilizer}} \right) \quad (1)$$

257 in which ' $N_2O - N$ ' is the  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  emission from soil, ' $N_2O - ape_{sample}$ ' is the  $^{15}\text{N}$   
 258 atom% excess of emitted  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  (being equal to ' $^{15}\text{N}$  atom% of measured samples' minus  
 259 0.369 atom% where 0.369 atom% is the mean natural  $^{15}\text{N}$  abundance of '*background*  
 260  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$ ' obtained in our experiment), and ' $ape_{fertilizer}$ ' is the  $^{15}\text{N}$  atom% excess of the  
 261 applied fertilizer (Loick et al., 2016).

262

### 263 *2.5 Soil and crop analyses*

264 In order to relate gas emissions to soil properties, soil samples were collected at  
 265 0-10 cm depth during the growing season on almost all gas-sampling occasions,  
 266 particularly after each fertilization event. Three soil cores (2.5 cm diameter and 15 cm



267 length) were randomly sampled close to the ring in each plot, and then mixed and  
268 homogenized in the laboratory. Soil  $\text{NH}_4^+$  and  $\text{NO}_3^-$  concentrations were analyzed using  
269 8 g of soil extracted with 50 mL of KCl (1 M), and measured by automated colorimetric  
270 determination using a flow injection analyzer (FIAS 400 Perkin Elmer) provided with a  
271 UV-V spectrophotometer detector. Soil (DOC) was determined by extracting 8 g of  
272 homogeneously mixed soil with 50 mL of deionized water, and analyzed with a total  
273 organic C analyser (multi N/C 3100 Analytik Jena) equipped with an IR detector. The  
274 Water-Filled Pore Space (WFPS) was calculated by dividing the volumetric water  
275 content by total soil porosity. Total soil porosity was calculated according to the  
276 relationship: soil porosity =  $(1 - \text{soil bulk density}/2.65)$ , assuming a particle density of  
277  $2.65 \text{ g cm}^{-3}$  (Danielson and Sutherland, 1986). Gravimetric water content was  
278 determined by oven-drying soil samples at  $105^\circ\text{C}$  with a MA30 Sartorius®.

279 Four  $0.5\text{m} \times 0.5\text{m}$  squares were randomly harvested from each plot, before  
280 killing the CC by applying glyphosate. Aerial biomass was cut by hand at soil level,  
281 dried, weighed and ground. A subsample was taken for determination of total N content.  
282 From these samples was determined CC biomass and N contribution to the subsequent  
283 maize.

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

289

290 *2.6 Calculations and statistical analysis*



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

296 Statistical analyses were carried out with Statgraphics Plus 5.1. Analyses of  
297 variance were performed for all variables over the experiment (except climatic ones),  
298 for both periods indicated in section 2.2. Data distribution normality and variance  
299 uniformity were previously assessed by Shapiro-Wilk test and Levene's statistic,  
300 respectively, and transformed (log<sub>10</sub>, root-square, arcsin or inverse) before analysis  
301 when necessary. Means of soil parameters were separated by Tukey's honest  
302 significance test at  $P < 0.05$ , while cumulative GHG emissions, YSNE and N surplus  
303 were compared by the orthogonal contrasts method at  $P < 0.05$ . For non-normally  
304 distributed data, the Kruskal–Wallis test was used on non-transformed data to evaluate  
305 differences at  $P < 0.05$ . Linear correlations were carried out to determine relationships  
306 between gas fluxes and WFPS, soil temperature, DOC, NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> and NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>. These analyses  
307 were performed using the mean/cumulative data of the replicates of the CC treatments  
308 (n=12), and also for all the dates when soil and GHG were sampled, for Period I (n=16),  
309 Period II (n=11) and the whole experimental period (n=27).

310

### 311 **3. Results**

#### 312 *3.1 Cover crop (Period I)*

##### 313 *3.1.1 Environmental conditions and WFPS*



314 Mean soil temperature during the intercrop period was 8.8°C, ranging from 1.8  
315 (December) to 15.5°C (April) (Fig. 1a), which were typical values in the experimental  
316 area. Mean soil temperature during maize cropping period was 24.6°C, which was also  
317 a standard value for this region. The accumulated rainfall during this period was 215  
318 mm, whereas the 30-year mean is 253 mm. Water-Filled Pore Space ranged from 40 to  
319 81% (Fig. 1b). No significant differences were observed for WFPS mean values  
320 between the different treatments ( $P>0.05$ ).

321

### 322 *3.1.2 Mineral N and DOC and cover crop residues*

323 Topsoil  $\text{NH}_4^+$  content was below 5 mg N kg soil<sup>-1</sup> almost of the time in Period I,  
324 although a peak was observed after maize sowing (55 days after CCs kill date) (Fig. 2a),  
325 with the highest values reached in B (50 mg N kg soil<sup>-1</sup>). Mean  $\text{NH}_4^+$  content was  
326 significantly higher in B than in F ( $P<0.05$ ). Nitrate content increased after CCs killing,  
327 reaching values above 25 mg N kg soil<sup>-1</sup> in V treatment (Fig. 2c). Mean  $\text{NO}_3^-$  content  
328 during Period I was significantly higher in the V plots than in the B and F plots  
329 ( $P<0.001$ ). Dissolved Organic C ranged from 60 to 130 mg C kg soil<sup>-1</sup> (Fig. 2e).  
330 Average topsoil DOC content was significantly higher in B than in V and F ( $P<0.05$ ).  
331 The total amount of cover crop biomass left on the ground was 540.5±26.5 and  
332 1106.7±93.6 kg DM ha<sup>-1</sup> in B and V, respectively. Accordingly, the total N content of  
333 these residues was 11.0±0.6 and 41.3±4.5 kg N ha<sup>-1</sup> in B and V, respectively.

334

### 335 *3.1.3 GHG fluxes*



336 Nitrous oxide fluxes ranged from  $-0.06$  to  $0.22 \text{ mg N m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$  (Fig. 3a) in Period  
337 I. The soil acted as a sink for  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  at some sampling dates, especially for the F plots.  
338 Cumulative fluxes at the end of Period I were significantly greater in CC treatments  
339 compared to F (1.6 and 2.6 higher in B and V, respectively) ( $P < 0.05$ ; Table 1). Net  $\text{CH}_4$   
340 uptake was observed in all intercrop treatments, and daily fluxes ranged from  $-0.60$  to  
341  $0.25 \text{ mg C m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$  (data not shown). No significant differences were observed between  
342 treatments in cumulative  $\text{CH}_4$  fluxes at the end of Period I ( $P > 0.05$ ; Table 1). Carbon  
343 dioxide fluxes (data not shown) remained below  $1 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$  during the intercrop  
344 period. Greatest fluxes were observed in B although differences in cumulative fluxes  
345 were not significant ( $P > 0.05$ ; Table 1). Nitrous oxide emissions were significantly  
346 correlated to  $\text{CO}_2$  fluxes ( $P < 0.01$ ,  $n=17$ ,  $r=0.69$ ) and soil temperature ( $P < 0.05$ ,  $n=17$ ,  
347  $r=0.55$ ).

348

### 349 *3.2 Maize crop (Period II)*

#### 350 *3.2.1 Environmental conditions and WFPS*

351 Mean soil temperature ranged from  $19.6$  (reached in September) to  $32.3^\circ\text{C}$   
352 (reached in August) with a mean value of  $27.9^\circ\text{C}$  (Fig. 1a). Total rainfall during the  
353 maize crop period was  $57 \text{ mm}$ . Water-Filled Pore Space ranged from  $19$  to  $84\%$  (Fig.  
354 1c). Higher mean WFPS values ( $P < 0.01$ ) were measured in B during some sampling  
355 dates.

356

#### 357 *3.2.2 Mineral N and DOC*



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

366

### 367 3.2.3 GHG fluxes, Yield-Scaled $\text{N}_2\text{O}$ emissions and N surplus

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

377 As in the previous period, all treatments were  $\text{CH}_4$  sinks, without significant  
378 differences between treatments ( $P > 0.05$ ; Table 1). Respiration rates ranged from 0.15 to  
379  $3.0 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$ ; no significant differences ( $P > 0.05$ ; Table 1) were observed among the  
380  $\text{CO}_2$  values for the different treatments. Yield-scaled  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  emissions and N surplus are





381 shown in Table 1. No significant differences were observed between treatments  
382 although these values were generally lower in V than in B ( $0.05 < P < 0.15$ ).

383           Considering the whole cropping period (Period I and Period II),  $N_2O$  fluxes  
384 significantly correlated with WFPS ( $P < 0.05$ ,  $n=12$ ,  $r=0.61$ ),  $NH_4^+$  ( $P < 0.05$ ,  $n=27$ ,  
385  $r=0.84$ ) and  $NO_3^-$  ( $P < 0.05$ ,  $n=27$ ,  $r=0.50$ ).

386

### 387           3.2.4 Fertilizer-derived $N_2O$ emissions

388           The proportion (%) of  $N_2O$  losses from AN, calculated by isotopic analyses, is  
389 represented in Fig. 4. The highest percentages of  $N_2O$  fluxes derived from the synthetic  
390 fertilizer were observed one day after fertilization, ranging from 34% (V) to 67% (B).  
391 On average, almost 50% of  $N_2O$  emissions in the first sampling event after N synthetic  
392 fertilization came from other sources (i.e. soil endogenous N, including N mineralized  
393 from the CCs). The mean percentage of  $N_2O$  losses from synthetic fertilizer throughout  
394 all sampling dates was 2.5 times higher in B compared to V ( $P < 0.05$ ). There were no  
395 significant differences between V and F ( $P > 0.05$ ).

396

## 397           4. Discussion

### 398           4.1 Role of CCs in $N_2O$ emissions: Period I

399           Cover crop treatments (V and B) increased  $N_2O$  losses compared to F, especially  
400 in the case of V (Table 1). These results are consistent with the meta-analysis of Basche  
401 et al. (2014), which showed that overall CCs increase  $N_2O$  fluxes (compared to bare  
402 fallow), with highly significant increments in the case of legumes and a lower effect in



403 the case of non-legume CCs. In the same experimental area, Sanz-Cobena et al. (2014)  
404 found that V was the only CC significantly affecting N<sub>2</sub>O emissions. The greatest  
405 differences between treatments were observed at the beginning (13-40 days after CCs  
406 sowing), and at the end of this period (229 days after CCs sowing) (Fig. 3a). On these  
407 dates, the mild soil temperatures and the relatively high moisture content were more  
408 suitable for soil biochemical processes, which may trigger N<sub>2</sub>O emissions (Fig. 1a, b)  
409 (Firestone and Davidson, 1989). Average topsoil NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> was significantly higher in V  
410 (Fig. 2b), which was the treatment that led to the highest N<sub>2</sub>O emissions. Legumes such  
411 as V are capable of biologically fixing atmospheric N<sub>2</sub>, thereby increasing soil NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>  
412 content with potential to be denitrified. Further, the mineralization of the most  
413 recalcitrant fraction of the previous V residue (which supplies nearly four times more N  
414 than the B residue, as indicated in section 3.1.2) together with high C-content sunflower  
415 residue could also explain higher NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> contents in V plots (Frimpong et al., 2011), and  
416 higher N<sub>2</sub>O losses from denitrification (Baggs et al., 2000). After CCs kill date, N  
417 release from decomposition of roots and nodules and faster mineralization of V residue  
418 compared to that of B (shown by NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> in soil in Fig. 2c) are the most plausible  
419 explanation for the N<sub>2</sub>O increases at the end of the intercrop period (Fig. 3a) (Rochette  
420 and Janzen, 2005; Wichern et al., 2008).

421 Some studies (e.g. Justes et al., 1999; Nemecek et al., 2008) have pointed out  
422 that N<sub>2</sub>O losses can be reduced with the use of CCs, due to the extraction of plant-  
423 available N unused by previous cash crop. However, in our study lower N<sub>2</sub>O emissions  
424 were measured from F plots without CCs during the intercrop period. This may be a  
425 consequence of higher NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> leaching in F plots (Gabriel et al., 2012; Quemada et al.,  
426 2013), limiting the availability of the substrate for denitrification. Frequent rainfall  
427 during the intercrop period (Fig. 1a) and the absence of N uptake by CCs may have led



428 to N losses through leaching, resulting in low concentrations of soil mineral N in F  
429 plots.

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

439

#### 440 *4.2 Role of CCs in N<sub>2</sub>O emissions: Period II*

441 Isotopic analysis during Period II, in which ISFM was carried out, showed that a  
442 significant proportion of N<sub>2</sub>O emissions came from endogenous soil N or the  
443 mineralization of crop residues, especially after the first days following N fertilization  
444 (Fig. 4). In this sense, even though an interaction (between crop residue and N fertilizer  
445 application has been previously described (e.g. in Abalos et al., 2013), the similar  
446 proportion of N<sub>2</sub>O losses coming from fertilizer in B and F (without residue) one day  
447 after N fertilization revealed the importance of mineral N harbored in soil micropores in  
448 the N<sub>2</sub>O bursts after the first irrigation events.

449 As we hypothesized, although ISFM practices were adopted, the different CCs  
450 played a key role in the N<sub>2</sub>O emissions during Period II. Barley plots had higher N<sub>2</sub>O  
451 emissions than fallow or V-residue plots (at the 10% significance level; Table 1).



452 Further, a higher proportion of N<sub>2</sub>O emissions was derived from the fertilizer in B-  
453 residue than in V-residue plots (Fig. 4). These results are in agreement with those of  
454 Baggs et al. (2003), who reported a higher percentage of N<sub>2</sub>O derived from the <sup>15</sup>N-  
455 labeled fertilizer using a cereal (ryegrass) as surface mulching instead of a legume  
456 (bean). The differences between B and V in terms of cumulative N<sub>2</sub>O emissions and in  
457 the relative contribution of each source to these emissions (fertilizer- or soil-N) could be  
458 explained by: i) the higher C:N residue of B (20.7±0.7 while that of V was 11.1±0.1,  
459 according to Alonso-Ayuso et al. (2014)) may have provided an energy source for  
460 denitrification (Sarkodie-Addo et al., 2003), increasing the reduction of the NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>  
461 supplied by the synthetic fertilizer and enhancing N<sub>2</sub>O emissions; ii) NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>  
462 concentrations, which tended to be higher in B during the maize cropping phase, could  
463 have led to incomplete denitrification and larger N<sub>2</sub>O/N<sub>2</sub> ratios (Yamulki and Jarvis,  
464 2002); iii) the easily mineralizable V residue (with low C:N ratio) provided an  
465 additional N source for soil microorganisms, thus decreasing the relative amount of N<sub>2</sub>O  
466 derived from the synthetic fertilizer (Baggs et al., 2000; Shan and Yan, 2013); and iv) V  
467 plots were fertilized with a lower amount of immediately available N (i.e. AN) than B  
468 plots, which could have resulted in better synchronization between N release and crop  
469 needs (Ussiri and Lal, 2012) in V plots. Supporting these findings, Bayer et al. (2015)  
470 recently concluded that partially supplying the maize N requirements with winter  
471 legume cover-crops can be considered a N<sub>2</sub>O mitigation strategy in subtropical agro-  
472 ecosystems.

473 The mineralization of B residues resulted in higher DOC contents for these plots  
474 compared to the F or V plots ( $P<0.001$ ). This was observed in both Period I (as a  
475 consequence of soil C changes after the 8-year cover-cropping management) and Period  
476 II (due to the CC decomposition). Although in the present study the correlation between



477 DOC and N<sub>2</sub>O emissions was not significant, positive correlations have been previously  
478 found in other low-C Mediterranean soils (e.g. Vallejo et al., 2006; López-Fernández et  
479 al., 2007). Some authors have suggested that residues with a high C:N ratio can induce  
480 microbial N immobilization (Frimpong and Baggs, 2010, Dendooven et al., 2012). In  
481 our experiment, a N<sub>2</sub>O peak was observed in B plots 20-25 days after fertilization (Fig.  
482 3b) after a remarkable increase of NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> content (Fig. 2d), which may be a result of a re-  
483 mineralization of previously immobilized N in these plots.

484 The positive correlation of N<sub>2</sub>O fluxes and soil NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> content and WFPS during  
485 the whole cycle further supports the importance of denitrification process for explaining  
486 N<sub>2</sub>O losses in this agro-ecosystem (Davidson et al., 1991; García-Marco et al., 2014).  
487 However, the strong positive correlation of N<sub>2</sub>O with NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> indicated that nitrification  
488 was also a major process leading to N<sub>2</sub>O fluxes, and showed that the continuous drying-  
489 wetting cycles during a summer irrigated maize crop in a semi-arid region can lead to  
490 favorable WFPS conditions for both nitrification and denitrification processes (Fig. 1c)  
491 (Bateman and Baggs, 2005). Emission Factors ranged from 0.2 to 0.6% of the synthetic  
492 N applied, which were lower than the IPCC default value of 1%. As explained above,  
493 ecological conditions during the intercrop period (rainfall and temperature) and maize  
494 phase (temperature) could be considered as normal (based on the the 30-year average)  
495 in Mediterranean areas. Aguilera et al. (2013) obtained a higher emission factor for high  
496 (1.01%) and low (0.66%) water-irrigation conditions in a meta-analysis of  
497 Mediterranean cropping systems.

498

499 *4.3 Methane and CO<sub>2</sub> emissions*



500 As is generally found in non-flooded arable soils, all treatments were net CH<sub>4</sub>  
501 sinks (Snyder et al., 2009). No significant differences were observed between treatments  
502 in any of the two periods (Table 1), which is similar to the pattern observed by Sanz-  
503 Cobena et al. (2014). Some authors (Dunfield and Knowles, 1995; Tate, 2015) have  
504 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  
505 almost all of the CCs and maize cycle may explain the apparent lack of this inhibitory  
506 effect (Banger et al., 2012). However, during the dates when the highest NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> contents  
507 were reached in V and B (225 days after CCs sowing) (Fig. 3a), CH<sub>4</sub> emissions were  
508 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,  
509 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>  
510 peak observed two days after fertilization (Fig. 3b) decreased in the order V>F>B, the  
511 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,  
512 F and B, respectively; data not shown). Contrary to Sanz-Cobena et al. (2014), the  
513 presence of CCs did not increase CO<sub>2</sub> fluxes (Table 1) during Period I (which was  
514 longer than that considered by these authors), even though higher fluxes tended to be  
515 associated to B plots, probably as a consequence of higher root biomass and plant  
516 respiration rates in the cereal (B) than in the legume (V). The decomposition of CC  
517 residues and the growth of maize rooting system resulted in an increase of CO<sub>2</sub> fluxes  
518 during Period II (Oorts et al., 2007; Chirinda et al., 2010), although differences between  
519 treatments were not observed.

520

#### 521 *4.4 Yield-scaled emissions, N surplus and general assessment*

522 Yield-scaled N<sub>2</sub>O emissions ranged from 1.74 to 7.15 g N<sub>2</sub>O-N kg aboveground  
523 N uptake<sup>-1</sup>, which is about 1-4 times lower than those reported in the meta-analysis of -



524 van Groenigen et al. (2010) for a fertilizer N application rate of 150-200 kg ha<sup>-1</sup>. Mean  
525 N surpluses of V and F (Table 1) were in the recommended range (0-50 kg N ha<sup>-1</sup>) by  
526 van Groenigen et al. (2010), while the mean N surplus in B (55 kg N ha<sup>-1</sup>) was also  
527 close to optimal. In spite of higher N<sub>2</sub>O emissions in V during Period I (which  
528 accounted for a low proportion of total cumulative N<sub>2</sub>O losses during the experiment),  
529 these plots did not emit greater amounts of N<sub>2</sub>O per kg of N taken up by the maize  
530 plants, and even tended to decrease YSNE and N surplus (Table 1).

531 Adjusting fertilizer N rate to soil endogenous N led to lower N<sub>2</sub>O fluxes than  
532 previous experiments where conventional N rates were applied (Sanz-Cobena et al.,  
533 2012; Adviento-Borbe et al., 2007), in agreement with the study of Migliorati et al.  
534 (2014). Our results highlight the critical importance of the cash crop period on total N<sub>2</sub>O  
535 emissions, and demonstrate that the use of either non-legume and –particularly- legume  
536 CCs combined with ISFM may provide an optimum balance between GHG emissions  
537 from crop production and agronomic efficiency (i.e. lowering synthetic N requirements  
538 for a subsequent cash crop, and leading to similar YSNE as a fallow).

539 The use of CCs has environmental implications beyond effects on direct soil  
540 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>  
541 leaching). In the study of Gabriel et al. (2012), conducted in the same experimental area,  
542 NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> leaching was reduced (on average) by 30% and 59% in V and B, respectively.  
543 Considering an emission factor of 0.075 from N leached (De Klein et al., 2006), indirect  
544 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>  
545 <sup>1</sup> if V and B are used as CCs, respectively. Furthermore, the recent meta-analysis of  
546 Poeplau and Don (2015) revealed a C sequestration potential of 0.32±0.08 Mg C ha<sup>-1</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>  
547 <sup>1</sup> with the introduction of CCs. These environmental factors together with CO<sub>2</sub>  
548 emissions associated to CCs sowing and killing, should be assessed in future studies in



549 order to confirm the potential of CCs for increasing both the agronomic and  
550 environmental efficiency of irrigated cropping areas.

551

## 552 **Conclusions**

553 Our study confirmed that the presence of CCs (particularly V) during the  
554 intercrop period increased N<sub>2</sub>O losses, but the contribution of this phase to cumulative  
555 N<sub>2</sub>O emissions considering the whole cropping cycle (intercrop-cash crop) was low (8-  
556 21%). The high influence of the maize crop period over total N<sub>2</sub>O losses was not only  
557 due to N synthetic fertilization, but also to CC residue mineralization and especially  
558 endogenous soil N. The type of CC residue determined the N synthetic rate in a ISFM  
559 system and affected the percentage of N<sub>2</sub>O losses coming from N fertilizer/soil N as  
560 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>,  
561 NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> and DOC concentrations). By employing ISFM, similar N<sub>2</sub>O emissions were  
562 measured from CCs and F treatments at the end of the whole cropping period, resulting  
563 in low YSNE (3-6 g N<sub>2</sub>O-N kg aboveground N uptake<sup>-1</sup>) and N surplus (31 to 56 kg N  
564 ha<sup>-1</sup>). Replacing winter F by CCs did not affect significantly CH<sub>4</sub> uptake or respiration  
565 rates neither during intercrop or maize cropping periods. Our results highlight the  
566 critical importance of the cash crop period on total N<sub>2</sub>O emissions, and demonstrate that  
567 the use of either legume or non-legume CC combined with ISFM may provide an  
568 optimum balance between GHG emissions from crop production and agronomic  
569 efficiency.

570

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579

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772 **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,  
 773 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  
 774 and the standard error of the mean, respectively.

| Treatment               | N <sub>2</sub> O<br>kg N <sub>2</sub> O-N ha <sup>-1</sup> | CH <sub>4</sub><br>kg CH <sub>4</sub> -C ha <sup>-1</sup> | CO <sub>2</sub><br>kg CO <sub>2</sub> -C ha <sup>-1</sup> | Surplus<br>kg N ha <sup>-1</sup> | YSNE<br>g N <sub>2</sub> O-N kg aboveground N uptake <sup>-1</sup> |
|-------------------------|--|---|---|----------------------------------|--|
| 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   |                                  |  |
| <b>End of Period I</b>  |  |   |   |                                  |  |
|                         | Estimate   | -11.45  | -134.37   |                                  |  |
| F versus CCs            | t-test   | -0.61   | -1.00   |                                  |  |
|                         | <b>P value</b>   | <b>0.56</b>   | <b>0.34</b>   |                                  |  |
|                         | Estimate   | -6.23   | -127.50   |                                  |  |
| V versus B              | t-test   | -0.57   | -1.64   |                                  |  |
|                         | <b>P value</b>   | <b>0.58</b>   | <b>0.14</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   |
| <b>End of Period II</b> |  |   |   |                                  |  |
|                         | Estimate   | -23.69  | 83.36   | -3.16                            | -0.12  |
| F versus CCs            | t-test   | -1.25   | 0.19  | -0.08                            | -0.14  |
|                         | <b>P value</b>   | <b>0.24</b>   | <b>0.86</b>   | <b>0.94</b>                      | <b>0.89</b>  |
|                         | Estimate   | 2.08  | 417.8   | -38.67                           | -2.59  |
| V versus B              | t-test   | 0.19  | 1.62  | -1.79                            | -2.16  |
|                         | <b>P value</b>   | <b>0.09</b>   | <b>0.14</b>   | <b>0.11</b>                      | <b>0.06</b>  |



776 **Figure captions:**

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

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

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

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

793