Complete authors response to all referee comments

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Overall:

We appreciate the detailed and constructive comments of both reviewers. We have made every attempt to address the larger, more general issues brought up by each referee as well as each minor revision. Referee 1 was concerned with a lack of baseline data and also lost the focus of the paper. We have addressed this by adding some additional data, re-arranging the introduction and adding text to the materials and methods as well as to the conclusions to emphasize paddy history. Referee 2 was primarily concerned with our use of fixed isotope effects in our modeling effort. We have added a paragraph to the discussion that discusses more explicitly the assumptions and limitations of the modeling we did and outlines recommendations for future work in this direction. We believe the manuscript is now both clearer and more scientifically robust and we hope the changes are found acceptable.

Below are our responses to each referee.

*note that page references refer to original version with track changes in place.

Author response to referee 1:

Authors: We appreciate the detailed and constructive comments of reviewer 1. We feel that this review has picked up on many issues we struggled with in presenting this data. Our initial and consistent objective was to use the isotopic data as a tool to conclude more about how the management practices affect processes. However, we simply were unable to collect sufficient, season long data in all three treatments to make more robust comparative agronomic conclusions as relates to N2O and N2 emissions. We feel strongly though that the data collected provides valuable insight into detailed process changes under the different water managements and provides a solid and unique dataset to help push forward the interpretation and use of natural abundance isotope methods. Additionally, as you mention later, we do not have baseline, pre-growing season emissions to show these treatments were similar before the season. Rather, our goal was to collect as much data prior to the first in-season fertilization as possible with the aim of analyzing in detail the response to N fertilization between the treatments, as it turns out, the data collected pre-fertilization was often more interesting. It was not possible to install our equipment prior to 2 days before seeding. In fact the treatments likely did NOT have the same basal emissions because this was the 5th year for each of the treatments under alternative water management. In the first three years these treatments were managed slightly differently, as described in (Miniotti et al., 2016; Peyron et al., 2016). In 2015 and 2016 the WS-AWD water management was adjusted and applied as described in this paper and in (Verhoeven et al., 2018). The DS-AWD was managed as dry-seed + flooding (essentially, delayed permanent flood) for the first 4 years and then adjusted to DS-AWD in for the 2016 year (current publication). Text in the materials and methods has been added to emphasize the paddy history. We have also added a sentence in the conclusions reminding readers of this.

*note, significant changes have been made to the manuscript, the page and line numbers referenced below refer to the revised version without any of the track changes visible.

Detailed individual responses:

Referee 1: One of the objectives is to "semi-quantitatively assess N2O and N2 losses among rice water management treatments". Though this objective is set at prominent position, there is hardly information in form of tables or figures. One would expect such information in view of the objectives.

Authors: This is a valid point. We have made a minor change to the phrase referenced above by replacing 'losses' with 'loss rates' to avoid implying that we determined cumulative losses. Indeed, at the onset of this work our aim was to comprehensively compare N2O and N2 losses among the different water treatments. In reality we were unable to obtain high enough fluxes or concentrations of N2O throughout the growing season and across treatments to make isotope measurements at many time points. We realized this in the previous year during a separate, lead up study, therefore in the experiment and dataset presented here we decided it was more valuable to concentrate our efforts and resources on the beginning of the growing season when N2O was higher. Given this we do not feel comfortable to extrapolate our results to growing season emissions. We feel that Fig. 1 and Fig. 6 do quantitatively present N2O emissions for the three treatments during the measurement campaign. We elected not to present a graphic of N2 emissions in the main paper because we felt the data was too patchy for the WS treatments (often the N2O emissions were too low for accurate isotope measurements). In this respect, our method failed. In the original manuscript, we included a graphic of these emissions in the Supplementary material, Fig. S13 C and D. It is labeled 'N2O reduction' rather than N2 production, because it was a calculated N2 production based on N2O reduction from our modeling. We are open to other ideas of graphing or presenting this data, we were just trying not to over-interpret our data and to be transparent about what the data is.

Referee 1: In view of N losses, Crop yields would be very interesting as well. It would probably be wise to add such data in view of objective b

Authors: The following data has been included in the text at the beginning of the results section, P14L2

Treatment	Yield (t/ha)	LSD
DS-AWD	6.6	b
WS-FLD	8.9	а
WS-AWD	8.2	а

The effect of lower N demand in the DS-AWD is also mentioned on P19L22 and on P26L2

Referee 1: The core of the study clearly is the comparison of open and closed system calculations, and their plausibility. The manuscript stops short of clearly presenting and comparing the results of the associated calculations in form of a figure. Such a figure would help the reader to understand why some scenarios were excluded. In addition, the exclusion of open system dynamics could be presented in more detail

Authors: We politely disagree that the core of this manuscript was the comparison of open and closed system calculations. We feel that in an uncontrolled environment and using in-situ measurements it is very likely that a mixture of open and closed system dynamics existed. Indeed, we chose to statistically

analyze and discuss only the mean of the two dynamics in our discussion (P24L36). We have added the following text to our materials and methods as well, to emphasize this, P10L28

"In reality, the heterogeneity in microbial microhabitat within the soil most likely results in a mixture of closed versus open system dynamics. Therefore, final data interpretations were made for the average findings across open versus closed systems dynamics. "

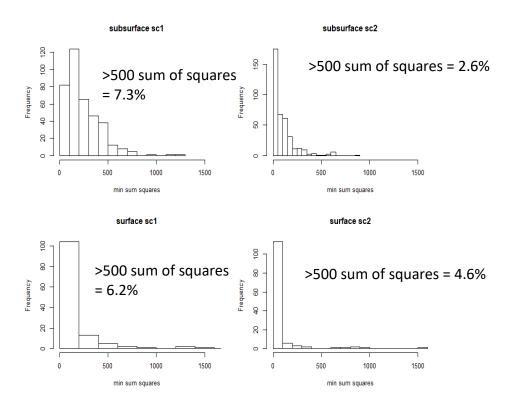
Further more, Figure 5 does present the results of open and closed system modeling and the mean is indicated by a purple line. Our data shows that open system modeling consistently led to lower rN2O (= higher reduction) and lower denitrification contributions than closed system (Fig. 5). Likely, some days and/or treatments were more dominated by one scenario or another, but we cannot say. Therefore, to maintain equality between the treatments, we took the average of the two dynamics.

There may be some confusion between open and closed system models and then scenario 1 and 2. These are different, both scenarios were applied to open and closed system models, originally resulting in 4 possible rN2O values. In scenario 1 we assume that N2O produced by denitrification processes is produced and reduced and then mixed with that of un-reduced N2O. In scenario 2, we assume that un-reduced N2O from both end member pools is mixed and then reduced. We found few plausible solutions for scenario 2 (Fig. S3 and Table S2) so decided to eliminate this scenario to simplify the discussion.

Referee 1: The supporting information is frequently used in the manuscript, which is ok, but in view of the complex calculations described in section 2.7, I suggest that an example data point is used to show the calculation procedure, and why a sum of squares of 500 was considered meaningful.

Authors: A detailed protocol for the calculation of closed system values can be found on ResearchGate (DOI: 10.13140/RG.2.2.17478.52804). An example of our open system calculations is now given in a supplementary Excel worksheet. Both of these materials are now referenced in the text on P11L35 and P13L13, respectively.

Examining our values and their distribution, we chose a sum of squares of 500 as a reasonable value, over which solutions tended to be very implausible, i.e. orders of magnitude out the range of other results for at least one value. Our search for model solutions was set to minimize the sum of squares between our modeled and observed values, therefore it stands to reason that high sum of square values are associated with less robust model values. At the time, we felt that evaluating results based on sum of squares for the model as a whole rather an outlier analysis of individual values (i.e. for rN2O, denitrification contribution, etc.) was both more just and simpler. In retrospect, a more standard method of outlier elimination may have been a better choice. However, we strongly feel that this would not have resulted in a different outcome. Between 2.6 - 7.3% of values had a sum of squares over 500 (below). Over all the sub datasets, 3.4% of values had a sum of square > 500.



Referee 1: The authors present calculated Net isotope effects, however the authors are not clear with regard to their assumptions (open/closed system), and the calculation applied violates some basic assumptions of Rayleigh distillation (details below).

Though the authors attempt to provide information why the calculated values do not agree with literature isotope effects, the approach is constructed and in my opinion does not bring the manuscript any further. I suggest considering to skip this section.

Authors: We have corrected our terminology and now refer to our calculated fractionation factors as, $\Delta^{15}N_x$. We fell that retaining these calculations is valid and important. There is a large body of literature reporting isotope effects, net or otherwise under controlled conditions and also from field studies. We believe it is important to present and contextualize our data for comparison to past work. We agree that this method has limitations and flaws, indeed one of our goals was to try and push forward the development of new methods that do not rely on 15N values in substrates. We have changed our notation to η , which is more consistent with the literature for net isotope effects. We have also added the following text to the materials and methods, P10L18.

"The calculation of $\Delta^{15}N_x$ can be compared to the net isotope effects for nitrification and denitrification derived N₂O, as found in the literature. In reality the processes in equations 1 and 2 entail a series of sequential reactions each of which has a unique isotope effect ($\epsilon_{k,1}$, $\epsilon_{k,2}$, $\epsilon_{k,3}$,...). It is not possible to measure the isotope values of many of the intermediaries in these reactions series, particularly in in-situ field settings, therefore we report the $\Delta^{15}N_x$. For the calculation of $\Delta^{15}N_x$ we assume open system dynamics because all measurements were in-situ where substrates, products and intermediaries could be replenished by other processes." Referee 1: Nutrient concentrations are quite variable. I suggest adding nutrient concentrations and measured fluxes for an appropriate time interval prior to experiment start to show the comparability of the treatments. Please also add seeding dates and all fertilizer applications to the figures 2,3,5 and 6.

Authors: See general comments as well. Unfortunately we do not have data for the time period prior to seeding because we were unable to install equipment until all field preparation and leveling was complete. The data collected during the first 3 weeks of the study, prior to the fertilization, were intended to be our background for understanding treatment response to the fertilization. We have added information to the materials and methods describing the field history. P5L29.

Abstract

Referee 1: P1L18: please add emissions after N2O

Authors: We did not make this amendment because as the sentence is worded, we are referring to both emitted and pore air N2O. We have moved the position of the () so that it does not break up the sentence in an awkward place, and we hope the sentence is now more clear.

The sentence now reads: "In a field experiment with three water management treatments, we measured N₂O isotopocule signatures of emitted and pore air N₂O ($\delta^{15}N$, $\delta^{18}O$ and site preference, SP) over the course of six weeks in the early rice growing season. "

Referee 1: L24: please add and and in front of "fungal denitrification" Authors: Completed.

Introduction

Referee 1: P2L9: I suggest changing from "biological" to "microbial source processes". Authors: Good suggestion, done.

L25: please check the comma after while. Authors: The comma has been removed.

Referee 1: P4L4: the "which serves to enrich" construction of the sentence sounds odd to me. What about "The reduction of N2O to N2 enriches the pool of remaining N2O that is measured in 15N and 18O and, thus changes d15N-N2O, d18O-N2O and SP. Authors: This sentence revision has been adopted.

Referee 1: L9 onwards: This segment on calculation approaches leaves the reader a little confused. Will there be calculations in the manuscript? Why this segment? Please add an explanatory sentence, or consider skipping this segment. It is also not necessarily true that closed system calculations lead to higher substrate enrichment.

This depends very much on the amount of reacted substrate.

Authors: We have eliminated these two sentences on open versus closed system calculation approaches.

Referee 1: In general, I am missing some background information: Rice is one of the dominant crops in the world, consumes a tremendous amount of water, even in water-scarce regions, and flooded rice production also contributes greatly to the global methane budget. Saving methane may be counterbalanced by N2O emissions . . .

Authors: This is a good point. We have flipped the order of our second and third paragraphs as well as re-arranging some of this now second paragraph, see P2L14-36,P3L1-5. We hope this now better addresses the general background. If needed, we are happy to add more.

Materials and Methods

Referee 1: P5L26: why did the DS treatment receive less fertilizer than the WS treatments? At first glance, this does not make a lot of sense. Please clarify.

Authors: The three treatments received the same amount of total N per season, 160 kg N/ha. However, N was split applied in three applications designed to maximize NUE based on farm management experience. Our experiment was set up within a larger agronomic trial, which was managed under 'best management practices' for each respective water regime. It is known that rice plant development and growth will be slower under dry seeding, therefore the two WS treatments received N rates of 60, 60 and 40 kg N/ha at fertilizations 1,2 and 3 while the DS treatment received a lower initial rate and then higher subsequent rates: 40, 70 and 50 kg N/ha at fertilizations 1,2 and 3. Fertilization 1 and 2 were covered in the measurement campaign included in this manuscript. We fully acknowledge that this can lead to difficulty in directly comparing the treatments at a given timepoint. On the other hand, it makes the data much more realistic and arguably more comparable as N rate was timed to coarsely align with plant demand so as to minimize the residual N in the soil. This data is given in table 1. We have added a line to this table with the July 14th fertilization and have also added the following sentences to the methods for clarification.

P6L23. "A total of 160 kg N ha⁻¹ as urea was applied to all treatments, with one pre-plant application on May 16th and two in-season applications on June 21st and July 14th (Table 1). Following best management practices for the three water management practices, a smaller pre-plant urea application was applied in the DS-AWD treatment, followed by a larger application in this treatment at the second and third fertilization. In the DS-AWD treatment, urea was applied at 40, 70 and 50 kg N ha⁻¹, while these rates were 60, 60 and 40 kg N ha⁻¹ for the WS treatments at fertilization 1, 2 and 3, respectively."

Referee 1: P6L15: do I understand correctly that the precision of the GC was +- 12ppb / 24 ppb? This would be a quite low precision, however for the fluxes it may be less severe. Chamber height controls the sensitivity of the chamber so that I suggest giving also a detection limit at, for instance, 0.6 ppm maximum headspace concentration.

Authors: We do scale our GC detection limit based on the concentration in the sample. The samples in our exetainers are drawn directly from the chamber headspace and are assumed to represent chamber headspace at the moment of sampling. Using 10 reps of at least 5 varied concentration standards we created a regression curve of concentration vs stdev and use this to determine the detection limit for a given concentration. The high and low points on this curve are 300ppb (stdev =12 ppb) and 1000ppb (stdev = 24 ppb) and we chose to give these as examples in the text, P7L19-20. When calculating fluxes, we determined fluxes to be below detection if the change over time was less than the stdev associated with the highest concentration of the 4 measurements. Essentially T4-T1 > stdev of T4. We have added a clarifying sentence to this effect on P7L18

Referee 1: P9L11-14: I am not sure if I understand this correctly: is 15N-N2O in this case the isotopic composition in soil water, or in emitted soil air? Please clarify. I suppose, the authors use 15N-N2O in pore water. I don't agree with the authors that this calculation is valid, for the following reasons:

Authors: Neither, the 15N-N2O used in the calculation of net isotope effects was pore air N2O taken at the three depths, the 15N-NO₃⁻ and 15N-NH4 were analyzed in pore water samples taken at the same depths. Sampling for pore air and pore water occurred within 5 hrs of each other on the same day. We have tried to clarify this in the materials and methods P10L14.

1) 15N-N2O is not necessarily formed from exactly the location of which the nitrate originates, and may have formed from no3- / nh4+ as well.

Authors: We agree, we feel that this is discussed in section 4.2, P20L33

2) the reaction coordinate is unknown, i.e., there is no knowledge on how much of the nitrate / nh4+ has been transformed. The equation is only valid, if the n2o has formed in an infinitesimal time after consumption of the substrate.

Authors: We have modified our terminology and now refer to this value Δ 15Nx. Further, we assume open system dynamics for these reactions because refreshing of substrate or consumption of product at any point in time cannot be excluded.

3) there are other possible intermediates in these conversions, all of which obscure this calculation. This needs to be clarified in detail.

Authors: See earlier response and amendment to materials and methods.

Referee 1: P9L19: I am not sure what "Additionally" means in this context. I would assume that for both open and closed systems, two possible scenarios were considered. To clarify this I suggest: "For both the open and closed modeling methods, two possible scenarios were considered. . ."

Authors: This is good suggestion and this phrasing has been adopted.

Referee 1: P9L25-32: This segment is unclear to me. I guess it is most straightforward to tell my understanding of it, and you clarify in the text: there are 5 publications reporting d18O-N2O for a pure culture experiment during which exclusively N2O was produced, which gives you a good estimate for d18O-N2Oden. You want to add the value measured by Lewicka 2017 to this database (reason remains unclear, I can only encourage mentioning the really careful experiments by Lewicka 2017 as reason to extend the database). However, Lewicka 2017 was corrected for 18O-H2O. Maybe I am right in this assumptions. It became more clear to me after having a look an Figure 1. If so, I suggest you mention Figure 1 in line 22-23, and add 18O-N2Oden, 18O-N2Onit, and the corresponding SP values to figure 1, with an extra tick mark at the corresponding axis, and have the label in the plot region close to the axis. The whole approach may become more clear then. I also suggest not starting with the special case of the 18O-values corrected for water 18O, but start with the general explanation and then describe the detail. Authors: We have made the suggested changes to Fig. 1. We have re-arranged and re-written this section and hope that it is now more clear. The section now reads. P10L30

"A schematic of our closed system approach is given in Fig. 1. For both open and closed methods, two possible scenarios were considered as described by (Lewicka-Szczebak et al., 2017); scenario 1 (sc1), where N₂O is produced and reduced by denitrifiers before mixing with N₂O derived from nitrification or scenario two (sc2) where N₂O is produced from both processes, mixed, and then reduced. In both models, N₂O is originally produced from two possible endmembers; denitrification/nitrifierdenitrification (denoted by subscript den) and nitrification/fungal denitrification (denoted by subscript nit). Our SP endmember values (SP_{den} and SP_{nit}) and N₂O reduction fractionation factors ($\epsilon^{18}O_{red}$ and ϵ SP_{red}) were taken directly from Lewicka-Szczebak et al. (2017) (Table 2). For δ^{18} O-N₂O_(x) endmember values we could not directly use the values reported in Lewicka-Szczebak et al. (2017) because these were reported relative to δ^{18} O-H₂O (as δ^{18} O-N₂O(N₂O/H₂O)) and we did not measure the isotope signature of water in our study. Therefore, δ^{18} O-N₂O_{nit} was re-calculated using the original mean values $(\delta^{18}\text{O-N}_2\text{O} \text{ as opposed to } \delta^{18}\text{O-(N}_2\text{O}/\text{H}_2\text{O}) \text{ of the six studies referenced by (Lewicka-Szczebak et al., 2017),}$ this yielded a mean of 36.5‰ (Sutka et al., 2006; Sutka et al., 2008; Frame and Casciotti, 2010; Heil et al., 2014; Rohe et al., 2014; Maeda et al., 2015). For δ^{18} O-N₂O_{den} we adjusted the value used in Lewicka-Szczebak et al. (2017) by an estimate of δ^{18} O-H₂O of water for our site rather than re-calculate from the four studies originally referenced by Lewicka-Szczebak et al. (2017) (Sutka et al., 2006; Frame and Casciotti, 2010; Lewicka-Szczebak et al., 2014; Lewicka-Szczebak et al., 2016). We used a δ^{18} O-H₂O value of -8.3‰, as reported by Rapti-Caputo and Martinelli (2009) for an uncontained aquifer of the Po River delta. We chose to do this because some of the mean values used by Lewicka-Szczebak et al. (2017) were themselves calculated from data originally reported. Our intention was to keep endmember values as consistent as possible between this study and Lewicka-Szczebak et al. (2017)."

Referee 1: In view of the following text, I don't understand why the orange sc2-line does not cross the sample. For my understanding, this is not correct. Please clarify.

Authors: You are absolutely correct, thanks! The sample point has been moved up to pass through both intercepts.

Results

Referee 1: P13L20: from figure 3, this pattern is not obvious for 15N-N2O. Please clarify.

Authors: The sentence has been removed.

Referee 1: P15L2: Nutrient concentrations are quite different for the treatments. Please add an appropriate time period prior to experiment start to show that initial nutrient concentrations were equal.

Authors: Please see previous comments.

Referee 1: P15L28: see comments above on net isotope effects.

Authors: Please see earlier comment.

Discussion

Referee 1: P18L3-4: The sentence starts with while, it seems like the sentence has not been finished correctly.

Authors: Well noted. The sentence has been revised to read, "In contrast, saturated conditions favoring complete denitrification certainly prevailed in the WS treatments at times" P19L35

Referee 1: P19L11: it is unclear what you mean with a stronger trajectory towards N2O reduction.

Authors: The sentence has been revised to read:

"In both SP x δ^{18} O and SP x δ^{15} N plots our sample values mostly fell between the mixing and reduction lines predicted by either isotope relationship (Fig. 4) and somewhat surprisingly showed stronger enrichment, indicative of greater N₂O reduction in the DS-AWD treatment relative to the WS treatments." P22L3

Referee 1: P19L22: not clear if the denitrifying microsites are assumed to be more abundant in WS treatments? Please clarify.

Authors: The sentence has been revised to read:

"More NO_3^- was available for denitrification in the DS-AWD treatment, thus for greater enrichment of this pool to occur we propose that more NO_3^- was trapped in denitrifying microsites as the soil dried or O_2 was consumed." P22L14

Referee 1: P19L24: How can abiotoc N2O formation explain the high SP values greater than 30 in WS-FLD, i.e., the scatter? As you point out, this pathway is associated with SP of 35.

Authors: This is a valid point. We can only really speculate on these high values. It is plausible that N2O produced by abiotic or fungal denitrifiers was further reduced, enriching the SP value somewhat more. However, we would expect to see enrichment of 18O as well, which wasn't always the case. We believe in part, there is just more error in the WS treatments because we were much more often close to the concentration detection limit of our IRMS, most of the values falling above SP 40 per mil were emitted N2O. We have revised the sentence in question. P22L21

Author Response to Referee 2 (N. Ostrom and J. Lugo)

We appreciate this thoughtful review and have added some specific changes to the discussion to address the three main areas of concern. We have also addressed the minor comments. We hope these changes are acceptable and make the discussion more robust and valuable to the N2O isotope community. All page and line references refer to our amended manuscript with track changes all accepted.

Referee 2: There are three significant areas in this manuscript that need to be addressed and a number of minor issues that we list below. First, we appreciate the authors' use of the term "isotopocule" to more accurately describe the bulk and site dependent isotopic composition of nitrous oxide but, regrettably, their use of this term is incorrect (see Ostrom and Ostrom, 2017). Isotopocule is a contraction of "isotopic molecule" and this term refers specifically to the 12 distinct

isotopic molecules that result when the two isotopes of nitrogen and 3 isotopes of oxygen are combined in every imaginable way. Thus it is incorrect to use isotopocules to describe isotope ratios. Isotopomer refers to the two isotopocules of nitrous oxide that have the same mass but differ in the location of 15N. Isotopologues is not a very useful term as it implies differences in both mass and isotopic composition. Given this, perhaps it would be best to simply use "isotope ratios" to describe both bulk and site specific isotopic information.

Authors: Thank you for this clarification. We have gone through the manuscript and changed all 'isotopocule' and 'isotopocule signature' terms to either simply 'isotope' or 'isotope ratio' as suggested.

Referee 2: Secondly, we are concerned with the use of constant values for the kinetic isotope effects (KIE) associated with nitrous oxide reduction in their models. The literature cited in the paper clearly demonstrates that the KIE associated with nitrous reduction is variable and yet the authors chose a single value of 6.6 per mil in their models. Further, the Jinuntuya-Nortman et al (2008) demonstrate that the KIE decreases with increasing water filled pore space.

Referee 2: Third, we are concerned with the use of ranges in δ 180 of nitrous oxide associated with various sources of nitrous oxide to describe microbial origins. While SP is considered a conservative tracer of the origins of nitrous oxide it is widely know that bulk δ 15N and δ 180 values are not conservative. Thus while ranges of values can be compiled from the literature it is uncertain how well these values represent what can be expected in the natural environment. It is known that δ 180 values in nitrous oxide has exchanged with water and, indeed, the authors estimate that 100% of the O in nitrous oxide has exchanged with water. Given this high degree of exchange, how reasonable is it to use constant isotope values to infer microbial origins? We don't believe that any of these concerns should result in rejection or major restructuring of the manuscript. Rather, we would like to see the authors acknowledge these concerns and discuss what the implications of variation in KIE's and source isotope values would have on their model results.

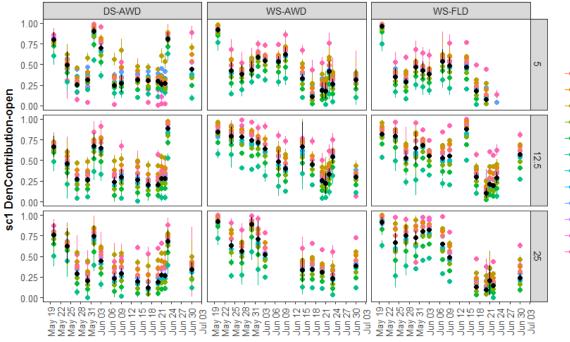
These are valid points and we agree are worthy of brining into the discussion. First, to clarify, we did not use a KIE value of 6.6 per mil in our models used for source partitioning N₂O. Our models for source partitioning N2O relied on SP and 18O only, where we did use fixed isotope effects for 18O and SP during N2O reduction, as referenced in Table 2. The use of -6.6 per mil referred to the 15N isotope effect during N2O reduction, which was only used post source partitioning to evaluate the isotope effects for 15N. Here, we used our modeled N2O reduction fraction, rN2O (derived from 18O and SP model) to back calculate plausible $\Delta^{15}N_{N2O/NO3}$ values if we assumed a fixed value for 15N N2O reduction fraction and our rN2O rates. Our intent was to determine if this type of correction could bring our measured $\Delta^{15}N_{N2O/NO3}$ closer to those seen in pure culture or controlled studies, thus adding support to the extent of N2O reduction measured in our model and helping to explain our measured $\Delta^{15}N_{N2O/NO3}$.

In general, regarding the use of fixed isotope values and isotope effects in our model, we fully agree there is a lot of room for advancement here. Indeed, when first experimenting with our model we played around with a range of 18O values for denitrification/nitrifier-denitrification and nitrification/fungal denitrification derived N2O as we felt there was the largest range in these values in the literature (Author Response Table 1). We found the patterns between treatments to be pretty conservative but the range variable (Author Response Figure 1). An example of a previous test run is given below. In the end, we felt going in this direction was too complex for this paper and would morph it into a monster and distract from our original intent. We feel strongly though that a logical next step would be to advance the model so that isotope ratios and effects can be drawn from a pool of literature values using Monte Carlo simulation or a similar approach.

We have added a paragraph to P27L11, which discusses this as well as the need to account for known changes in isotope effects based on environmental conditions in more complex models.

"All modeling attempts to date rely on isotope signatures and effects determined in laboratory studies and thus changes in these values in response to environmental or microbial population dynamics in the field remains a large question. As this was an in-situ field experiment, conditions were not constant across treatments or throughout the sampling time frame, yet it has been shown that isotope effects, particularly for N₂O reduction change with shifts in environmental conditions such as increasing water filled pore space (Jinuntuya-Northman et al., 2008). Therefore, the use of fixed isotope effects in our model is a simplification. Future modeling efforts may be improved by the incorporation of variable isotope effects based on soil moisture or O_2 for example. Careful, controlled experiments across a range of soils with different management histories are necessary to determine if consistent variation in isotope effects in relation to specific environmental parameters can be determined or if such parameters are site specific. The microbial δ 180 signatures for denitrification used in our model were calculated relative to δ 180-H2O. We therefore assumed complete exchange between N₂O substrates, intermediaries and water during denitrification. We based this off of previous work showing that O exchange is high and that the isotope effect between water and N₂O is relatively stable (Lewicka-Szczebak et al., 2016;Lewicka-Szczebak et al., 2017;Snider et al., 2013;Kool et al., 2007). In reality, results over time and between treatments may have been affected by varying degrees of ¹⁸O exchange between N_2O , intermediaries and water and by variation in δ 180-H₂O values. We recommend that future studies measure the δ 180-H₂O to better constrain results. Modeling results would also be more robust if complete $\delta^{15}N - N_2O_1$, $-NH_4^+$ and $-NO_3^-$ across treatments and times were available, allowing for complimentary modeling of SP x $^{15}N(N_2O/NO_3^{-1} \text{ or } N_2O/NH_4)$. Employing iterative simulation techniques where a range of literature values for N₂O signatures and isotope effects are used to draw from would help to highlight model sensitivity to specific isotope values and improve its accuracy. Lastly, more work needs to be done to validate results such as those generated here which rely on laboratory derived values, with complimentary measurements of microbial community dynamics, such as that by Snider et al. (2015)."

Author Response Figure 1. Denitrification contribution results for Scenario 1, open system modeling across a range of δ_0^{18} O-N₂O_{nit} and δ_0^{18} O-N₂O_{den} values. The range of values used in this testing are given in Table 1. The values actually used in the manuscript results are from "A" (black dots). From this analysis we chose to stick with the values derived from Lewicka-Szczebak et al. 2017 for consistency and because they represented the mean. The ranges changed with varying δ_0^{18} O values but the relative patterns were conserved.



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Author response Table 1. δ_0^{18} O values used in model testing.
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Identification	Description	${\delta_0}^{18} O\text{-} N_2 O_{nit}$	$\delta_0{}^{18}\text{O-N}_2\text{O}_{den}$
A (black dots)	Default values (DF) derived from Lewicka- Szczebak <i>et al.</i> (2017)	36.5	12.7
C	N2Onit fixed, N2Oden +5	36.5	17.7
D	N ₂ O _{nit} fixed, N ₂ O _{den} +10	36.5	22.7
E	N2Onit fixed, N2Oden +20	36.5	32.7
F	N ₂ O _{nit} fixed, N ₂ O _{den} -5	36.5	7.7
G	N2Onit fixed, N2Oden -10	36.5	2.7
Н	N2Onit fixed, N2Oden -20	36.5	-7.3
1	N ₂ O _{den} fixed, N ₂ O _{nit} +5	41.5	12.7
J	N ₂ O _{den} fixed, N ₂ O _{nit} +10	46.5	12.7
К	N2Oden fixed, N2Onit +20	56.5	12.7
L	N2Oden fixed, N2Onit -5	31.5	12.7
М	N2Oden fixed, N2Onit -10	26.5	12.7
Ν	N2Oden fixed, N2Onit -20	16.5	12.7

Referee 2: Page 4, line 1-2: Abiotic production of N2O can occur by many pathways and it seems the values cited here reflect production from hydroxylamine. We recently reported SP values of 16 per mil for N2O production from NO (Stanton et al., 2018, Geobiology (DOI :10.1111/gbi.12311).

Authors: Clarification of hydroxylamine oxidation specifically and this additional reference have been added, P4L1.

Referee 2: Page 7, line 10: What are the minimum concentrations required to obtain accurate isotope values for nitrate and ammonium?

Authors: Our limit of quantification for 15N-NH4 was 0.75 mgL-1 or ~ 42uM NH4, this was accidently omitted, but is now added on P9L8. Our limit of quantification for $15N-NO_3^-$ was 0.125 mgL-1 or 2.0 uM NO_3^- (P9L32)

Referee 2: Page 9, line 29-32. As mentioned above, this is a good representation of the literature δ 180 values but given concerns about water exchange can we realistically expect these values to apply to field studies?

Authors: This is a valid point and we agree. We have tried to better acknowledge that isotope methods such as the modeling proposed here are still limited and difficult to apply and interpret in field situations. At the same time, these methods only become really useful if they can be applied in ecological or agronomic studies. No method is perfect, but we feel that given the current knowledge, the methods can be used for ecological studies as long as the uncertainty associated with data interpretation is acknowledged. We hope this sentiment is now better expressed in our additional discussion paragraph.

Referee 2: Page 10, line 5: It would seem this slope is determined from a single pair of values when a wide range of values for the KIE associated with nitrous oxide reduction can be found in the literature. What is the impact of variation in the slope on the outcomes of this model?

Authors: We did not test the sensitivity of our model to changes in this slope. We agree this, among other parameters in the model should be further tested and developed in future studies. See above.

Referee 2: Page 13, line 22: "In the WS treatments, high N2Oemitted fluxes were also associated with lower δ 15N signatures". This statement is not entirely accurate. In WS-AWD two peaks of N2O were observed (Figure 3), firsts on June 17, with high δ 15N signatures (~20‰ and the second on June 23 with lower δ 15N signatures (~40‰, both peaks showing similar N2O flux.

Authors: The sentence has been amended and now reads, "In the WS treatments, high N₂O_{emitted} fluxes on June 23rd, following the second fertilization, were associated with lower δ^{15} N signatures (Fig. 3), this was not the case for a high flux in the WS-AWD on June 17th."

Referee 2: Page 18, lines 18-19: The use of "high" net isotope effects can be misleading because the NIE's are negative. A value of -6, for example, is higher than -16 but reflects a lower degree of isotopic discrimination. Perhaps use "greater degree of isotopic discrimination" or a similar phrase.

Authors: This this a good observation and the suggested wording has been adopted.

Referee 2: Page 18, line 20: The use of a single value to describe the net isotope effect for reduction of nitrous oxide is not very accurate as it is well known that this value varies. Jinuntuya-Nortman et al. (2008) demonstrated that water filled pore space is inversely related to the net isotope effect and at high values of water filled pore space this value approaches zero. Given that this environment is frequently characterized by high and variable water filled pore space how realistic is it to use a single

value? What would be the impact on the model outcomes of allowing this value to vary over the range of literature values reported?

Authors: We feel this point is now addressed in our new discussion paragraph on P27L11. It would be interesting to assess the effect of the model outcomes if this value varied, but we feel this would be too speculative and beyond the scope of the current manuscript.

Referee 2: Page 19, Line 25: Authors postulates that high SP values relative to δ 180 or δ 15N observed in N2O pore air from WS treatments, could be explained by greater contributions from abiotic hydroxylamine decomposition. However, in order to produce enough N2O from abiotic hydroxylamine decomposition, to switch or enriched SP values significantly, it wouldnt require high NH4+ concentrations (Rubasinghege et al., 2011; Heil et al., 2015)? In this study, the NH4+ concentrations were very low during the sampling period.

Authors: NH4 concentrations in the WS-AWD prior to the second fertilization were between 5-10 mg N/L and around 5 mg/L N in the WS-FLD and were thus higher than the DS-AWD for much of the sampling period. However, you are correct that the times of higher NH4 in the WS treatments don't necessarily correspond to the scattered high SP values and no correlation between these variables was observed for any treatment (Table 3). The plausibility of abiotic hydroxylamine oxidation during coupled nitrification-denitrification is discussed later in this same paragraph. We have amended the wording a bit. It now reads as follows. If this whole piece remains too speculative, we can omit.

"Abiotic hydroxylamine decomposition requires nitrification for the production of NH₂OH, and iron or manganese (hyrdr)oxides as electron acceptors to proceed (Bremner et al., 1980). Given the moist conditions, nitrification rates were likely low in the WS treatments. Feasible co-occurrence of these species could really only occur directly in the rhizosphere of a flooded rice soil, were O₂ is transported to the immediate root zone by the aerenchyma. Tightly coupled nitrification-denitrification in the rhizosphere of rice plants has been shown before (Arth and Frenzel, 2000) as has coupling of nitrogen – iron transformations (Ratering and Schnell, 2000) but we cannot say the extent to which this may have occurred in our system. " P22L28

Referee 2: Page 21, line 13: The finding that oxygen exchange is 100% is very concerning. Doesn't 100% exchange compromise the use of δ 180 to partition sources of nitrous oxide?

Authors: We politely disagree. Our modeling used isotope signatures calculated relative d180 of water for denitrification based on results of (Lewicka-Szczebak et al., 2016;Lewicka-Szczebak et al., 2017). We have added the aforementioned discussion paragraph which we hope adequately addresses this issue.

Referee 2: Figure 4: Is there a reason why the reduction and mixing lines are plotted in A but not on the figures in B?

Authors: Yes, we did not derive a reduction and mixing line for SP x 15N-N2O relationship. To accurately draw such lines we need to use fixed values for the 15N-N2O signature produced from denitrification and nitrification. We have not reviewed the literature for a consensus value for these processes. Because we had limited data for d15N in NH4+ and NO3, we could not use these values in modeling.

Early season N₂O emissions under variable water management in rice systems: source-partitioning emissions using isotopocule signaturesisotope ratios along a depth profile

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Abstract. Soil moisture strongly affects the balance between nitrification, denitrification and N2O reduction and 20 therefore the nitrogen (N) efficiency and N losses in agricultural systems. In rice systems, there is a need to improve alternative water management practices, which are designed to save water and reduce methane emissions, but may increase N2O and decrease nitrogen use efficiency. In a field experiment with three water management treatments, we measured N₂O isotopocule-isotope ratiossignatures ($\delta^{15}N, \delta^{18}O$ and site preference, SP) of emitted and pore air $N_2O_{(\delta^{15}N, \delta^{18}O \text{ and site preference, }SP)}$ -over the course of six weeks in the early rice growing season. Isotopocule 25 Isotope ratio measurements were coupled with simultaneous measurements of pore water NO3, NH4+, dissolved organic carbon (DOC), water filled pore space (WFPS) and soil redox potential (Eh) at three soil depths. We then used the relationship between SP x δ^{18} O-N₂O and SP x δ^{15} N-N₂O in simple two endmember mixing models to evaluate the contribution of nitrification, denitrification, and fungal denitrification to total N2O emissions and to estimate N2O reduction rates. N2O emissions were higher in a dry-seeded + alternate wetting and drying (DS-AWD) treatment 30 relative to water-seeded + alternate wetting and drying (WS-AWD) and water-seeded + conventional flooding (WS-FLD) treatments. In the DS-AWD treatment the highest emissions were associated with a high contribution from denitrification and a decrease in N2O reduction; while in the WS treatments, the highest emissions occurred when contributions from denitrification/nitrifier-denitrification and nitrification/fungal denitrification were more equal. Modeled denitrification rates appeared to be tightly linked to nitrification and NO3- availability in all treatments, thus Formatted: Left: 1", Right: 1", Top: 1", Bottom: 1", Width: 8.5", Height: 11", Header distance from edge: 0.5", Footer distance from edge: 0.5", From text: 0"

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³⁵ water management affected the rate of denitrification and N₂O reduction by controlling the substrate availability for each process (NO₃⁻ and N₂O), likely through changes in mineralization and nitrification rates. Our model estimates

of mean N₂O reduction rates match well those observed in ¹⁵N fertilizer labeling studies in rice systems and show promise for the use of dual isotopocule isotope ratio mixing models to estimate N₂ losses.

1 Introduction

Atmospheric nitrous oxide (N₂O) concentrations continue to rise, and with a global warming potential 298 times that
of CO₂, N₂O is a significant contributor to global warming (IPCC, 2007;Ravishankara et al., 2009). Agriculture is estimated to be responsible for roughly 60% of anthropogenic N₂O emissions (Smith et al., 2008). Considering this, the quantification of field scale N₂O emissions has been the focus of many studies in the last decades and much progress has been made on identifying agricultural management practices, soil and climate variables that influence emissions (Mosier et al., 1998;Verhoeven et al., 2017;Venterea et al., 2012). However, it remains difficult to
quantitatively determine the biological microbial source processessources of emitted N₂O in the field, and knowledge gaps remain in our understanding of how N₂O production and reduction processes change with both time and depth. More specific knowledge of process dynamics is therefore needed to inform and improve biogeochemical models.

Studying N cycling in rice systems offers a unique opportunity to study processes of N2O production and reduction. 15 Firstly, there is a strong need to develop alternative water management practices with a shortened paddy flooding period, in order to save water and mitigate methane (CH₄) emissions. However, such systems can cause an increase in N₂O emission that may partially offset the decrease in CH₄ emission (Devkota et al., 2013;Miniotti et al., 2016;Xu et al., 2015). Hence, water management practices should be improved based on a better understanding of the spatiotemporal origin of N2O emissions and inorganic N precursors, nitrate and ammonium. the complex hydrology. 20 and variable soil moisture conditions between soil layers and within the time course of a growing season, may induce a patchwork of conditions favorable for nitrification versus denitrification versus NaO reduction. For example, it is not clear if low N2O emissions under more moist conditions are the result of lower N2O production due to substrate limitation (i.e. low nitrification rates and hence low NO₂) or rather increased N₂O reduction. To date, few studies have looked at N2O processes at depth and it is not known how moisture and nutrient stratification affect the balance between N2O production and consumption processes and ultimately surface emissions. Analysis of soil N2O 25 concentrations along a profile should help answer this. Secondly, the complex hydrology, and variable soil moisture conditions between soil layers and within the time course of a growing season, may induce a patchwork of conditions favorable for nitrification versus denitrification versus N2O reduction. For example, it is not clear if low N2O emissions under more moist conditions are the result of lower N2O production due to substrate limitation (i.e. low nitrification rates and hence low NO3-) or rather increased N2O reduction. To date, few studies have looked at N2O 30 processes at depth and it is not known how moisture and nutrient stratification affect the balance between N2O production and consumption processes and ultimately surface emissions. Analysis of soil N2O concentrations along a profile should help answer this, there is a strong need to develop alternative water management practices with shortened paddy flooding period, in order to save water and mitigate methane (CH4) emissions. However, such 35 systems can cause an increase in N2O emission that may partially offset the decrease in CH4-emission (Devkota et al.,

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understanding of the spatiotemporal origin of N_2O emissions and inorganic N precursors, nitrate and ammonium. Thirdly, rice cropping systems typically suffer from a lower nitrogen use efficiency (NUE) than other major cereal crops, often attributed to high gaseous NH_3 and N_2 losses (Cassman et al., 1998;Dedatta et al., 1991;Aulakh et al., 2001;Dong et al., 2012). In improving the NUE, a better estimate of N_2O reduction to N_2 is needed to design strategies that reduce N_2 losses without increasing N_2O emission

5 <u>that reduce N_2 losses without increasing N_2O emission.</u>

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 N_2O is predominately produced 1) as a byproduct during nitrification, where NH_4^+ is oxidized to NO_3^- via hydroxylamine (NH_2OH); this step of nitrification is sometimes referred to as hydroxylamine oxidation (Schreiber et al., 2012;Hu et al., 2015) or 2) as an intermediate in the denitrification pathway during which NO_3^- is reduced to N_2

- 10 (Firestone et al., 1989) or 3) during nitrifier-denitrification by specific ammonia oxidizing bacteria that oxidize NH4⁺ to NH2OH and then to NO2⁻, with a small fraction of NO2⁻ then being reduced to NO and N2O (Kool et al., 2011;Kool et al., 2010;Wrage et al., 2001). N2O may also be produced from additional biotic and abiotic processes, such as fungal denitrification, coupled nitrification-denitrification, dissimilatory nitrate reduction to ammonium, chemodenitrification or hydroxylamine decomposition (Butterbach-Bahl et al., 2013;Heil et al., 2015;Zhu-Barker et
- al., 2015). Due to the prevalence of anaerobic conditions and the use of NH4⁺ based fertilizers fungal denitrification and coupled nitrification-denitrification, respectively, are likely to increase in flooded rice systems. N₂O is consumed during the final step of denitrification, where N₂O is reduced to N₂ by the N₂O reductase pathway. This can occur sequentially within denitrifying organisms, or N₂O produced elsewhere from other processes or incomplete denitrification can be later reduced by denitrifiers. The final and dominant product of denitrification rates is of environmental concern because the loss of N via this process may represent a loss of N from the system and indicate reduced fertilizer N efficiency. Gross denitrification rates are difficult to measure <u>in_x situ without the use of isotope tracers due to the high atmospheric background of N₂, thus denitrification and N₂ emissions remain a-relatively unconstrained aspects of N budgets.
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Studying N cycling in rice systems offers a unique opportunity to study processes of N₂O production and reduction. Firstly, the complex hydrology, and variable soil moisture conditions between soil layers and within the time course of a growing season, may induce a patchwork of conditions favorable for nitrification versus denitrification versus N₂O reduction. For example, it is not clear if low N₂O emissions under more moist conditions are the result of lower
N₂O production due to substrate limitation (i.e. low nitrification rates and hence low NO₂⁻) or rather increased N₂O reduction. To date, few studies have looked at N₂O production and consumption processes and ultimately surface emissions. Analysis of soil N₂O concentrations along a profile should help answer this. Secondly, there is a strong need to develop alternative water management practices with shortened paddy flooding period, in order to save water and mitigate methane (CH₄) emissions. However, such systems can cause an increase in N₂O emission that may partially offset the decrease in CH₄ emission (Devkota et al., 2013;Miniotti et al., 2016;Xu et al., 2015). Hence, water management practices should be improved based on a better understanding of the spatiotemporal origin of N₂O

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emissions and inorganic N precursors, nitrate and ammonium. Thirdly, rice cropping systems typically suffer from a lower nitrogen use efficiency (NUE) than other major cereal crops, often attributed to high gaseous NH₂ and N₂-losses (Cassman et al., 1998;Dedatta et al., 1991;Aulakh et al., 2001;Dong et al., 2012). In improving the NUE, a better estimate of N₂O reduction to N₂ is needed to design strategies that reduce N₂-losses without increasing N₂O emission.

The measurement of N_2O isotope signatures ratios at natural abundance is a tool to differentiate between in situin-situ N₂O source processes and N₂O reduction (Toyoda et al., 2011;Ostrom and Ostrom, 2011;Wolf et al., 2015;Baggs, 2008), i.e. N2O source-partitioning. The evolution of analytical techniques now allows us to measure not only the bulk δ^{15} N-N₂O, but also the intermolecular distribution of the δ^{15} N within N₂O, called site-preference (SP) and the δ^{15} N of N₂O precursors, nitrate (NO₃⁻) and ammonium (NH₄⁺). The δ^{18} O of N₂O and its precursors may also be used 10 to constrain processes (Lewicka-Szczebak et al., 2016;Kool et al., 2009;Lewicka-Szczebak et al., 2017). Analytical methods of interpretation remain, however, only semi-quantitative due to uncertainty and overlap surrounding in net isotope effects (ε , η or Δ) f-(ε) for individual processes or cumulative processes, overlap in the δ signatures between processes, and/or multiple N and O sources for which determination of δ^{15} N and δ^{18} O remains expensive and time 15 consuming. Theoretically, the O in N₂O derives from O₂ during nitrification and from NO₃⁻ during denitrification or a combination during nitrifier-denitrification (Kool et al., 2007;Snider et al., 2012, 2013;Lewicka-Szczebak et al., 2016;Kool et al., 2010). However, in the case of nitrifier-denitrification and denitrification, intermediates in the reduction pathway (NO2⁻ and NO) can extensively exchange O atoms with H₂O (Kool et al., 2007). Such exchange lowers the measured δ^{18} O-N₂O values because the influence of relatively depleted δ^{18} O from H₂O, potentially leading to an underestimation of denitrification and N₂O reduction (Snider et al., 2013;Lewicka-Szczebak et al., 2016). 20 Indeed, it has been shown that the ϵ^{18} O for denitrification should be calculated relative to H₂O not NO₃, as almost 100% O exchange occurs (Lewicka-Szczebak et al., 2014;Lewicka-Szczebak et al., 2016)._—The use of δ^{15} N values is theoretically more straightforward and there is also a much richer body of literature on $\epsilon^{15}N$ for various processes, which was recently compiled and reviewed by (Denk et al., 2017). The authors report a mean isotope effect for ¹⁵N 25 during NH_4^+ oxidation to N_2O of -56.6 \pm 7.3‰ and of -42.9 \pm 6.3‰ for NO_3^- reduction to N_2O . Additionally, accurate measurement of the δ^{15} N of NH₄⁺ and NO₃⁻ at sufficient temporal resolution remains time consuming. In comparison, the SP is thought to be independent of the initial substrate δ^{15} N values and shows distinct values for two clusters of N_2O production, namely $32.8 \pm 4.0\%$ for nitrification/fungal denitrification/abiotic hydroxylamine oxidation /abiotic N_2O production and -1.6 ± 3.8% for denitrification/nitrifier-denitrification (Decock and Six, 2013a;Denk et al., 2017).

30 Abiotic N₂O production from NO has also been reported with an SP of 16‰ (Stanton et al., 2018).

All three δ values are affected by N₂O reduction to N₂, which serves to enrich in heavy isotopes (¹⁵N and ¹⁸O) the pool of remaining N₂O that is measured The reduction of N₂O to N₂ enriches the pool of remaining N₂O that is measured in δ_1^{15} N and δ_1^{18} O and thus changes the δ_1^{15} N-N₂O, δ_1^{18} O-N₂O and SP (Decock and Six, 2013a;Zou et al., 2014). –If the

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 δ value of N₂O_{initial} (prior to reduction) can be reasonably estimated from graphical and mixing model approaches, then the subsequent enrichment of N₂O can be used to estimate N₂O reduction rates and thereby total denitrification rates. This is important because N₂O reduction is a crucial but exceptionally poorly constrained process within the N

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cycle (Lewicka-Szczebak et al., 2017). Fractionation during N₂O reduction may follow dynamics of open or closed systems (Fry, 2007;Mariotti et al., 1981). In open systems a continuous supply of fresh (and non-enriched) N₂O is assumed to enter the system, while in closed systems a given pool of N₂O is progressively used up. Closed system dynamics result in a greater enrichment of the residual N₂O pool and lower associated N₂O reduction rates. In reality *in situ* processes likely exhibit aspects of both systems heterogeneously in time and space (Decock and Six, 2013b).

Our goal was to collect a high resolution in situ N2O isotopocules-isotope ratio data set that could be used to a) determine the stratification of N2O production and reduction processes in relation to water management, b) semiquantitatively assess N2O and N2 losses loss rates among rice water management treatments and c) push forward 10 current natural abundance N₂O isotope source-partitioning methods and interpretation at the field scale. We compared three rice water management practices: direct dry seeding followed by alternate wetting and drying (DS-AWD), wet seeding followed by alternate wetting and drying (WS-AWD) and wet seeding followed by conventional flooding (WS-FLD). Isotope data was determined at three depths, simultaneously with soil environmental and nutrient data and soil N2O and dissolved N2O concentrations. We hypothesized that N2O emissions would be highest in the AWD treatments due to greater contributions from nitrification and less N2O reduction, following the order: DS-AWD > 15 WS-AWD > WS-FLD. We also hypothesized that N_2 emissions are controlled by the availability of NO_3^- coming from nitrification and high soil moisture. We considered that NO3- would be higher under WS-AWD but soil moisture would be higher under WS-FLD; therefore we predicted N₂ emissions to follow in the order: WS-AWD > WS-FLD > DS-AWD. Lastly, we hypothesized that longer periods of lowered soil moisture in the DS-AWD and WS-AWD treatments would result in greater production of N2O at depth and this higher production would increase surface

20 treatments would result in greater production of N₂O at depth and this higher production would increase surface emissions.

2 Materials and Methods

2.1 Field experiment

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- A field experiment consisting of three water management regimes was conducted at the Italian Rice Research Center (Ente Nazionale Risi), Pavia, Italy (45°14'48"N, 8°41'52"E). Experimental work focused only on the early growing season, lasting from the 13th of May, 2016 until June 30th, 2016. It is in this period that the highest N₂O losses and N cycling dynamics had been previously observed and the largest differences among water management practices occurred. The experiment was conducted in the 5th year of alternative water management in an existing experimental platform. During the first three years the paddies were maintained as dry-seeding + flooding, wet-seeding + flooding
- and intermittent irrigation as described in The experimental platform has been extensively described in previous publications (Miniotti et al., 2016;Peyron et al., 2016;Said-Pullicino et al., 2016). In the fourth year, the intermittent irrigation treatment was changed to wet seeding + alternate wet dry (Verhoeven et al., 2018). In the current study dry-seeding + flooding treatment was shifted to dry-seeding + alternate wet dry, the other treatments remained as in the 4th year. Irrigation and water management details are provided below.—_The soil at the site has been classified as
- coarse silty, mixed, mesic Fluvaquentic Epiaquept (USDA-NRCS, 2010). The mean soil texture in the upper 30 cm

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of the experimental plots was 26% sand, 62% silt, and 11% clay with a mean bulk density of 1.29 g cm⁻³. The meanAtt the end of the 2015 growing season, mean total organic C and total N were 1.07 and 0.11% and pH 5.9 (1:2.5 H₂O) and 5.2 (1:2.5 0.01M CaCl₂), respectively. Annual and growing season mean temperatures in 2016 were 10°C and 23°C, respectively (Fig. S1). Annual and growing season cumulative precipitation was 618 and 258 mm, respectively. Data for both values were retrieved from a regional weather station operated by the Agenzia Regionale per la Protezione dell'Ambiente-Lombardia, located approximately 200 m from the field site (ARPA).

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Water management in the two WS treatments was identical during the first three weeks of the growing season (Table 1). Following regional practices for water seeding, paddies were flooded for six days at the time of seeding, but then drained for ~ 2 weeks to promote germination. During this period of 'drainage' paddies were not dry but maintained near saturation by flush irrigation as necessary (May 31st and June 6th). Flush irrigation is a practice in which the water inlet channels are opened for a few hours and then the outlet channels are opened a few hours later resulting in

temporary soil saturation or even 1-2 cm ponding for 2-4 hours. On June 10th, approximately three weeks after

seeding, treatment differentiation between the WS-FLD and WS-AWD began. At this time the WS-FLD was flooded,
while the WS-AWD was only flush irrigated. On June 16th, the WS-FLD was allowed to drain slowly in order to facilitate fertilizer application on June 21st. Following fertilizer application, the WS-FLD treatment was re-flooded and both AWD treatments were flush irrigated on June 22nd. In the DS-AWD treatment no flooding or irrigation water was applied prior to June 22nd. Soil moisture depended on rainfall, which was 75 mm during the four weeks following seeding.

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In all treatments, crop residues were incorporated in the spring, before the cropping season. All paddies were harrowed and leveled approximately one month prior to seeding in mid-April, 2016. All treatments were pre-fertilized with phosphorus and potassium on May 13th (14 and 28 kg ha⁻¹, respectively). A total of 160 kg N ha⁻¹ as urea was applied to all treatments, with one pre-plant application on May 16th and two in-season applications on June 21st and July 14th

(Table 1). Following best management practices for the three water management practices, a smaller pre-plant urea application was applied in the DS-AWD treatment, followed by a larger application in this treatment at the second and third fertilization. In the DS-AWD treatment, urea was applied at 40, 70 and 50 kg N ha⁻¹, while these rates were 60, 60 and 40 kg N ha⁻¹ for the WS treatments at fertilization 1, 2 and 3, respectively. -and with urea on May 16th (40 and 60 kg ha⁻¹ for the DS and WS treatments, respectively). The DS-AWD treatment was seeded on May 17th, 2016.
 The WS-FLD and WS-AWD treatments were seeded on May 20th. All treatments were fertilized with urea on June

21* (70 and 60 kg ha⁺ for the DS and WS treatments, respectively). All treatments were harvested on September 15th.

Each treatment consisted of two paddies, 20 x 80 m, with two plots in each paddy, n=4 (Fig. S2). The experimental design was identical to that of (Verhoeven et al., 2018), with the addition of the DS-AWD treatment and some adjustment to plot placement in order to accommodate data logging devices and field equipment. Each paddy was approximately 2 m apart and hydrologically separated by a levee of 50 cm above the soil surface, flanked by an irrigation canal on either side. Sampling for N₂O surface fluxes, pore water parameters (NO₃⁻, NH₄⁺, DOC, dissolved

 N_2O) and pore air N_2O occurred on 15-17 dates, from the 20th of May to the 30th of June, 2016 (Table S1). Sampling dates were on average three days apart with a greater frequency before and after N application on the 21st of June. Sub-samples of pore water from 10 to 12 dates were analyzed for $\delta^{15}N$ -NO₃⁻, $\delta^{18}O$ -NO₃⁻ and $\delta^{15}N$ -NH₄⁺.

5 2.2 Soil environment: temperature, redox potential, and moisture

Soil moisture was measured using PR2 capacitance probes (Delta T Devices, UK) at 5, 15, 25, 45 and 85 cm. Water filled pore space (WFPS) was calculated using bulk density measurements at 5, 12.5 and 25 cm collected at the beginning of the season using a Giddings manual soil auger. Soil temperature was measured in only one plot per paddy (n=2) at three depths (5, 12.5 and 25 cm). Measurements were made manually at the time of surface flux gas measurements. Soil redox potential (Eh) was measured continuously in each plot using sturdy tip probes outfitted with 5 Pt-electrodes that were permanently connected to a 48-channel Hypnos-III data logger (MVH Consult, The Netherlands) with two Ag/AgCl-reference probes. Soil Eh was measured every hour at six depths; 5, 12.5, 20, 30, 50 and 80 cm. We took the average of the 20 and 30 cm readings to derive a 25 cm reading in order to correlate to other measurements.

15 2.3 N₂O measurements: surface emissions, pore air, and dissolved gas

All N₂O concentration measurements were measured by gas chromatography on a Scion 456-GC (Bruker, Germany) equipped with an electron capture detector (ECD). The error of the GC was determined to be \pm 0.012 at 0.3 ppm and \pm 0.024 ppm at 1.0 ppmA standard curve was derived from 10 replicates of at least 5 concentrations to determine the standard deviation for a given concentration. For example, the error of the GC was determined to be \pm 0.012 at 0.3

- 20 ppm and \pm 0.024 ppm at 1.0 ppm. N₂O surface emissions (N₂O_{emitted}) were measured by the non-steady state closed chamber technique (Hutchinson and Mosier, 1981). The chamber design and deployment was identical to that of (Verhoeven et al., 2018). Gas samples were taken at 0, 10, 20 and 30 min in each chamber and injected into preevacuated exetainers (Labco, UK). At time 0 and 30 min an additional ~ 170 ml of sample was taken and injected into gas crimp neck vials sealed with Butyl injection stoppers (IVA Analysentechnik, Germany) to be used for isotope
- 25 analysis. When the accumulation of gas over the course of measurement was less than the GC errorstandard deviation associated with the highest concentration of the four measurements, the flux was set to zerodetermined to be below detection. Fluxes above the detection limit were calculated by linear or non-linear regression following the method outlined by Verhoeven and Six (2014). Soil N₂O (N₂O_{soil}) was sampled using passive diffusion probes installed at 5, 12.5 and 25 cm. The probe design and sampling strategy has been previously described in (Verhoeven et al., 2018).
- 30 In brief, the samples were collected in He flushed and pre-evacuated 100 ml glass crimp neck vials (actual volume 110 ml, IVA Analysentechnik, Germany) and after sampling topped with high purity He gas to prevent leakage into under-pressurized vials. The final N₂O concentration was determined by gas chromatography, as described above, on a subsample, while the remainder of the sample was retained for isotope analysis. The final N₂O concentration was calculated by accounting for sample dilution based on the pressure after evacuation, after sampling and after topping

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with He gas. Samples for dissolved N2O (N2Odissolved) were collected by injecting a 5 ml subsample of pore water,

collected as described in section 2.4, into N_2 flushed and filled exetainers that also contained 50µl of 50% ZnCl to stop microbial activity. Samples were stored at 4°C until the end of the experimental campaign and transported back to the lab for analysis, therefore there was adequate time for the equilibration between the headspace and aqueous phases. The molar concentration of N_2O was calculated by applying the solubility constant of N_2O at the time of analysis (i.e. lab temperature) to Henry's law (Lide, 2004;Weiss and Price, 1980;Wilhelm et al., 1977), taking into account the vial volume and headspace.

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2.4 Pore water measurements

Two MacroRhizon pore water samplers (Rhizosphere Research Products, The Netherlands) were installed at each depth (5, 12.5 and 25 cm) in every plot. Pore water was then collected in two polypropylene 60 ml syringes at each depth and later pooled together at sample processing. The syringes were attached to the MacroRhizon sample tubes with two-way leur lock valves and propped open using a wedge, which served to create a low vacuum; the syringes were left to collect water for 2-4 h. Samples were stored at 4°C and processed within 36 h. During pore water processing ~ 15 ml of solution was allocated for analysis of NO₃⁻ and NH₄⁺ and δ¹⁵N, δ¹⁸O-NO₃⁻, ~ 15 ml for δ¹⁵N-NH₄⁺, 5 ml for dissolved N₂O, 3-5 ml for dissolved Fe²⁺ and Mn²⁺ and 5 ml for DOC/TDN analysis. All samples, aside from those for dissolved N₂O, were frozen at -5°C until analysis. NO₃⁻ and NH₄⁺ were determined by spectrophotometry following the procedure of (Doane and Horwáth, 2003). DOC and TDN were determined by first acidifying the water sample to pH <2 by addition of concentrated HCl and then analysis on a multi N/C 2100S:TOC/TN Analyzer (Analytik Jena, Germany).

2.5 Determination of $\delta^{15}N$, $\delta^{18}O$ and <u>isotopomer signatures</u> isotope ratios in N₂O_{emitted} and N₂O_{soil}

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Surface and pore air gas samples were taken in 100 ml glass crimp neck vials (actual volume 110 ml, IVA Analysentechnik, Germany) as described in section 2.3. Pore air gas samples were preconditioned with 1_ml of 1M NaOH solution prior to analysis due to very high CO₂ concentrations in many samples (> 5000 ppm). The intramolecular site-specific isotopic composition of the N₂O molecule was measured using a gas preparation unit (Trace Gas, Elementar, UK) coupled to an isotope ratio mass spectrometer (IRMS; IsoPrime100, Elementar, UK).

- 25 The gas preparation unit was modified with an additional chemical trap (½' diameter stainless steel), located immediately downstream from the autosampler. This pre-trap was filled with NaOH, Mg(ClO₄)₂, and activated carbon in the direction of flow and is designed to further scrub CO₂, H₂O, CO and VOCs which otherwise would cause mass interference during measurement. Before final injection into the IRMS the purified gas sample is directed through a Nafion drier and subsequently separated in a gas chromatograph column (5Å molecular sieve).
- 30 The IRMS consists of five Faraday cups with m/z of 30, 31, 44, 45, 46, measuring $\delta^{15}N$ and $\delta^{18}O$ of N_2O and $\delta^{15}N$ from the NO⁺ fragments dissociated from N₂O during ionization in the source. The ${}^{15}N/{}^{14}N$ ratio of the NO molecule is used to calculate the α (central) position of the initial N₂O, thus allowing measurement of the site-specific isotopic composition of N₂O (SP). Site preference is defined as $\delta^{15}N^{SP} = \delta^{15}N^{\alpha} - \delta^{15}N^{\beta}$ with α denoting the ${}^{15}N/{}^{14}N$ ratio of the central N atom and β the ${}^{15}N/{}^{14}N$ ratio of the terminal N atom of the linear NNO molecule. $\delta^{15}N^{\beta}$ is indirectly obtained from rearrangement of:

$$\delta^{15}N^{bulk} = (\delta^{15}N^{\alpha} + \delta^{15}N^{\beta})/2$$

which represents the average ¹⁵N content of the N₂O molecule.

For IRMS calibration three sets of two working standards (~ 3 ppm N₂O mixed in synthetic air) with different isotopic composition ($\delta^{15}N^{\alpha} = 0.954 \pm 0.123$ ‰ and 34.446 ± 0.179 ‰; $\delta^{15}N^{\beta} = 2.574 \pm 0.086$ ‰ and 35.98 ± 0.221 ‰; $\delta^{18}O = 39.741 \pm 0.051$ ‰ and 38.527 ± 0.107 ‰) were used. These standards have been analyzed at EMPA using TREX-QCLAS versus standards with assigned δ -values by Tokyo Institute of Technology (Mohn *et al.*, 2014). These working standards were run in triplicate, evenly spaced throughout a run. Sample peak ratios are initially reported against a N₂O reference gas peak (100% N₂O, Carbagas, Switzerland) and are subsequently corrected for drift and span using the working standards. Further correction procedures, such as ¹⁷O mass overlap and scrambling, as reported

- 10 elsewhere, were not applied as the data was inherently corrected by regression between true and measured values of the triplicate working standards. Long-term measurement quality was ensured using a control standard at low N₂O concentration (~ 0.4 ppm) treated as a sample. Instrument linearity and stability was frequently checked by injection of 10 reference gas pulses of either varying or identical height respectively, with accepted levels of <0.03‰/nA. Since instrument linearity could only be achieved for either N₂O or NO, the instrument had been tuned for the former and
- 15 $\delta^{15}N^{\alpha}$ subsequently corrected using sample peak height assuming a non-linearity of 0.1 ‰ nA⁻¹. Such linearity complications have been previously reported using Elementar (Ostrom et al., 2007) and ThermoFinnigan IRMS (Röckmann et al., 2003). Tropospheric air was regularly measured (n=42) and used as a confirmation of correction procedures, yielding consistent and reliable results: $\delta^{15}N^{SP} = 18.77 \pm 1.08$ ‰; $\delta^{15}N^{bulk} = 5.96 \pm 0.35$ ‰; $\delta^{15}N^{\alpha} = 15.34 \pm 0.70$ ‰, $\delta^{15}N^{\beta} = -3.43 \pm 0.60$ ‰; $\delta^{18}O = 43.67 \pm 0.41$ ‰. All ${}^{15}N^{14}N$ sample ratios are reported relatively
- 20 to the international isotope ratio scale AIR-N2 while ${}^{18}\text{O}/{}^{16}\text{O}$ are reported versus Vienna Standard Mean Ocean Water (V-SMOW). Relative differences are given using the delta notation (δ) in units of ‰:

$$\delta^Z X \left[\%_0\right] = \frac{R_{sample}}{R_{reference}} - 1$$

(1)

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where *R* is referring to the molar ratio of ${}^{15}N/{}^{14}N$ or ${}^{18}O/{}^{16}O$ and ${}^{Z}X$ to the abundance of the heavy stable isotope *Z* of element *X*.

2.6 Determination of $\delta^{15}N\text{-}NO_3^-, \delta^{18}O\text{-}NO_3^-$ and $\delta^{15}N\text{-}NH_4^+$

Pore water NO₃⁻ samples were analyzed for δ^{15} N and δ^{18} O at the University of California, Davis, Stable Isotope Facility (http://stableisotopefacility.ucdavis.edu/), using the denitrifier method developed by (Sigman et al., 2001;Casciotti et al., 2002;McIlvin and Casciotti, 2011). δ^{15} N-NH₄⁺ in pore water was determined by micro-diffusion onto acidified disks followed by persulfate digestion (Lachouani et al., 2010;Stephan and Kavanagh, 2009) and lastly by the denitrifier method. For δ^{15} N-NH₄⁺, all steps and analyses were done in-house, including the denitrifier method. <u>Our limit of quantification for δ^{15} N-NH₄⁺ was 0.75 mg L₄⁻¹ or ~42 µM NH₄⁺, below this the diffusion gradient was too low for reliable diffusion. Briefly, samples were run in sets of 40 with 24 samples and a combination of 16 standards</u>

Formatted: Superscript Formatted: Subscript Formatted: Superscript and blanks. Each run contained at least two δ^{15} N-NH₄⁺ isotope standards (IAEA N2 = 20.3‰; IAEA N1 = 0.4‰; USGS 25 = -30.4‰) at two or three concentrations in duplicate or triplicate in addition to two blanks and two working standards. NH₄⁺ isotope standards were diffused, digested and run through the denitrifier method in parallel with samples and therefore an overall correction and concentration offset was derived and applied for each batch. The denitrifier method was executed using the updated protocol described by (McIlvin and Casciotti, 2011) using *Pseudomonas aureofaciens* (ATCC 13985). An IAEA KNO₃⁻ standard (δ^{15} N = 4.7‰) was included at the denitrifier method step to ensure accurate conversion of NO₃⁻ to N₂O. A propagated error across all steps of δ^{15} N-NH₄⁺ quantification was calculated from the working standards included in each batch (n=18). We excluded three values that were well outside the expected range; our overall precision was 1.9‰. The largest sources of error were incomplete diffusion or persulfate digestion. For δ^{15} N-NO₃⁻ and δ^{18} O-NO₃⁻ analyzed at SIF, UC-Davis, the limit of quantification was <u>0.125 mg L⁻¹ NO₃⁻⁻ or 2.0 µM NO₃⁻ or 0.125 mg L⁻¹-NO₃⁻, with a precision of 0.4‰ and 0.5‰ for δ^{15} N and δ^{18} O, respectively.</u>

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	Using N ₂ O _{poreair} and NO ₃ ⁻ and NH ₄ ⁺ in pore water we calculated Thethe net isotope effect ($\underline{\Delta}^{15}$ Ne) of NO ₃ ⁻ reduction	Formatted: Subscript
15	to N_2O and <u>offor</u> NH_4^+ oxidation to N_2O and were calculated using equation 2 and 3, respectively.	Formatted: Superscript
	$\Delta \varepsilon^{15} N_{N_2 O - N O_3} = \delta^{15} N_{N_2 O} - \delta^{15} N_{N O_3} \tag{2}$	
	$\Delta \varepsilon^{15} N_{N_2 O - N H_4} = \delta^{15} N_{N_2 O} - \delta^{15} N_{N H_4} \tag{3}$	
	The calculation of $\Delta^{15}N_x$ can be compared to the net isotope effects for nitrification and denitrification derived N ₂ O,	Formatted: Font: (Default) Times New Roman
	as found in the literature. In reality the processes in equations 1 and 2 entail a series of sequential reactions each of	
20	which has a unique isotope effect ($\underline{\varepsilon}_{k,1}, \underline{\varepsilon}_{k,2}, \underline{\varepsilon}_{k,3}, \dots$). It is not possible to measure the isotope values of many of the	
	intermediaries in these reactions series, particularly in <u>in-situ</u> field settings, therefore we report the $\Delta^{15}N_x$. For the	Formatted: Font: (Default) Times New Roman, Not Italic
	calculation of $\Delta^{15}N_x$ we assume open system dynamics because all measurements were in situ where substrates,	Formatted: Font: (Default) Times New Roman, Not Italic
	products and intermediaries could be replenished by other processes.	Formatted: Font: (Default) Times New Roman
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	2.7 Determination of N ₂ O source contribution and N ₂ O reduction	Formatted: Font: (Default) Times New Roman, Not Italic
		Formatted: Font: (Default) Times New Roman
25	2.7.1 Two endmember mixing models using SP and δ^{18} O signatures: closed and open systems	
1	We tested-used two mixing models where N_2O reduction was modeled under 'open' and 'closed' system dynamics	
1	following the theory outlined originally by (Fry, 2007) and (Mariotti et al., 1981), respectively. The two modeling	
	methods are henceforth referred to as 'open' and 'closed'. In reality, the heterogeneity in microbial microhabitat within	
	the soil most likely results in a mixture of closed versus open system dynamics. Therefore, final data interpretations	
30	were made for the average findings across open versus closed systems dynamics. A schematic of our closed system	Formatted: Font: (Default) Times New Roman, 10 pt, Not
	approach is given in Fig. 1. For both open and closed methods, two possible scenarios were considered as described	Italic
	by (Lewicka-Szczebak et al., 2017); scenario 1 (sc1), where N2O is produced and reduced by denitrifiers before mixing	
1		
	with N_2O derived from nitrification or scenario two (sc2) where N_2O is produced from both processes, mixed, and	Formatted: Font: (Default) Times New Roman, 10 pt

35 <u>denitrification (denoted by subscript *den*) and nitrification/fungal denitrification (denoted by subscript *nit*). Our intention was to keep the derivation of endmember values consistent between this study and Lewicka-Szczebak et al.</u>

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(2017). Our SP endmember values (SP_{den} and SP_{nit}) and N₂O reduction fractionation factors ($\epsilon^{18}O_{red}$ and ϵ SP_{red}) were taken directly from Lewicka-Szczebak et al. (2017) (Table 2). For $\delta^{18}O-N_2O_{(x)}$ endmember values we could not directly use the values reported in Lewicka-Szczebak et al. (2017) because these were reported relative to $\delta^{18}O-H_2O$ (as $\delta^{18}O-N_2O(N_2O/H_2O)$) and we did not measure the isotope signature of water in our study. Therefore, $\delta^{18}O-N_2O_{nit}$

- 5 was re-calculated using the original mean values (δ¹⁸O-N₂O as opposed to δ¹⁸O-(N₂O/H₂O) of the six studies referenced by (Lewicka-Szczebak et al., 2017), this yielded a mean of 36.5% (Heil et al., 2014;Sutka et al., 2006;Sutka et al., 2008;Frame and Casciotti, 2010;Rohe et al., 2014;Maeda et al., 2015), For δ¹⁸O-N₂O_{den} we adjusted the value used in Lewicka-Szczebak et al. (2017) by an estimate of δ¹⁸O-H₂O of water for our site rather than re-calculate from the four studies originally referenced by Lewicka-Szczebak et al. (2017) (Lewicka-Szczebak et al., 2014;Lewicka-Szczebak et al., 2014;Lewicka-Szczeba
- 10 Szczebak et al., 2016;Frame and Casciotti, 2010;Sutka et al., 2006). We used a δ¹⁸O-H₂O value of -8.3‰, as reported by <u>Rapti-Caputo and Martinelli (2009)</u> for an uncontained aquifer of the Po River delta. We chose to do this because some of the mean values used in calculations by Lewicka-Szczebak et al. (2017) were themselves calculated from data originally reported. Additionally, we modeled two possible scenarios, as described by (Lewicka-Szczebak et al., 2017); scenario 1 (sc1), where N₂O is produced and reduced by denitrifiers before mixing with N₂O derived from
- 15 nitrification or scenario two (sc2) where N₂O is produced from both processes, mixed, and then reduced. In both models, N₂O is originally produced from two possible endmembers; denitrification/nitrifier denitrification (denoted by subscript *den*) and nitrification/fungal denitrification (denoted by subscript *nit*). In each model we used identical Lewicka-Szczebak et al. (2017)SP endmember values (SP_{den} and SP_{mit}) and N₂O reduction isotope effects (eSP_{red} and e¹⁸O_{red}) as those compiled in (Lewicka-Szczebak et al., 2017) (Table 2). For the δ¹⁸O N₂O_{mit} we re-calculated the
- 20 mean from the six studies used in (Lewicka-Szczebak et al., 2017), using the original values reported as δ¹⁸O-N₂O (as opposed to δ¹⁸O (N₂O/H₂O), this yielded a mean of 36.5% (!!! INVALID CITATION !!! (Heil et al., 2014;Sutka et al., 2006;Sutka et al., 2008;Frame and Casciotti, 2010;Rohe et al., 2014;Maeda et al., 2015)).
 Lewicka Szczebak et al. (2017)For the δ¹⁸O N₂O_{den}, the value used in Lewicka Szczebak et al. (2017) was originally reported relative to the δ¹⁸O H₂O (as δ¹⁸O N₂O(N₂O/H₂O)). As we did not measure δ¹⁸O H₂O in our samples, we
- 25 reported and used our sample δ¹⁴O N₂O values as is and then corrected the denitrification isotope signature, δ¹⁴O N₂O(N₂O/H₂O)_{dem}, reported by (Lewicka-Szczebak et al., 2017) by an assumed δ¹⁴O H₂O of water for our site. We used a δ¹⁴O H₂O value of -8.3‰, as reported by (Rapti Caputo and Martinelli, 2009) for an uncontained aquifer of the Po River delta. For the δ¹⁴O N₂O_{mit} we re-calculated the mean from the six studies used in <u>(Lewicka-Szczebak et al., 2017)</u>, using the original values reported as δ¹⁴O N₂O N₂O (as opposed to δ¹⁴O (N₂O/H₂O), this yielded a mean of
- 30 36.5% (Heil et al., 2014;Sutka et al., 2006;Sutka et al., 2008;Frame and Casciotti, 2010;Rohe et al., 2014;Maeda et al., 2015).

 Closed system fractionation for N₂O reduction was modeled following the method described in (Lewicka-Szczebak
 et al., 2017) (Fig.1). <u>A detailed protocol for these calculations can also be found on ResearchGate</u> (DOI:10.13140/RG.2.2.17478.52804). <u>Here, In brief, ssample SP and δ¹⁸O-N₂O values are used to derive sample</u> specific intercepts that pass through the sample and reduction line (sc1) or the sample and the mixing line (sc2). A

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fixed slope for the reduction line can be calculated from $\epsilon SP_{red} / \epsilon^{18}O_{red}$ (i.e. in our case, -5/-15). In sc1, the intercept of the mixing and reduction line represents N₂O that has been produced from denitrification/nitrifier-denitrification and partially reduced but not yet mixed with N₂O produced from nitrification/fungal denitrification. In sc2, the intercept of these lines represents N₂O that has been produced by the two endmember pools, mixed, but not yet reduced. The Y axis (i.e. SP) value of these respective intercepts can be used in a generalized Rayleigh equation (Eq.

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$$SP_{resid.N20} \approx SP_{N20-unreduced} + \varepsilon SP_{red} \cdot \ln(rN_2O_{net})$$
 (4)

In sc1 the rN_2O is determined with respect to N_2O from denitrification/nitrifier-denitrification only, therefore to calculate the residual fraction of total production (i.e. $N_2 + N_2O$) we calculate gross rN_2O :

$$gross rN_2O_{sc1} = \frac{1}{fracDenit_{net}/rN_2O_{net} + 1 - fracDenit_{net}} (scI, in sc2 rN_2O_{net} - rN_2O_{gross})$$
(5)

To calculate the fraction of denitrification of the total initially produced N_2O (emitted as N_2O and N_2) we calculate the gross denitrification fraction:

$$gross frac_{DEN \ sc1-closed} = \frac{fracDenit_{net}/rN_2O_{net}}{fracDenit_{net}/rN_2O_{net} + 1 - fracDenit_{net}} (sc1)$$
(6)

15 To calculate the fraction of denitrification/nitrifier-denitrification to the net N₂O produced, we use Eq. 7. For simplicity and comparison with open system calculations, we call this *DenContribution*.

$$net frac_{DENsc1-closed} = \frac{SP_{sample} - SP_{nit}}{SP_{resid.N20} - SP_{nit}} (sc1) = \text{DenContribution}_{closed-sc1}$$
(7)

In this case, $SP_{resid,N20}$ is the signature of residual bacterial N₂O after partial reduction but before mixing. This was determined from the graphical method (Lewicka-Szczebak et al., 2017). In sc2 both net and gross fractions of denitrification are equal and can be expressed as:

$$DenContribution_{closed-sc2} = \frac{SP_{N2O-unreduced-SP_{nit}}}{SP_{den}-SP_{nit}} (sc2)$$
(8)

Here, $SP_{N2O-undreduced}$ is the signature of N_2O mixed from nitrification/fungal denitrification and

denitrification/nitrifier-denitrification, but before reduction. This was determined from the graphical method (Lewicka-Szczebak et al., 2017).

To predict rN_2O in open systems we set up a series of mass balance equations using our measured N₂O flux or N₂O_{poreair} concentrations and measured $\delta^{18}O$ and SP values. We used the same endmember values listed in Table 2 for all equations. As above, we can model the interaction between mixing and reduction assuming sc1 (Eqs 9-11) or sc2 (Eqs 9,12,13). In Eqs 9-13, we use k_{nin} , k_{den} and k_{red} to represent the gross process rates or concentrations of N₂O attributable to nitrification, denitrification and N₂O reduction, respectively.

$$N_2 O_{flux}(or N_2 O_{poreair}) = k_{nit} + k_{den} - k_{red} \quad note: k_{den} = \text{total denitrification} (N_2 O + N_2)$$
(9)

$$SP - N_2 O_{measured} = \frac{SP_{nit}k_{nit} + \left(SP_{den} - \varepsilon SP_{red} \left(\frac{k_{red}}{k_{den}}\right)\right)(k_{den} - k_{red})}{k_{nit} + k_{den} - k_{red}} \quad (sc1)$$
(10)

$$\delta^{18}O - N_2 O_{measured} = \frac{(\delta^{18}ON_2 O_{nit})k_{nit} + (\delta^{18}ON_2 O_{den} - \varepsilon^{18}O_{red}(\frac{k_{red}}{k_{den}}))(k_{den} - k_{red})}{k_{nit} + k_{den} - k_{red}} \quad (sc1)$$

$$SP - N_2 O_{measured} = \frac{(SP_{nit}k_{nit} + SP_{den}k_{den})}{k_{nit} + k_{den}} - \varepsilon SP_{red} \left(1 - \frac{N_2 O_{flux}}{k_{nit} + k_{den}}\right) \quad (sc2)$$
(12)

$$\delta^{18}O - N_2 O_{measured} = \frac{(\delta^{18}ON_2 O_{nit})k_{nit} + (\delta^{18}ON_2 O_{den})k_{den}}{k_{nit} + k_{den}} - \varepsilon^{18}O_{red}\left(1 - \frac{N_2 O_{flux}}{k_{nit} + k_{den}}\right)$$
(sc2)

(13)

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These two sets of equations (Eq. 9,10,11) or (Eq. 9,12,13), representing each scenario, were applied to measured surface fluxes to produce process rates in g N₂O-N ha⁻¹ d⁻¹ or were applied to N₂O_{poreair} concentrations to produce concentrations of N₂O in μ g N₂O-N L⁻¹. By rearranging these process rates or concentrations we can calculate gross *r*N₂O, frac_{*DEN*} and the contribution of denitrification to N₂O using Eqs. 14-16.

$$gross \, frac_{DEN \, sc1, sc2-open} = \frac{k_{den}}{k_{nit} + k_{den}} \tag{14}$$

$$gross rN_2 O_{sc1,sc2-open} = \frac{\kappa_{nit} + \kappa_{den} - \kappa_{red}}{\kappa_{nit} + \kappa_{den}}$$
(15)

(16)

 $10 \qquad \textit{DenContribution}_{sc1,sc1-open} = \frac{(\textit{k}_{den} - \textit{k}_{red})}{[\textit{N}_2 \textit{O}]} \ , [N_2 O] = N_2 O_{flux} \, \text{or} \, N_2 O_{poreair}$

Plausible solutions for k_{red} , k_{den} , and k_{red} were estimated based on minimizing the sum of squares between the modeled and measured N₂O flux (or concentration), δ^{18} O and SP values using a Generalized Reduced Gradient (GRG) nonlinear algorithm in the *Solver* function of excel. Example calculations for the open system modeling are given in an Excel supplementary material file. Solutions with a minimum sum of squares over 500 were considered implausible (8.3% of solutions) (Table S2). Both models produced some non-plausible solutions, i.e. fractional contributions over 1 or

under 0. Only solutions with a gross rN_2O , gross $frac_{DEN}$ and DenContribution between 0 to 1 and an open system minimum sum of squares < 500 were retained. In sc1, roughly 75% of solutions met these criteria. For sc2, less than 10% of solutions in the open system met this criteria, therefore we do not proceed to analyze and discuss solutions from sc2 (Table S2 and Fig. S3).

20 2.8 Statistical analyses

Response variables were analyzed using a linear mixed effects ANCOVA model with treatment, date, and depth (if applicable) as fixed effects and plot as a random effect. The longitudinal position in the field (Y position) measured in meters from the central driveway (Fig. S2), was used as a covariate to account for potential heterogeneity in the longitudinal direction. In the case of non-normally distributed data, data was transformed to obtain a normal distribution of residuals. Due to the non-normal distribution of many variables, Spearman correlations were used to analyze the relationship between N₂O_{emitted} fluxes, isotopocule-valuesisotope ratios, soil environmental and substrate variables. Post-hoc analysis of treatment and depth within a given day was performed using the *lsmeans* function with a Tukey adjustment for multiple comparisons. For the analysis of modeling results we eliminated the 25 cm depth due to poor data availability. All data analysis was done in R version 3.3.2.

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3 Results

3.1 Yield

At the end of the growing season yield was measured in the larger plots in which are sampling plots were situated. The DS-AWD treatment had a significantly lower yield, 6.6 t/ha, relative to 8.9 and 8.2 t/ha in the WS-FLD and WS-AWD, respectively (respectively (Table 1).

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3.1-2 N2O fluxes, dissolved and pore air N2O concentrations

3.42.1 Temporal patterns in N₂O fluxes and concentrations

After the first basal fertilization (May 16th) and prior to the second topdressing fertilization (June 21st), emissions were significantly higher in the DS-AWD treatment than in WS-AWD and WS-FLD on eight and six of the 11 sampling 10 days, respectively (Fig. 2). During this time four peaks in emissions were observed in the DS-AWD treatment, on May 20^{th} , June 1^{st} - 3^{rd} , June 7- 9^{th} , and June 20^{th} , averaging 39.5 ± 5.1 g N₂O-N ha⁻¹ d⁻¹. A peak in emissions following the second fertilization (June 21st) was observed in all treatments; in the DS-AWD treatment emissions peaked at 108.2 ± 4.2 g N₂O-N ha⁻¹ d⁻¹ on June 23rd, while in the WS-AWD and WS-FLD treatments, emissions peaked one day earlier reaching 49.4 ± 17.9 and 77.67 ± 10.6 g N₂O-N ha⁻¹ d⁻¹, respectively. In the WS-AWD treatment, emissions 15 remained slightly elevated following this fertilization until the end of the monitoring campaign, while in the DS-AWD and WS-FLD, emissions declined after June 22 or 23rd, respectively.

If we exclude N2Odissolved measurements from the DS-AWD treatment following the second fertilization (i.e. after the 22^{nd} of June, when concentrations reached as high as $594.4 \pm 112.6 \ \mu g \ N_2$ O-N L⁻¹ at 5 cm), concentrations throughout the profile of all treatments remained under 20 µg N2O-N L⁻¹. Due to the large differences between dates and 20 treatments we present the concentrations on a log10 scale (Fig. 2) and non-transformed scale (Fig. S4). Peak concentrations in the WS treatments occurred at 5 cm on the first day of measurement, reaching 17.7 ± 5.1 and 18.5± 2.8 μg N₂O-N L⁻¹ in the WS-AWD and WS-FLD, respectively. In comparison, in the DS-AWD treatment peak concentrations prior to the second fertilization were observed at 25 cm on June 3^{rd} , reaching 18.5 ± 8.3 µg N₂O-N L⁻ 25 1

As with dissolved N2O, pore air N2O concentrations were highly variable between treatments and between sampling days and are again presented on a log₁₀ scale (Fig. 2) and non-transformed scale (Fig. S4). In both WS treatments, the highest concentrations were observed on the first day of measurement, May 20^{th} , reaching 2903.3 ± 1103.6 and 132130 ± 998.0 μg N₂O-N L⁻¹ at 5 cm in the WS-FLD and WS-AWD, respectively. Elevated concentrations of N₂O_{poreair} were also observed in the DS-AWD on the first day of measurement but were 70.1 µg N2O-N L1 at 5 cm (roughly 40x lower than in WS-FLD on this date). Maximum concentrations in the DS-AWD treatment were observed two days after the second fertilizer application, reaching 1902.2 µg N₂O-N L⁻¹; in contrast no change was observed in the WS treatments following this fertilizer application. In all treatments the majority of N2Oporeair concentrations were

35 orders of magnitude lower than these peaks. There was a tendency of lower N2Oporeair concentrations in the DS-AWD

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treatment relative to the WS treatments; this pattern was most evident at 5 cm (Fig. 2). However, treatment differences in N₂O_{poreair} were not significant (p=0.08, Table S3) and there was a significant date x treatment interaction.

3.12.2 Relation of N2O fluxes and concentrations with soil environment, substrates and N2O isotopocules isotope ratios

5 We evaluated the correlation of N₂O_{emitted} with Eh, WFPS, NO₃⁻, NH₄⁺, dissolved and pore air N₂O concentrations and N2O isotopocule-isotope ratios at 5 cm (Table 3). Among these variables, N2O emissions in the WS treatments were negatively correlated with pore water NH4+ and DOC in the WS-AWD treatment. In the DS-AWD treatment, emissions positively correlated with N2Oporeair, WFPS, and NO3- and negatively with N2O isotopocule signatures isotope ratios. Examining the isotopocule signatures isotope ratios of N2Oemitted, we observed that N2Oemitted 10 was negatively correlated with δ^{18} O-N₂O_{emitted} in all treatments, negatively with δ^{15} N-N₂O_{emitted} in the DS-AWD treatment and negatively with SP-N2Oemitted in the WS-FLD and DS-AWD. Interestingly, a positive correlation between $N_2O_{emitted}$ and $SP-N_2O_{emitted}$ was observed in the WS-AWD treatment. Relative to the DS-AWD, the WS treatments had fewer significant correlations between N2O isotopoculesisotope ratios, soil environment or pore air N_2O isotopocule signatures isotope ratios. DOC was positively correlated with $\delta^{15}N-N_2O_{emitted}$ in the WS-AWD and 15 with δ^{18} O-N₂O_{emitted} in the WS-FLD. SP-N₂O_{emitted} was positively correlated to Eh and negatively to WFPS in the WS-AWD treatment. In comparison, in the DS-AWD treatment, N2O isotopocules signatures of N2O emitted isotope ratios were positively correlated to that of $N_2O_{poreair}$ for all three isotopocules isotopes. Furthermore, N_2O isotopocule signaturesisotope ratios in the DS-AWD treatment were negatively correlated with N2Oporeair concentrations, WFPS, $NO_{3}^{-}(\delta^{15}N-N_{2}O_{emitted} only) and N_{2}O_{dissolved} (\delta^{18}O-N_{2}O_{emitted} and SP-N_{2}O_{emitted} only). It should be noted that N_{2}O_{dissolved} (\delta^{18}O-N_{2}O_{emitted} only) and N_{2}O_{emitted} (\delta^{18}O-N_{2}O_{emitted} only) and N_{2}O_{dissolved} (\delta^{18}O-N_{2}O_{emitted} only) and N_{2}O_{dissolved} (\delta^{18}O-N_{2}O_{emitted} only) and N_{2}O_{emitted} (\delta^{18}O-N_{2}O_{emitted} only) and N_{2}O_{emitted} only) and N_{2}O_{emitted} only (\delta^{18}O-N_{2}O_{emitted} only) and N_{2}O_{emitted} only (\delta^{18}O-N_{2}O_{emitted} only) and N_{2}O_{emitted} only (\delta^{18}O-N_{2}O_{emitted} only)$ 20 in the DS-AWD treatment was not measurable at the 5 cm depth on 10 of the 16 sampling dates due to low soil

moisture and low pore water volumes.

3.2-3 Spatiotemporal patterns of N2O isotopoculesisotope ratios

3.23.1 δ¹⁵N-N₂O

The $\delta^{15}N$ signatures of N₂O_{emitted} showed high temporal variation across all treatments, while $\delta^{15}N$ N₂O_{poreair} signatures changed less between sample dates and more discernable patterns across time could be seen (Fig. 3). A consistent 25 temporal pattern of higher $N_2O_{poreair}$ concentrations and $N_2O_{emitted}$ fluxes in association with lower $\delta^{15}N \frac{1}{signatures}$ was observed in the DS-AWD treatment. In the WS treatments, high N2Oemitted fluxes on June 23rd, following the second fertilization, were associated were also associated with lower $\delta^{15}N$ signatures (Fig. 3), this was not the case for a high flux in the WS-AWD on June 17th. N2Oporeair at 5cm in the WS-AWD treatment tended to be higher in concentration 30 and lower in δ^{15} N relative to other depths, however, in general a consistent relationship between concentration and $\delta^{15}N$ signatures was less evident in the two WS treatments. On average, the $\delta^{15}N$ -signature of N_2O_{emitted} was lower relative to N2Oppreain in the DS-AWD treatment. In contrast, in the WS treatments N2Oemitted was depleted in ¹⁵N relative to $N_2O_{poreair}$ at all depths only immediately before and after the second fertilization. In these treatments, $\delta^{15}N-N_2O_{poreair}$ was generally lower at 5 cm relative the other depths but tended to increase and reach similar values as the other

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depths over the experimental period. As a result, $N_2O_{emitted}$ was often enriched in ¹⁵N relative to $N_2O_{poreair}$ at 5 cm in these treatments, particularly in the WS-AWD treatment.

3.23.2 δ¹⁸O-N₂O

As with $\delta^{15}N$, $\delta^{18}O$ signatures-isotope ratios spanned a large range, particularly in the emitted N₂O (Fig. 3). $\delta^{18}O$ -N₂O_{poreair} in the DS-AWD followed a temporal pattern similar to $\delta^{15}N$ signatures and similarly, $\delta^{18}O$ -signatures were was generally lower in N₂O_{emitted} relative to N₂O_{poreair}. The highest $\delta^{18}O$ -highest $\delta^{18}O$ -N₂O_{poreair} was seen in the DS-AWD treatment at moderate N₂O_{poreair} concentrations where $\delta^{18}O$ signatures were isotope ratios were higher than other concentrations in the DS-AWD or any concentration in the WS treatments. These samples were also nearly always taken from 12.5 or 25 cm. In all treatments, lower $\delta^{18}O$ signatures were observed in N₂O_{poreair} and N₂O_{emitted} on the first day of sampling, global mean of 35.1 ± 1.1 and 29.6 ± 1.7‰ relative to 46.9 ± 0.4 and 43.9 ± 1.7‰, respectively. Otherwise, no distinct patter with depth, time, or concentration was observed in the WS treatments.

3.23.3 SP-N₂O

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The SP of N₂O_{emitted} ranged from 4.5 ± 0.4 to 25.6 ± 8.1‰, from 2.9 ± 1.0 to 37.2‰ (un-replicated) and from 5.8 ± 0.6 to 40.6 ± 12.4‰, in the DS-AWD, WS-AWD, and WS-FLD treatments, respectively (Fig. 3). In contrast to δ^{15} N and δ^{18} O signaturesisotope ratios, the SP-N₂O_{poreair} tended to increase with time, but only in the WS treatments. As with δ^{15} N-N₂O and δ^{18} O-N₂O, moderate and lower concentration N₂O_{poreair} samples showed higher SP values relative to higher concentration N₂O_{poreair} samples. For example, two days after the second fertilizer application (June 23rd), SP values decreased in conjunction with increased N₂O_{poreair} concentrations in the DS-AWD treatment. On this date mean SP values at 5 cm demonstrated the largest treatment differences with values of: 0.7 ± 4.5, 27.6 ± 2.1, and 39.9 ± 2.7‰ in the DS-AWD, WS-AWD, and WS-FLD treatments, respectively. On this date, the pattern between the

treatments was consistent throughout the three depths.

$3.2\underline{3}.4 \ Relationships \ between \ N_2O \ \underline{isotopocules} \ \underline{isotope \ ratios}$

Considering all depths and emitted data together, δ¹⁸O-N₂O signatures-significantly and positively correlated with δ¹⁵N-N₂O and SP across all treatments. The slope of δ¹⁸O-N₂O vs. δ¹⁵N-N₂O was 0.67, 0.28, and 0.52 (Fig. S5) and 0.67, 0.54 and 0.31 for SP vs. δ¹⁸O-N₂O in the DS-AWD, WS-AWD, and WS-FLD treatments, respectively (Fig. 4a). There was no correlation between SP and δ¹⁵N-N₂O in the two WS treatments, but a positive correlation for the DS-AWD was found, with a slope of 0.62 (Fig. 4b). Examining these relationships by depth, we saw the strongest relationship and highest slope in the N₂O_{emitted} and at 25 cm for δ¹⁸O-N₂O vs₂ δ¹⁵N-N₂O (Fig. S5). While the SP vs δ¹⁸O-N₂O showed no correlation among the surface fluxes in the WS treatments, the two isotopoeules-isotope ratios
were positively correlated in N₂O_{poreair} at all depths and treatments (Fig. S6). A contrasting relationship between SP and δ¹⁵N-N₂O was observed for the WS-FLD treatment in the N₂O_{poreair} (Fig. S7).

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3.3-4 NO3 and NH4⁺ concentrations and isotope signatures ratios

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3.34.1 Spatiotemporal trend in NO₃⁻ and NH₄⁺ concentration and $\delta^{15}N$ and $\delta^{18}O$ signaturesisotope ratios

In all treatments, pore water NH_{4^+} concentrations were highest at 5 cm relative to the other depths (Fig. 2). In the DS-AWD treatment concentrations were almost null prior to the second fertilization, remaining below 0.85 mg NH_{4^+} -N

 L^{-1} across all depths. Following this fertilization, concentrations increased at all depths, most notably at 5 cm. An opposing pattern was observed in the WS treatments where NH_4^+ was nearly always significantly higher than in DS-AWD for each corresponding depth leading up to the second fertilization, but dropped to near zero following the fertilization. Nitrate concentrations were exclusively less than 1.5 mg NO₃-N L^{-1} in both WS treatments throughout the experimental period. In sharp contrast, NO₃⁻ concentrations in the DS-AWD were at times more than 75 times higher than in WS treatments, peaking on June 1st at 113.6 ± 22.4 mg NO₃-N L^{-1} . Following this spike, concentrations steadily declined and dropped to null following the second fertilization.

3.34.2 δ^{15} N-NO₃, δ^{15} N-NH₄⁺ and isotope enrichment factors: Σ^{15} N_{N20/NO3} and $\Delta \varepsilon^{15}$ N_{N20/NH4}

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Concentrations of NO3- or NH4+ were often too low for isotope measurements. Hence, we could only obtain sufficient replication for statistical analysis across depths and treatments on five days for NO3- (May 24th, 27th, June 1st, 14th, 23^{rd}) and two days for NH₄⁺ (May 24th and June 23rd) (Fig. S9). Daily mean δ^{15} N-NO₃⁻ ranged from -4.3 to 28.3‰ 15 across all treatments and depths. In the DS-AWD treatment a consistent depth pattern was observed with ¹⁵N enrichment of NO₃⁻ at 25 cm > 12.5 cm = 5 cm. δ^{15} N-NO₃⁻ signatures-increased with time at 5 cm, rising from -4.3 \pm 1.5% to 22.0 \pm 4.9%. Significant treatment and depth differences were observed on May 24th, 27th and June 1st, but no differences were observed on later dates, June 14th or 23rd. Following the second fertilizer application, δ^{15} N-NO₃⁻ 20 signatures-values in the DS-AWD treatment rose by approximately 10% at all depths. Daily mean δ^{15} N-NH₄⁺ ranged from -6% to 15.2% (Fig. S9). Averaging across the experimental period and depths, mean $\delta^{15}N$ values signatures of NO3⁻ and NH4⁺ were similar, 8.4 and 7.0‰, respectively (Table S5). There was no evident temporal or depth trend in δ^{15} N-NH₄⁺ in any of the treatments. The only significant difference was lower δ^{15} N-NH₄⁺ in the DS-AWD on June 23^{rd} . δ^{15} N-NO₃⁻ values positively correlated to N₂O_{poreair} concentrations in the DS-AWD and WS-FLD treatments and were negatively correlated to NO₃⁻ concentrations and to δ^{15} N-NH₄⁺ in the DS-AWD treatment (Table 4). δ^{15} N-NH₄⁺ 25 was negatively correlated to $N_2O_{poreair}$ concentrations and NH_4^+ concentrations and positively to $\delta^{15}N-N_2O_{poreair}$ in the

DS-AWD treatment.

Largely reflecting the depth pattern of δ¹⁵N-NO₃⁻ in the DS-AWD, the calculated Δe¹⁵N_{N20/NO3} tended to be highest at
5 cm, mean -7.2 ± 2.7‰, while mean values at 12.5 and 25 cm were slightly lower, -9.5 ± 2.0 and -16.0 ± 2.1‰, respectively (Fig. S9). At 5 cm Δe¹⁵N_{N20/NO3} values in the DS-AWD were significantly higher than in the WS treatments; at 12.5cm they tended to be higher as well but the difference was not significant. Two days after the second fertilizer application, the Δe¹⁵N_{N20/NO3} in the DS-AWD markedly decreased at all depths to a treatment mean of -23.6 ± 2.6‰. In comparison, WS treatment Δe¹⁵N_{N20/NO3} values rose one (WS-FLD) or two (WS-AWD) days
following the fertilization. In the WS-FLD, the increase in Δe¹⁵N_{N20/NO3} values lasted only one day; unfortunately low NO₃⁻ concentrations precluded δ¹⁵N-NO₃⁻ analysis on many dates making temporal patterns difficult to observe.

Mean depth by treatment isotope effects calculated relative to δ^{15} N-NH₄⁺ ($\Delta \epsilon^{15}$ N_{N20/NH4}) were -12.7 ± 3.2‰, -24.5 ± 2.6‰ and -20.6 ± 2.2‰ at 5 cm; -9.9 ± 4.0‰, -12.8 ± 2.8‰ and -15.9 ± 1.9‰ at 12.5 cm; -17.0 ± 5.9‰, -6.4 ± 1.7‰ and -5.8 ± 2.7‰ at 25 cm for DS-AWD, WD-AWD and WD-FLD, respectively. Data for $\Delta \epsilon^{15}$ N_{N20/NH4} was scarce in the DS-AWD treatment due to low NH₄⁺ concentrations, in the WS treatments $\Delta \epsilon^{15}$ N_{N20/NH4} increased with depth, but these differences were not significant.

 δ^{18} O-NO₃⁻ was significantly depleted in the DS-AWD treatment relative to both WS treatments (Fig. S9). Prior to the second fertilization, values were remarkably consistent in the DS-AWD at all depths, ranging from 0.1 to 7.5%. Two days after this fertilizer application, δ^{18} O-NO₃⁻ rose to a mean of 7.6% across depths. In comparison the δ^{18} O-NO₃⁻ of both WS treatments was more variable between sampling dates, fluctuating between 12.2 to 38.8 and 10.4 to 32.7%

leading up the second fertilization in the WS-AWD and WS-FLD, respectively. Two days after the second fertilizer application values rose to a mean of 23.7 and 27.4‰ across depths in the WS-AWD and WS-FLD, respectively. We calculated the net isotope effect for δ¹⁸O-<u>N₂O</u> relative to water (Δe¹⁸O_{N2O/H2O}). The Δe¹⁸O_{N2O/H2O} in all treatments and depths tended to rise over the course of the measurement period, with the most consistent rise observed at 5 cm. Here
values rose from a global mean of 43.8 ± 1.0‰ on May 20th to 58.5 ± 1.0‰ on June 30th. There was a pattern of higher Δe¹⁸O_{N2O/H2O} in the DS-AWD treatment relative to the two WS treatments. A drop in Δe¹⁸O_{N2O/H2O} of ~ 10‰ was observed in all depths on June 23rd, two days after the second fertilization with urea, in the DS-AWD only.

$3.4\underline{-5}$ SP x δ_{k}^{18} O-N2O two endmember mixing model to estimate N2O reduction, source contributions, and N2O reduction

- 20 To further quantitatively interpret our isotopocule isotopocule isotopocule a graphical two end-member mixing model (Lewicka-Szczebak et al., 2017), based on the relationship between SP and δ¹⁸O-N₂O (Fig. 1 and 4). Data was modeled for open and closed fractionation dynamics under two scenarios. In sc1 reduction of N₂O from the denitrification/nitrifier-denitrification endmember pool occurs prior to mixing with nitrification/fungal denitrification derived N₂O; in sc2, mixing of N₂O from both endmember pools occurs before reduction. For sc2 our model yielded implausible results for the contribution of denitrification/nitrifier-denitrification to N₂O emissions in about 90% and 20% of observations under open and closed system dynamics, respectively (Table S2). The poorer outcomes from sc2 in the open system indicate that the assumptions underlying this scenario are likely false in open systems or vice versa. In order to have comparable data between open and closed systems we discuss only results coming from sc1 simulations.
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Temporal trends in the gross rates of rN_2O (extent of N_2O reduction) predicted by open and closed system N_2O fractionation were nearly identical (Fig. 5b). Gross rN_2O was estimated to be higher (i.e. lower N_2O reduction) under closed system fractionation dynamics. In reality, it can be assumed that neither perfect open or closed systems exist in nature and processes likely reflect a mixture of these dynamics. The use of one or the other case may bias results,

therefore we chose to take the mean of the two systems to estimate N2O reduction, nitrification/fungal denitrification

and denitrification/nitrifier-denitrification derived N_2O emissions (Decock and Six, 2013b;Wu et al., 2016). Due to a disproportionate number of missing values at 25 cm in the two WS treatments, we chose not to include data from this

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depth in our analysis and discussion. Therefore, further values refer to the mean of open and closed systems and N2Oemitted or N2Oporeair at 5 cm and 12.5 cm unless explicitly stated otherwise. Gross rN2O fractions tended to be higher in $N_2O_{emitted}$ (treatment means 0.14 to 0.19) relative to the subsurface (treatment means 0.06 to 0.15). While water management treatment had a significant effect on process contributions to $N_2O_{emitted}$ and $N_2O_{poreair}$ (Table 5), significant interactions with depth and date were observed. Gross rN2O fractions in N2Oporeair were significantly lower in the DS-AWD relative to the WS-FLD on six of 15 days, with the WS-AWD falling in between. In the $N_2O_{emitted}$, the opposite pattern was mostly observed with gross rN₂O fractions often being higher in the DS-AWD than one or the other WS treatments, significantly so on four of 15 days. Aggregated across depths, the contribution of denitrification/nitrifier-denitrification to N2Oporeair were higher in the DS-AWD relative to one or both WS treatments on four dates and lower on three dates (Fig. 5a). The mean contribution of denitrification/nitrifier-denitrification to N2Oemitted ranged from 43 to 49% in all treatments (Fig. 6). Denitrification/nitrifier-denitrification contributions to N2Oemitted were higher in the DS-AWD relative to the WS treatments on June 9th and 23rd and relative to WS-AWD

4 Discussion

15 4.1 Patterns of N2Ogenitted, N2Ogoreair, and N2O isotopocule isotope ratios and net isotope effects

N demand in this treatment should have resulted in higher soil N concentrations.

only they were also higher on June 28th and lower on June 21st.

In accordance with results from past studies (Miniotti et al., 2016;Peyron et al., 2016;Cai et al., 1997) and in line with our hypothesis, we observed higher N₂O emissions on most days in the DS-AWD relative to the two WS treatments (Fig. 2). A belated divergence in water management between the WS-FLD and WS-AWD (Table 1), in addition to a relatively wet early summer, likely contributed to similar observed soil environmental conditions and N substrates among these two treatments. Therefore, given the similarities in soil conditions, it is not surprising that N2O fluxes and isotopocule isotope ratio differences between these two treatments were generally fewer than expected. The lower yield in the DS-AWD treatment likely contributed additional differences in pore water N concentrations because lower

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25 Mean daily $\delta^{15}N$, $\delta^{18}O$ and SP values of N₂O_{enritted} and N₂O_{poreair} per depth and treatment ranged from -27.9 to 12.3‰, 30.9 to 63.0% and -14.0 to 53.2%, respectively (Fig. 3). These values are similar in magnitude to those observed by (Yano et al., 2014) in the early growing season of rice, where ranges of -24 to 6‰, 24 to 66‰ and 4 to 25‰ were reported. Our values are also similar in magnitude to those observed in other field studies which have included depth sampling (Koehler et al., 2012;Zou et al., 2014). Relative to these two studies we observed higher δ^{15} N-N₂O and both 30 higher and lower SP ratios. This was likely due to a higher sampling frequency, which covered more variable soil environments and generally higher soil moisture in our study than in the others. For example, it has been shown that organic matter decomposition and DOC availability in rice systems can decline with the introduction of wet-dry cycles or dry seeding (Said-Pullicino et al., 2016;Yao et al., 2011); thus it is likely that conditions promoting complete denitrification declined in the AWD treatments. While, saturated conditions promoting complete denitrification may have a strong impact on isotope signaturesIn contrast, saturated conditions favoring complete denitrification certainly

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prevailed in the WS treatments at times. Working in a denitrifying aquifer, (Well et al., 2012) observed very large ranges in δ^{15} N and SP ratios, varying from -55.4 to 89.4‰ and 1.8 to 97.9‰, respectively.

The calculated s¹⁴N_{N2ONO2} (net isotope effect) in the DS-AWD treatment, with depth means of -7.2 to -16.0‰, was consistently much higher (i.e. less strong fractionation) than literature values reported for denitrification of NO₂, mean: -42.9 ± 6.3‰ (Denk et al., 2017)(Fig. S9). At 5 cm in the two WS treatments, the mean s¹⁴N_{N2ONO2} was lower than in the DS AWD (23.2 and -21.5 in the WS AWD and WS FLD, respectively), but still nearly 20‰ higher than literature values. In a rice system, (Yano et al., 2014)observed an e⁴⁵N_{N2ONO2} of -6.7‰, thus very well within the range of our calculated e¹⁴N_{N2ONO2}. Similarly, the global mean of our e⁴⁵N_{N2ONO2} of -6.7‰, thus on average much higher than those reported in the literature for nitrification, -46.9‰ (Sutka et al., 2006) or -56.6 ± 7.3‰ (Denk et al., 2017). For both isotope effects, similar scenarios may explain our high observed e¹⁴N_{N2ONO2} or near complete substrate consumption or ii) significant reduction of N₂O serving to increase 8¹⁴N-N₂O values and thereby reduce the net isotope effect.

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Considering the moist conditions and high reduction rates, it seems most likely that strong NaO reduction was the largest contributor to our high net isotope effects. To check this, we estimated initial 8⁴⁵N NaO values before NaO reduction using our modeled N2O reduction fraction (rN2O), measured 8⁴⁵N N2O values and a ⁴⁵N isotope effect during reduction of -6.6% (Denk et al., 2017) in the Rayleigh equation. We could then estimate amended s⁴⁵N_{NCC} values if N2O reduction effects were accounted for, from the difference between our initial 845N-N2O estimates and 20 δ¹⁵N-NO₂ - These calculations yielded a s¹⁵N_{N2O-NO2} from -25.0 to -36.5‰, -32.6 to -42.3‰ and -29.0 to -51.1‰ in the DS-AWD, WS-AWD and WS-FLD across depths (Table S6). These amended s¹⁵N_{N202003} values do decrease and especially for the WS treatments, come relatively close to literature values for s⁴⁵N_{N2ONO3} values during denitrification. Thus, significant N2O reduction can likely explain much of the high stsNN2ONO3 values observed, particularly in the 25 WS treatments. Yet other factors were also likely at play to some degree. For example, in the DS-AWD, where we observed evidence of significant nitrification, it is quite possible to envision isolated enrichment of NO2-in anaerobic microsites where N2O is produced, while the bulk soil NO2-pool remained less enriched. It is also true that we could not always measure 8¹⁵N values of NO2- or NH4+ because the concentrations were too low, thus we could not calculate isotope effects. This highlights a persistent dilemma, which is true for all isotopocules, that we cannot accurately 30 measure isotope values at very low concentrations. Hence, in situ measurements such as these will always be biased toward higher concentration scenarios where perhaps the strongest and most interesting effects of substrate enrichment

4.2 Source partitioning N₂O production

are missed.

One method to source partition emissions is to calculate net isotope effects and compare these to literature values derived from controlled and pure culture experiments where isotope effects were determined for individual processes. The calculated $\Delta \varepsilon^{15} N_{N20/N03}$ (net isotope effect) in the DS-AWD treatment, with depth means of -7.2 to -16.0‰, was

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consistently much higher (i.e. less strong fractionation) than literature values reported for denitrification of NO₃, mean: -42.9 ± 6.3‰ (Denk et al., 2017)(Fig. S9). At 5 cm in the two WS treatments, the mean $\Delta \varepsilon^{15}N_{N2ONO3}$ was lower than in the DS-AWD (-23.2 and -21.5 in the WS-AWD and WS-FLD, respectively), but still nearly 20‰ higher than literature values. In a rice system, (Yano et al., 2014) observed an $\Delta \varepsilon^{15}N_{N2ONO3}$ of -6.7‰, thus very well within the range of our calculated $\Delta \varepsilon^{15}N_{N2ONO3}$. Similarly, the global mean of our $\Delta \varepsilon^{15}N_{N2ONH4}$ values was -14.8‰, thus on average much higher than those reported in the literature for nitrification, -46.9‰ (Sutka et al., 2006) or -56.6 ± 7.3‰ (Denk et al., 2017). For both isotope effects, similar scenarios may explain our high observed $\Delta \varepsilon^{15}N_X$ (i.e. low fractionation). Namely, i) non-steady state reactions, for example rapid refreshing of the NO₃⁻ and NH₃⁺ pools or near complete substrate consumption or ii) significant reduction of N₂O serving to increase $\delta^{15}N_{N2O}$ values and thereby

10 reduce the net isotope effect.

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Considering the moist conditions and high reduction rates, it seems most likely that strong N₂O reduction was the largest contributor to the greater degree of isotopic discrimination observed<u>our high net isotope effects</u>. To check this, we estimated *initial* δ^{15} N-N₂O values before N₂O reduction using our modeled N₂O reduction fraction (*r*N₂O),

- 15 measured δ¹⁵N-N₂O values and a ¹⁵N isotope effect during reduction of -6.6‰ (Denk et al., 2017) in the Rayleigh equation. We could then estimate amended Δe¹⁵N_{N2ONO3} values if N₂O reduction effects were accounted for, from the difference between our *initial* δ¹⁵N-N₂O estimates and δ¹⁵N-NO₃. These calculations yielded a Δe¹⁵N_{N2ONO3} from 25.0 to -36.5‰, -32.6 to -42.3‰ and -29.0 to -51.1‰ in the DS-AWD, WS-AWD and WS-FLD across depths (Table S6). These amended Δe¹⁵N_{N2ONO3} values do decrease and especially for the WS treatments, come relatively close to
- 20 <u>literature values for $\Delta e^{15}N_{N2O/NO3}$ values during denitrification. Thus, significant N₂O reduction can likely explain much of the high $\Delta e^{15}N_{N2O/NO3}$ values observed, particularly in the WS treatments. Yet other factors were also likely at play to some degree. For example, in the DS-AWD, where we observed evidence of significant nitrification, it is quite possible to envision isolated enrichment of NO₃⁻ in anaerobic microsites where N₂O is produced, while the bulk soil NO₃⁻ pool remained less enriched. It is also true that we could not always measure $\delta^{15}N$ values of NO₃⁻ or NH₄#</u>
- 25 because the concentrations were too low, thus we could not calculate isotope effects. This highlights a persistent dilemma, which is true for all isotopocules isotope ratios, that we cannot accurately measure isotope values ratios at very low concentrations. Hence, until more sensitive methodologies are developed, in, situ measurements such as these will always be biased toward higher concentration scenarios where perhaps the strongest and most interesting effects of substrate enrichment are missed.
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The use of any one isotope signature alone is confounded by overlap in the isotope effects between processes, unknown and possibly rapidly changing substrate δ values and the unknown contribution of N₂O reduction effects. To overcome these drawbacks, graphical interpretations of dual N₂O isotopocules isotope ratios have been used in field studies to interpret datasets similar to ours (Well et al., 2012;Koehler et al., 2012). For a more quantitative assessment of sourcepartitioning, mixing models using a dual isotope approach can be used (Yano et al., 2014;Toyoda et al., 2011;Koba et

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al., 2009;Lewicka-Szczebak et al., 2017;Zou et al., 2014). In the subsequent analysis we employ both approaches using our samples values plotted in SP x δ^{18} O and SP x δ^{15} N space (Fig. 4 and Figs.S10-S12).

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Formatted: Default Paragraph Font Formatted: Normal In both SP x δ^{18} O and SP x δ^{15} N plots our sample values mostly fell between the mixing and reduction lines predicted by either <u>isotopocule_isotope</u> relationship (Fig. 4) and somewhat surprisingly showed <u>a stronger trajectorystronger</u> <u>enrichment, indicative of greater-towards</u> N₂O reduction in the DS-AWD treatment relative to the WS treatments. In the DS-AWD and to a lesser extent in the WS-AWD treatment, high pore air N₂O concentrations were associated with denitrification or nitrifier-denitrification, while mid-range concentrations were associated with a higher degree of N₂O reduction and the lowest concentrations fell neatly in between. Similarly, in the WS-FLD treatment, denitrification or nitrifier-denitrification associated samples almost exclusively coincided with high N₂O_{poreair}. Most likely the moderate N₂O_{poreair} concentrations derived from N₂O reduction following high denitrification/nitrifier-denitrification production. This analysis is supported by data showing a trend of enrichment over the course of the measurement period (Fig. S10) and high WFPS values associated with the most enriched N₂O_{poreair} in the DS-AWD (Fig. S12). All

- treatments showed an enrichment of SP with time (Fig. S10), but interestingly only in the DS-AWD did δ¹⁸O and δ¹⁵N-N₂O enrich over the course of the experiment. This may reflect an increase over time in δ¹⁵N and δ¹⁸O of NO₃⁻, which was observed in the DS-AWD treatment, albeit not strongly (Fig. S9),-). More NO₃⁻ was available for
 denitrification in the DS-AWD treatment, thus for greater enrichment of this pool to occur we propose that more NO₃⁻
- 15 denitrification in the DS-AWD treatment, thus for greater enrichment of this pool to occur we propose that more NO₃⁻⁻ was trapped in denitrifying microsites as the soil dried or O₂ was consumed.

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yet one could expect a stronger enrichment of 815N and 818O-NO3 in denitrifying microsites.

We observed a scattering of high to moderate concentration N2Opporentie values in the WS treatments that corresponded to higher SP values relative to δ^{48} O or δ^{45} N than would be expected by reduction enrichment (Fig. 4). We postulate 20 thatIn the WS treatments we observed a minimized trend of N2O reduction compared to the DS-AWD treatment, more scattered high SP values and more values intermediate to the two end-member pools. These results may partially be e these values could be explained by greater contributions from abiotic hydroxylamine decomposition (SP ~ 34-35‰, Heil et al. (2014)) or fungal denitrification (SP ~ 35‰, Rohe et al. (2014)). Zhou et al. (2001) showed that fungal 25 denitrification requires minimal oxygen to proceed, similarly Seo and DeLaune (2010) found that fungal denitrification dominated relative to bacterial denitrification at modest reducing conditions to weakly oxidizing conditions (Eh >250 mV). Indeed, there is some evidence that these-high scattered SP values corresponded to more moderate WFPS (70-90%) in the WS-FLD treatment (Fig. S12). Abiotic hydroxylamine decomposition requires nitrification for the production of NH₂OH, and iron or manganese (hyrdr)oxides as electron acceptors to proceed 30 (Bremner et al., 1980). Given the moist conditions, nitrification rates were likely low in the WS treatments. Feasible co-occurrence of these species could really only occur directly These species can co-occur in the rhizosphere of a flooded rice soil, were O_2 is transported to the immediate root zone by the aerenchyma, for example, T-tightly coupled nitrification-denitrification in the rhizosphere of rice plants has been shown before (Arth and Frenzel, 2000) as has coupling of nitrogen - iron transformations (Ratering and Schnell, 2000). (Ratering and Schnell, 2000) but we cannot

35 say the extent to which this may have occurred in our system.

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It is necessary to contextualize N_2O isotopocule-isotope data with our measured substrate concentrations and soil environmental data. Based on our observations of low NH_4^+ concentrations, high NO_3^- concentrations, an Eh over 400 mV and WFPS often below 60% (5 cm) or below 85% (12.5 and 25 cm) in the DS-AWD treatment, we can safely deduce that extensive nitrification of either basal urea fertilizer or of indigenous soil N occurred in this treatment (Fig.

- Furthermore, the δ¹⁸O-NO₃⁻ in the DS-AWD treatment ranged from 0.1 to 14.8 (Fig. 7), thus falling in the range attributed to NO₃⁻ produced from nitrification (Kendall and McDonnell, 2012). Additionally, we observed that both δ¹⁵N-NO₃⁻ and δ¹⁵N-NH₄⁺ were negatively correlated to substrate concentrations in the DS-AWD treatment, indicative of active consumption of both N substrates (Table 4). In the DS-AWD, there also was a positive correlation between δ¹⁵N-NO₃⁻ and N₂O_{poreair} but a negative correlation between δ¹⁵N-NH₄⁺ and N₂O_{poreair}. The former likely indicates N₂O production via denitrification and subsequent enrichment of the NO₃⁻ pool. The latter is more difficult to interpret, but we attributed this to higher emissions associated with fresh inputs of NH₄⁺ (from urea or mineralization) which
- should have a δ¹⁵N value around 0‰. Together this data shows that coupled nitrification-denitrification was responsible for the majority of N₂O emissions. Similar results were also reported by (Dong et al., 2012) for an AWD system. The separation of isotopocule signaturesisotope ratios by date, N₂O concentration and WFPS suggests that
 NO₃⁻ produced early in the growing season was progressively denitrified and reduced over the course of the sampling period. Similarly, N₂O produced early in the growing season may have been progressively reduced.

4.3 Inferring the extent of N₂O reduction

It has been suggested that the slope of SP/ δ^{18} O, SP/ δ^{15} N and δ^{18} O $\delta^{/15}$ N or their isotope effects can be used to estimate the extent of N2O reduction (Jinuntuya-Nortman et al., 2008;Well and Flessa, 2009;Lewicka-Szczebak et al., 2017;Ostrom et al., 2007). However, many studies deriving these relationships have taken place under controlled 20 conditions when N2O supply was often limited. Therefore fractionation followed following closed system dynamics would result in larger fractionation effects on the residual substrate than under open system dynamics. The positive and significant relationship between all isotopocules isotopes and across all depths in the DS-AWD treatment suggests an influence of reduction at all depths. In contrast, in the WS treatments we observed no relationship between SP and 25 δ^{18} O within N₂O_{emitted} (Fig. S7) and only a weak relationship between SP and δ^{15} N at 25 cm in the WS-AWD, and even a negative relationship between SP and $\delta^{15}N$ in the WS-FLD N₂O_{emitted} (Fig. S8). The range of observed $\delta^{18}O/\delta^{18}$ δ^{15} N slopes, 0.21 to 0.90, (Fig. S5) were substantially lower than those observed in many N₂O reduction studies (1.94 to 2.6; Jinuntuya-Nortman et al. (2008); Ostrom et al. (2007); Well and Flessa (2009); Lewicka-Szczebak et al. (2017)), but closer to the 0.45 slope observed by Yano et al. (2014) in an in situ rice field study. When a significant 30 relationship was observed, overall or $N_2O_{poreair}$ SP/ $\delta^{15}N$ slopes ranged from 0.49 to 0.83 (Fig. 4b). These slopes are either close to those of other field studies, 0.48 to 0.52 (Yano et al., 2014;Wolf et al., 2015) or intermediary between field studies and controlled N₂O reduction studies, 0.59 to 1.01 (Well and Flessa (2009); Lewicka-Szczebak et al. (2017). From controlled N₂O reduction studies, a SP/ δ^{18} O slope between 0.2 to 0.4 has been observed (Jinuntuya-Nortman et al., 2008;Well and Flessa, 2009), thus in this case the N2Oporeair slopes observed in our study were

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substantially higher (Fig. 4a and Fig. S7). The lower overall SP and δ^{18} O slope in the WS treatments was due to

inclusion of the N2Oemitted values, which individually showed no relationship in these treatments.

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mixing processes dominate over reduction processes, the SP/δ18O slope rises (Lewicka-Szczebak et al., 2017). It is also plausible that high rates of oxygen exchange during denitrification served to partially mask an increase in δ^{18} O- N_2O values, resulting in the higher observed $SP/\delta^{18}O$ slopes or lower $\delta^{18}O/\delta^{15}N$ slopes. To estimate the extent of oxygen exchange with denitrification precursors (NOx) we plotted δ^{18} O-N₂O/ δ^{18} O-NO₃⁻ by δ^{18} O-H₂O/ δ^{18} O-NO₃⁻ following (Snider et al., 2009). The slope of this relationship ranged from 0.7 to 2.1 (data not shown). Thus we assume oxygen exchange was effectively 100% across treatments during denitrification. In summary, the observed positive relationships between the isotopocule-isotope pairs is indicative of an influential role of N₂O reduction in the DS-AWD treatment. This is less clear in the WS treatments where relationships were more erratic, suggesting a stronger influence of changing nitrification and denitrification process rates or changing $\delta^{15}N$ of N substrates. It is likely that isotope ratios in the WS treatments were affected by near complete denitrification to N2. Well et al. (2012) observed highly variable isotopocule isotope ratios in a strongly denitrifying aquifer and concluded that N2O reduction was strongly progressed but variable. However, it should be noted that their system had abundant NO_3^- while ours did not. The inconsistent relationships between $N_2O_{emitted}$ and $N_2O_{poreair}$ for $SP/\delta^{15}N$ and $SP/\delta^{18}O$ in the WS treatments and the stronger enrichment observed in the DS-AWD N2Oemitted (Fig. 4) demonstrate a disconnection between subsurface N2Oemitted and N2Oporeair across treatments. Such results suggest that N2O reduction may not have had as strong of an influence on the signature of N2Oemitted as it did on N2Oporeair, particularly in the WS treatments. A decoupling between subsurface N2O concentrations and surface emissions, and their isotopocule-isotope ratios has been observed in other studies (Van Groenigen et al., 2005;Goldberg et al., 2010a). This phenomenon is most simply explained by emitted N2O truly coming from a mix of sources and depths, while subsurface N2O is representative of a much smaller spatial zone and more likely to be dominated by one process. While difficult to practically measure, processes at shallow depths above 5 cm, were also likely influential to surface emissions.

A deviation in slopes compared to those observed in controlled N_2O reduction studies likely points to a growing influence of open system dynamics where substrates are continuously refreshed. It has been demonstrated that when

25 4.4 Complementary evidence from a two endmember mixing model approach

To quantitatively estimate the extent of N₂O reduction (gross rN_2O), N₂O production and reduction rates, and the contribution of denitrification to N₂O emissions, we used an open and closed system two endmember mixing model based on SP-N₂O and $\delta^{18}O$ -N₂O relationships. As described in section 2.7, we tested our models under two scenarios; in scenario one (sc1) N₂O is produced and reduced by denitrifiers before mixing with N₂O derived from nitrification, in scenario two (sc2) N₂O is produced from both processes, mixed, and then reduced (Fig. 1). While we could estimate gross rN_2O and the fraction of denitrification from both scenarios, sc2 yielded mostly implausible solutions for the contribution of denitrification to N₂O in open systems (Fig. S3 and Table S2). We thus conclude that the assumptions underlying this scenario in open systems were not valid in our system. In a closed system N₂O is progressively consumed and not replenished, resulting in a stronger isotope effect and faster enrichment of the remaining N₂O; thus a smaller degree of N₂O reduction is needed to achieve an equivalent enrichment as in open

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systems. Our results for open and closed systems align well with this theory on N2O fractionation. However, we feel

strongly that with in situ measurements in a heterogeneous soil environment, a combination of closed and open system dynamics likely exits, therefore the following interpretation of our data is based on an average of open and closed system values. Given the lower moisture and evidence of extensive nitrification occurring in the DS-AWD treatment, we expected a higher contribution of nitrification/fungal denitrification in this treatment, coming from an increase in

- 5 nitrification. However, this was not the case and denitrification/nitrifier-denitrification contributions tended to be higher in the DS-AWD treatment relative to WS treatments (Fig. 5a, Fig. 6). Treatment differences were significant in the surface fluxes, however there was a significant interaction with sampling day; there was no treatment effect on denitrification contribution in the subsurface (Table 5). The equivalent or higher contributions of nitrification/fungal denitrification in the WS treatments (Fig. 6) are most easily explained by higher fungal denitrification; in their
- laboratory experiments, Lewicka-Szczebak et al. (2017) also observed relatively high fungal denitrification contributions under very wet conditions. Larger contributions from fungal denitrification would also help explain the less clear reduction trends as fungal denitrifiers are thought to largely produce N₂O as an end-product rather than N₂. It should be noted that due to low surface fluxes or N₂O_{poreair}, we had fewer data points in the WS treatments. Previous studies have attributed significant amounts of N₂O emissions in paddy systems to nitrification in periods of low soil
 moisture (Lagomarsino et al., 2016;Verhoeven et al., 2018). Yet, such studies were not able to quantitatively source-

partition emissions. Given our results here, it is possible that N2O produced either via nitrifier-denitrification or

coupled nitrification-denitrification has been previously underestimated.

- The modeled gross rN₂O fractions indicate high levels of N₂O reduction for all treatments and depths, (rN₂O: 0.06 to
 0.19) even in the DS-AWD where soil moisture was frequently below 60% at 5 cm (Fig. 2). These results are at first surprising, but there is still much we do not know about subsurface N₂O production and consumption. Direct measurements of N₂O reduction at depth are few. Using membrane inlet mass spectrometry, (Zhou et al., 2017) detected higher N₂O reduction to N₂ in paddy soil water at 20 cm versus 60 or 80 cm and could relate this to higher DOC concentrations at 20 cm. Other studies suggest high subsurface N₂O reduction based on the inference of declining N₂O concentration accompanied by isotope enrichment moving up a soil profile (Goldberg et al., 2008;Clough et al., 1998;Van Groenigen et al., 2005). We are also methodologically limited by our inability to measure N₂O isotopocules isotopes at near, or complete N₂O reduction because there is too little remaining N₂O to measure. We assume this was more often the case in the WS treatments, therefore we postulate that the signature of
- N₂O reduction was stronger in the DS-AWD largely because there was more N₂O left to measure. In their experiments
 to validate the mixing model we used, (Lewicka-Szczebak et al., 2017) found that the model routinely underestimated gross *r*N₂O rates relative to measured rates in an oxic mineral soil, but performed better under anoxic conditions and in an organic soil. Therefore, an underestimation of *r*N₂O rates, particularly in the DS-AWD treatments, remains possible. However, considering the strong indication of N₂O reduction from other isotopocule-isotope relationships (i.e. SP and δ¹⁵N and δ¹⁸O) we believe that subsurface N₂O reduction rates were simply high in our system,
- 35 regardless of water management.

In the subsurface, the contribution of denitrification/nitrifier-denitrification to N₂O concentrations was positively correlated to N₂O_{poreair} concentrations and WFPS in all treatments, indicating an increasing contribution of denitrification/nitrifier-denitrification at times of higher N₂O production in conjunction with rising soil moisture (Table 6). In the two AWD treatments, the contribution of denitrification/nitrifier-denitrification negatively correlated to δ^{15} N signature of N₂O_{poreair} and N₂O_{emitted} (DS-AWD only). Many studies have demonstrated that high subsurface

- N₂O production is correlated to depleted δ^{15} N-N₂O (Goldberg et al., 2008;Goldberg et al., 2010b;Van Groenigen et al., 2005). These results further support the conclusion that high N₂O_{porenir} and N₂O_{emitted} were produced from denitrification/nitrifier-denitrification associated with more depleted δ^{15} N-N₂O. Higher gross *r*N₂O (less N₂O reduction) was associated with higher N₂O_{emitted} in all treatments and higher N₂O_{porenir} (WS-AWD only), demonstrating
- 10 that higher N₂O resulted not only from increased denitrification/nitrifier-denitrification but also from a decrease in N₂O reduction. Interestingly, higher rN_2O in N₂O_{emitted} of the DS-AWD was also associated with higher WFPS. Such a result can only be explained by a dependency of reduction on N₂O production. Overall, there was a negative relationship between rN_2O and $\delta^{15}N$ -N₂O, yet the relationship was not consistently strong or significant between treatments. A negative relationship supports an isotope enrichment effect with greater N₂O reduction. Considering
- 15 the above, it appears that maximum N₂O production and emissions occurred during periods of increased contribution from denitrification/nitrifier-denitrification, which were accompanied by small declines in N₂O reduction. These relationships were most robust in the DS-AWD treatment. Correlations within the N₂O_{emitted} dataset were undoubtedly affected by lower data availability, particularly in the WS treatments, and should be taken with caution. Despite the high estimates of N₂O reduction for all treatments, we still observed relevant contributions from nitrification/fungal
- 20 denitrification on many dates (Fig. 6). Nevertheless, the highest fluxes in the DS-AWD aligned with higher contributions from denitrification/nitrifier-denitrification, while the highest fluxes in the WS treatment had nitrification/fungal denitrification contributions of ca. 50%. In the WS treatments we again postulate that fungal denitrification rates increased because conditions were not ideal for high nitrification. Studies have shown that fungal denitrification and co-denitrification can play a significant role in soil N₂ and N₂O emissions from soil (Long et al., 2013;Laughlin and Stevens, 2002).

Snider et al. (2015)

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From our modeling results we could estimate N₂ production or emissions based on our calculated N₂O reduction rates (Fig.S13). Due to poor data availability and high variability we could neither confidently estimate N₂ production at 25 cm nor surface N₂ emissions on many dates of the WS treatments, but we have more confidence in the estimates obtained for the DS-AWD treatment. Mean daily N₂ emissions found in our study were 236 ± 53 (n=43), 194 ± 37 (n=41) and 197 ± 35 (n=31) g N ha⁻¹ d⁻¹ in the DS-AWD, WS-AWD and WS-FLD, respectively. To our knowledge only one other study by (Yano et al., 2014) has conducted similar calculations to estimate N₂ emissions in rice systems from isotopocule signaturesisotope ratios. The authors also found high rates of N₂O reduction, around 80 to 85%,
corresponding to an *r*N₂O of 0.15 to 0.20 and N₂ emissions between 0.1 to 422 µg N m² hr⁻¹ (or 0.024 to 101.4 g ha-1 d⁻¹). Therefore, the estimated extent of N₂O reduction was quite similar to our surface emitted reduction rates, with somewhat lower N₂ emissions corresponding to somewhat lower N₂O emissions. Using labeled ¹⁵N urea, (Lindau et

al., 1990) measured N₂ emissions of 254 g ha⁻¹ d⁻¹, while (Dong et al., 2012) observed similar rates of 194 g N₂-N ha⁻¹ d⁻¹ for an AWD treatment. Considering that these results only account for N₂ derived from fertilizer, the modeled mean daily N₂ emissions found in our study are plausible. Differences between the treatment means were not significant for N₂O_{poreair} or N₂O_{emitted} (p=0.431 and p=0.858), thus do not indicate a higher potential for N₂ losses in the WS treatments. We must reject our hypothesis that higher NO₃⁻ in the WS-AWD relative to the WS-FLD would drive higher denitrification and N₂ losses because we observed no differences in final modeled N₂ production and NO₃⁻ concentrations were essentially null for both WS treatments. Our results show there is promise for estimating N₂ emissions from N₂O isotopocule signatures using simple models, but the precision of these estimates remains constrained by our ability to measure N₂O isotopocule signatures at low fluxes the limitations discussed below.

All modeling attempts to date rely on isotope signatures and effects determined in laboratory studies and thus changes in these values in response to environmental or microbial population dynamics in the field remains a large question. As this was an in situ field experiment, conditions were not constant across treatments or throughout the sampling time frame, yet it has been shown that isotope effects, particularly for N₂O reduction change with shifts in environmental conditions such as increasing water filled pore space (Jinuntuya-Northman et al., 2008). Therefore,

- the use of fixed isotope effects in our model is a simplification. Future modeling efforts may be improved by the incorporation of variable isotope effects based on soil moisture or O_2 for example. Careful, controlled experiments across a range of soils with different management histories are necessary to determine if consistent variation in isotope effects in relation to specific environmental parameters can be determined or if such parameters are site specific. The
- microbial δ¹⁸O signature for denitrification used in our model were calculated relative to δ¹⁸O-H₂O. We therefore assumed complete exchange between N₂O substrates, intermediaries and water during denitrification. We based this off of previous work showing that O exchange is high and that the isotope effect between water and N₂O is relatively stable (Lewicka-Szczebak et al., 2016;Lewicka-Szczebak et al., 2017;Snider et al., 2013;Kool et al., 2007). In reality, results over time and between treatments may have been affected by varying degrees of ¹⁸O exchange between N₂O, intermediaries and water and by variation in δ¹⁸O-H₂O values. We recommend that future studies measure the δ¹⁸O-H₂O.
- H₂O to better constrain results. Modeling results would also be more robust if complete δ¹⁵N -N₂O, -NH₄⁺ and -NO₃⁻ across treatments and times were available, allowing for complimentary modelling of SP x ¹⁵N(N₂O/NO₃⁻ or N₂O/NH₄). Employing iterative simulation techniques where a range of literature values for N₂O signatures and isotope effects are used to draw from would help to highlight model sensitivity to specific isotope values and improve
 its accuracy. Lastly, more work needs to be done to validate results such as those generated here which rely on help to highlight accuracy.

laboratory derived values, with complimentary measurements of microbial community dynamics, such as that by Snider et al. (2015).

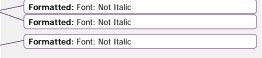
5 Conclusions

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The relatively dry conditions in the DS-AWD treatment and application of urea fertilizer led to extensive nitrification, subsequent denitrification and denitrification derived N₂O emissions. Even with evidence of nitrification and relatively aerobic conditions in the DS-AWD treatment, both graphical and two endmember mixing model results



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indicated significant N2O reduction in all treatments and graphically most convincingly in the DS-AWD treatment-Treatment differences may also reflect paddy history as this was the 5_{4}^{hh} year of alternative water management at the site. Yields were also lower in the DS-AWD, which likely lowered N demand and increased soil N concentrations in this treatment. Differences between depths were often more evident in N2Oporeair, NO3-, NH4+ and DOC concentrations 5 than in N2O isotope signatures at the various depths, particularly for the WS treatments. In the DS-AWD treatment, isotope signatures of δ^{18} O-N₂O and SP values demonstrated notably lower values at 5 cm relative to other depths, mostly likely indicating higher N₂O production and less reduction in the upper layer. Overall, the highest N₂O production and emissions were associated with an increasing contribution from denitrification/nitrifier-denitrification accompanied by decreases in N2O reduction in the AWD treatments. Our isotope data suggests that contributions 10 from fungal denitrification to N₂O emissions may have increased in the WS-FLD treatment. The role of fungal denitrification in paddy rice systems should be further investigated with the use of fungal inhibitors. Surface emitted N_2O reduction rates were similar for all treatments, therefore our hypothesis of a greater potential for gaseous N_2 losses in the WS-AWD is refuted. Despite the difficulty in obtaining a full dataset for all treatments and the inherent spatiotemporal variability in the original measured fluxes, we came to good agreement with the magnitude of N2 15 emissions reported from previous ¹⁵N labeled fertilizer studies. Thus such natural abundance isotope methods do show promise for estimating N₂ emissions and closing N budgets, even without the δ^{15} N of N substrates. Model results would likely improve with controlled incubations to determine site-specific isotope effects and whether these

effects change in a consistent manner with specific environmental conditions. Particularly inIn saturated or partly saturated systems, future studies should probe the disconnection between subsurface and emitted N₂O isotopocules
 isotopes by employing methods that allow for larger subsurface spatial integration along vertical and horizontal planesn, such as the installation of long horizontal gas collection tubes. It appears that to effectively manage N losses in alternative water management paddy systems inhibition of nitrification is necessary, particularly very early in the growing season when N availability exceeds crop N demand.

Dataset availability

25 Verhoeven, Elizabeth. (2018). CastelloD'Agogna_waterMgmt2015,2016_dataset (Version 1.0) [Data set]. Zenodo. http://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.1251895

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Figure and table captions

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Figure 1. Mapping approach scheme used in the closed system modeling. Adapted from (Lewicka-Szczebak et al., 2017).

Figure 2. N₂O surface emissions, log₁₀ of dissolved and pore air N₂O concentrations,<u>and major N₂O driving variables</u>
(NH₄⁺, NO₃⁻, DOC, Eh<u>and</u>, WFPS_)-throughout the field measurement period in the three water management treatments (WS-FLD = water-seeding + conventional flooding; WS-AWD = water-seeding + alternate wetting and drying; DS-AWD = direct dry seeding + alternate wetting and drying). The dashed vertical line indicates the date of fertilization (60 kg urea-N ha⁻¹). Blue shaded areas represent periods of flooding, shaded areas that last only one day indicate a 'flush irrigation' = flooding for < 6 hrs. The error bars represent the standard error of the mean. Red and orange dashed vertical lines represent the date of seeding and fertilization in each treatment, respectively.

Figure 3. Time course of δ^{15} N-N₂O, δ^{18} O-N₂O and SP-N₂O in N₂O_{emitted} and N₂O_{poreair} across the three depths and water management treatments (WS-FLD = water-seeding + conventional flooding; WS-AWD = water-seeding +

alternate wetting and drying; DS-AWD = direct dry seeding + alternate wetting and drying). The errors bars represent

the standard error of the mean. Red and orange dashed vertical lines represent the date of seeding and fertilization in each treatment, respectively.

- Figure 4. Graphical two-end member mixing plot after Lewicka-Szczebak *et al.* (2017) where sample values are plotted in SP x δ¹⁸O-N₂O space (A) and two-end mixing plot after Toyoda *et al.* (2011) where sample values are plotted in SP x δ¹⁵N-N₂O space (B). In panel (a) the black dots indicate the mean literature end-member values used in our modeling scenarios and the boxes represent a range of values derived from the literature attributed to each process, see section 2.7 and Table 2. To calculate the range of N₂O potentially produced by nitrification or denitrification in (B) we used the mean isotope effects, ε¹⁵N_{N2O/NO3} and ε¹⁵N_{N2O/NH4}, reported in Denk *et al.* (2017) to
- 10 represent denitrification and nitrification derived N₂O, respectively, and then added the minimum and maximum δ^{15} N-NO₃⁻ and δ^{15} N-NH₄⁺ values observed in each treatment (Supplementary Table 1.4). The linear relationship between each <u>isotopocule isotope</u> pair is indicated in italics for all points together and for N₂O_{poreair}, only. The three water management treatments were: WS-FLD = water-seeding + conventional flooding; WS-AWD = water-seeding + alternate wetting and drying; DS-AWD = direct dry seeding + alternate wetting and drying.
- 15 Figure 5. Modeled denitrification/nitrifier-denitrification contribution and gross rN_2O of open (grey bars), closed (blue bars) and mean (purple points and line) systems predicted by a two-endmember mixing model using $\delta^{18}O-N_2O$ and SP values. For open and closed system dynamics, the shaded bars represent the standard deviation range for each treatment x depth combination. The purple error bars represent the standard deviation around the mean. Red and orange dashed vertical lines represent the date of seeding and fertilization in each treatment, respectively.
- Figure 6. Estimated contribution of denitrification/nitrifier-denitrification and nitrification/fungal denitrification to N₂O surface emissions in the three water management treatments (WS-FLD = water-seeding + conventional flooding; WS-AWD = water-seeding + alternate wetting and drying; DS-AWD = direct dry seeding + alternate wetting and drying). Estimates were derived from the mean of open and closed dynamics in a two endmember mixing model using δ¹⁸O-N₂O and SP values. Red and orange dashed vertical lines represent the date of seeding and fertilization in

25 <u>each treatment, respectively.</u>

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Figure 7. Relationship of δ^{18} O-NO₃⁻ to δ^{15} N-NO₃⁻ in pore water samples of the three water management treatments (WS-FLD = water-seeding + conventional flooding; WS-AWD = water-seeding + alternate wetting and drying; DS-AWD = direct dry seeding + alternate wetting and drying). After Kendall and McDonnell (2012). The black arrow represents the trajectory of NO₃⁻ reduction effects. The black asterisk signifies the δ^{18} O value atmospheric O₂ (25.3

30 ‰) while the dashed black line indicates the range of δ¹⁸O in soil water. δ¹⁸O-H₂O was not directly measured in our study. We assumed a value of -8.3‰ taken from an uncontained aquifer in the region by Rapti-Caputo and Martinelli (2009). The symbol colors indicate the concentration of NO₃⁻ in each sample (mg L⁻¹).

 Table 1. Dates of management activities during the experimental period in the three water management treatments

 (WS-FLD = water-seeding + conventional flooding; WS-AWD = water-seeding + alternate wetting and drying; DS-AWD = direct dry seeding + alternate wetting and drying).

Table 2. Endmember values used for modeling of the fraction of residual N₂O not reduced (gross rN_2O) and the fraction of N₂O + N₂ attributed to denitrification (gross $frac_{DEN}$) for both open and closed N₂O reduction fractionation dynamics.

Table 3. Spearman correlations of N2Oemitted with N2Oemitted isotopocule-isotope ratiosvalues, N2O driving variables

and N₂O_{poreair} isotopocule values isotope ratios measured at 5 cm in the three water management treatments (WS-FLD = water-seeding + conventional flooding; WS-AWD = water-seeding + alternate wetting and drying). Significance indicated by: **** <0.0001, *** < 0.001, **<0.01, *<0.05

 $\textbf{Table 4.} Spearman correlations between \delta^{15}N-NO_3^- and \delta^{15}N-NH_4^+ with N_2O_{poreair} concentration, \delta^{15}N-N_2O_{poreair}, NO_3^- NO_3^$

10 and NH_{4^+} concentrations in the three water management treatments (WS-FLD = water-seeding + conventional flooding; WS-AWD = water-seeding + alternate wetting and drying; DS-AWD = direct dry seeding + alternate wetting and drying).

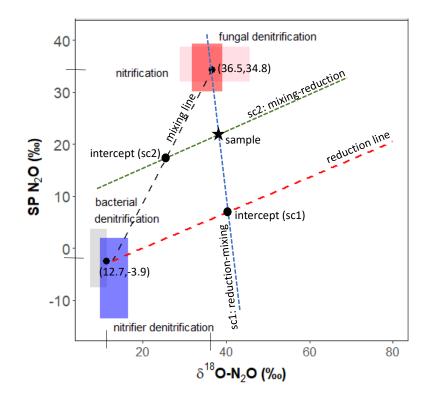
Table 5. ANCOVA results of modeled residual N₂O not reduced (gross rN_2O), fraction of total N₂ + N₂O production coming from denitrification (gross frac_{DEN}) and the fraction of N₂O attributed to denitrification (DenContribution) derived from N₂O_{emitted} and N₂O_{poreair}. The Y position was used a co-variate and represents the longitudinal position

Table 6. Spearman correlations between modeled rN_2O -gross, $frac_{DEN}$ –gross and *DenContribution* with soil environmental variables and inorganic N substrates and δ^{15} N-N₂O. Results are for the mean of open and closed system dynamics. Subsurface correlations were performed on data aggregated across 5 and 12.5 cm depths. Significance

20 indicated by: **** <0.0001, *** < 0.001, **<0.01, *<0.05

of each replicate within field.

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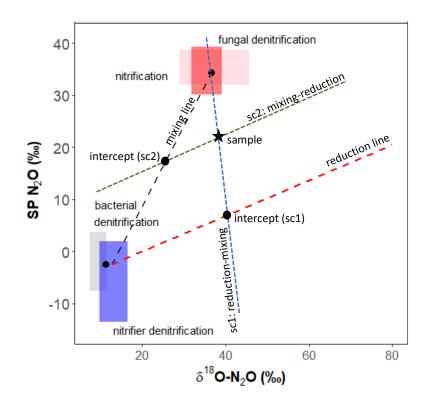


Figure 1.

5

I

_	DS-AWD	WS-AWD	WS-FLD
N ₂ O _{emitted} (g N ₂ O-N ha ⁻¹ d ⁻¹)		a ab b cabb ab b tab	ab b b b b ab b a ab bb
log dissolved N ₂ O (ug N ₂ O-NL ⁻¹)	3 2 0 5cm 0 12,5cm 1 0 2 0 2 0 12,5cm 0 8 0 0 0 0 12,5cm 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 12,5cm 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 12,5cm 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0	ې کې کې کې کې کې کې کې کې کې	୍ଚି ଜନ୍ମ ଜନ୍ମ ଜନ୍ମ ଜନ୍ମ
log pore air N ₂ O (ug N ₂ O-NL ⁻¹)		မိ န • န ့ ၀၀ စုသို့ စုမိ မို နဲ့ ဖို့	ခို ္ ေ ေ ေ ေ ေ ေ ေ ေ
NH ⁺ (mg N L ⁻¹)		++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++	↓↓↓, ↓↓ ₽\$\$©\$ \$0 \$ 630 ₇₆ 85
NO ⁻ (mg N L ⁻¹)			
DOC (mg C L ⁻¹)			န်နိုင် နိ နိ နိ နိ နိ နိ နိ နိ နိ နိ နိ နိ နိ
н Б	800 400- 0- -400-	*	
WFPS %			
	May 23 May 22 Jun 20 Jun 20 Ju	May 18 May 21 May 24 May 274 Jun 02 Jun 02 Jun 17 Jun 28 Jun 28 Jun 28 Jun 28 Jun 28	May 134 May 221 May 221 May 224 Jun 200 Jun 202 Jun 20

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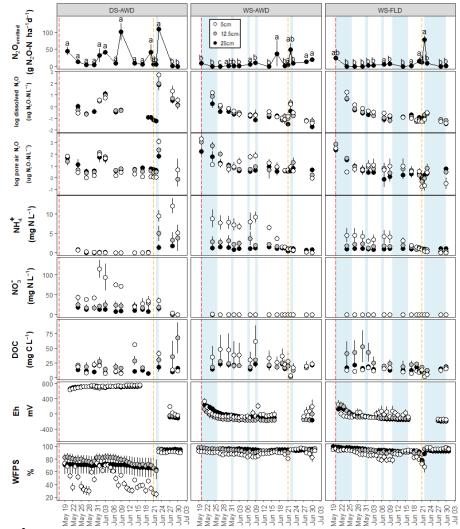
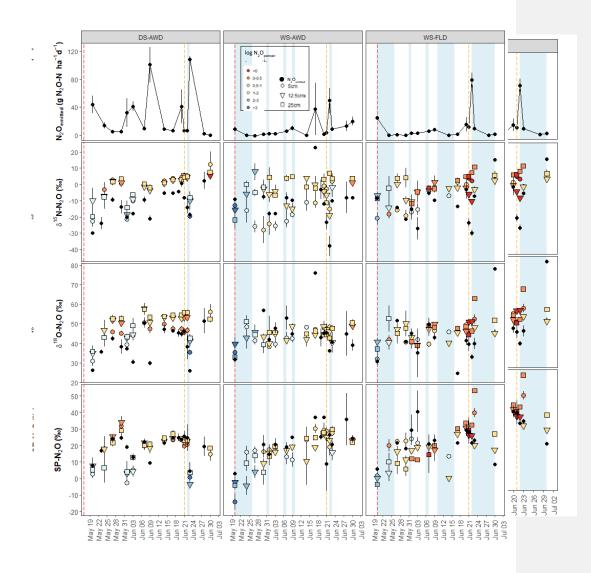


Figure 2.



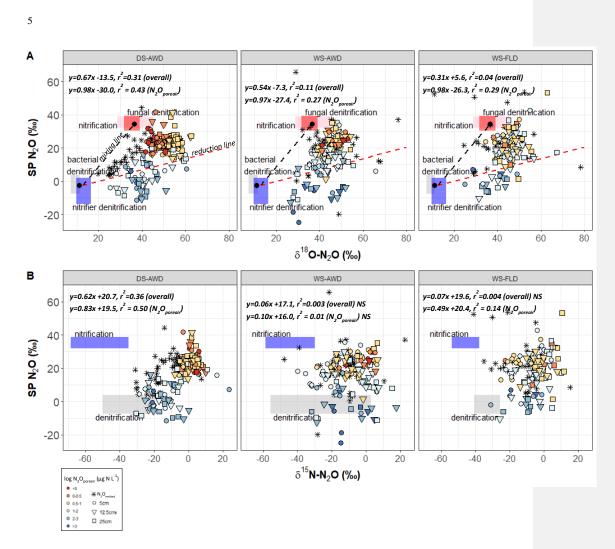
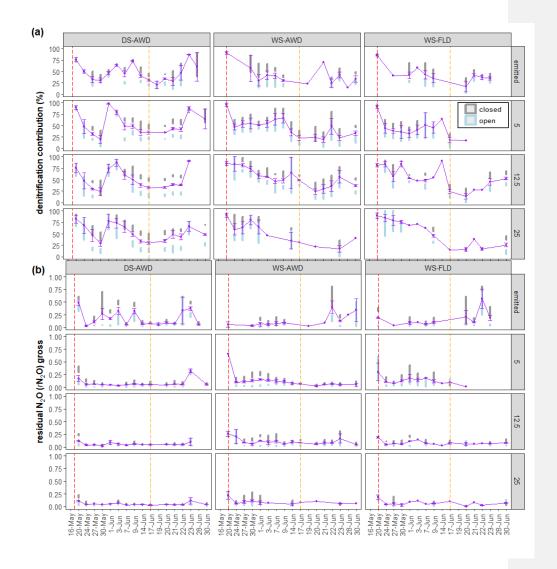
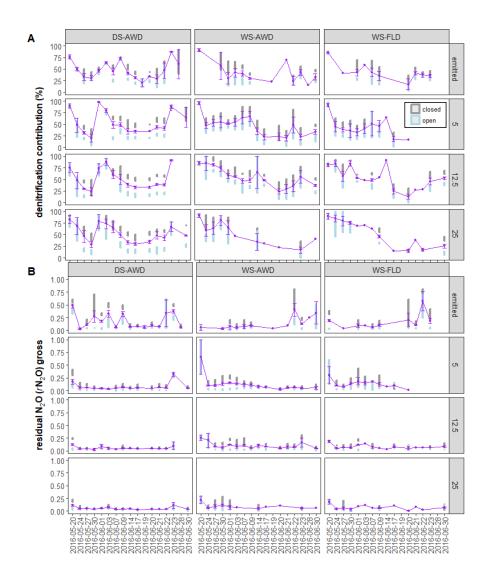


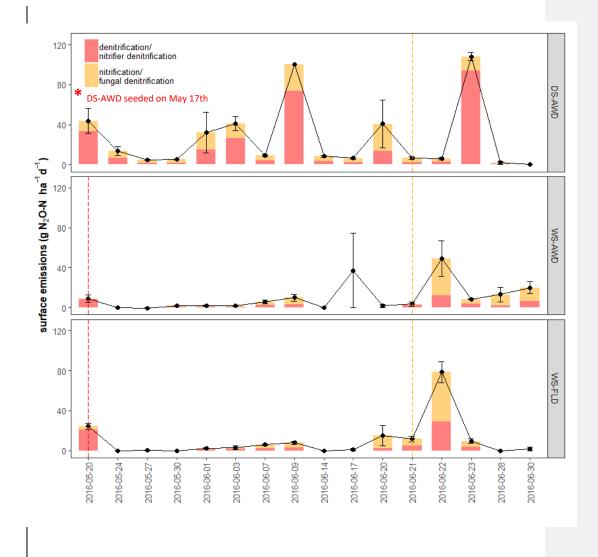


Figure 3.









5 Figure 6.

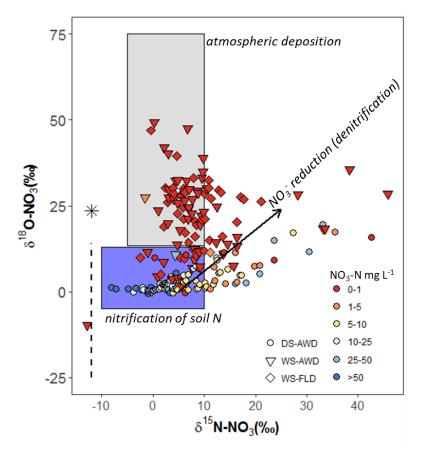




Table 1. Dates of management activities during the experimental period in the three water management treatments (WS-FLD = water-seeding + conventional flooding; WS-AWD = water-seeding + alternate wetting and drying; DS-AWD = direct dry seeding + alternate wetting and drying).

Management	WS-FLD	WS-AWD	DS-AWD		
ploughing; leveling	4-Apr; 12-Apr	4-Apr; 12-Apr	4-Apr; 12-Apr		
Fertilization P-K	13-May (14-28 kg ha-1)	13-May (14-28 kg ha-1)	13-May (14-28 kg ha-1)		
Fertilization N	16-May (60 kg ha ⁻¹)	16-May (60 kg ha ⁻¹)	16-May (40 kg ha-1)		
Flooding	19-May	19-May			
Seeding	20-May	20-May	17-May		
Drainage	26-May	26-May			
Flush irrigation	31-May;6-Jun	31-May;6-Jun;10-Jun			
Flooding	10-Jun				
Drainage	16-Jun				
Fertilization N	21-Jun (60 kg ha-1)	21-Jun (60 kg ha-1)	21-Jun (70 kg ha-1)		
Flooding	22-Jun				
Flush irrigation		22-Jun	22-Jun		
Fertilization N	<u>14-July (40 kg ha⁻¹)</u>	14-July (40 kg ha-1)	14-July (50 kg ha-1)		
<u></u>					
Harvest	15-Sep	15-Sep	15-Sep		
Yield (t/ha)	<u>8.9a</u>	<u>8.2a</u>	<u>6.6b</u>		

Table 2. Endmember values used for modeling of the fraction of residual N₂O not reduced (gross rN_2O) and the fraction of N₂O + N₂ attributed to denitrification (gross frac_{DEN}) for both open and closed N₂O reduction fractionation dynamics.

I	Process(s)	$\delta^{18} O\text{-} N_2 O_{(x)}$	SP _(x)	references	-	Formatted Table
	denitrification, nitrifier-denitrification	12.7		$\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and SP: Lewicka-Szczebak et al. (2017) $^*\delta^{18}\text{O}$ uncorrected for $\delta^{18}\text{O-H}_2\text{O}$		
	nitrification, fungal denitrification	36.5	34.8	SP: Lewicka-Szczebak <i>et al.</i> (2017); δ^{18} O: Sutka <i>et al.</i> (2006); Sutka <i>et al.</i> (2008); Frame and Casciotti (2010); Heil <i>et al.</i> (2014); Rohe <i>et al.</i> (2014); Maeda <i>et al.</i> (2015)		
l		$\epsilon^{18}O_{red}$	ϵSP_{red}			
	N ₂ O reduction	-15	-5	Lewicka-Szczebak et al. (2017)		

*Lewicka-Szczebak *et al.* (2017) originally report δ_0^{18} O-N₂O(N₂O/H₂O). Thus, to calculate a pure δ_0^{18} O-N₂O, we added the δ^{18} O-H₂O value used in 5 our study, -8.3‰.

Table 3. Spearman correlations of N₂O_{emitted} with N₂O_{emitted} isotopocule values isotope ratios, N₂O driving variables and N₂O_{poreair} isotopocule values isotope ratios, N₂O driving variables and N₂O_{poreair} isotopocule values isotope ratios measured at 5 cm in the three water management treatments (WS-FLD = water-seeding + conventional flooding; WS-AWD = 10 water-seeding + alternate wetting and drying; DS-AWD = direct dry seeding + alternate wetting and drying). Significance indicated by: **** <0.0001, *** < 0.001, **<0.01, *<0.05

		N ₂ O _{emitted}			δ^{15} N-N ₂ O _{emit}	ted	δ^{18} O-N ₂ O _{emitted}			δSP-N ₂ O _{emitted}		
	WS-FLD	WS-AWD	DS-AWD	WS-FLD	WS-AWD	DS-AWD	WS-FLD	WS-AWD	DS-AWD	WS-FLD	WS-AWD	DS-AWD
$N_2O_{emitted}$				-0.16	0.03	-0.51***	-0.46**	-0.45**	-0.58****	-0.42*	0.36*	-0.68****
$N_2O_{dissolved, 5cm}$	-0.25	0.01	0.36	0.07	-0.39*	-0.3	0.14	-0.15	-0.56*	-0.07	0.21	-0.58*
N2Oporeair, 5cm	0.00	-0.05	0.48***	0.11	0.15	-0.60****	-0.29	-0.11	-0.64****	-0.3	-0.32	-0.64****
WFPS _{5cm}	-0.23	-0.02	0.31*	0.25	-0.02	-0.49***	-0.09	-0.29	-0.50****	-0.22	-0.3	-0.64****
Eh _{5cm}	-0.03	0.15	0.25	0.05	-0.09	0.15	-0.03	-0.29	0.26	-0.02	0.44*	0.22
DOC _{5cm}	-0.08	-0.43**	-0.05	0.2	0.43**	0.13	0.40*	0.28	-0.03	-0.33	0.06	-0.03
NO3-Nporewater, 5cm	-0.21	0.1	0.52***	-0.25	-0.29	-0.64****	-0.23	-0.15	-0.27	-0.13	-0.11	-0.21
NH4-Nporewater, 5cm	-0.29*	-0.32*	-0.31	0.05	-0.02	0.23	0.29	0.43**	0.01	0.07	-0.16	-0.03
δ^{15} N-N ₂ O _{poreair} , _{5cm}	0.24	0.09	-0.51****	-0.02	0.07	0.71****	0.1	-0.24	0.64****	0.1	0.1	0.65****
δ^{18} O-N ₂ O _{poreair} , _{5cm}	-0.07	0.07	-0.39**	-0.13	-0.1	0.46***	0.02	-0.03	0.48***	0.33	0.47**	0.41**
$\delta SP\text{-}N_2O_{poreair\text{, }5cm}$	-0.27	-0.1	-0.55****	0.18	-0.22	0.62****	0.14	0.21	0.49***	0.47*	0.55**	0.67****

Table 4. Spearman correlations between $\delta^{15}N-NO_3^-$ and $\delta^{15}N-NH_4^+$ with $N_2O_{poreair}$ concentration, $\delta^{15}N-N_2O_{poreair}$, NO_3^- and NH_4^+ concentrations in the three water management treatments (WS-FLD = water-seeding + conventional flooding; WS-AWD = water-seeding + alternate wetting and drying; DS-AWD = direct dry seeding + alternate wetting and drying).

		$\delta^{15}N\text{-}NO_3^-$			$\delta^{15} N\text{-}NH_4{}^+$	
	DS-AWD	WS-AWD	WS-FLD	DS-AWD	WS-AWD	WS-FLD
$\delta^{15} N \text{-} N O_3^-$				-0.54*	-0.03	-0.05
$\delta^{15} N\text{-}NH_4{}^+$	-0.54*	-0.03	-0.05			
N2Oporeair	0.34**	0.07	0.38**	-0.72***	0.04	0.22*
$\delta^{15} N\text{-}N_2 O_{\text{poreair}}$	0.00	0.00	-0.14	0.46*	-0.03	0.14
NO3-	-0.66****	-0.01	-0.28	-0.41	0.11	0.27*
NH4 ⁺	0.01	0.13	-0.06	-0.54*	-0.23*	-0.12

Table 5. ANCOVA results of modeled residual N₂O not reduced (gross rN_2O), fraction of total N₂ + N₂O production coming from denitrification (gross frac_{DEN}) and the fraction of N₂O attributed to denitrification (DenContribution) derived from N₂O_{emitted} and N₂O_{poreair}. The Y position was used a co-variate and represents the longitudinal position of each replicate within field.

	NumDF	N ₂ O _{poreair} rN ₂ O-gross	N ₂ O _{poreair} frac _{DEN} -gross	DenContribution (N ₂ O _{poreair})	NumDF	N ₂ O _{emitted} rN ₂ O-gross	N ₂ O _{emitted} frac _{DEN} -gross	DenContribution (N ₂ O _{emitted})
treatment	2	0.004	<0.001	0.188	2	0.146	0.931	0.016
day	14	<0.001	0.001	<0.001	16	<0.001	<0.001	<0.001
depth	1	0.019	0.007	0.008				
Y position	1	0.844	0.016	0.375	1	0.451	0.373	0.818
trmt:day	28	0.001	<0.001	<0.001	19	0.009	0.024	<0.001
trmt:depth	2	0.330	0.082	0.052				
day:depth	14	0.185	<0.001	0.002				
trmt:day:depth	23	0.022	0.047	0.189				

Table 6. Spearman correlations between modeled rN_2O -gross, frac_{DEN}-gross and *DenContribution* with soil environmental variables and inorganic N substrates and $\delta^{15}N$ -N₂O. Results are for the mean of open and closed system dynamics. Subsurface correlations were performed on data aggregated across 5 and 12.5 cm depths. Significance indicated by: **** <0.0001, *** < 0.001, **<0.01, *<0.05

		frac _{DEN} -gross	i		rN₂O - gross			enContributio	on
	DS-AWD	WS-AWD	WS-FLD	DS-AWD	WS-AWD	WS-FLD	DS-AWD	WS-AWD	WS-FLD
					subsurface				
[N ₂ O _{poreair}]	0.34***	0.2	0.31*	0.01	0.60****	0.17	0.67****	0.70****	0.59****
WFPS	0.21*	0.21*	0.39**	-0.11	0	-0.06	0.34***	0.22*	0.47***
Eh	-0.04	0.01	0.01	0.04	0.04	0.07	-0.03	-0.12	0.06
NO ₃ -	0.16	0.01	0.16	0.13	0.15	0.04	0.28*	0.18	0.31*
$\mathrm{NH_{4}^{+}}$	-0.22	-0.06	-0.19	0.21	0.41***	0.23	-0.06	0.33**	-0.03
$\delta^{15}N\text{-}N_2O_{poreair}$	-0.35***	0.14	0.12	-0.03	-0.48****	-0.34**	-0.61****	-0.30**	-0.24
					surface				
[N ₂ O _{emitted}]	-0.21	-0.73****	-0.40*	0.46***	0.77****	0.74****	0.64****	-0.11	0.27
WFPS	-0.12	-0.24	0.18	0.39**	0.29	0.1	0.60****	0.09	0.13
Eh	0.15	-0.22	0.08	-0.13	0.15	-0.17	-0.18	-0.39	-0.13
NO ₃ -	-0.44**	-0.17	-0.28	0.32	0.19	0.31	0.19	0.06	0.01
$\mathrm{NH_{4}^{+}}$	0.39*	0.52**	0.59**	-0.18	-0.58**	-0.51**	0.11	0.02	0.18
$\delta^{15}N\text{-}N_2O_{emitted}$	0.60****	0.29	0.36	-0.80****	-0.33	-0.44*	-0.53****	0.19	-0.11