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Scotland's Rural College

An assessment of factors controlling N2O and CO2 emissions from crop residues using different measurement approaches

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19 Abstract

Management of plant residues plays an important role in maintaining soil quality and nutrient 20 availability for plants and microbes. However, there is considerable uncertainty regarding the 21 factors controlling residue decomposition and their effects on greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions 22 from the soil. This uncertainty is created both by the complexity of the processes involved and 23 limitations in the methodologies commonly used to quantify GHG emissions. We therefore 24 investigated the addition of two soil residues (durum wheat and faba bean) with similar C:N ratios 25 but contrasting fibres, lignin and cellulose contents on nutrient dynamics and GHG emission from 26 two contrasting soils: a low-soil organic carbon (SOC), high pH clay soil (Chromic Haploxerert) 27 and a high-SOC, low pH sandy-loam soil (Eutric Cambisol). In addition, we compared the 28 effectiveness of the use of an Infrared Gas Analyzer (IRGA) and Photoacoustic Gas Analyser 29 (PGA) to measure GHG emissions with more conventional gas chromatography (GC). There was a 30 strong correlation between the different measurement techniques which strengthens the case for the 31 use of continuous measurements approaches involving IRGA and PGA analyses in studies of this 32 The unamended Cambisol released 286% more CO2 and 30% more N2O than the 33 type. Haploxerert. Addition of plant residues increased CO₂ emissions more in the Haploxerert than 34 Cambisol and N₂O emission more in the Cambisol than in the Haploxerert. This may have been a 35 consequence of the high N stabilization efficiency of the Haploxerert resulting from its high pH and 36 the effect of the clay on mineralization of native organic matter. These results have implications 37 management of plant residues in different soil types. 38

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40 Key words: crop residues, carbon dioxide, greenhouse gas, nitrous oxide, residue decomposition

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42 Introduction

Agriculture forestry and related land uses are responsible for just under 25% of global greenhouse 43 gas emissions (IPCC 2014). Agronomic practices are recognized as key opportunities to reduce 44 GHG emissions (particularly for N₂O and CO₂). The addition of plant residues to the soil from 45 46 crops and cover crops is of significant importance to crop management strategies to enhance soil organic C (SOC) and soil fertility, and to offset agricultural GHG emissions (Lugato et al. 2014). 47 However, decomposition of residues will also add nitrogen (N) to the soil, and with the default N₂O 48 Emission Factor of 1% of the added N in the IPCC (2006) methodology, a proportional increase in 49 estimated N₂O emissions is predicted. However, IPCC predictions have been developed around 50 limited experimental data and recent studies indicate that default Emission Factors may 51 overestimate residues N₂O emissions (Jeuffroy et al. 2013). GHG emission after crop residue 52 amendment is related to both its decomposition and the microbial activity of soil and depends from 53 54 several factors linked to the environment, soil proprieties and crop residue traits (Aulakh et al. 1991; Powlson et al. 2011). In particular, the GHG emission from the soil are mediated by soil 55 porosity (Killham et al. 1993), pH (Mörkved et al. 2006), organic C and N content (Hayakawa et al. 56 2009), microbial community (Graf et al. 2016), texture (Chen et al. 2013), soil temperature (Kesik 57 58 et al. 2006), and moisture content, all of which regulate gas production processes and emission 59 (Skiba and Ball 2002; Rees et al. 2013). Moreover, crop residue addition to the soil can also indirectly affect GHG emissions, providing a source of readily available C and N in the soil,
stimulating microbial activity (Aulakh et al. 2001; Huang et al. 2004), promoting the decomposition
of native soil organic carbon, and altering soil aeration, water holding capacity, oxidation and
denitrification processes in the soil (Fontaine et al. 2004; Derrien et al. 2014).

64 With regard to the crop residue characteristics, the most important property is its C:N ratio that determines organic N dynamics in the soil (Heal et al. 1997; Baggs et al. 2003; Al-Kaisi and 65 Yin 2005; Garcia-Ruiz and Baggs 2007). In particular, it has been shown that higher N₂O emissions 66 67 occur from soil after the incorporation of residues with low C:N ratio, such as legumes, rather than after cereal straw as a result of mineralization processes (Baggs et al. 2000; Huang et al. 2004; 68 Raiesi 2006). On the contrary, low N₂O emissions were reported following the application of crop 69 residues with high C:N ratios (Gentile et al. 2008). However, it has also been shown that the 70 incorporation of crop residues with high C:N ratios may provide the energy for the denitrification 71 72 process, and this can increase N₂O emissions (Sarkodie-Addo et al. 2003). Other crop residue properties can play an important role on the decomposition process influencing microbial activity, 73 including lignin (Palm and Rowland 1997), lignin:N ratios (Curtin et al. 1998) polyphenol 74 (Muhammad et al. 2010), water soluble phenolic contents (Palm and Rowland 1997), percentages of 75 76 soluble C and N (Cogle et al. 1989), neutral detergent fiber (NDF). This understanding of the multiple drivers responsible for GHG emissions from crop residues is helpful in interpreting 77 research findings. Baggs et al. (2000) found an increase of N2O emissions after lettuce 78 incorporation into the soil due to its low C:N ratio. However, Tanveer et al. (2014) and Zou et al. 79 80 (2004) observed a reduction of N₂O emission after incorporation of low C:N crop residue of corn and rice straw. This apparent contradiction may be a consequence of the interaction of multiple 81 factors controlling emission. Shan and Yan (2013), in a meta-analysis, reported that the application 82 83 of canola, bean and lettuce residues increased N2O emissions more than with other kind of crop 84 residues. With regard to CO₂ emissions Muhammad et al. (2010) observed higher emissions in soil amended with alfalfa than with sugarcane, maize, sorghum and cotton and attributed such result to a 85 release of more easily degradable and soluble C in alfalfa than with other crop residues. Chen et al. 86 (2015) observed a general increase of CO₂ emissions from a soil amended with different types of 87 residues but with higher cumulative emissions in peanuts, soybean and maize than in other cereals 88 due to their higher N and lower neutral detergent fiber (NDF) content. 89

90 An accurate quantification of CO₂ and N₂O emission following return of crop residues to soils is required to develop efficient strategies to reduce the environmental impact of farming 91 practices. Presently, static chamber methods coupled with gas chromatography (GC) analysis are 92 the most widely technique used to quantify GHG losses in field and laboratory experiments. 93 94 However, the method is time consuming and entails a wide series of operations from the manual 95 sampling to the laboratory analysis, introducing errors, and making difficult to implement high resolution monitoring over time (Tirol-Padre et al. 2014). In order to obtain high resolution 96 temporal data, InfraRed Gas Analyzer (IRGA) and Photoacustic Gas Analyzer (PGA) has been used 97 98 in agricultural GHG emissions studies (Luo and Zhou 2006; Lawrence et al. 2009; Stackhouse et al. 99 2011). IRGA allows to measure CO₂ fluxes using an infra-red sensor and PGA is a photo-acoustic infrared multi-gas monitoring system that allows to measure simultaneously CO₂, N₂O and CH₄. 100 Measurement of CO₂ efflux by IRGA systems are usually based on different methodology proposed 101 by the manufacturing companies and there isn't an internationally recognized protocol creating 102

uncertainties in the comparison between different instruments (Mills et al. 2011). PGA has been 103 widely used in field experiments and several authors found a high correlation between CO₂ and 104 N₂O measurements made with PGA and GC (Klein et al. 2008; Iqbal et al. 2013). Other authors 105 reported an overestimation of emission on the data obtained with PGA than GC (Yamulki and 106 Jarvis 1999). Furthermore, the precision of measurement may also depend from the soil type and 107 108 soil cover, which can affect the assessment of emission spatial variability. The precision of the 109 various instruments (IRGA and PGA comparing to the widely used CG) in measuring GHGs emission has never been measured. However, in contrast to the GC-based methodology, these 110 systems are able to provide a continuous measurement of the GHGs emission, thus allowing to 111 better study the trend of the emission from the soil and its relationship with agronomical 112 113 management techniques and environmental variability. In addition, IRGA and PGA has not been previously directly compared. 114

Soil GHG emissions from Cambisols which occur widely in cool temperate climates have 115 widely studied in the past whereas the effect of soil characteristics typical of the Mediterranean 116 such as vertisols, with their high clay content high pH and low organic carbon content, on crop 117 residue decomposition and gaseous emissions are less known. The aims of the present study were: 118 (i) to evaluate the short-term emissions of N₂O and CO₂ after the addiction of two crop residues 119 with different structural fibre composition (either faba bean and wheat), in two soils with 120 contrasting proprieties, a Chromic Haploxerert with a high clay content and a Eutric Cambisol with 121 a sandy-loam texture; (ii) asses the flexibility of two systems for the high temporal resolution 122 measurements (IRGA and PGA), to measure soil GHG emissions from soils with different emission 123 levels in controlled conditions. Experiments were undertaken in a controlled pot setup over a short 124 period and in the absence of plants in order to simulate the effects of crop residues between 125 cropping cycles. These conditions avoided strong time-related variation in the emission due to the 126 127 impoverishment of the ready available N pool and living plant C inputs to and mineral uptake from soil, which could have altered the emission rates. 128

129

130 Materials and Methods

An experiment was established during 2014 in controlled environment conditions at 131 Scotland's Rural College (SRUC) Edinburgh. A complete randomized factorial design with three 132 replicates was adopted. Treatments were soil: Eutric Cambisol and Chromic Haploxerert (Vertisol); 133 and kind of plant residue added: faba bean residue, durum wheat residue or unamended control. The 134 Cambisol was collected at nine locations per plot from the top 20 cm at Bush Estate (lat, 55° 51' N, 135 long, 3° 12' W; 199 m a.s.l.) near Edinburgh (Scotland), the Haploxerert (Vertisol) was collected at 136 the Pietranera Farm (37°30' N, 13°31 E; 178 m a.s.l.) in Santo Stefano Quisquina (Sicily). Both 137 soils were sampled in early October 2014. Soil was collected from conventional tilled experimental 138 plots at the Bush Estate in Scotland and from conventionally tilled plots at Pietranera farm in Sicily 139 (Table 1). At both sites the soil was collected in plots previously cultivated with cereals (wheat in 140 Sicily and barley in Scotland). Further information regarding the soil sampling sites are available in 141 Vinten et al. (1992) and Amato et al. (2013), respectively. Before establishing the experiment, soil 142 was air-dried and passed through a 2 mm mesh and visible roots and organic residues were 143 removed, and then mixed thoroughly before use; water hold capacity of both soils were measured 144 on a weight basis. Oven-dried crop biomass of wheat (cv. Simeto) and faba bean (cv. Gemini) (see 145

Table 2 residues traits), cultivated at Pietranera farm, were ground to pass a 1 mm screen, mixed,and used as crop residues.

Pots were 10 cm in diameter and 25 cm heigh, and were filled with 1.5 kg of soil to achieve a bulk density of 1.25 g cm⁻³. Crop residues were mixed with the soil at a rate of 5 g crop residue per kg of soil. The bottom part of the pot (15-25cm depth) was filled with sand. Then, pots were brought to 60-70% of the water holding capacity. After each sampling an amount of water corresponding to the evaporation losses was added to each pot and the pots were randomized inside the greenhouse. During the experiment, soil temperature was recorded using a temperature data logger (EL-USB-3, Lascar Electronics, United Kingdom).

Both CO₂ and N₂O soil emissions were measured three time per week, on 22 sampling 155 occasions, by means of two different methods: an online Infrared Gas Analyzer (IRGA, EGM-4 156 CO₂, PP system, USA) and a Photoacoustic Gas Analyser (PGA, INNOVA 1412, LumaSense 157 Technologies A/S, USA). Measurements were always taken between the 9:00 and the 15:00 and 158 159 each time the equipment order was reversed. The IRGA was equipped with a SRC-1 Soil Respiration Chamber equipped with a fan, with of 10 cm of diameter and 15 cm height, sealed on 160 top of the pot by an airtight rubber. The air from the chamber was send to the analyser at flow rate 161 of 0.1 l min⁻¹. After 15 seconds of flushing, the chamber was placed above the pot, equilibrated for 162 15 seconds, than the CO₂ concentration was measured every 5 seconds and the flux was calculated 163 from the concentration increase over time until a good linear fit was obtained. 164

The PGA was equipped with a PVC chamber with a 10 cm of diameter and 10 cm height, 165 connected to the equipment by two small rubber pipe on the chamber top, and sealed above the pot 166 by a rubber seal. The analyser automatically pumped $\sim 0.1 \ 1 \ min^{-1}$ of air from inside the chambers 167 and performed the analysis with a 5-second sampling integration time and a fixed flushing time: 8 168 seconds for the chamber and 3 s for the tubing. The PGA instrument was calibrated in the lab for 169 CO₂ and N₂O by the LumaSense technologies company, with a gas concentration of 3496.8 ppm for 170 CO₂ and 51.32 ppm for N₂O, and it's detection limits were of 1.5 ppm for CO₂ and 0.03 ppm for 171 N₂O. The equipment performed a built-in compensation for water and cross interferences. Before 172 173 the flux measurements, the instrument analyzed ambient air for about 30 min until readings for CO₂ and N_2O were stable. The overall time for sampling and measurement of CO_2 and N_2O 174 concentration and dew-point temperature was approximately 70 seconds; each measurement was 175 176 made every two minutes.

Gas flux measurement (CO₂ from both IRGA and PGA, and N₂O from PGA), in two 177 different periods during the experiment, were compared with analyses by gas chromatography in 178 order to confirm the reliability of the instruments. CO₂ and N₂O emissions were measured using the 179 static closed chamber technique (Hutchinson and Mosier 1981). A chamber of polyvinyl chloride 180 (PVC), with 10 cm of diameter and 15 height and a lid with a gas sampling port was sealed above 181 each pot for 60 min. Before and after this period gas samples were collected in portable evacuated 182 183 glass vials (Chadwick et al. 2014), transported to the lab and analyzed by a gas chromatography (Agilent 7890a, Agilent Technologies Ltd, Stockport, UK) equipped with a thermal conductivity 184 detector (TCD, detection limit for CO₂ of 23.9 ppm) and an electron capture detector (ECD, 185 detection limit for N₂O of 0.074 ppm). Fluxes of CO₂ and N₂O were calculated from the increase in 186

187 concentration in the chamber corrected for the chamber air temperature using the following relation188 (Jantalia et al. 2008):

189

190

 $f = \frac{\Delta C}{\Delta t} \times \frac{V}{A} \times \frac{m}{Vm}$

191 where $\Delta C/\Delta t$ is the gas increment during the chamber closure time, V is the volume of the chamber, 192 A is the soil area, *m* is the molecular weight of the gases and *Vm* is the gas molar volume corrected 193 for the ambient temperature.

The total amount of N_2O and CO_2 emissions were calculated by linear interpolation between consecutive using the following equation (Cai et al. 2012):

196

Cumulative emission of
$$N_2O$$
 or $CO_2 = \sum_{i=1}^n (F_i + F_{i+1})/2 \times (t_{i+1} - t_i) \times 24$

where *F* are the emission flow of N₂O and CO₂ at the i^{th} measurement, $(t_{i+1}-t_i)$ is the time length between two adjacent measurements and n is the total measurement number.

199 Plant dry matter (oven drying), ether extract (Method 920.39, diethyl ether, traditional Soxhlet extraction), total N (Kjeldahl) and crude protein (calculated from the total N by standard 200 Jones factor, N x 6.25) were analyzed following methods described by AOAC (1995). Neutral 201 detergent fibre (NDF), acid detergent fibre (ADF), acid detergent lignin (ADL), cellulose and 202 203 hemicellulose where analysed following the sequential method proposed by Van Soest et al. (1991) and using a Fibertec System M 1020 extractor (Foss, Höganäs). The soluble fraction was obtained 204 by boiling 1 g of ground residues in deionized water (100°C) for 30 min followed by extraction 205 with a neutral detergent (EDTA and Na lauryl sulphate at 100°C) for 60 min to obtain the NDF 206 fraction. ADF extraction was performed by boiling the sample for 60 minutes in an acid detergent 207 solution (Cetyltrimethylammonium (CTAB) in H₂SO₄). Then, the residual detergent was removed 208 by washing the sample with hot water. Finally, the ADF was then treated with 72% H₂SO₄ (w/w) for 209 3 hours at ambient temperature and the final mass of the non-extractable fraction was considered as 210 211 lignin (ADL). Cellulose was calculated as the difference between ADF and ADL while hemicellulose ad the difference between NDF and ADF. Ash and ADL ash measurements were 212 performed at 550°C for 4 h. For each residue type the analyses were performed in triplicate. Total 213 C of biomasses and soils were analysed by an automated analyser (Flash 2000, Thermo-Finnigan, 214 Glasgow, UK). 215

At the end of the experiment, two soil samples from each pot were collected: one from the 216 top to 5 cm depth and the other from 5 to 15 cm depth. Soil pH was measured in a 1:5 (v/v) 217 suspension of soil in water. Dissolved organic C (DOC) content in the soil was determined by a 218 total organic C analyser (DC-80, Rosemount Analytical, Inc. Dohrmann Division, USA) after the 219 220 removal of inorganic C by acidifying the sample. Concentrations of NH₄⁺-N and NO₃⁻-N were determined from 10 g of soil extracted with 100 ml of 2M KCl (1:5 ratio); then the filtered extract 221 NH₄⁺-N and NO₃⁻-N concentrations were measured by a continuous flow analysis autoanalyser 222 (SAN SYSTEM, Skalar Analytical B.V., Netherland). 223

Analysis of variance (ANOVA) was undertaken using a Mixed model according to the statistical design in SAS environment (SAS Institute 2008). Treatment means were separated using *p* differences of the LSMEANS.

Regressions between GC and IRGA, and GC and PGA, for CO_2 , and for CO_2 and N_2O , respectively, were computed. Soil CO_2 emission rate measurements from IRGA and PGA were compared on the 22 sampling occasions. Comparisons were made by a regression analysis and the index of agreement (IoAd) (SAS Institute 2008; Bennett et al. 2013).

231 <u>Results</u>

The temperature inside the greenhouse during the experiment ranged from a minimum of 232 17°C to the maximum of 28.5°C, with an average of 20.5°C, while soil temperature ranged from a 233 maximum of 27°C to a minimum of 20°C with a slight decreasing trend from the start to the end of 234 the experiment (Fig. 1). The chemical composition of the plant residues used in the present study, 235 expressed as percentages, are reported in Table 2. The N content of faba bean and durum wheat 236 were comparable (1.4% vs 1.3%, respectively). With regards to the other constituents, marked 237 238 differences were found between the plant residues. In particular, faba bean had higher ADF (+66 %), ADL (+186%), cellulose (+60 %), and NDF (+19%) than wheat, and a lower content of 239 hemicellulose (-51 %) (Table 2). 240

241

242 Carbon and nitrogen dynamics

The Haploxerert used in the present study had a high pH (8.1) and high clay and low total C content (1.39%), whereas the Cambisol had a near neutral (6.6), low clay and high C content (2.48%). Interaction between soil and residue type for these soil properties by the end of the experiment was strong and significant (p<0.05) (Table 3). As expected, the addition of organic residues mostly increased DOC in both the top- and sub-soil layers of the Haploxerert (on average by 52.5% compared to unamended control), whereas there was no significant effect on the Cambisol.

The soil incubation, either with or without plant residues incorporation, decreased soil pH by 0.86 in the Cambisol and 0.33 in the Haploxerert. The effect of the addition of organic residues to the soil pH varied with both the soil and kind of biomass incorporated: in the Cambisol, addition of wheat residues significantly decreased pH in the top- and sub-layers when compared with the unamended control whereas addition of faba bean residues did not influence soil pH. In the Haploxerert, no effect of the addition of organic residues on soil pH were found in both soil layers.

The concentration of NH_4^+ -N was higher in the Haploxerert than Cambisol, and this particularly apparent in the sub-layer. The role of the addition of organic residues on soil NH_4^+ -N depended on the soil and kind of biomass added: addition of durum wheat residues increased soil ammonium-N in top-layer of both soils (+40% in the Cambisol and +102% in the Haploxerert), whereas NH_4^+ -N in the soils amended with faba bean residues was similar to those of the controls. In the sub-layer of the Cambisol, the effect of the addition of the organic residues was similar to that observed in the top-layer, whereas addition of both residues strongly increased the NH_4^+ -N of Haploxerert comparing to the unamended control (+133% in faba bean and +454% in wheat residues).

The concentration of NO_3^- -N in both layers was significantly higher in the Cambisol when compared with the Haploxerert and this occurred irrespective of the addition of organic residues. In the Cambisol, addition of faba bean residues reduced NO_3^- -N more than wheat residues, especially in the sub-layer, when compared with the unamended control. In the Haploxerert, NO_3^- -N in both layers did not vary with the addition of plant residues.

NH₄⁺-N:NO₃⁻-N ratio differed considerably in the different soil types: in the unamended controls, it was 6.467 in the Haploxerert and 0.006 in the Cambisol. In the latter, addition of organic residues to the soil did not influence the NH_4^+ -N:NO₃⁻-N of either the top- or sub-layer. In the toplayer of Haploxerert, the addition of organic residues reduced the NH_4^+ -N:NO₃⁻-N ratio, especially when faba bean residues were added. In the sub-layer, an opposite result was found and thus addition of organic residues increased the NH_4^+ -N:NO₃⁻-N ratio, especially when wheat residues were added.

277 Greenhouse gas emissions

Carbon dioxide fluxes, measured with IRGA, ranged from a minimum value of 0.11 g m⁻² h⁻¹ to a maximum value of 3.64 g m⁻² h⁻¹ (Fig. 2). For almost the entire experimental period, the Cambisol had a higher CO₂ emission flux than the Haploxerert. At the beginning of the experiment the two soil reached the maximum emission flux at the first and second day of measurement with fluxes of 3.58 g m⁻² h⁻¹ for the Cambisol and 1.42 g m⁻² h⁻¹ for the Haploxerert.

The highest CO_2 fluxes were recorded in both soils amended with wheat straw whereas the lowest in the unamended controls. The differences in emission between the two soils were strong in the first two weeks of measurement, where the 53.8% and 46.2% of total CO_2 were emitted from the Cambisol and the Haploxerert, respectively. After the first two weeks of measurement, the differences between the two soils reduced and the emission decreased until the end of the experimental period.

The CO_2 emissions measured with PGA showed a similar trend to those acquired by IRGA. However, in the first part of the experimental period, PGA emissions were slightly higher than those observed by the IRGA, especially from the Cambisol. In the second part of the experiment, no differences between the techniques were found (Fig 2).

Total CO₂ emissions were 74% lower in the unamended Haploxerert (198 g CO₂ m⁻²) compared to the Cambisol (765 g CO₂ m⁻²). Addition of plant residues to the soil increased total emission to a different extent depending on the soil under study (interaction Soil x Residue Type significant p<0.001): in the Cambisol, addition of faba bean and wheat resulted in an increase of 24% and 88%, respectively, of the total CO₂ emissions. In the Haploxerert, no differences were found between the kind of biomass incorporated, which, on average, increased total CO₂ emission by 171% compared to the unamended control (Fig 4).

Emissions of N₂O during the experiment ranged from 0.022 to 0.348 mg m⁻² h⁻¹ (Fig 5). However there were large differences between soils with emissions of 0.024 mg m⁻² h⁻¹ to 0.117 mg

m⁻² h⁻¹ and from 0.022 mg m⁻² h⁻¹ to 0.348 mg m⁻² h⁻¹ in the Haploxerert and Cambisol, 302 respectively. The Cambisol reached a N₂O emission peak at 7 days after the beginning of the 303 experiment, whereas the Haploxerert soil showed a continuous and constant reduction of the N₂O 304 emission from the beginning of the experiment until the end of the trial. In addition, marked 305 differences between amended and unamended soil were observed in Cambisol during the first half 306 of experiment. The highest fluxes were measured in both soils amended with wheat straw. 307 Cumulative N₂O emission in the unamended controls of the Cambisol soil was 30% higher than in 308 Haploxerert soil (85.1 and 59.9 mg N₂O m⁻², respectively). Crop residue addition had a different 309 effect in each soil (interaction Soil x Residue Type significant p<0.001). In the Cambisol, N₂O 310 emissions in the pots amended with wheat was 159.8 mg N₂O m⁻², (+88% more than the control) 311 and that of the pots amended with faba bean was 127.0 mg N_2O m⁻², (+49% than the control). In the 312 Haploxerert, faba-bean added pots emitted in total 80.8 mg N₂O m⁻² (+35% than the control) and 313 that added with wheat 67.2 mg N₂O m⁻² (+12% than the control; Fig 6). 314

315 Comparisons of gas measurement techniques

Few differences were found for the IRGA and PGA in CO₂ measurement when compared 316 GC. with from the The determination factor 0.937 317 that was $(y_{GC}=1.0534x_{IRGA}-0.0221 \text{ g } CO_2 m^{-2} h^{-1})$ and 0.925 $(y_{GC}=0.9887x_{PGA}-0.0095 \text{ g } CO_2 m^{-2} h^{-1})$ for 318 IRGA and PGA, respectively and index of agreement was 0.998 for both instruments. 319

With regards to the N₂O measurement, the linear regression between GC and PGA showed a relatively high relationship between the results ($R^2=0.90$; $(y_{GC}=0.8993x_{PGA}-0.0063 \text{ mg } N_2Om^{-2} h^{-1})$), although PGA-N₂O were, on average, 5.2 % higher than the GC-N₂O measurements. However, in this case, the index of agreement was also 0.998.

The comparison between CO₂ measurements obtained by IRGA and PGA across the entire 324 experimental period (more than 600 measurements) showed a high correlation between the two 325 instruments (R²=0.95; IoAd=0.996; (y_{IRGA} =1.0118 x_{PGA} -0.0003 g $CO_2m^{-2}h^{-1}$). However, the 326 cumulative CO₂ emissions measured by PGA were on average 9% higher than those measured by 327 IRGA. Differences in CO₂ fluxes from the two soilwere apparent from the different measurement 328 techniques. Thus although the overall CO₂ fluxes measured by PGA were 6% higher than IRGA, 329 such differences were up to 10% greater when the comparison was limited to the Haploxerert soil, 330 and up to 17% when only the control plots were consdered. In the Cambisol the differences between 331 the instruments were lower at around 5%. 332

334 **Discussion**

333

335 N₂O and CO₂ emission and soil properties

This study evaluated the effect of soil incorporation of two different plant residues on N_2O and CO_2 emissions. The characteristics of two soils were distinctly different, with the Cambisol having a low pH and high SOC while the Haploxerert had a high pH and low SOC. Emissions and soil parameters varied according to both the kind of residue added and the soil type. The total CO_2 and N_2O emissions, (measured by PGA), from the unamended Cambisol were 249% and 40% higher than the unamended Haploxerert, respectively, suggesting large differences in biochemical and microbial activity between both soils driven by differences in soil physical and chemical

properties. Moreover, the differences in CO₂ emissions between the two soils followed the 343 differences in stable-C (TOC was 78% higher in the Cambisol than in Haploxerert) and readily 344 available-C (DOC in the Cambisol was double that in the Haploxerert). This latter form, although it 345 may be preferentially utilized by soil microorganisms, can be protected by soil aggregates or 346 adsorbed by mineral particles (Majumder and Kuzyakov 2010; Steinbeiss et al. 2008; Shi et al. 347 348 2014). The higher CO₂ emissions (per unit of carbon present in the soil) from Cambisol were nevertheless a reflection of differences in the carbon pools. Such a differences suggest that the 349 Haploxerert had a relatively low respiration rate, which may have been a consequence of protection 350 by the higher clay content in the Haploxerert of SOC pools (Baldock and Skjemstad 2000; Krull et 351 al. 2003; Lutzow et al. 2006; Alluvione et al. 2013; Six and Paustian 2014), and coupled with 352 relatively low soil microbial activity due to a low free substrate availability. Another important 353 aspect related to the clay content is its mineralogy; the Haploxerert is characterized by prominent 354 swelling-shrinkage behaviour, which suggests that a high content of montmorillonite, can slow 355 down organic matter decomposition by absorption, interacting with soil microbes and their external 356 357 enzyme activity or limiting oxygen diffusion (Vogel et al. 2015). In addition, a recent highly reliable model on SOC on the region the Haploxerert in the present study came from confirmed that 358 these kind of soil (along with other vertisols) have a high ability to stabilize the soil organic matter 359 (Schillaci et al, 2017; Saia et al. 2017). CO₂ and N₂O fluxes reached a peak in the within the first 360 week of incubation, and were higher in the Cambisol than in the Haploxerert. The transient effects 361 of the CO₂ and N₂O emission rates were likely to have resulted from increased gas diffusivity due 362 to the soil disturbance in the establishment of the experiment and the rapid decomposition of the 363 highly-labile free organic fraction (either added or not) (Magid et al. 1999; Baggs et al. 2006). Crop 364 residue distribution within the soil, as reported by several authors (Curtin et al. 1998; Jacinthe et al. 365 2002; Lian et al. 2016) stimulated and increased CO₂ emissions but with different magnitudes in the 366 two soils. In particular, the difference in CO₂ emissions between soils was reduced when an organic 367 residue (either faba bean or wheat) was added. The Cambisol emitted +88% and +152% more CO₂ 368 than the Haploxerert when faba bean and wheat residues were added, respectively. Similar 369 differences were found for N₂O emission between soils amended with organic residues. These 370 findings are supported by research by An et al. (2015) where straw C input to the soil was more 371 effective at stimulating microbial activity and extractable organic carbon in a low fertility soil, than 372 in a high fertility soil, probably as a consequence of the starvation of the soil microbial community 373 (Bastida et al. 2013) and also a possible effect of clay which increases the contact between the 374 substrate and microorganisms. However, their experiment used a soil with a lower clay content 375 (24.9%), and we expect that in the soil used in our study which was more rich in clay (52.5%), this 376 effect was less important due to the absorption effects described above. Other studies have shown 377 378 that an increasing clay content (achieved by making artificial soils) accelerated the decomposition rate of added organic matter supporting the concept that clay can have a primary role in influencing 379 decomposition-stabilization processes in the soil regulating the nutrient availably for 380 microorganisms, emissions and organic carbon stabilization and sequestration (Velthof et al. 2002; 381 Six and Paustian 2014; Wei et al. 2014; Bajgai et al. 2014). Nitrous oxide emissions from the 382 Haploxerert were affected also by soil clay content and it's direct action on N immobilization 383 processes, as observed also by Begum et al. (2014) in an experiment conducted in a same type of 384 soil (Vertisol) with a comparable clay content (62%), closely linked to the stabilization of the 385 organic matter and confirmed by the high NH₄⁺-N:NO₃⁻-N observed. Furthermore, as result of the 386

the high cation exchangeable capacity of this soil (35 cmol kg⁻¹) the addition of organic matter had 387 a no effect on the pH, whilst in the Cambisol the wheat straw significantly reduced pH, most 388 probably as a consequence of the nitrification process which may acidify soil due to the release of 389 H⁺ ions (Van Miegroet and Cole 1983). This would have been promoted by the high degradability 390 of wheat residues, that produced a higher nitrate content in the soil and promoted gaseous emissions 391 (both CO₂ and N₂O) compared to the soil where faba bean was added. In another experiment Aye et 392 al. (2016) using wheat and field-pea, with a different C:N ratio, as residues in a soil with 29% clay 393 found an increase in the decomposition process up to pH 7.4. However, in our experiment, although 394 the pH of the Haploxerert was slightly higher (7.8), the lower DOC concentration, CO₂ and N₂O 395 fluxes in Haploxerert, suggest that the lower decomposition rates that can be linked to the much 396 397 higher clay content (52.5%) confirming the dominant influence of clay as key factor in determining nutrient turnover and emissions in this soil. The original pH of the soil may have played a role in 398 determining the magnitude of N₂O emissions by the soil microbial community. As reported from 399 Rousk et al. (2009), an acid pH at around 6 can stimulate fungal growth; fungi are recognized for 400 401 not having the ability to synthesise nitrous oxide reductase and their denitrification end product is therefore N₂O. Other studies have reported that fungi could contribute up to 18% of potential 402 403 denitrification (Herold et al. 2012). Thus pH differences may also have contributed to differences in N₂O emissions from soils. 404

There was a clear correlation between CO₂ and N₂O emissions in both soils, although this 405 was greater in the Cambisol, where oxygen depletion and CO₂ emissions could have helped create 406 anaerobic microsites in the soil increasing denitrification and N2O production (Gök and Ottow 407 1988; Aulakh et al. 1991; Begum et al. 2014; Nett et al. 2015). The mineralization rate of an organic 408 residue added to the soil mostly depends on its C:N ratio and to a lesser extent to its lignin:N ratio 409 and fibre content (Trinsoutrot et al. 2000; Nguyen and Marschner 2016; Cheng et al. 2015). 410 411 However, in the present study, the difference in the C:N ratio of the residues used (38.6 in faba bean and 40.7 in wheat) does not explain the difference in soil mineral N concentration and CO₂ and N₂O 412 emissions between the crop residues. Thus, it is more likely that mineralization rate of faba bean 413 residues was lower than wheat residues due to the different lignin, acid detergent, and neutral 414 detergent fibre contents (+188%, +66%, +19%, respectively in faba bean comparing to wheat). 415

The incorporation of plant residues, either of wheat or faba bean, introduced contrasting 416 effects on the NH₄⁺-N and NO₃⁻-N concentrations on each of the soils. The addition of plant 417 residues increased the NH₄⁺-N concentration of the Haploxerert, but not that of the Cambisol, and 418 such an increase was more evident when wheat residues were added. At the same time, addition of 419 plant residues reduced the total NO₃-N content of the Cambisol, but not that of the Haploxerert, and 420 421 such an effect was more evident when faba bean residues were added. Such a result points to a net immobilization process in the soil due to consumption of N in order to decompose organic C 422 (Corbeels et al. 2000; Jin et al. 2013). In the Haploxerert, a similar quantity of total CO₂ was 423 emitted after the addition of both crop residues, but the faba-bean addition showed a slightly higher 424 N₂O emission than wheat addition treatment coupled with lower NO₃⁻-N content at the end of the 425 experiment. Thus, it is likely that in this soil, which was characterized by a lower soil microbial 426 activity, the lower mineralization of faba bean residues led to a more constant availability of labile 427 C and N, due stimulating bacterial and fungal activity along the experiment until the end, and as 428 consequence, denitrification in soil microsites as reported from other authors (Deenik 2006; Shah et 429

al. 2016). By contrast, wheat residues produced a rapid flush in emission in the initial phase of the 430 experiment and shown at the end of the experiment higher NH₄⁺-N and NO₃⁻-N concentration in to 431 the soil suggesting other limitation. This selective activity of microbes induced by the residue 432 composition results in readily available straw C being used more rapidly while more recalcitrant 433 and stable compounds are decomposed more slowly (Majumder and Kuzyakov 2010). In the 434 Cambisol both crop residues showed the same trend in gas emissions, (CO₂ and N₂O), due to a 435 direct effect of residue characteristics on decomposition and N availability. The rapid 436 mineralization of wheat resulted lower DOC and higher NH₄⁺-N and NO₃⁻-N concentrations and a 437 reduction in pH, as described above. In the case of faba bean the higher presence of recalcitrant 438 compounds, in particular lignin, slowed down nutrient release and decreased emissions. 439

440 Comparison between gas flux measurement techniques

This study has clearly demonstrated that IRGA and PGA methodologies used to measure 441 CO₂ and N₂O emissions provided data consistent with that measured by GC. The comparison of 442 443 CO₂ and N₂O emission rates measured by IRGA and PGA was very strong correlated with GC measurements, an observation also reported by other authors (Pumpanen et al. 2004; Iqbal et al. 444 2013; Nicoloso et al. 2013; Tirol-Padre et al. 2014). In particular, the same trend was observed for 445 both gas fluxes measured in the Cambisol and Haploxerert, which were characterized by different 446 patterns of CO₂ and N₂O emissions. Similar results to those observed in the present experiment 447 were found for N₂O fluxes by Iqbal et al. (2013), who reported a slightly higher emissions with 448 PGA than with GC (+5%), However, by contrast, we didn't find any difference in CO₂ flux 449 measurements when comparing PGA and GC. Nicoloso et al. (2013) observed an overestimation of 450 451 18.6% and 13.6% comparing PGA to GC, for CO₂ and N₂O respectively; we did not find any differences between the techniques, which may have been due to the lower gas concentrations 452 measured during our experiment. That also defined, the positive effect of the compensation against 453 water vapor and cross interference, the two main sources of interference on measurement, during 454 455 the experiments.

With regard to the accuracy of CO₂ emission data recorded by IRGA, if comparing our 456 performance with those obtained from Pumpanen et al. (2004), the latter of which are based on CO₂ 457 concentration measurements, we obtained better results with very similar fluxes between IRGA and 458 GC. The quality of data obtained from EGM-4 IRGA used in the present study was also confirmed 459 460 by Mills et al. (2011) who found good similarity in soil respiration flux with a different IRGA type. However, PGA was found to have some limitations in reporting CO₂ fluxes measured by IRGA in 461 the first part of the experiment and monitoring the emissions of Haploxerert control in the later part 462 of the experiment, showing some difficult on measure low and high peak of emission producing a 463 slight overestimation on data. At medium and low emission rates the instruments performances 464 were similar and this was also confirmed by GC. Taking into account the reliability of data, together 465 with the speed of measurement, and the capacity to obtain high resolution temporal data, this study 466 highlights the benefits of using online IRGA and PGA measurements in studies of residue 467 decomposition. When applied in the field experiment, the short time required from IRGA and PGA 468 to take a measurement of emission provides an opportunity to make more measurements permitting 469 a higher spatial and temporal resolution. In the case of the PGA, the results produced had a 470

471 considerable importance due to the possibility of this instrument to measure two or more gaseous472 compounds simultaneously Horsley et al. 2014.

Finally, although the chamber techniques coupled with GC is considered the reference 473 technique for the GHG monitoring, direct measurement by these devices eliminates many of the 474 risks resulting from sampling pitfalls and sample storage that can negatively affect the 475 measurements (Cowan et al. 2014; Tirol-Padre et al. 2014). For the specific application to GHG 476 477 studies, the initial cost and maintenance can be lower than GC systems, requiring also less specialized staff to operate. The comparison of CO2 emissions rates measured by IRGA and PGA 478 across the entire experimental period revealed, overall, that there were small differences between 479 both methods. 480

481 <u>Conclusions</u>

Soil plays a major role in controlling GHG emissions to the atmosphere and are a key 482 determinant of emissions originating from plant residues. Our study demonstrated, when 483 comparing two different soils, how specific proprieties, such as clay content and pH, can 484 485 significantly alter decomposition, immobilization and gaseous emissions. These results have implications for developing low-C management practices, especially under organic farming systems 486 where residue management could be a strategy to replace mineral fertilizers and limit C footprint. In 487 Vertisols, which are widespread, but less well understood, CO₂ and N₂O emissions were strongly 488 controlled by clay content limiting emissions, promoting C sequestration and N transfer to next crop 489 cycle. Although many studies on the decomposition of residues have focused on C/N ratios, this 490 study highlights the importance of fibre compounds, often referred to as secondary, on determining 491 soil CO₂ and N₂O emissions and as their effect can change in relation to the soil characteristics. In 492 particular, in soil with high organic carbon contents and microbial activity such as a Cambisol, the 493 crop residue type determined the total emission. There was a unique trend for higher emissions of 494 both gases (CO₂ and N₂O) in the presence of more decomposable wheat than with recalcitrant faba 495 bean. In Haploxerert, by contrast, the slower decomposition of crop residues resulted in a similar 496 CO_2 release from the different residues, but slightly higher N_2O emissions from faba bean. 497

The direct comparison between IRGA and PGA and their validation with GC confirmed that 498 these two techniques are equivalent in providing reliable data for long-term monitoring, and this 499 occurred under various conditions (differing soil type residue addition). This result is important 500 when considering that GC-based methodologies need of a number of sample steps from gas 501 collection, transport, sample storage, and analysis, each of which can potentially add error to the 502 measurement. In addition, GC-based methodologies are not able to provide a continuous 503 504 measurement of the GHG emissions and thus are poor at quantifying temporal variability. By contrast, the high sensitivity of IRGA and PGA, range and ease of application, number of gases 505 analyzed (including water vapor) allow a better monitoring of the radiative force of the soil while 506 507 eliminating many of the risks of the GC-based methodologies.

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Tables and Figures

Table 1 Main properties of soils.

| Soil Properties | Scotland Bush Estate | Sicily Pietranera | | |
|--------------------------------------|-------------------------|--|--|--|
| Soil classification | Eutric Cambisol | Chromic Haploxerert (Vertisol) | | |
| Soil series | Macmerry | Gessoso-solfifera (sulphurous-chalky) | | |
| Texture | Sandy-loam | Clay-loam | | |
| Coordinates | 55.9 N, 3.2 W | 37.3 N, 13.3 W | | |
| Altitude | 199 | 178 | | |
| Slope [%] | 6 | 7 | | |
| Clay [%] | 12.7 | 52.5 | | |
| Silt [%] | 15.7 | 21.6 | | |
| Sand [%] | 71.6 | 25.9 | | |
| рН | 6.6 | 8.1 | | |
| Field capacity (pF 2.5) [%] | 36 | 38 | | |
| Permanent wilting point (pF 4.5) [%] | 20 | 16 | | |
| Organic matter [%] | 4.3 | 2.4 | | |
| Total N [%] | 0.21 | 0.13 | | |

, , 2

Table 2 Composition of crop residues.

| Chemical properties of crop residues | Faba Bean | Durum Wheat | | |
|--------------------------------------|-----------|-------------|--|--|
| Organic Matter | 91.8 | 92.1 | | |
| N content | 1.4 | 1.3 | | |
| Crude protein | 8.8 | 8.1 | | |
| Ether extract | 1.1 | 1.7 | | |
| Acid detergent fibre (ADF) | 48.0 | 28.8 | | |
| Acid detergent lignin (ADL) | 10.0 | 3.5 | | |
| Cellulose | 38 | 25.3 | | |
| Neutral detergent fibre (NDF) | 54.0 | 45.4 | | |
| Hemicellulose | 6 | 16.6 | | |
| Ash | 8.2 | 7.9 | | |
| ADL Ash | 0.4 | 3.2 | | |

| | | Chromic Haploxerert | | Eutric Cambisol | | | Р | | | |
|--------------------------|----------------------------|---------------------|----------------|-----------------|--------------|----------------|----------------|-------|-----------------|--------------|
| | | Faba bean | Durum wheat | No addition | Faba bean | Durum wheat | No addition | Soil | Residue Type | $S \times T$ |
| 0-5 cm soil layer | | | | | | | | | | |
| DOC | mg C kg ⁻¹ soil | 42.5 | 43.2 | 33.6 | 73.5 | 67.6 | 67.2 | <.001 | 0.000 | 0.007 |
| pН | _ | 7.7 | 7.8 | 7.8 | 5.8 | 5.4 | 5.9 | <.001 | 0.009 | 0.019 |
| NH4 ⁺ -N | mg N kg ⁻¹ soil | 1.6 | 3.3 | 1.7 | 0.9 | 1.3 | 0.9 | <.001 | <.001 | <.001 |
| NO ₃ -N | mg N kg ⁻¹ soil | 0.4 | 2.4 | 0.3 | 104.6 | 149.6 | 164.5 | <.001 | 0.001 | 0.001 |
| $NH_4^+-N: NO_3^N$ | - | 4.3 | 1.4 | 6.5 | 0.009 | 0.008 | 0.006 | <.001 | 0.001 | 0.001 |
| 5-15 cm soil layer | | | | | | | | | | |
| DOC | mg C kg ⁻¹ soil | 75.9 | 83.0 | 48.1 | 86.4 | 93.1 | 91.8 | <.001 | <.001 | <.001 |
| рН | - | 7.7 | 7.7 | 7.8 | 5.9 | 5.6 | 5.8 | <.001 | 0.037 | 0.043 |
| NH4 ⁺ -N | mg N kg ⁻¹ soil | 13.5 | 32.0 | 5.8 | 1.1 | 1.5 | 0.9 | <.001 | <.001 | <.001 |
| NO ₃ -N | mg N kg ⁻¹ soil | 0.5 | 0.5 | 0.8 | 36.9 | 43.3 | 66.4 | <.001 | <.001 | <.001 |
| NH_4^+ -N: NO_3^- -N | - | 25.7 | 62.9 | 7.3 | 0.030 | 0.034 | 0.014 | <.001 | <.001 | <.001 |

Table 3 Effect of the addition of two crop residues (Durum wheat or fababean, and unamended control) on Dissolved Organic C (DOC), pH, NH_4^+ -N and NO_3^- -N content and NH_4^+ -N: NO_3^- -N ratios in 0-5 cm and 5-15 cm soil layers of a Chromic Haploxerert and Eutric Cambisol soils.



1

Fig. 1 Daily minimum, maximum, mean air temperature in the greenhouse and mean soil temperature during the
 experiment



4

5 Fig. 2 CO_2 emission course from Chromic Haploxerert and Eutric Cambisol amended with faba bean and wheat 6 residues, or unamended (control), measured with IRGA during the experimental period. Data are means \pm S.E (n=3)



Fig. 3 CO₂ emission course from the Chromic Haploxerert and Eutric Cambisol soils amended with faba bean and wheat biomass,
 or unamended (control), measured with PGA during the experimental period. Data are means±S.E (n=3)









16

17 Fig. 5 N₂O emission course from the Chromic Haploxerert and Eutric Cambisol amended with faba bean and wheat

18 biomass, or unamended (control), measured with PGA during the experimental period. Data are means±S.E (n=3)





20



22 biomass, or unamended (control), measured with PGA. Data are means±S.E (n=3)