

Matheus Severo de Souza Kulmann^{1*}, Lincon Oliveira Stefanello², Raíssa Schwalbert³, Adriele Tassinari², Gabriel Alberto Sans², Wagner Squizani Arruda², Sandro José Giacomini², Tadeu Luis Tiecher⁴, Corina Carranca⁵, Gustavo Brunetto²

Impact of application of urea modes and rates on yield and nitrous oxide emissions in grapevine (*Vitis vinifera* L.) on sandy soils in subtropical climate

Affiliations

¹ Forest Science Department, Federal University of Santa Maria, Santa Maria, Brazil

² Soil Science Department, Federal University of Santa Maria, Santa Maria, Brazil

³ Biology Department, Federal University of Santa Maria, Santa Maria, Brazil

⁴ Instituto Federal do Rio Grande do Sul, Campus Restinga, Porto Alegre, Brazil

⁵ National Institute of Agricultural and Veterinary Research, Lisbon, Portugal

Correspondence

Matheus Kulmann*: matheuskulmann@hotmail.com, Lincon Stefanello: linconstefanello@gmail.com, Raíssa Schwalbert: raissaschwalbert@gmail.com, Adriele Tassinari: tassinaridrica@gmail.com, Gabriel Alberto Sans: gabalbertosans@gmail.com, Wagner Squizani: wagnersquizani@hotmail.com, Sandro José Giacomini: sjgiacomini@ufsm.br, Tadeu Luis Tiecher: tadeu.tiecher@restinga.ifrs.edu.br, Corina Carranca: corina.carranca@iniav.pt, Gustavo Brunetto: brunetto.gustavo@gmail.com

Summary

Grapevines subjected to applications of nitrogen (N) doses on the soil surface can use only a small amount of the nutrient, probably because of losses, such as nitrous oxide (N₂O) emissions to the atmosphere. An alternative to reduce these N losses may be the application of N via fertigation. The study aimed to evaluate the N₂O emissions and grape yield (*Vitis vinifera* L.), in grapevines submitted to the application of modes and doses of N cultivated in sandy soil in a subtropical climate. 'Alicante Bouschet' grapevines were subjected to a factorial scheme with three N rates: 0, 40 and 80 kg N ha⁻¹ year⁻¹; and two application modes: surface (NS) and via fertigation (NF). Evaluations of N₂O emissions and ammonium (NH₄⁺) and nitrate (NO₃⁻) contents in the soil, N concentration in leaves, grape yield, and number of clusters per plant were carried out. Grapevines cultivated with applications of 40 and 80 kg N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹, in NF and NS modes, respectively, presented higher N₂O emissions. N₂O emission peaks occurred in the first 9 days after N application. Cumulative N₂O emissions ranged from 161.74 ± 34.67 to 496.18 ± 37.00 g ha⁻¹ of N₂O-N, in soils that received 0 and 40 kg N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹, respectively, both in NF mode. Accumulated N₂O emissions had a linearly positive relation with the mineral N content in the soil (NH₄⁺ and NO₃⁻) and these had a negative relation with grape yield.

Keywords

N₂O emissions, Nitrogen fertilization, Sandy soil, Denitrification, fertigation, viticulture

Introduction

Viticulture and enology play a strong role in the world economy (Fraga, 2019). Brazil is one of the most important grape-pro-

ducing countries in South America, having more than 79,000 hectares cultivated with grapevine, producing 1,912,034 tons of grapes in 2017 (IBGE, 2020). Grapevines can be grown worldwide in sandy soils, with low levels of soil organic matter (SOM) and nitrogen (N) (Brunetto *et al.*, 2014, 2016; Lorensini *et al.*, 2017) but nitrogen fertilizers must be applied to supply the N demand by grapevines, enhancing the grape yield (Fig. 1) (Stefanello *et al.*, 2020). Urea is the most used nitrogen mineral fertilizer in the world, for it has the lowest cost per unit of N but with a high content in its composition and, also, ease of transport and storage (Glibert *et al.*, 2006; Guardia *et al.*, 2018). In grapevine cultivation in Brazil, the application of urea is normally on the soil surface (Brunetto *et al.*, 2016) which can lead to ammonia emissions (NH₃) due to the contribution to the increase in availability of N in the soil, as nitrate (NO₃⁻) and ammonium (NH₄⁺) (Lorensini *et al.*, 2017). The NH₄⁺ made available by urea can follow three routes: (i) be absorbed by plant roots; (ii) react with OH⁻, which may cause NH₃ volatilization to the atmosphere; and (iii) undergo a nitrification process by the biological oxidation of NH₄⁺ to nitrite (NO₂⁻) and then to NO₃⁻ (Brunetto *et al.*, 2016; Silva *et al.*, 2019). Nitrate in the soil can also follow three paths: (i) absorption by plants; (ii) leaching loss, especially in sandy textured soils (Barlow *et al.*, 2009; Lorensini *et al.*, 2012); or (iii) loss by denitrification, by the transformation of NO₃⁻ into gases such as nitrogen (N₂), nitric oxide (NO), or nitrous oxide (N₂O), through denitrifying bacteria when in anaerobic environments (Caranto and Lancaster, 2017; Guardia *et al.*, 2018; Hallin *et al.*, 2018). N₂O is a potent greenhouse gas (GHG) with a global warming potential about 298 times greater than carbon dioxide (CO₂) (IPCC, 2014). In the stratosphere, N₂O is the most aggressive gas for ozone layer depletion (Guardia *et al.*, 2018). Most anthropogenic N₂O emissions result from the intensification of agriculture with the increasing use of nitrogen fertilizers that stimulate microbial processes of nitrification and denitrification (Butterbach-Bahl



(c) The author(s) 2023

This is an Open Access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License (<https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/deed.en>).

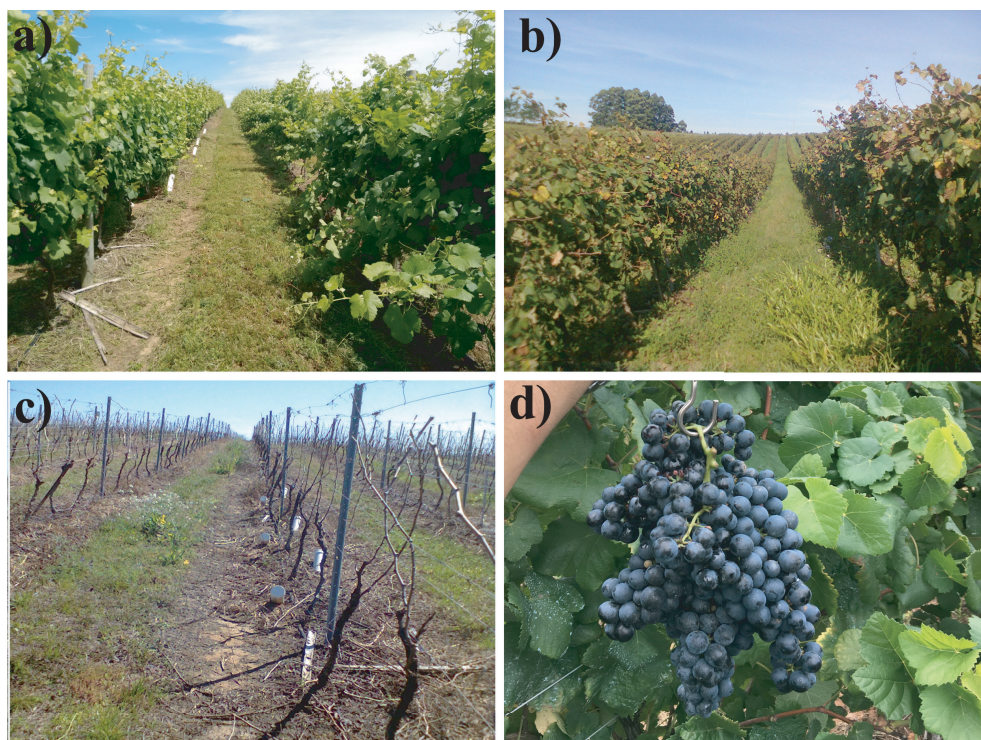


Fig. 1: Commercial vineyard in southern Brazil on sandy soil under subtropical climate during phenological stages of flowering (a); color of the grape berries/veraison (b); leaf senescence/vegetative rest (c); and high-yield grape bunch (d) of grapevines submitted to application of urea modes and doses. Photograph by Matheus S. Kulmann and Lincon O. Stefanello.

et al., 2013; Cowan *et al.*, 2020). In addition, edaphoclimatic conditions, such as temperature, precipitation, air velocity, relative humidity of soil and air, SOM content, soil pH value, and concentration of NO_3^- and NH_4^+ in the soil, are favorable environmental conditions for the action of denitrifying microorganisms (Jensen *et al.*, 2011). It was estimated that agriculture contributes to 37% of the emission of anthropogenic N_2O in Brazil (Brasil, 2014) and 60-70% globally (Tian *et al.*, 2019). This suggests that practices of application of nitrogen fertilizers by winegrowers, such as modes and doses of N applied, can influence the availability of NO_3^- and NH_4^+ in soil and, consequently, the N_2O soil emissions to the atmosphere. Thus, it was necessary to adopt alternative ways of supplying N doses that reduce N_2O -N losses and contribute to N uptake by grapevine plants, reflecting an increase in grape productivity (Fig. 1d). Fertigation promotes the solubilization and hydrolysis reaction of urea, contributing to the migration of NO_3^- and NH_4^+ in the soil profile (Comas *et al.*, 2010; Stefanello *et al.*, 2020). Losses of N in the form of N_2O should be assessed regionally to improve inventories on GHG emissions. However, data on N_2O emissions in vineyards around the world are scarce (Carlisle *et al.*, 2010; Fentabil *et al.*, 2016; Steenwerth and Belina, 2010) and, as to our knowledge, there is none on grapevines under subtropical climate. The study aimed to evaluate the productivity of *Vitis vinifera* L. vines subject to different application modes and doses of mineral N in a sandy soil under a subtropical climate and the respective N_2O emissions.

Material and Methods

Description of study and experimental area

The study was carried out in a vineyard in Santana do Livramento (30° 48' 31" S; 55° 22' 33" W), State of Rio Grande do

Sul, Southern Brazil. The sandy soil was classified as a Typical Hapludalf (Soil Survey Staff, 2014). Main chemical properties of the soil from the 0.0-0.10 m layer, prior to the installation of the experiment are presented in Table 1. The climate in the region was humid subtropical, type Cfa, according to Köppen's classification, characterized by mild temperatures and rain, with little variation throughout the year. The average annual rainfall was 1,600 mm. The average temperature in the hottest month (January) was 23.8 °C and in the coldest month (July) was 12.4 °C (Alvares *et al.*, 2013). The annual sunshine duration was approximately 2,500 hours and the relief of the area was gently undulating. The average values of air temperature and monthly precipitation accumulated during the study period are shown in Fig. 2. Meteorological data were obtained by the meteorological station of the National Institute of Meteorology (INMET). The vineyard was established in 2011 with the cultivar 'Alicante Bouschet' (*Vitis vinifera* L.), grafted onto Paulsen 1103 rootstock. Planting density was 2.976 plants hectare⁻¹ (2.8 m between rows × 1.2 m between plants), conducted in espalier system. The inter-row spacing is covered by native grasses, such as *Paspalum notatum*, *Paspalum plicatulum*, and an exotic grass, such as *Lolium multiflorum*. Periodic application of a non-selective herbicide with systemic action (*i.e.* glyphosate) was carried out to maintain the planting line without cover crops. The cover crops in the inter-row spacing were mowed five times per season and their residues were deposited on the soil surface. In 2011, before the installation of the experiment, the vines were submitted to annual applications of 45 kg P_2O_5 ha⁻¹ year⁻¹ and 45 kg K_2O ha⁻¹ year⁻¹, for four years (CQFS-RS/SC, 2016). The source of P was triple superphosphate (42% P) and the source of K was potassium chloride (60% K). Nitrogen fertilizers were applied annually according to the treatments.

Table 1: Chemical characteristics of soil in experimental site at 0-0.10 m soil layer of the treatments: (NS – Nitrogen surface; and NF – Nitrogen fertigation; 0, 40 and 80 kg N ha⁻¹ year⁻¹).

Property	0 NS	0 NF	40 NS	40 NF	80 NS	80 NF
Total N (g kg ⁻¹)	1.6 ± 0.0	1.8 ± 0.1	1.8 ± 0.1	1.9 ± 0.1	1.8 ± 0.0	2.0 ± 0.1
TOC (g kg ⁻¹)	6.5 ± 0.1	7.2 ± 0.1	7.8 ± 0.2	8.5 ± 0.3	11.4 ± 0.1	8.4 ± 0.0
pH in water (1:1 ratio)	5.7 ± 0.0	5.5 ± 0.0	5.7 ± 0.1	6.0 ± 0.2	5.7 ± 0.0	5.3 ± 0.1
Available P ⁽¹⁾ (mg kg ⁻¹)	15.9 ± 3.1	28.4 ± 4.8	21.2 ± 2.1	30.6 ± 3.0	27.2 ± 2.8	17.2 ± 0.7
Exchangeable K ⁽¹⁾ (mg kg ⁻¹)	67.0 ± 8.1	78.0 ± 13.2	112.2 ± 13.5	187.2 ± 20.0	94.0 ± 16.8	96.5 ± 15.9
Exchangeable Ca ⁽²⁾ (cmolc kg ⁻¹)	0.6 ± 0.1	0.8 ± 0.1	0.6 ± 0.01	0.9 ± 0.1	0.8 ± 0.1	0.6 ± 0.1
Exchangeable Mg ⁽²⁾ (cmolc kg ⁻¹)	0.3 ± 0.0	0.3 ± 0.0	0.3 ± 0.0	0.4 ± 0.0	0.5 ± 0.1	0.3 ± 0.1
Density	1.7 ± 0.1	1.7 ± 0.1	1.7 ± 0.1	1.7 ± 0.1	1.7 ± 0.1	1.7 ± 0.1

⁽¹⁾ Extracted by Mehlich-1; ⁽²⁾ Extracted by KCl 1 mol L⁻¹. The values are presented as mean ± standard deviation (n = 3).

Experimental design and treatments

In September 2014, 18 plots were demarcated consisting of five plants each. The experimental design was randomized blocks, in a 2 × 3 factorial scheme, with three replications. Each repetition was composed of five plants, the three central plants of each repetition being evaluated. The first factor was the way in which N was applied: N applied to the soil surface (NS) and N applied via fertigation (NF). The second factor was dose of N: 0, 40 and 80 kg N ha⁻¹ year⁻¹. The N source used was urea (45% N). Due to the residual effect of N in the previous harvest, in this study, we presented parameters referring to 2016/17, 2017/18, and 2018/19 harvests. The applications of N in the NS mode were carried out on the soil surface without incorporation in the projection of the plant canopy. At the stage of full bloom (Brunetto *et al.*, 2009) the doses of N

were applied annually in a single dose. In NF mode, N doses were applied from the solubilization of urea in water in a cistern and followed the procedure below: (a) 10 minutes of water slide only; (b) 10 minutes of water + N-urea; and (c) 10 minutes of water slide only. The solution containing N was applied via drippers (Netafim™ 132 Dripnet PC AS 16250) to the projection of the canopy of the plants, spaced at 0.6 m, with a flow of 1.6 L h⁻¹.

Measurements of N₂O fluxes

In the period between the application of N (November 2018) and the grape harvest (February 2019), soil N₂O fluxes were measured by the static chamber method (Pinheiro *et al.*, 2019). Following the methodology proposed by Reeves *et al.* (2016), measurements were taken between 9:00 and 12:00

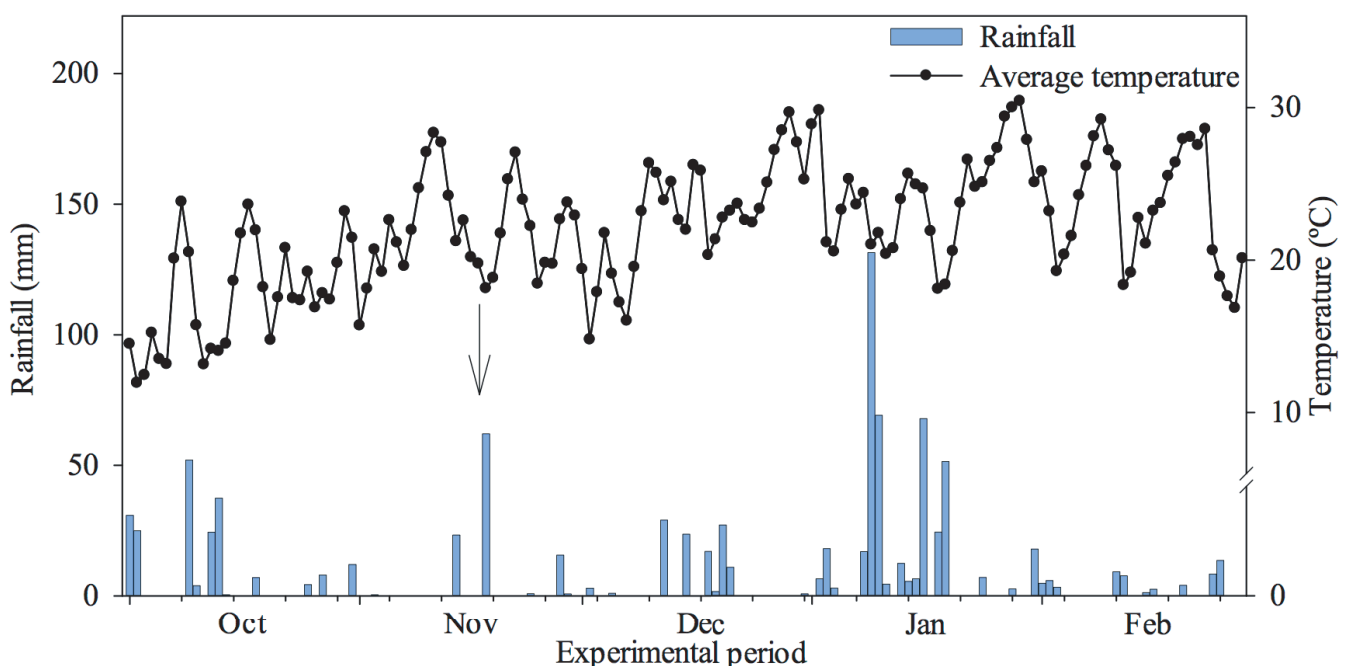


Fig. 2: Average daily air temperature and rainfall values throughout the grape season. Dashed arrows indicate N fertilization.

a.m.. The gas collection device consisted of a chamber (70 cm length × 40 cm width × 20 cm height) and a base (70 cm length × 40 cm width × 10 cm height), both in galvanized steel. The bases were inserted into the soil at a depth of 5 cm, in the grapevine planting line, where they remained throughout the study. To minimize the disturbances caused by the allocation of the metallic base on the N₂O fluxes, the bases were installed about a month before N application. On the base, there was a channel which was filled with water moments before the beginning of the collections, to avoid gas exchange with the environment outside the chamber. Gas samples were collected manually, using a 20 mL polypropylene syringe, exactly at 0, 20 and 40 min after coupling the chambers to the gutters in all treatments. Before gas sampling, the air present inside the chambers was homogenized for 30 seconds and the internal temperature was measured. After collections, the samples were transferred to evacuated bottles (Labco Exetainer®, Lampeter, United Kingdom). N₂O concentrations were determined in a gas chromatograph (GC-2014, Shimadzu Corp., Kyoto, Japan), within a maximum period of 24 hours after sample collection. N₂O emissions were calculated according to the variation in the concentration of N₂O in the chamber as a function of the time it remained closed, adjusted by the chamber volume, floor area occupied by the chamber, and molecular weight of N₂O (Jantalia *et al.*, 2008). Cumulative N₂O emissions were obtained by linear interpolation between N₂O collections. Thus, the average emissions between two consecutive sampling events were calculated by the value resulting from the interval of days between the two collections.

Measurements of mineral N in the soil

Soil samples for quantification of mineral N forms in the soil were carried out between the application of treatments (November 2018) and the grape harvest (February 2019). Three soil samples randomly distributed in each plot from the 0-0.10 m layer were withdrawn using a stainless-steel auger (3 cm in diameter), on the same dates as the gas sampling. Immediately after collection, the samples were stored in coolers and transported to the laboratory where they were kept in a freezer (-4 °C) for further analysis. In the laboratory, the mineral N forms of the soil, ammonium (NH₄⁺), and nitrate (NO₃⁻) were extracted from the addition of 20 g of moist soil and stirred with 80 mL of KCl 1 mol L⁻¹ for 30 min. Thereafter, it was decanted for 30 min, the supernatant extract was collected to determine the concentrations of NH₄⁺ and NO₃⁻ in a steam drag distiller (Tecnal, TE-037, Brazil), following the methodology proposed by Tedesco *et al.* (1995). The gravimetric soil moisture was determined by drying the samples at 105 °C in an oven with forced air circulation for 24 h (Tedesco *et al.*, 1995). The water-saturated pore space (WFPS) in the 0-0.10 m layer was calculated by the ratio of gravimetric moisture to total soil porosity, determined from the bulk density (Siqueira Neto *et al.*, 2009).

Sampling of leaves for N analysis

During the flowering of the vines (October/November), complete and fully expanded leaves were collected in opposition

to the bunches, in the middle third of the branches of the year. The leaves were collected in the 2016/17, 2017/18, and 2018/19 seasons. The leaf opposite the bunch is considered the diagnostic organ to assess the nutritional status of grapevines (CQFS-RS/SC, 2016). Later in the laboratory, the leaves were carefully washed with distilled water and dried in an oven with forced air circulation at 65 °C until reaching a constant mass. The leaves were ground in a Willey mill and passed through a 2 mm mesh sieve. Subsequently, the plant tissue was prepared and subjected to sulfuric digestion. The concentration of total N was determined in a micro-Kjeldahl steam drag distiller (Tecnal, TE-0363, Brazil) (Tedesco *et al.*, 1995).

Grape yield

At the grape harvest (February) all bunches of five plants per treatment were counted, collected and weighed using a portable digital scale (WalMur, 50 K, Brazil) to determine the number of clusters per plant and the grape production per plant and conversion to yield (Mg ha⁻¹). Similarly, to the leaves collection, grape yield was measured in 2016/17, 2017/18, and 2018/19 crop seasons.

Statistical analysis

Data on leaf N concentration, number of clusters per plant and grape yield were analysed for normality of residues and homogeneity of variances. Subsequently, the data were subjected to analysis of variance using the R Studio software (R Core Team, 2019). When the effects of the application of doses and modes of N application were significant, a comparison of means was performed using the Scott-Knott test (P<0.05). Based on the standard error of the mean, the effects of N doses and modes of application on N₂O emissions were evaluated through descriptive data analysis. Accumulated N₂O emission data were analysed for homogeneity and normality and subsequently compared by Tukey's test (P<0.05) using the R Studio statistical software (R Core Team, 2019). In addition, to verify the relation between variables and treatments, a multivariate Principal Component Analysis (PCA) was performed using the FactoExtra package (Kassambara and Mundt, 2017) and according to the main Principal Components (PC1 and PC2), which comprised the standardised and orthogonal linear combination to explain the original data variance.

Results

Climatic conditions and WFPS

The average air temperature varied between 11.9 and 30.4 °C during the 2018/19 crop season (October 2018 to February 2019). Rainfall ranged from 60.2 (February 2019) to 445.1 mm (January 2019) and the accumulated rainfall was 927.7 mm (Fig. 2). In the soil, the variation of water-filled pore space (WFPS) occurred according to the intensity of rainfall. The maximum value observed occurred in the soil that received 80 kg N ha⁻¹ year⁻¹, in the NF mode, (91%) at 4 days after application of N, while the minimum value was observed in the

soil submitted to $40 \text{ kg N ha}^{-1} \text{ year}^{-1}$, in NS mode, (13%) at 64 days after application of N (Fig. 4a). WFPS values in NS modes ranged from 13 to 77%, while in NF mode doses ranged from 22 to 91%.

Nitrous oxide emissions

N application increased N_2O fluxes, especially in the first nine days (Fig. 3a). A significant increase in N_2O fluxes was already observed in the 1st day after application of N. The highest N_2O flux was measured 2 days after $80 \text{ kg N ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ application and reached 61.47 ± 12.52 and $57.64 \pm 22.03 \mu\text{g N m}^{-2} \text{ h}^{-1}$ in NS and NF application modes, respectively (Fig. 3a). The highest N_2O emissions from the soils that received $40 \text{ kg N ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ were measured one day after N application and reached 30.37 ± 18.95 and $37.41 \pm 3.29 \mu\text{g N m}^{-2} \text{ h}^{-1}$ in NS and NF application mode, respectively. After 31 days past N application, N_2O fluxes decreased and did not differ among treatments. The accumulated emissions of N_2O throughout the grapevine productive cycle was higher ($P < 0.05$) in the soil that received $40 \text{ kg N ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$, under the NF application mode ($496.18 \pm 37.00 \text{ g N ha}^{-1}$) and $80 \text{ kg N ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$, in the NS application mode ($477.15 \pm 69.41 \text{ g N ha}^{-1}$). The lowest accumulated N_2O emissions throughout the cycle ($P < 0.05$) were observed in treatments without N fertilization ($0 \text{ kg N ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$) as expected, with values of 227.27 ± 35.53 and

$161.74 \pm 34.67 \text{ g N ha}^{-1}$ for NS and NF application modes, respectively. At 31 and 64 days after N application, periods that coincide with the change of color of the grape berries and with the grape harvest, respectively, the accumulated N_2O emissions represented 40 and 72% of measurements taken during the entire season (Fig. 3b).

Soil inorganic N

The application of N fertilizer provided an increase in the soil concentrations of NH_4^+ and NO_3^- up to 9 days after application (Fig. 4b, c). The highest concentrations of NH_4^+ in the soil were measured two days after application of $80 \text{ kg N ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$, for both modes of N fertilization (NF and NS) (Fig. 4b). Nine days after N application, the concentrations of NH_4^+ in the soil that received $80 \text{ kg N ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ were reduced by 96% in the NS mode and 92% in the NF mode, compared to the initial values. The highest concentrations of NO_3^- in the soil were observed at 5 and 6 days after application of $40 \text{ kg N ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$, in the NF and NS application modes, respectively (Fig. 4c). Statistical differences among treatments in soil N concentration were observed at 1, 3, 6, and 9 days after N fertilization at 1–9 days after fertilizer N application to soil NH_4^+ concentration. Nine days after N fertilization, the concentrations of NH_4^+ and NO_3^- in the soil decreased for all treatments and remained stable. Thereafter, with no significant differences among treatments.

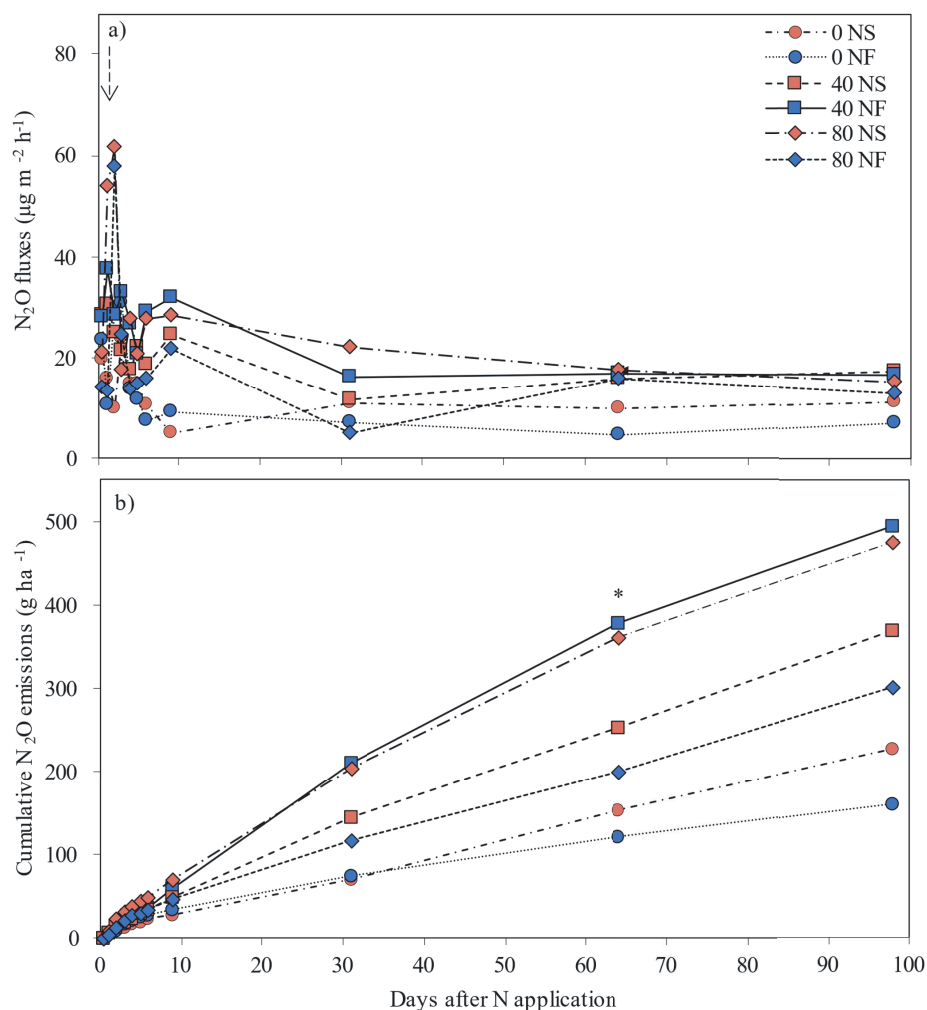


Fig. 3: Fluxes (a) and cumulative emission (b) of $\text{N}_2\text{O-N}$ in soil of 'Alicante Bouschet' (*Vitis vinifera* L.) grapevine subjected to different N doses (0, 40 and $80 \text{ kg N ha}^{-1} \text{ year}^{-1}$) and application modes (NS – Nitrogen surface; and NF – Nitrogen fertigation). Asterisk at the top indicates difference between treatments by least significant difference (LSD) test ($p < 0.05$).

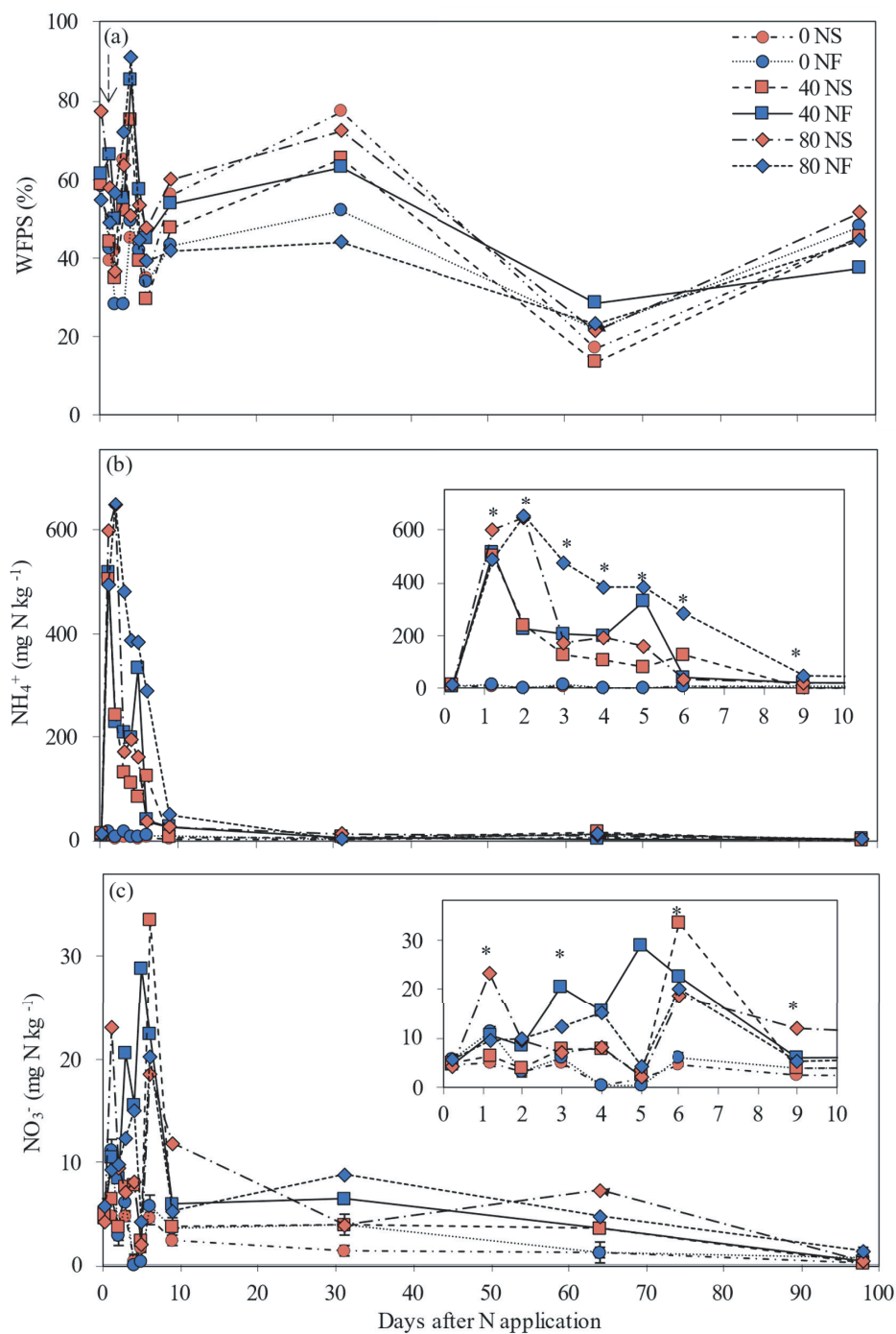


Fig. 4: Water-filled pore space (a); soil ammonium (b) and nitrate concentrations (c) of the 0-0.10 m soil layer in 'Alicante Bouschet' (*Vitis vinifera* L.) grapevine subjected to different N doses (0, 40 and 80 kg N ha⁻¹ year⁻¹) and application modes (NS – Nitrogen surface; and NF – Nitrogen fertigation; Asterisk at the top indicates difference between treatments by least significant difference (LSD) test ($p < 0.05$).

Leaf N concentration

The highest leaf N concentrations among N doses were observed in grapevines subjected to the application of 40 kg N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ under the NS mode in the 2016/17 and 2017/18 growth seasons, and under the NF mode in 2016/17 growth season (Fig. 5a). In the 2017/18 crop season, leaf N concentration under the NF mode, did not differ significantly between N doses. In the 2016/17 and 2017/18 growth seasons, grapevines cultivated in soils submitted to application of 40 kg N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ the highest leaf N concentrations, especially in the NS mode. In these crop seasons, the grapevines fertilized with 0 and 80 kg N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ did not vary between the NS and NF treatments. In 2018/19, the leaf N concentration did not differ statistically among doses and modes of N supply.

Grape yield and components

In the 2017/18 and 2018/19 seasons, the number of clusters per plant under the NS treatment was higher in the grapevines submitted to 80 kg N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹. Under the NF mode, there was no significant difference among the N rates (Fig. 5b). For the same crop seasons, the grapevines submitted to 80 kg N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ had the highest grape yield under the NS mode; as to the unfertilized grapevines, no significant crop seasons and yield differences between NF and NS modes were observed. The highest grape yields of the plants under the NS mode were observed in 2017/18 growth season for 40 and 80 kg N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹, (Fig. 5 h), but did not vary for the NF treatment. The number of bunches per plant did not vary significantly among modes and rates of N in the 2016/17 growth season.

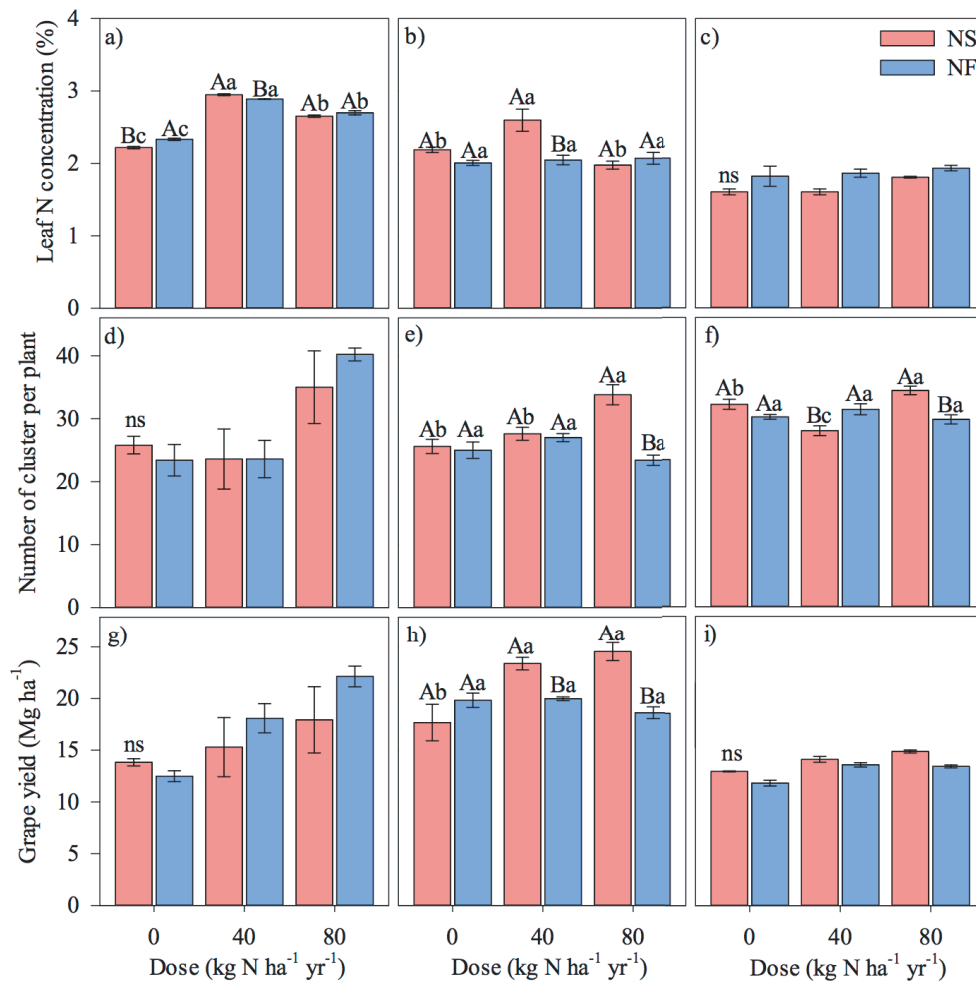


Fig. 5: Leaf N concentration, number of clusters per plant and grape yield of 2016/17 crop season (a, d, g), 2017/18 (b, e, h) and 2018/19 (c, f, i) of 'Alicante Bouschet' (*Vitis vinifera* L.) grapevine subjected to different N doses (0, 40 and 80 kg N ha⁻¹ year⁻¹) and application modes (NS – Nitrogen surface; and NF – Nitrogen fertigation; The vertical bars indicate the standard error (n = 5). Different lower-case letters indicate a significant difference among N doses in the same application mode, and different upper-case letters indicate a significant difference among the N application modes in the same N dose by the Scott-Knott test (P<0.05). ns = not significant.

In 2016/17 and 2018/19, the grape yield did not vary significantly among modes and N doses.

Principal Component Analysis (PCA)

Principal component analysis (PCA) was performed extracting only the first two components (PC1 and PC2), which explained 87.3% of the original data variability (Fig. 6). PC1 explained 61.5% of the variability and allowed the observation of the effects of N doses on the response variables, evidenced by the positioning of the treatments 80 kg N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹, under NS mode and 40 kg N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹, under NF mode, on the right in the spatial distribution, indicating a positive relation with the cumulative emission of N₂O (Cumulative N₂O), the concentration of NO₃⁻ (NO₃⁻) and NH₄⁺ (NH₄⁺) in the soil, and the grape yield (Yield). These results are opposite to NS and NF treatments without fertilization (0 kg N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹), being observed to the left of the spatial distribution, and indicating a negative relation with the referred parameters. PC2 explained 25.8% of the data variability and was efficient in separating the response variables such as leaf N concentration (Leaf N) and number of clusters per plant (Cluster), which were influenced by N fertilization (40 and 80 kg N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹) and the NF mode. This behavior showed an inverse relation to the 80 kg N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ treatment, in the NF mode, and demonstrated a linearly inverse relation.

Discussion

The highest N₂O emissions in the initial evaluation period, at 9 days after application of N in the soil, were observed mainly because of the greater availability of N in the soil, derived from nitrogen fertilizer, combined with the C content in the soil, which favored the population's microbial activity. This contributed to the microbial processes of nitrification and denitrification, which are carried out by certain bacteria such as *Nitrobacter* spp. and *Pseudomonas denitrificans*, respectively, increasing the N₂O emissions (Toma and Hatano, 2007; Hayakawa et al., 2009; Frimpong et al., 2011). These results corroborate a study carried out by Fentabil et al. (2016), who observed that the application of 40 kg N ha⁻¹ in grapevines favored N₂O emissions, especially in the first 15 days after application (DAA) of N. Initially, the highest N₂O emissions may be related to the nitrification process, due to the high concentration of NH₄⁺, made available by the nitrogen fertilizer. The NH₄⁺ in the soil is transformed by the nitrifying microorganisms to NO₂⁻ and then to NO₃⁻, using the reducing (electron) equivalents of NH₄⁺ to assimilate CO₂. During this oxidation reaction, there may have been losses of N molecules via N₂O gas transformation (Carlisle et al., 2010; Fentabil et al., 2016). After this initial period, denitrification was probably the predominant process in N₂O emission, as the NO₃⁻ produced by nitrification can be made available to denitrifying microorganisms. Microorganisms use NO₃⁻ as an electron acceptor, under anaerobic conditions, during phosphorylation

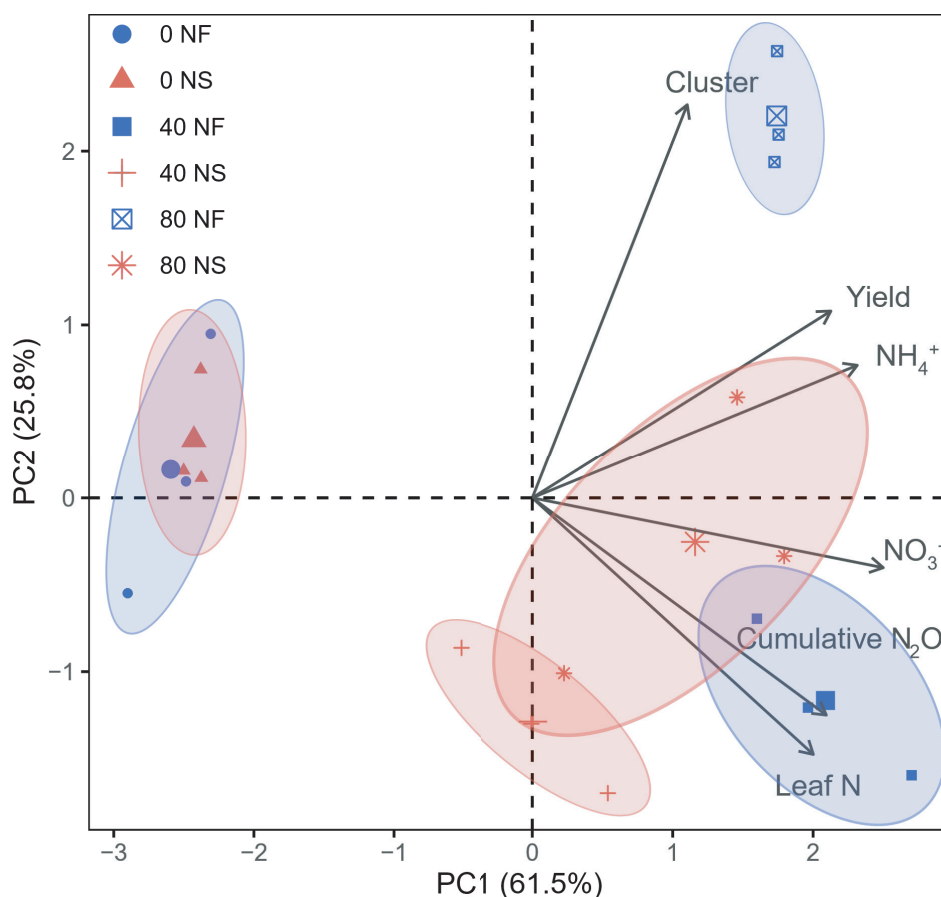


Fig. 6: Relation between principal component 1 (PC1) and principal component 2 (PC2) of the parameters of nutritional status (leaf N concentration (Leaf N)), yield parameters (grape yield (Yield), number of cluster per plant (Cluster)), soil parameters (ammonium (NH₄⁺) and nitrate (NO₃⁻) concentrations) and cumulative N₂O emission (Cumulative N₂O) of 'Alicante Bouschet' (*Vitis vinifera* L.) grapevine subjected to different N doses (0, 40 and 80 kg N ha⁻¹ year⁻¹) and application modes (NS – Nitrogen surface; and NF – Nitrogen fertigation).

of electron transport, and finally converts NO₃⁻ into N₂O and N₂, that are emitted into the atmosphere (Carlisle *et al.*, 2010; Müller *et al.*, 2019). On the other hand, at the time of application of N doses, the fertilizer was disposed on the soil surface and, therefore, the formation of microenvironments or microsites saturated with N may have occurred (Müller *et al.*, 2019), exceeding the absorption capacity of plants and adsorption of soil particles. This process represents one of the main sources of agricultural N₂O production (Carlisle *et al.*, 2010). In addition, the management employed for the deposition of plant residues on the soil surface between the lines may have increased the levels of C in the soil, which contributes to the occurrence of another phenomenon that enhances the production of agricultural N₂O, which the increase in the number of microaggregates (Loss *et al.*, 2015). This favors the formation of anaerobic sites, through the consumption of oxygen (O₂) by heterotrophic bacteria (Siqueira Neto *et al.*, 2009; Li *et al.*, 2015). Another factor that may have contributed to the high N₂O emissions in the initial period after N application in the soil was the occurrence of high daily average temperatures (> 25 °C), which leverages such emissions (Carlisle *et al.*, 2010). In addition, significant rainfall was observed a few days before N application, which contributed to increasing soil moisture and, with this, increasing the pore space saturated with water (WFPS). In general, nitrification predominates when WFPS is between 30 and 60%, favoring aerobic conditions for microorganisms. The increase in WFPS, on the other hand, contributes to the occurrence of the denitrification process, which is slightly higher when the WFPS exceeds 60-65% and, thus, anaerobic conditions pre-

vail (Davidson *et al.*, 2000; Carlisle *et al.*, 2010; Weiler *et al.*, 2018), especially in the first few weeks when a large amount of substrate is available. Although the WFPS values during most of the experimental period were below 60%, in which nitrification predominates, the C content available from the deposition of plant residues on the soil surface between the vine rows must be considered, which contributes to reduce the availability of O₂ from the soil and favors denitrification. Thus, the combination of WFPS values close to 60% or higher after rainfall events and the intense microbial activity during the decomposition of plant residues may have contributed to the emission of N₂O (Chen *et al.*, 2013; Weiler *et al.*, 2018).

The highest values of cumulative N₂O emissions at 31 and 64 days after application of N represented 40 and 72% of the average emissions of the treatments, respectively. This fact can be attributed to a prolongation of NO₃⁻ availability throughout the experimental period and also to voluminous precipitation events combined with the high temperatures that occurred during this period, favoring microbial activity. This contributes to making NO₃⁻ available in the soil, which enhances the emission of N₂O (Carlisle *et al.*, 2010). In general, cumulative N₂O emissions were lower than those observed in other studies, such as that reported by Marques *et al.* (2018), who observed cumulative values of 860 ± 0.22 and 620 ± 0.14 g ha⁻¹ of N₂O-N in grapevines submitted to surface application of 50 kg N ha⁻¹ and application of 50 kg N ha⁻¹ with the preparation of the soil between the rows (10 cm deep), respectively. Also, the study conducted by (Fentabil *et al.* 2016), observed cumulative values of 1590 g ha⁻¹ of N₂O in grapevines submitted to application of 50 kg N ha⁻¹. One of the possible expla-

nations for the low cumulative N₂O emissions verified in our study may be related to the physical characteristic of the soil, which has a sandy texture (83 g kg⁻¹) and low cation exchange capacity (CEC) (2.67 cmolc dm⁻³). This enhances the migration of NO₃⁻ deep into the soil, reducing the possibility of denitrification by microorganisms (Steenwerth and Belina, 2010). In general, the grape yield values were higher in the grapevines subjected to the application of N doses. It may have happened because of the increase in the NH₄⁺ and NO₃⁻ contents in the soil, provided by the addition of N, which stimulates the absorption of the element through the roots of the grapevines (Steenwerth and Belina, 2010; Brunetto et al., 2016). With increased N uptake, grapevines tend to accumulate N in photosynthetically active tissues, which can be seen in the concentration of N in plant leaves (Fang et al., 2013; Arrobas et al., 2014). Thus, the higher concentration of N in leaves may have contributed to important physiological processes, such as photosynthesis. This is because, the greater the leaf N concentration, the greater the concentrations of chlorophylls and chloroplast proteins, which conditions the greater interception of the sun's rays. Thus, the fixation of CO₂ in the leaf tissue is increased, as well as the processes of cell division and elongation of plant tissues and organs (Blank et al., 2018; Moriwaki et al., 2019) and the productivity of grapevines fruits. Studies that consider only the area-scale N₂O emission factor cannot be used to recommend adequate management practices to mitigate N₂O emission without compromising the productivity of the crop studied (Fentabil et al., 2016). In our study, we found that even with the increase in N₂O emissions, there were no reductions in the grape yield parameters. Thus, a negative linear relation between these parameters (N₂O emissions vs. grape yield) cannot be considered.

Conclusion

Grapevines cultivated in soil with applications of 40 and 80 kg N ha⁻¹ year⁻¹, in NF and NS modes, respectively, resulted in higher N₂O emissions, which had emission peaks up to 9 DAA of N. That's because, these modes of application and N doses provide higher levels of NH₄⁺ and NO₃⁻ in the soil, which conditioned a favorable environment for microbial activity and, consequently, higher N₂O emission. The application of N at doses 40 and 80 kg N ha⁻¹ year⁻¹, in the NS and NF modes, respectively, are the most efficient doses and modes for N application in grapevines. These management practices are the most suitable because they combine adequate levels of NH₄⁺ and NO₃⁻ in the soil, which conditions low N₂O emissions and provides higher grape yields.

Conflicts of interest

The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

References

Alvares, C.A., Stape, J.L., Sentelhas, P.C., De Moraes Gonçalves, J.L.; Sparovek, G., 2013: Köppen's climate classification map for Brazil. *Meteorologische Zeitschrift* 22, 711-728, DOI: 10.1127/0941-2948/2013/0507.

Arrobas, M., Ferreira, I.Q., Freitas, S., Verdial, J., Rodrigues, M.Â., 2014: Guidelines for fertilizer use in vineyards based on nutrient content of grapevine parts. *Scientia Horticulturae* 172, 191-198, DOI: 10.1016/J.SCIENTA.2014.04.016.

Barlow, K., Bond, W., Holzapfel, B., Smith, J.; Hutton, R., 2009: Nitrogen concentrations in soil solution and surface run-off on irrigated vineyards in Australia. *Australian Journal Grape and Wine Research* 15, 131-143, Doi: 10.1111/J.1755-0238.2008.00042.X.

Blank, M., Tittmann, S., Ghazlen, Ben, N.; Stoll, M., 2018: Grapevine rootstocks result in differences in leaf composition (*Vitis vinifera* L. cv. Pinot Noir) detected through non-invasive fluorescence sensor technology. *Australian Journal Grape and Wine Research* 24, 327-334, DOI: 10.1111/AJGW.12343.

Brasil – Ministério da Ciência, Tecnologia e Inovação, 2014: *Estimativas de uso de gases de efeito estufa no Brasil*, 2nd ed. MCTI, Brasília, 2014.

Brunetto, G., Ceretta, C.A., Bastos de Melo, G.W., Kaminski, J., Trentin, G., Giroto, E., Ferreira, P.A.A., Miotto, A., Trivelin, P.C.O., 2014: Contribution of nitrogen from agricultural residues of rye to 'Niagara Rosada' grape nutrition. *Scientia Horticulturae* 169, 66-70, DOI: 10.1016/J.SCIENTA.2014.02.019.

Brunetto, G., Ceretta, C.A., de Melo, G.W.B., Giroto, E., Ferreira, P.A.A., Lourenzi, C.R., da Rosa Couto, R., Tassinaria, A., Hammerschmitt, R.K., da Silva, L.O.S., Lazzaretti, B.P., de Souza Kulmann, M.S., Carranca, C., 2016: Contribution of nitrogen from urea applied at different rates and times on grapevine nutrition. *Scientia Horticulturae* 207, 1-6, DOI: 10.1016/J.SCIENTA.2016.05.002.

Brunetto, G., Ceretta, C.A., Kaminski, J., Melo, G.W. de, Giroto, E., Trentin, E.E., Lourenzi, C.R., Vieira, R.C.B., Gatiboni, L.C., 2009: Grape production and chemical composition of Cabernet Sauvignon vines subjected to nitrogen fertilization. *Ciência Rural* 39, 2035-2041, DOI: 10.1590/S0103-84782009005000162.

Butterbach-Bahl, K., Baggs, E.M., Dannenmann, M., Kiese, R., Zechmeister-Boltenstern, S., 2013: Nitrous oxide emissions from soils: how well do we understand the processes and their controls? *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences*, 368, DOI: 10.1098/RSTB.2013.0122.

Caranto, J.D., Lancaster, K.M., 2017: Nitric oxide is an obligate bacterial nitrification intermediate produced by hydroxylamine oxidoreductase. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences* 114, 8217-8222, DOI: 10.1073/PNAS.1704504114.

Carlisle, E., Smart, D., Williams, L., Summers, M., 2010: *California Vineyard Greenhouse Gas Emissions: Assessment of the Available Literature and Determination of Research Needs*; San Francisco, CA, 2010.

Chen, H., Li, X., Hu, F., Shi, W., 2013: Soil nitrous oxide emissions following crop residue addition: a meta-analysis. *Global Change Biology* 19, 2956-2964, DOI: 10.1111/GCB.12274.

Cowan, N., Carnell, E., Skiba, U., Dragosits, U., Drewer, J., Levy, P., 2020: Nitrous oxide emission factors of mineral fertilisers in the UK and Ireland: A Bayesian analysis of 20 years of

- experimental data. *Environment International* 135, 105366, DOI: 10.1016/J.ENVINT.2019.105366.
- Comissão de Química e Fertilidade do Solo – CQFS-RS/SC, 2016:** *Fertilization and liming manual for the states of Rio Grande do Sul and Santa Catarina*. 11th ed. SBCS – Núcleo Regional Sul/UFRGS, Porto Alegre.
- Davidson, E.A., Keller, M., Erickson, H.E., Verchot, L. V., Veldkamp, E., 2000:** Testing a Conceptual Model of Soil Emissions of Nitrous and Nitric Oxides: Using two functions based on soil nitrogen availability and soil water content, the hole-in-the-pipe model characterizes a large fraction of the observed variation of nitric oxide and nitrous oxide emissions from soils. *Bioscience* 50, 667–680, DOI: 10.1641/0006-3568(2000)050.
- Fang, Y., Sun, W., Wan, L., Xi, Z., Liu, X., Zhang, Z., 2013:** Effects of Regulated Deficit Irrigation (RDI) on Wine Grape Growth and Fruit Quality. *Scientia Agricultura Sinica* 46(3), 2730-2738, DOI: 10.3864/j.issn.0578-1752.2013.13.011.
- Fentabil, M.M., Nichol, C.F., Neilsen, G.H., Hannam, K.D., Neilsen, D., Forge, T.A., Jones, M.D., 2016:** Effect of micro-irrigation type, N-source and mulching on nitrous oxide emissions in a semi-arid climate: An assessment across two years in a Merlot grape vineyard. *Agricultural Water Management* 171, 49-62, DOI: 10.1016/J.AGWAT.2016.02.021.
- Fraga, H., 2019:** Viticulture and winemaking under climate change. *Agronomy* 9, 783, DOI: 10.3390/AGRONOMY9120783.
- Frimpong, K.A., Yawson, D.O., Baggs, E.M., Agyarko, K., 2011:** Does incorporation of cowpea-maize residue mixes influence nitrous oxide emission and mineral nitrogen release in a tropical luvisol? *Nutrient Cycling in Agroecosystems* 91(3), 281-292, DOI: 10.1007/S10705-011-9461-1.
- Glibert, P.M., Harrison, J., Heil, C., Seitzinger, S., 2006:** Escalating Worldwide use of Urea – A Global Change Contributing to Coastal Eutrophication. *Biogeochemistry* 77(3), 441-463, DOI: 10.1007/S10533-005-3070-5.
- Guardia, G., Sanz-Cobena, A., Sanchez-Martín, L., Fuertes-Mendizábal, T., González-Murua, C., Álvarez, J.M., Chadwick, D., Vallejo, A., 2018:** Urea-based fertilization strategies to reduce yield-scaled N oxides and enhance bread-making quality in a rainfed Mediterranean wheat crop. *Agriculture, Ecosystems & Environment* 265, 421-431, DOI: 10.1016/J.AGEE.2018.06.033.
- Hallin, S., Philippot, L., Löffler, F.E., Sanford, R.A., Jones, C.M., 2018:** Genomics and Ecology of Novel N₂O-Reducing Microorganisms. *Trends in Microbiology* 26, 43-55, DOI: 10.1016/J.TIM.2017.07.003.
- Hayakawa, A., Akiyama, H., Sudo, S., Yagi, K., 2009:** N₂O and NO emissions from an Andisol field as influenced by pelleted poultry manure. *Soil Biology and Biochemistry* 41, 521-529, DOI: 10.1016/J.SOILBIO.2008.12.011.
- IBGE – Brazilian Institute of Geography and Statistics, 2020:** Aggregated Database. IBGE Automatic Recovery System – SIDRA [WWW Document]. URL <https://www.ibge.gov.br/> (accessed 7.26.21).
- IPCC, C. change, 2014: *Contribution of Working Groups I, II and III to the Fifth Assessment Report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change*, 1st ed.
- Jantalia, C.P., dos Santos, H.P., Urquiaga, S., Boddey, R.M., Alves, B.J.R., 2008:** Fluxes of nitrous oxide from soil under different crop rotations and tillage systems in the South of Brazil. *Nutrient Cycling in Agroecosystems* 82(2), 161-173, DOI: 10.1007/S10705-008-9178-Y.
- Jensen, E.S., Peoples, M.B., Boddey, R.M., Gresshoff, P.M., Hauggaard-Nielsen, H., J.R. Alves, B., Morrison, M.J., 2011:** Legumes for mitigation of climate change and the provision of feedstock for biofuels and biorefineries. A review. *Agronomy for Sustainable Development* 32(2), 329-364, DOI: 10.1007/S13593-011-0056-7.
- Kassambara, A., Mundt, F., 2017:** Factoextra: Extract and Visualize the Results of Multivariate Data Analyses [WWW Document]. R Package Version 1.0.4.
- Li, X., Petersen, S. O., Sørensen, P., Olesen, J.E., 2015:** Effects of contrasting catch crops on nitrogen availability and nitrous oxide emissions in an organic cropping system. *Agriculture, Ecosystems & Environment* 199, 382-393, DOI: 10.1016/J.AGEE.2014.10.016.
- Lorensini, F., Ceretta, C.A., De Conti, L., Ferreira, P.A.A., Dantas, M.K.L., Brunetto, G., 2017:** Nitrogen fertilization in the growth phase of “Chardonnay” and “Pinot Noir” vines and nitrogen forms in sandy soil of the Pampa Biome. *Revista Ceres* 64, 433-440, DOI: 10.1590/0034-737x201764040013.
- Lorensini, F., Ceretta, C.A., Giroto, E., Cerini, J.B., Lourenzi, C.R., De Conti, L., Trindade, M.M., Melo, G.W., Brunetto, G., 2012:** Lixiviação e volatilização de nitrogênio em um Argissolo cultivado com videira submetida à adubação nitrogenada. *Ciência Rural* 42, 1173-1179, DOI: 10.1590/S0103-84782012005000038.
- Loss, A., Basso, A., Oliveira, B.S., Koucher, L. de P., Oliveira, R.A. de, Kurtz, C., Lovato, P.E., Curmi, P., Brunetto, G., Comin, J.J., 2015:** Carbono orgânico total e agregação do solo em sistema de plantio direto agroecológico e convencional de cebola. *Revista Brasileira de Ciência do Solo*, 39, 1212-1224, DOI: 10.1590/01000683RBCS20140718.
- Marques, F.J.M., Pedroso, V., Trindade, H., Pereira, J.L.S., 2018:** Impact of vineyard cover cropping on carbon dioxide and nitrous oxide emissions in Portugal. *Atmospheric Pollution Research* 9, 105-111, DOI: 10.1016/J.APR.2017.07.006.
- Moriwaki, T., Falcioni, R., Tanaka, F.A.O., Cardoso, K.A.K., Souza, L.A., Benedito, E., Nanni, M.R., Bonato, C.M., Antunes, W.C., 2019:** Nitrogen-improved photosynthesis quantum yield is driven by increased thylakoid density, enhancing green light absorption. *Plant Science* 278, 1-11, DOI: 10.1016/J.PLANTSCI.2018.10.012.
- Müller, V., Koucher, L. de P., Souza, M., Lima, A.P., Kurtz, C., Couto, R. da R., Lovato, P.E., Giacomini, S.J., Brunetto, G., Comin, J.J., Müller, V., Koucher, L. de P., Souza, M., Lima, A.P., Kurtz, C., Couto, R. da R., Lovato, P.E., Giacomini, S.J., Brunetto, G., Comin, J.J., 2019:** Nitrous Oxide Emissions in No-Tillage Onion (*Allium cepa* L.) Crops Are Increased by

- Oilseed Radish Cover Crop and Poultry Manure Application. *Revista Brasileira de Ciência do Solo* 43:e0180116, DOI: 10.1590/18069657RBCS20180116.
- Pinheiro, P.L., Recous, S., Dietrich, G., Weiler, D.A., Schu, A.L., Bazzo, H.L.S., Giacomini, S.J., 2019:** N₂O emission increases with mulch mass in a fertilized sugarcane cropping system. *Biology and Fertility of Soils* 55(5), 511-523, DOI: 10.1007/S00374-019-01366-7.
- R Core Team, 2019:** *R: A language and environment for statistical computing*, DOI: 10.1016/j.dendro.2008.01.002.
- Reeves, S., Wang, W., Salter, B., Halpin, N., 2016:** Quantifying nitrous oxide emissions from sugarcane cropping systems: Optimum sampling time and frequency. *Atmospheric Environment* 136, 123-133, DOI: 10.1016/J.ATMOSENV.2016.04.008.
- Silva, L.O.S., Schwalbert, R., De Conti, L., Tassianri, A., Garlet, L.P., Lourenzi, C.R., Comin, J.J., Loss, A., Schmitt, D.E., Borghazan, M., Ambrosini, V.G., Brunetto, G., 2019:** Yield and must composition of “Cabernet Sauvignon” grapevines subjected to nitrogen application in soil with high organic matter content – Dialnet. *Idesia (Arica)* 37, 27-36, DOI: 10.4067/S0718-34292019000200027.
- Siqueira Neto, M., Venzke Filho, S. de P., Piccolo, M. de C., Cerri, C.E.P., Cerri, C.C., 2009:** Rotação de culturas no sistema plantio direto em Tibagi (PR): I – Sequestro de carbono no solo. *Revista Brasileira de Ciência do Solo* 33, 1013-1022, DOI: 10.1590/S0100-06832009000400025.
- Soil Survey Staff, 2014:** *Keys to Soil Taxonomy*, 12th ed.
- Steenwerth, K.L., Belina, K.M., 2010:** Vineyard weed management practices influence nitrate leaching and nitrous oxide emissions. *Agriculture Ecosystems & Environment* 138, 127-131, DOI: 10.1016/J.AGEE.2010.03.016.
- Stefanello, L.O., Schwalbert, R., Schwalbert, R.A., De Conti, L., Kulmann, M.S. de S., Garlet, L.P., Silveira, M.L.R., Sautter, C.K., de Melo, G.W.B., Rozane, D.E., Brunetto, G., 2020:** Nitrogen supply method affects growth, yield and must composition of young grape vines (*Vitis vinifera* L. cv Alicante Bouschet) in southern Brazil. *Scientia Horticulturae* 261, 108910, DOI: 10.1016/J.SCIENTA.2019.108910.
- Tedesco, M.J., Gianello, C., Bissani, C.A., Bohnen, H., Volkweiss, S.J., 1995: *Soil, plant and other material analysis*. UFRGS: Porto Alegre, Brazil, 174.
- Tian, H., Yang, J., Xu, R., Lu, C., Canadell, J.G., Davidson, E.A., Jackson, R.B., Arneeth, A., Chang, J., Ciais, P., Gerber, S., Ito, A., Joos, F., Lienert, S., Messina, P., Olin, S., Pan, S., Peng, C., Saikawa, E., Thompson, R.L., Vuichard, N., Winiwarter, W., Zaehle, S., Zhang, B., 2019:** Global soil nitrous oxide emissions since the preindustrial era estimated by an ensemble of terrestrial biosphere models: Magnitude, attribution, and uncertainty. *Global Change Biology* 25, 640-659, DOI: 10.1111/GCB.14514.
- Toma, Y., Hatano, R., 2007:** Effect of crop residue C:N ratio on N₂O emissions from Gray Lowland soil in Mikasa, Hokkaido, Japan. *Soil Science and Plant Nutrition* 198-205, DOI: 10.1111/J.1747-0765.2007.00125.X.
- Weiler, D.A., Giacomini, S.J., Recous, S., Bastos, L.M., Pilecco, G.E., Dietrich, G., Aita, C., 2018:** Trade-off between C and N recycling and N₂O emissions of soils with summer cover crops in subtropical agrosystems. *Plant and Soil* 433(1), 433, 213-225, DOI: 10.1007/S11104-018-3831-2.