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Interactive effects of straw management, tillage, and a cover crop on nitrous oxide emissions and nitrate leaching from a sandy loam soil --Manuscript Draft--

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Abstract:	Minimum tillage, residue recycling and the use of cover crops are key elements of conservation agriculture that play important roles in soil carbon (C) and nitrogen (N) dynamics. This study determined the long-term effects of tillage practice (conventional ploughing vs. direct seeding), straw management (retained vs. removed), and the presence of a cover crop (CC; fodder radish in this study) on nitrous oxide (N2O) emissions, nitrate (NO3-) leaching, and soil mineral N dynamics between October 2019 and June 2020. In the factorial experiment with eight treatment combinations, cumulative N2O emissions ranged from 0.04 to 0.8 kg N ha-1, whereas NO3- leaching varied between 4 and 28 kg N ha-1. The study did not find effects of straw retention on NO3- leaching or N2O emissions. No-till reduced N2O emissions by on average 46% compared to ploughing. Fodder radish reduced NO3- leaching by 80-84%, and there was little N2O emission in the presence of the cover crop; however, after termination in spring there was a flush of N2O,cumulative N2O-N averaged 0.1 and 0.5 kg N ha-1 without and with a cover crop. With information about long-term soil C retention from straw and fodder radish, an overall greenhouse (GHG) balance was calculated for each system. Without straw retention after harvest there was always a positive net GHG emission, and the indirect N2O emission from NO3- leaching was similar to, or greater than direct N2O emissions. However, in the presence of fodder radish, the direct N2O emissions after termination were much more important than indirect emissions, and negated the C input from fodder radish. Direct seeding, straw retention and the use of a cover crop showed positive effects on N retention and/or GHG balance and could substantially improve the carbon footprint of agroecosystems on sandy soil in a wet temperate climate.
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Interactive effects of straw management, tillage, and a cover crop on

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12 Abstract

13 Minimum tillage, residue recycling and the use of cover crops are key elements of conservation

14 agriculture that play important roles in soil carbon (C) and nitrogen (N) dynamics. This study

15 determined the long-term effects of tillage practice (conventional ploughing vs. direct seeding),

straw management (retained vs. removed), and the presence of a cover crop (CC; fodder radish in

this study) on nitrous oxide (N_2O) emissions, nitrate (NO_3^-) leaching, and soil mineral N

18 dynamics between October 2019 and June 2020. In the factorial experiment with eight treatment

19 combinations, cumulative N₂O emissions ranged from 0.04 to 0.8 kg N ha⁻¹, whereas NO_3^-

20 leaching varied between 4 and 28 kg N ha⁻¹. The study did not find effects of straw retention on

21 NO_3^- leaching or N₂O emissions. No-till reduced N₂O emissions by on average 46% compared to

- 22 ploughing. Fodder radish reduced NO_3^- leaching by 80-84%, and there was little N₂O emission in
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25 information about long-term soil C retention from straw and fodder radish, an overall greenhouse (GHG) balance was calculated for each system. Without straw retention after harvest there was 26 always a positive net GHG emission, and the indirect N_2O emission from NO_3^- leaching was 27 28 similar to, or greater than direct N₂O emissions. However, in the presence of fodder radish, the direct N₂O emissions after termination were much more important than indirect emissions, and 29 30 negated the C input from fodder radish. Direct seeding, straw retention and the use of a cover crop showed positive effects on N retention and/or GHG balance and could substantially 31 improve the carbon footprint of agroecosystems on sandy soil in a wet temperate climate. 32 33

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36

37 Introduction

Within agriculture, sustainability will depend on land conservation and improved input 38 39 management as identified in the United Nations Programme of Action (UN, 2020). Specifically, *conservation agriculture* is based on principles that include minimum tillage, residue recycling, 40 use of cover crops, and diversification of crop rotations (FAO, 2021). The agronomic 41 performance relative to conventional practices, however, is site-specific (Giller et al., 2015), 42 which indicates that environmental impacts are also variable (Sun et al., 2020). It is therefore 43 44 necessary to determine at national or regional level to what extent the practices of conservation agriculture ensure nutrient recycling, avoid environmental losses, and reduce greenhouse gas 45 emissions. 46

In agricultural systems, the nitrogen (N) cycle is "leaky", and efficient use of N has proven 47 challenging; for instance, less than one-half of fertilizer N is recovered in the aboveground 48 portion of cereal crops (Ladha et al., 2005), suggesting that the fraction of applied N remaining 49 in the soil is at risk of being lost to non-target ecosystems (Davidson, 2012). There are several 50 51 undesirable mechanisms by which N may be lost, including nitrate (NO_3^{-}) leaching and gaseous 52 emissions resulting from processes such as nitrification and denitrification (Butterbach-Bahl et al., 2013). These emissions include nitrous oxide (N_2O), a powerful greenhouse gas with a 53 contribution of 66% from the agricultural sector, mostly as direct emissions from soils (Davidson 54 55 and Kanter, 2014). The profound effects of N_2O in the atmosphere (i.e. its high global warming potential and contribution to stratospheric ozone depletion), and of NO_3^{-1} leaching on surface- or 56 57 groundwater quality, are well documented, but mitigating N losses remains difficult (IPCC, 2019; Bakken and Frostegard, 2017). 58

Tillage can affect soil N availability through its influence on soil physical, chemical, and 59 biological properties. Conventional inversion tillage favors the decomposition of crop residues 60 and soil organic matter by enhancing aeration and soil-residue contact, and promoting soil 61 microbial activity (Singh *et al.*, 2021), whereas conservation tillage practices (i.e., direct seeding) 62 63 result in less soil disturbance, which slows down decomposition of crop residues but also reduces fuel costs and disturbance of soil organisms, and increases the volume of medium pores and soil 64 water holding capacity (FAO, 2014; Munkholm et al., 2020). More NO₃⁻-N has been reported to 65 66 accumulate in soil under conventional tillage than in reduced or no-tillage soils, although reasons for the greater accumulation are not well understood (Carefoot and Janzen, 1997). Conservation 67 tillage practices seem to reduce the activity of ammonia oxidizing bacteria (Wang et al. 2019), 68 69 and the lower soil NO_3 -N content reported in some no-tillage systems has also been linked to

leaching below the root zone, or greater soil N immobilization (Singh *et al.*, 2021). However,
long-term studies in Denmark have not been able to confirm greater NO₃⁻ leaching from
conventional compared with conservation tillage (Hansen *et al.*, 2015).

Mutegi et al. (2010) found that straw recycling resulted in higher N₂O emissions under 73 conventional tillage compared to reduced tillage six years after transition. Retention of crop 74 75 residues at the soil surface will affect soil temperature, and the thermal insulation provided by surface residues tends to delay and dampen temperature variations in soil under conservation 76 77 tillage when compared to soil under conventional tillage (Grevers et al., 1986). Changing 78 temperature regimes can, together with effects of conservation agriculture on organic matter and oxygen (O₂) availability and soil gas diffusivity, affect the potential for denitrification (Skiba and 79 80 Ball, 2002).

In agroecosystems, the recycling of residues, including straw as a by-product of crop production, 81 82 can improve soil structure, provide plant nutrients, and act as a primary energy source for soil 83 microorganisms (FAO, 2014). Retention of straw along with appropriate fertilization may increase soil fertility and increase crop yields, and reduce N losses outside the growing season. 84 85 Powlson et al. (1985) incorporated straw with 0.5% N into a soil that was subsequently sown with winter wheat, and they found that 78% of the N added in straw remained in the soil a year 86 87 after incorporation, thereby increasing the quantity of mineralizable N. Nitrogen mineralization in synchrony with crop uptake (in spring and summer) can reduce crop fertilizer N requirements, 88 whereas any N mineralization during autumn or winter increases the risk of NO₃⁻ leaching. 89

90 Establishing a cover crop, or catch crop, outside the main growing season, has frequently been shown to reduce NO_3^- leaching. Thapa *et al.* (2018) found in a global meta-analysis an average 91 reduction of 56% by non-leguminous cover crops, and a higher efficiency for coarse-textured 92 93 soil. By reducing soil mineral N availability outside the main growing season, cover crops may 94 also reduce the potential for N₂O emissions. A meta-analysis by Basche et al. (2014) found 95 mixed results for the effect of cover crops on N₂O emissions during the growth period, but a stimulation of N_2O emissions after incorporation of the cover crop in spring. Further, cover crops 96 provide an input of carbon to the soil, which may help maintain soil C stocks (McClelland *et al.*, 97 98 2021).

A global meta-analysis found a higher risk for N₂O emissions under conservation tillage 99 100 practices (Mei et al., 2018), although there are results indicating a reversal of this effect after 101 long-term continuous conservation tillage, possibly due to increasing total porosity created by roots and soil fauna (Six et al., 2004; Finney et al., 2015). Soil under conservation tillage has 102 also been found to have a higher relative abundance of nosZ encoding the enzyme N₂O 103 reductase, and more complete denitrification to N₂ would reduce N₂O emissions (Wang and Zou, 104 105 2020; Wang *et al.*, 2019). The effect of reduced tillage, however, may also depend on soil type and climate (Rochette, 2008; Mei et al., 2018). These complex interactions between the different 106 elements of conservation agriculture, i.e., residue recycling, use of cover crops, and minimum 107 tillage, are key to understanding the environmental impacts of conservation agriculture practices. 108

109 The objectives of this study were to explore the interactions between tillage practice, a cover

110 crop, and straw management with respect to: (1) dynamics of soil mineral N, (2) N₂O emissions,

and (3) NO_3^{-1} leaching. The study included the two main phases where a cover crop may

influence nitrogen losses, i.e., the growth period (autumn-early spring) and the period where
cover crop residues decompose in the soil (spring-early summer). The hypotheses were that: (i)
minimum tillage would reduce N₂O emissions compared to ploughing; (ii) retention of straw in
the field would reduce NO₃⁻ leaching compared to straw removal, but would increase N₂O
emissions during autumn; and (iii) the presence of cover crop in the field would reduce NO₃⁻
leaching, but increase N₂O emissions after spring cultivation.

118 Materials and methods

119 Study site

Measurements were conducted between October 2019 and July 2020 within a long-term field 120 experiment at Foulum (56°30'N, 9°35'E, elevation 56 m a.s.l.), Aarhus University, Denmark. 121 122 The selected experimental plots were part of a larger field experiment, which was established in 123 2002 under temperate coastal climatic conditions to evaluate the effects of tillage, straw retention 124 and cropping sequence, including cover crops, on crop yield and C and N cycling, and retention. 125 The soil is a loamy sand based on ground morainic deposits from the last glaciation classified as a Mollic Luvisol according to the WRB (FAO) system (Krogh and Greve, 1999). The soil 126 127 contains 8.1-8.8% clay, 3.5-3.8% organic matter, with pH 6.1 (1:2.5 suspension of soil: 0.01 M CaCl₂). Before the experiment was established, the field had been cropped and cultivated 128 129 according to normal Danish agricultural practices (Hansen et al., 2015).

The field experiment had a split-plot design with different crop rotations in main plots and tillage
treatments in subplots (Munkholm *et al.*, 2013). This study included two cereal-based crop
rotations which differed only with respect to straw management (removed or retained). Two

133 tillage treatments were represented, i.e. conventional ploughing (PL) and direct seeding (DS), and tillage was applied to 72 m long and 6 m wide subplots, each of which had ten $3 \times 10 \text{ m}^2$ 134 sub-subplots. Fodder radish (Raphanus sativus L.) was grown as a cover crop from September 135 136 2019 to April 2020. Fodder radish followed oat (Avena sativa L.) as the main crop in 2019, and was followed in spring 2020 by faba beans (*Vicia faba* L.). One 3×10 m² plot with the cover 137 crop was selected, as well as one plot kept free of vegetation with a herbicide cf. Table 1 (bare 138 soil); bare-soil plots had been grown with cover crops before 2017. Thus, measurements in this 139 study were restricted to net plot areas of $10 \times 3 \text{ m}^2$. The PL treatments were mouldboard 140 ploughed to 20 cm depth followed by levelling to make a good seedbed before sowing. Sowing 141 in the CT treatment was performed with a traditional seed drill (Nordsten Lift-o-matic CLH300), 142 whereas a chisel coulter drill (Horsch Airseeder CO3) was used in the DS treatments. In all 143 144 treatments, crops were sown at the same row distance of 17.5 cm. In the crop rotation with straw retention, straw was chopped and retained after harvest, whereas straw was removed in the crop 145 rotation without straw retention. Cover crop seeds were scattered from a seeding machine after 146 147 harvest of the main crop (Table 1).

Table 2 shows the treatments and variables that were monitored in the experiment. With two tillage systems (PL and DS), each with or without straw retention (+S and –S), and with or without cover crop (+CC and –CC) in three replicate blocks, there were a total of 24 sampling positions. Precipitation and average temperatures for the experimental period were obtained from the meteorological station at Foulum and are shown in Fig. 1. Soil temperature was also monitored at 8 cm below the soil surface using Temperature-Moisture-Sensor (TMS) data loggers (Wild *et al.*, 2019).

155 Nitrate leaching

156 Nitrate leaching was determined from analyses of soil water samples collected via porous 157 ceramic cups (two in each plot) installed in autumn 2002 at a depth of 1 m. The sampling system consists of suction cups (655x01-B1M1, 1 bar, standard, Soil moisture Equipment Corporation, 158 159 Goleta, CA) mounted on PVC pipes (Hansen et al., 2015). Suction and collection tubes are 160 protected by rigid plastic tubes, which extend outside the experimental field to cupboards with three-way valves for sample collection. A suction of approximately 70-80 kPa was imposed 2-3 161 days before sampling of pore water. The soil water samples from each plot were bulked and 162 163 frozen within a few hours, and later analyzed for NO₃⁻-N (Best, 1975). Sampling took place biweekly except in periods with frost or drought. 164

165 The daily drainage in each plot was calculated with the EVACROP model (Olesen and Heidmann, 1990; Hansen et al., 2010), which applies a cascading model for calculating 166 percolation at a depth of 1 m based on a simple conceptual water-balance model with a number 167 168 of simple coupled linear reservoirs for snow, interception, evaporation, and transpiration. Soilspecific input parameters include the permanent available water content for each soil layer, and 169 170 drainage constants of the root zone reservoir and the subsoil reservoir, which describe the fraction of the water that drains to the next deeper layer each day if the soil moisture in the layer 171 is above field capacity. Data on daily precipitation, air temperature, and reference 172 evapotranspiration from a meteorological station located close to the experimental field, were 173 174 obtained to run the model. Precipitation was measured at 1.5 m height, and corrected to the soil 175 surface (Allerup et al., 2000).

176 Nitrate concentrations in the period between two observations were estimated by percolation-

177 weighted interpolation, or 'drainage-linear interpolation' (Vogeler *et al.*, 2019), which provides

the relative change in concentration based on daily percolation assuming that NO_3^-

179 concentrations in the extracted soil water represented average flux concentrations (Askegaard et

180 *al.*, 2005). Daily NO_3^{-1} leaching (kg N ha⁻¹) was calculated for each treatment plot by multiplying

daily percolation (mm) with flow-weighted interpolated daily NO_3^--N concentration (mg L⁻¹) and

dividing by 100. Afterwards the cumulative NO_3^--N leaching was calculated for the whole period from 30 August 2019 to 2 April 2020.

184 N_2O and CO_2 measurements

Monitoring of N₂O and CO₂ took place between 15 October 2019 and 25 June 2020 with a total 185 186 of 21 sampling days over the 36-week period. Fluxes were determined using 75 cm \times 75 cm \times 20 cm static chambers as previously described (Baral et al., 2019); collars were inserted one day 187 before the start of flux measurements. Chamber headspace air was continuously mixed by a 188 189 battery-powered fan during chamber deployment. Gas samples were taken with a 10-mL syringe and hypodermic needle via a septum after first pumping air in and out of the syringe three times 190 191 to flush the syringe. Five 10 mL gas samples were collected for flux measurements, the first sample immediately after chamber deployment and four other samples at 15–20 min intervals. 192 193 Sampling was always initiated between 10:00 and 13:00. Gas samples were stored in preevacuated 6 mL exetainers (Labco, High Wycombe, UK) until analysis for N₂O and CO₂ using 194 an Agilent 7890 (Agilent, Nærum, Denmark) gas chromatograph configured as previously 195 described (Petersen et al., 2012). The concentration-time series of CO₂ were mainly used for 196

quality control purposes. Nitrous oxide fluxes were calculated by the free software package
HMR avaiable as a package in R (Pedersen *et al.*, 2010).

199 Soil measurements

Soil samples were collected in the same plots where N_2O and CO_2 were monitored, and on the 200 same days as gas sampling. Six individual samples were randomly collected from each treatment 201 202 and block using an auger (2 cm dia., 0–20 cm depth); the subsamples were pooled to make a representative composite sample per plot, transferred to zip-lock plastic bags and kept at 2 °C 203 until analyzed. Soil samples were sieved (<2 mm) and subsamples extracted for mineral N 204 (ammonium (NH₄⁺-N) and nitrate (NO₃⁻-N) analysis within two days of soil sampling. 205 Approximately 10 g of soil was extracted in 40 mL of 1 M KCl. Additionally, two KCl blanks 206 207 were prepared per batch to correct for any bias from KCl impurities. For extraction, both the soil-KCl solutions and blank samples were shaken for 30 min on an orbital shaker set at 150 rpm and 208 209 then allowed to settle. The supernatant was then filtered through 1.6 µm glass microfiber filters 210 (VWR, Sweden) and frozen at -20 °C for later analysis. Inorganic-N analysis was done with standard colorimetric methods on a Foss FIAstar 5000 flow injection analyzer (FOSS Denmark). 211 212 Gravimetric soil water content was determined by drying approximately 10 g of soil for 24 h at 213 105°C. Using information about soil bulk density in the tillage experiment determined in November 2019 (Goméz-Mũnoz et al., 2021), gravimetric water content was used to calculate 214 215 water-filled pore space (WFPS). For 0-20 cm depth, bulk density of PL-S, DS-S, PL+S and DS+S were 1.39, 1.39, 1.29 and 1.31 Mg m⁻³, respectively. 216

217 Data analyses

218 Statistical analyses of the data were performed using R programming language version 4.0.0 219 (Noguchi et al., 2012; R, 2018). All data, except cumulative N₂O emissions and NO₃⁻-N leaching, were split into pre-tillage (15 October 2019 – 2 April 2020) and post-tillage (8 April – 220 221 25 June 2020) seasons for analysis. Main and interacting effects of tillage, straw retention and cover crop on the daily and cumulative N₂O emissions and mineral N were analyzed with the 222 223 linear mixed effect (*lme*) function of the *nlme* package using the restricted maximum likelihood (REML) method. Blocks were treated as a random factor in the analyses. Model assumptions, 224 i.e., normality and homogeneity of variance, were assessed using diagnostic plots of residuals. In 225 226 order to satisfy model assumptions, the daily and cumulative N₂O emissions and mineral N data were log-transformed. For time series of N₂O emissions and mineral N data, auto-correlation 227 between sampling positions were accounted with the corAR1 function. Pairwise comparisons 228 229 between treatments were performed using the estimated marginal mean (*emmeans*) function. The *p*-values were adjusted by Tukey's HSD method, and the hypothesis rejection threshold was 230 0.05. 231

Effects of soil and environmental variables, such as mineral N (NH₄⁺-N and NO₃⁻-N), soil temperature and moisture, to pre-tillage and post-tillage season N₂O emissions were analyzed using multiple regression analysis. Prior to the analysis, N₂O emission data were log-transferred and tested for collinearity between variables using a variance inflation factor (VIF) of 5 as threshold. During analysis, only two-way interactions of variables with respect to N₂O emissions were analyzed to make the results interpretable. The variable interactions that were not significant (p > 0.05) were removed in the final model.

239 Since daily NO_3^- leaching data violated model assumptions, even after transformation, the data 240 were analysed using the non-parametric rank-based model *nparLD*, which is a robust method to analyse repeatedly measured data with non-normal distribution (Noguchi et al., 2012). We used 241 242 F2-LD-F1 design during analysis, where F2 represents the two levels of independent factors, and F1 stands for repeatedly measured leaching data. Since this model can only handle interactions 243 244 between two independent factors at a time, we made three different interaction models during the analysis, i.e., tillage \times residue, residue \times cover crop, and tillage \times cover crop. Treatment effects 245 within factors were evaluated using ANOVA-type statistics. As in parametric tests, the 246 247 hypothesis rejection threshold was set at 0.05.

The overall carbon footprint of the eight treatment combinations was calculated from the direct 248 emissions of N₂O and indirect N₂O emissions from NO₃⁻ leached, and C from straw and fodder 249 250 radish stabilized in the soil. The indirect N_2O emission was estimated using an emission factor of 0.0075, as in the national inventory for Denmark (Nielsen et al., 2020), and a global warming 251 potential (GWP) of 265 for direct and indirect emissions (IPCC, 2014). The annual net change of 252 straw C was calculated from the change in soil C concentrations of PL and DS soil with and 253 without straw retention between 2002 and 2019 (17 years), and bulk density determined in 254 255 November 2019 (Gómez-Muñoz et al., 2021). The retention of cover crop C was based on dry 256 matter in plant cuts collected in January 2020; the total above- and below-ground C from the cover crop returned to the soil was calculated using allometric functions embedded in C-TOOL 257 258 (Taghizadeh-Toosi et al., 2014), and assuming that 10% of this annual input would persist in the soil after 15-20 years (Mutegi et al., 2013). 259

260

261 **Results**

262 Environmental conditions

During the monitoring period (15 October 2019 to 25 June 2020), daily mean air temperature
ranged from -1 to 21°C, and total precipitation was 582 mm (Fig. 1). The winter period
(December to February) was 2-4°C warmer than the average for the period 1991-2020), whereas
precipitation was above average every month between October and February. Rainfall in
February was particularly extreme at 134 mm against an average of 41 mm for the period 1991-

268 2020.

269 The soil temperature at 8 cm depth was recorded continuously in all eight treatment

270 combinations in one of the three experimental blocks. Main effects of tillage, straw residue

271 recycling and cover crop, respectively, are shown as box plots representing the measurements

during the 24-hour periods of individual sampling days (Fig. 2). For the autumn-winter period,

273 paired-sample t-tests of mean soil temperature for these selected days showed small, but

significantly higher soil temperature at 8 cm depth with no-till (p < 0.001), straw retention (p < 0.001)

275 0.05) and the presence of a cover crop (p < 0.01). After termination of the cover crop, the cover

crop treatment still had a positive effect on soil temperature (p < 0.05), while there was no main

effect of tillage or straw retention.

278 Soil WFPS and mineral N dynamics

Soil WFPS (Fig. S1) remained close to 60% during autumn, winter and early spring independent
of treatment, except for a transient increase for the sampling in February after a period with high

rainfall (Fig. 1). During spring and early summer, there was a gradual decline in WFPS in all
treatments to a final level of around 30%, and with a tendency for higher WFPS in cover crop
treatments (+CC) that may reflect moisture retention by the plant material.

Across all treatments, NH₄⁺-N content was always below 10 µg g⁻¹ dry wt. soil. There was a 284 minor increase in NH4⁺-N content in late autumn irrespective of management practice, and a 285 more significant accumulation following termination of the cover crop and planting of faba bean 286 287 (Fig. S2). During autumn and winter, there were significant effects of tillage practice and cover 288 crop, but not straw retention, on soil NH_4^+ -N content (Table 3 Table S1), but the levels were low and often variable. After termination of the cover crop, with tillage of the PL treatments and then 289 planting of faba bean in all plots, significant interactions between straw retention and both cover 290 crop residues and tillage treatment were observed. In general, NH4⁺-N accumulation in spring 291 was greater with direct seeding and presence of a cover crop, and with straw retention (up to 6 292 μ g NH₄⁺-N g⁻¹ dry soil). 293

The soil NO₃⁻-N content was in the range 0-5 μ g g⁻¹ dry wt. soil during autumn and winter, and 294 reached 10-15 µg g⁻¹ during spring (Fig. S3). Like NH₄⁺-N, NO₃⁻-N showed a minor increase in 295 296 late autumn independent of treatment, but NO₃⁻-N was subsequently depleted during the wet winter and early spring before tillage and planting. There was in this period a significant effect of 297 298 straw retention, and an interaction between cover crop and tillage treatment (Table 3Table S1). 299 During spring, accumulation of soil NO₃⁻-N was observed independent of treatment; the content peaked in late May (close to 15 µg NO₃⁻-N g⁻¹ dry soil in all treatments), and NO₃⁻-N was then 300 depleted during June. There were in this period significant positive effects of cover crop and 301

302 straw retention on NO_3^--N content, and a significant interaction between tillage and cover crop 303 that suggested greater NO_3^--N accumulation with direct seeding (Table 4Table 3).

 $304 N_2O$ emissions

Despite a WFPS around 60% and some accumulation of NO_3^- in the soil, N₂O emissions 305 remained low in all treatments during autumn, winter and early spring (Fig. 3). However, there 306 307 was a small positive effect of cover crop on N₂O emissions during that period, and an also 308 interaction between cover crop and tillage (Table 4 Table 3) that may have been due to occasional higher emissions without a cover crop in PL (Fig. 3). After termination of the cover crop in +CC 309 treatments, and planting of faba bean, there was still little N₂O emission from -CC treatments, 310 but not significantly higher emissions from +CC treatments (Fig. 3, Table 4Table 3) with a 311 maximum flux of around 100 µg N₂O-N m⁻² h⁻¹ in treatment PL+S+CC. In all +CC treatments, 312 the highest rates were observed between mid-April and mid-May, but N₂O emissions during June 313 were also higher in +CC compared to -CC treatments. The statistical analysis indicated a 314 315 significant effects of straw retention (+S), and a significant interaction between tillage treatment 316 and cover crop (Table 4 Table 3).

The regression analysis showed that soil temperature was a driving variable for N₂O emissions (Table 5<u>Table S3</u>) in autumn to spring (before planting faba bean). In contrast, during spring and early summer, NO_3^- -N was a strong predictor of N₂O emission (Table 5<u>Table S3</u>), with a significant interaction of NO_3^- -N with soil moisture.

321 Cumulative N₂O-N emissions ranged from 0.04 to 0.78 kg N₂O-N ha¹ (Fig. <u>S</u>4), with the highest 322 amount in treatment PL+S+CC with conventional ploughing, straw retention, and cover crop.

323 Cover crop treatments consistently resulted in higher emissions than treatments without cover324 crop.

325 Nitrate leaching

Fig. <u>S</u>5 shows the NO₃⁻-N leaching during the monitoring period. Cumulated N loss ranged from
21 to 28 kg ha⁻¹ in treatments without CC, and from 4 to 5 kg ha⁻¹ in the presence of fodder
radish, corresponding to a reduction of 80-84% (<u>Table 7Table 4</u>). There was no significant
difference between tillage treatments, although leaching tended to be higher in PL treatments,
and in treatments without straw retention. Cover crop was the only variable that affected NO₃⁻-N
leaching significantly (<u>Table 6Table S2</u>, Fig. S4Fig. S6).

332 Nitrogen uptake by faba bean

The faba bean N uptake at harvest ranged from 179 to 211 kg N ha⁻¹ (Table <u>S+S4</u>). There were no significant effects of experimental treatments on faba bean seed dry matter yield or N uptake, but a significant (p < 0.01) effect of straw retention on grain N content (Table <u>S2S5</u>). Yieldscaled N₂O emissions were significantly higher in the presence of a cover crop during the previous winter

338 Overall carbon footprint

For each of the eight treatments, an overall GHG balance was calculated using the observed emissions of N₂O and leaching of NO₃⁻ during the monitoring period, the annual C stock change in each tillage × straw combination between 2002 and 2019, and a model-estimated long-term 342 retention of C in fodder radish residues (Fig. 64). In all treatment combinations, the overall carbon footprint was dominated by the long-term trends in soil C stock changes. With straw 343 removal the carbon footprint was always positive, corresponding to C loss from the soil, and this 344 was independent of the other components of the GHG balance. The emissions of N₂O resulting 345 from degradation of cover crop residues, mainly after cultivation in spring, were comparable to 346 347 the expected retention of C from cover crop residues. The indirect N_2O emissions from NO_3^{-1} leaching were comparable to or greater than direct N₂O emissions from the soil in the absence of 348 349 a cover crop.

350 Discussion

Transition from conventional to conservation agriculture will affect the degree of soil 351 disturbance and distribution of crop residues returned. A meta-analysis by Pittelkow et al. (2014) 352 353 indicated a small yield penalty in most cases that suggests a reduction in nutrient use efficiency with conservation agriculture, which in turn could increase environmental losses. In our 354 355 experiment, fodder radish reduced NO_3^- leaching irrespective of other management factors, but this did not affect the N uptake of the following crop; any difference in N availability may have 356 been compensated by N fixation of the faba bean crop (Rodriguez et al., 2020). There was a 357 positive effect of straw retention in general on grain N, which is consistent with immobilization 358 during the initial phase of straw decomposition of N that is later re-mineralized (Powlson *et al.*, 359 1985). As an intermediate of denitrification, N₂O emissions may serve as an indicator of 360 atmospheric losses that should be minimized to improve N use efficiency and reduce the carbon 361 footprint of conservation agriculture. The following sections discuss possible controls of N_2O 362 363 emissions as basis for the identification of mitigation strategies.

364 *Tillage*

365 The adoption of direct seeding in the long-term experiment in 2002, 17 years prior to this study, 366 reduced N₂O emissions compared with conventional ploughing, as hypothesized (Table 6 Table 367 S2). Across straw retention and cover crop treatments, the reduction in N_2O emissions by direct seeding averaged 46%. Within the same field experiment, the corresponding reduction of N₂O 368 369 emissions from direct seeding during autumn, winter and spring from winter barley in 2007-2008 370 (Mutegi et al., 2010), and from fodder radish in 2008-2009 (Petersen et al., 2011), were 27 and 371 31%, respectively. These observations are consistent with the meta-analysis of van Kessel et al., 372 (2013) concluding that long-term (>10 years) reduced- or no-till management enhances the N₂O mitigation potential. 373

Galdos et al. (2019) found, using X-ray computed tomography, a larger total pore volume and 374 higher connectivity at 0-12 cm depth in a clay soil under zero-tillage compared to conventional 375 376 tillage after 30 years. VandenBygaart et al. (1999) investigated pore structure of a silt loam soil in 377 a no-till chronosequence and found that the number of biopores (>500 μ m) was lower under no-378 till management four years after the transition to no-till, but higher after six and eleven years. In 379 the field experiment used in the present study, Abdollahi and Munkholm (2017) found a lower 380 total porosity in DS compared to PL at 11 years after transition, in accordance with the bulk density 381 measurements given above. However, it should be noted that biopores may be under-represented in the 100-cm³ samples used here for determination of bulk density when comparing with larger 382 sample volumes (da Silva et al., 2021), and aeration through biopores created by roots and 383 384 earthworm activity could be a constraint on N₂O emissions in no-till soil.

385 Straw retention

386 Straw retained under conservation tillage is prone to slower decomposition compared to conventional systems because of the limited mixing with other soil constituents and organisms 387 (Mitchell *et al.*, 2013). Also, the potential for long-term stabilization is less for residues 388 decomposing at the soil surface (Goméz-Mũnoz et al., 2021). Although significant effects of 389 straw retention on mineral N were identified, straw was not related to N₂O emissions in neither 390 391 autumn-winter nor spring. Aulakh et al. (1991) studied N₂O emissions and denitrification from residues of wheat and other crops when mixed with soil or left at the soil surface; in all 392 treatments, the stimulation of N₂O emissions and denitrification occurred mainly during the 393 394 initial 8-10 days of incubation, which implies that any direct effect would be associated with the initial stage of straw decomposition. In the present field study, oat straw was returned to the soil 395 surface after harvest in both tillage systems in August 2019, two months before monitoring 396 began, and therefore direct effects of straw retention on N₂O emissions could not be expected 397 until spring ploughing in PL treatments. 398

399 Cover crop effects

Although the growth period is shorter and characterized by lower temperatures compared to the main growing season, fodder radish may contribute a substantial amount of C to the soil during growth and *via* crop residues (Mutegi *et al.*, 2011). Using ¹⁴CO₂ pulse labelling, these authors showed that more than 70% of the C fixed by fodder radish was incorporated at 0-10 cm depth. Yet, this C input from fodder radish did not lead to substantial N₂O emissions during the growth period, whereas termination of the cover crop triggered N₂O emissions.

406 The fact that N_2O emissions after termination were lower in DS treatments indicates that

- 407 depletion of soil O₂ during the decomposition of CC residues, incorporated by ploughing in PL
- 408 treatments, was a driver of N₂O emissions. Rochette *et al.* (2008), analyzing N₂O response ratios

of no-till *vs.* ploughing as a function of soil wetness, found that tillage treatments had lower or
similar N₂O emissions from soil with good and moderate drainage, but no-till showed higher
emissions than ploughing in poorly drained soil, which corroborates the conclusion that soil
aeration at the depth of residue decomposition is a key factor regulating emissions. Song *et al.*(2019) found a strong relationship between soil O₂ and N₂O in soil profiles, but N₂O emissions
will also depend on the potential for N₂O reduction during transport to the surface.

415 The accumulation of NO₃⁻ observed in the topsoil during autumn and winter (Fig. S3) was 416 mainly derived from organic matter input in previous years, which would have a very different 417 distribution in the soil profile of no-till and ploughed soil. As a consequence, the contact between 418 decomposing residues and soil NO₃⁻ was probably better in ploughed soil where residues and 419 fertilizers are incorporated each year, and this in turn may have enhanced N₂O emissions as 420 shown by Taghizadeh-Toosi et al. (2021) in a manipulation experiment with mixed or layered 421 distribution of crop residues, and two levels of, respectively, soil moisture and NO₃⁻ content. Previous meta-analyses have documented that cover crops could reduce N leaching by 50-70% 422 compared with bare fallow (Basche et al., 2014; Valkama et al., 2015). The present study 423 indicated a reduction of 80-84%, and hence the effect was largely independent of tillage and 424

425 residue management on this soil type, in accordance with previous results (Hansen *et al.*, 2015).

426 Soil conditions

Soil WFPS followed the same pattern in all treatments. During autumn and winter with aboveaverage precipitation, the WFPS level at sampling was always close to 60%, which has been
proposed to be a threshold for N₂O emissions based on controlled laboratory experiments
(Aulakh *et al.*, 1991; Shelton *et al.*, 2000). The N₂O emissions remained low in this period

despite some mineral N availability (Figs S2 and S3), although higher rates associated with rain events could have been missed. In contrast, significant N₂O emissions occurred during April and May 2020 where soil WFPS was below 60% (Fig. S3), but mainly where fodder radish residues were returned. Together this indicates that, for the site investigated here, intense decomposer activity was more important as driver for N₂O emissions than soil drainage, in accordance with previous observations at this experimental site (Brozyna *et al.*, 2013; Pugesgaard *et al.*, 2017).

437 As reported by others, soil temperature during autumn-winter was higher with no-till (Yang et 438 al., 2018), straw retention (Chen et al., 2007) and a cover crop (Kahimba, 2008). The cover crop 439 maintained a positive effect on soil temperature after termination, possibly because cover crop residues promoted soil warming during spring due to a reduction in soil bulk density (Li et al., 440 441 2015; Chalise et al., 2019). Considering the importance of temperature for microbial transformations of C and N, such effects could influence N₂O emissions. Thus, Petersen et al. 442 (2011) concluded that a large proportion of emitted N₂O was produced above a soil depth of 5 443 cm in both tilled and non-tilled soil after termination of a fodder radish cover crop. While there 444 445 was a significant effect of temperature during autumn-winter (Table 57), N2O emissions remained low independent of treatment in this period (Fig. 3); during spring, any effect of 446 447 temperature was confounded by the main effect of cover crop.

448 Carbon footprints of conservation agriculture practices

The carbon footprints showed a GHG mitigation potential of direct seeding (no-till) and straw retention, and a neutral effect of cover crop, indicating that conservation tillage practices will have net benefits for the GHG balance of sandy loam soil in wet temperate climates. It should, however, be emphasized that N₂O emissions from main crops, i.e., fertilization of the previous oat crop, and decomposition of residues after harvest of oat and faba bean crops, were not

454 included in the carbon footprints in Fig. 64, which represent effects of management outside the main crop growing period. For example, Petersen *et al.* (2011) quantified N₂O emissions in 455 PL+S and DS+S of the same long-term tillage experiment with and without fodder radish as 456 winter cover crop, and here pig slurry was applied after termination of the cover crop. The 457 combined N₂O emissions from residue and slurry decomposition reported by Petersen et al. 458 459 (2011) corresponded to 0.7-1.6 Mg CO₂eq and thus were considerably higher than those from residues alone in the present study. Therefore, N₂O emissions after fertilization could outweigh 460 461 the net benefits of the scenarios with straw retention reported in Fig. 64. 462 The largest component of the carbon footprint was the change in soil C associated with straw 463 retention. It should be noted that cover crops had been part of all treatments in previous years 464 (Goméz-Mũnoz et al., 2021), and therefore the soil C change in Fig. 6-4 also included a contribution from cover crops. The soil C retention observed for fodder radish in 2019-2020 may 465 indicate the relative importance of cover crops and straw retention, respectively, for the soil C 466 stock changes. In a global meta-analysis, McClelland et al. (2021) estimated the annual C input 467 from cover crops to be on average 0.21 Mg ha⁻¹. These authors also found that the response to 468 cover crops was smaller in wet temperate compared to warmer climates, and that the apparent 469 470 effect of cover crops on soil C stocks did not change with time since adoption. This has recently been corroborated by a long-term study in Denmark showing that the soil C effect of cover crops 471 saturate after a period of approximately 15 years (Jensen et al., 2021). It indicates that the long-472

term retention of residue C in wet temperate climates is uncertain and, accordingly, that the

retention of fodder radish C estimated from plant cuts in the present study, 0.23-0.43 Mg ha⁻¹,

475 may be too high. If true, this would increase the relative importance of N_2O emissions for the

476 GHG balance.

477 The use of a cover crop was highly effective in preventing NO₃⁻ leaching, which is a pollutant of recipient water bodies and an indirect source of N2O, but the direct emissions of N2O from cover 478 crop residues were far greater than indirect emissions prevented in this study. This is in contrast 479 480 to the results of a global meta-analysis of cover crop effects (Abdalla et al., 2019) which concluded there was no significant effect of cover crops on N₂O emissions. The short duration (9 481 482 months) of the present study may have resulted in a higher relative importance of N_2O emissions associated with cover crop residues, but crop residues have also been identified as a main driver 483 of N₂O emissions across entire four-year crop rotations on the light-textured soil investigated 484 485 here (Brozyna et al., 2013; Pugesgaard et al., 2017). Thus, confounding effects of analysing field 486 data across several soil types, climate zones and management practices may prevent the observation of effects that are seen with a greater disaggregation of the data (Chen et al., 2013). 487 As GHG mitigation strategy, the fodder radish crop in the present study depended on the 488 concurrent C storage which, however, will be less permanent than N₂O in the atmosphere. Direct 489 seeding resulted in less N₂O emission than spring tillage, and the combination of GHG 490 491 mitigation methods under conservation agriculture should be further explored.

492 Conclusion

This study investigated effects of tillage practice, straw retention, and a winter cover crop on
N₂O emissions and NO₃⁻ leaching, during the cover crop growth period and subsequent
decomposition in spring. The study did not find effects of straw retention on nitrate leaching or
N₂O emissions, but straw retention was critical for the overall GHG balance through soil carbon
storage, and without straw retention after harvest there was always a positive GHG balance, i.e.,
net emissions. As expected, fodder radish was highly effective in reducing NO₃⁻ leaching during
winter, but N₂O emissions after spring cultivation were enhanced; the increase in direct N₂O

- 500 emissions could in part be compensated by storage of residue C and by the adoption of direct
- seeding. Even though N losses associated with a main crop were not covered in this study, the
- results indicated that direct seeding, straw retention and the use of cover crops could
- substantially improve the carbon footprint of agroecosystems on sandy soil in a wet temperate
- 504 climate.

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Total greenhouse gas balance in red filled circles (October 2019 to June 2020) of the eight combinations of ploughing (PL) vs. direct seeding (DS), straw retention (+S) vs. straw removal (-S), and growth of fodder radish as a winter cover crop (+CC) vs. no cover crop (-CC). Positive effects indicate net emission of greenhouse gases from the soil.

Highlights

- Fodder radish, grown as a cover crop, reduced NO_3^- leaching by 80-84%.
- Termination of the cover crop in spring was followed by a flush of N_2O .
- No-till reduced N₂O emissions by on average 46% compared to ploughing.
- Straw retention in the rotation was more important than cover crop for C storage.
- Without straw retention there were net GHG emissions irrespective of tillage.

1 Interactive effects of straw management, tillage, and a cover crop on nitrous

2 oxide emissions and nitrate leaching from a sandy loam soil

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12 Abstract

13 Minimum tillage, residue recycling and the use of cover crops are key elements of conservation

14 agriculture that play important roles in soil carbon (C) and nitrogen (N) dynamics. This study

15 determined the long-term effects of tillage practice (conventional ploughing vs. direct seeding),

straw management (retained vs. removed), and the presence of a cover crop (CC; fodder radish in

this study) on nitrous oxide (N_2O) emissions, nitrate (NO_3^-) leaching, and soil mineral N

dynamics between October 2019 and June 2020. In the factorial experiment with eight treatment

19 combinations, cumulative N₂O emissions ranged from 0.04 to 0.8 kg N ha⁻¹, whereas NO_3^-

20 leaching varied between 4 and 28 kg N ha⁻¹. The study did not find effects of straw retention on

 NO_3^- leaching or N₂O emissions. No-till reduced N₂O emissions by on average 46% compared to

- 22 ploughing. Fodder radish reduced NO_3^- leaching by 80-84%, and there was little N₂O emission in
- 23 the presence of the cover crop; however, after termination in spring there was a flush of
- 24 N₂O,cumulative N₂O-N averaged 0.1 and 0.5 kg N ha⁻¹ without and with a cover crop. With

25 information about long-term soil C retention from straw and fodder radish, an overall greenhouse (GHG) balance was calculated for each system. Without straw retention after harvest there was 26 always a positive net GHG emission, and the indirect N_2O emission from NO_3^- leaching was 27 28 similar to, or greater than direct N₂O emissions. However, in the presence of fodder radish, the direct N₂O emissions after termination were much more important than indirect emissions, and 29 30 negated the C input from fodder radish. Direct seeding, straw retention and the use of a cover crop showed positive effects on N retention and/or GHG balance and could substantially 31 improve the carbon footprint of agroecosystems on sandy soil in a wet temperate climate. 32 33

Keywords: Conservation agriculture, nitrous oxide emissions, nitrate leaching, straw retention,
cover crops.

36

37 Introduction

Within agriculture, sustainability will depend on land conservation and improved input 38 39 management as identified in the United Nations Programme of Action (UN, 2020). Specifically, *conservation agriculture* is based on principles that include minimum tillage, residue recycling, 40 use of cover crops, and diversification of crop rotations (FAO, 2021). The agronomic 41 performance relative to conventional practices, however, is site-specific (Giller et al., 2015), 42 which indicates that environmental impacts are also variable (Sun et al., 2020). It is therefore 43 44 necessary to determine at national or regional level to what extent the practices of conservation agriculture ensure nutrient recycling, avoid environmental losses, and reduce greenhouse gas 45 emissions. 46
In agricultural systems, the nitrogen (N) cycle is "leaky", and efficient use of N has proven 47 challenging; for instance, less than one-half of fertilizer N is recovered in the aboveground 48 portion of cereal crops (Ladha et al., 2005), suggesting that the fraction of applied N remaining 49 in the soil is at risk of being lost to non-target ecosystems (Davidson, 2012). There are several 50 51 undesirable mechanisms by which N may be lost, including nitrate (NO_3^{-}) leaching and gaseous 52 emissions resulting from processes such as nitrification and denitrification (Butterbach-Bahl et al., 2013). These emissions include nitrous oxide (N_2O), a powerful greenhouse gas with a 53 contribution of 66% from the agricultural sector, mostly as direct emissions from soils (Davidson 54 55 and Kanter, 2014). The profound effects of N_2O in the atmosphere (i.e. its high global warming potential and contribution to stratospheric ozone depletion), and of NO_3^{-1} leaching on surface- or 56 57 groundwater quality, are well documented, but mitigating N losses remains difficult (IPCC, 2019; Bakken and Frostegard, 2017). 58

Tillage can affect soil N availability through its influence on soil physical, chemical, and 59 biological properties. Conventional inversion tillage favors the decomposition of crop residues 60 and soil organic matter by enhancing aeration and soil-residue contact, and promoting soil 61 microbial activity (Singh *et al.*, 2021), whereas conservation tillage practices (i.e., direct seeding) 62 63 result in less soil disturbance, which slows down decomposition of crop residues but also reduces fuel costs and disturbance of soil organisms, and increases the volume of medium pores and soil 64 water holding capacity (FAO, 2014; Munkholm et al., 2020). More NO₃⁻-N has been reported to 65 66 accumulate in soil under conventional tillage than in reduced or no-tillage soils, although reasons for the greater accumulation are not well understood (Carefoot and Janzen, 1997). Conservation 67 tillage practices seem to reduce the activity of ammonia oxidizing bacteria (Wang et al. 2019), 68 69 and the lower soil NO_3 -N content reported in some no-tillage systems has also been linked to

leaching below the root zone, or greater soil N immobilization (Singh *et al.*, 2021). However,
long-term studies in Denmark have not been able to confirm greater NO₃⁻ leaching from
conventional compared with conservation tillage (Hansen *et al.*, 2015).

Mutegi et al. (2010) found that straw recycling resulted in higher N₂O emissions under 73 conventional tillage compared to reduced tillage six years after transition. Retention of crop 74 75 residues at the soil surface will affect soil temperature, and the thermal insulation provided by surface residues tends to delay and dampen temperature variations in soil under conservation 76 77 tillage when compared to soil under conventional tillage (Grevers et al., 1986). Changing 78 temperature regimes can, together with effects of conservation agriculture on organic matter and oxygen (O₂) availability and soil gas diffusivity, affect the potential for denitrification (Skiba and 79 80 Ball, 2002).

In agroecosystems, the recycling of residues, including straw as a by-product of crop production, 81 82 can improve soil structure, provide plant nutrients, and act as a primary energy source for soil 83 microorganisms (FAO, 2014). Retention of straw along with appropriate fertilization may increase soil fertility and increase crop yields, and reduce N losses outside the growing season. 84 85 Powlson et al. (1985) incorporated straw with 0.5% N into a soil that was subsequently sown with winter wheat, and they found that 78% of the N added in straw remained in the soil a year 86 87 after incorporation, thereby increasing the quantity of mineralizable N. Nitrogen mineralization in synchrony with crop uptake (in spring and summer) can reduce crop fertilizer N requirements, 88 whereas any N mineralization during autumn or winter increases the risk of NO₃⁻ leaching. 89

90 Establishing a cover crop, or catch crop, outside the main growing season, has frequently been shown to reduce NO_3^- leaching. Thapa *et al.* (2018) found in a global meta-analysis an average 91 reduction of 56% by non-leguminous cover crops, and a higher efficiency for coarse-textured 92 93 soil. By reducing soil mineral N availability outside the main growing season, cover crops may 94 also reduce the potential for N₂O emissions. A meta-analysis by Basche et al. (2014) found 95 mixed results for the effect of cover crops on N₂O emissions during the growth period, but a stimulation of N_2O emissions after incorporation of the cover crop in spring. Further, cover crops 96 provide an input of carbon to the soil, which may help maintain soil C stocks (McClelland *et al.*, 97 98 2021).

A global meta-analysis found a higher risk for N₂O emissions under conservation tillage 99 100 practices (Mei et al., 2018), although there are results indicating a reversal of this effect after 101 long-term continuous conservation tillage, possibly due to increasing total porosity created by roots and soil fauna (Six et al., 2004; Finney et al., 2015). Soil under conservation tillage has 102 also been found to have a higher relative abundance of nosZ encoding the enzyme N₂O 103 reductase, and more complete denitrification to N₂ would reduce N₂O emissions (Wang and Zou, 104 105 2020; Wang *et al.*, 2019). The effect of reduced tillage, however, may also depend on soil type and climate (Rochette, 2008; Mei et al., 2018). These complex interactions between the different 106 elements of conservation agriculture, i.e., residue recycling, use of cover crops, and minimum 107 tillage, are key to understanding the environmental impacts of conservation agriculture practices. 108

109 The objectives of this study were to explore the interactions between tillage practice, a cover

110 crop, and straw management with respect to: (1) dynamics of soil mineral N, (2) N₂O emissions,

and (3) NO_3^{-1} leaching. The study included the two main phases where a cover crop may

influence nitrogen losses, i.e., the growth period (autumn-early spring) and the period where
cover crop residues decompose in the soil (spring-early summer). The hypotheses were that: (i)
minimum tillage would reduce N₂O emissions compared to ploughing; (ii) retention of straw in
the field would reduce NO₃⁻ leaching compared to straw removal, but would increase N₂O
emissions during autumn; and (iii) the presence of cover crop in the field would reduce NO₃⁻
leaching, but increase N₂O emissions after spring cultivation.

118 Materials and methods

119 Study site

Measurements were conducted between October 2019 and July 2020 within a long-term field 120 experiment at Foulum (56°30'N, 9°35'E, elevation 56 m a.s.l.), Aarhus University, Denmark. 121 122 The selected experimental plots were part of a larger field experiment, which was established in 123 2002 under temperate coastal climatic conditions to evaluate the effects of tillage, straw retention 124 and cropping sequence, including cover crops, on crop yield and C and N cycling, and retention. 125 The soil is a loamy sand based on ground morainic deposits from the last glaciation classified as a Mollic Luvisol according to the WRB (FAO) system (Krogh and Greve, 1999). The soil 126 127 contains 8.1-8.8% clay, 3.5-3.8% organic matter, with pH 6.1 (1:2.5 suspension of soil: 0.01 M CaCl₂). Before the experiment was established, the field had been cropped and cultivated 128 129 according to normal Danish agricultural practices (Hansen et al., 2015).

The field experiment had a split-plot design with different crop rotations in main plots and tillage
treatments in subplots (Munkholm *et al.*, 2013). This study included two cereal-based crop
rotations which differed only with respect to straw management (removed or retained). Two

133 tillage treatments were represented, i.e. conventional ploughing (PL) and direct seeding (DS), and tillage was applied to 72 m long and 6 m wide subplots, each of which had ten $3 \times 10 \text{ m}^2$ 134 sub-subplots. Fodder radish (Raphanus sativus L.) was grown as a cover crop from September 135 136 2019 to April 2020. Fodder radish followed oat (Avena sativa L.) as the main crop in 2019, and was followed in spring 2020 by faba beans (*Vicia faba* L.). One 3×10 m² plot with the cover 137 crop was selected, as well as one plot kept free of vegetation with a herbicide cf. Table 1 (bare 138 soil); bare-soil plots had been grown with cover crops before 2017. Thus, measurements in this 139 study were restricted to net plot areas of $10 \times 3 \text{ m}^2$. The PL treatments were mouldboard 140 ploughed to 20 cm depth followed by levelling to make a good seedbed before sowing. Sowing 141 in the CT treatment was performed with a traditional seed drill (Nordsten Lift-o-matic CLH300), 142 whereas a chisel coulter drill (Horsch Airseeder CO3) was used in the DS treatments. In all 143 144 treatments, crops were sown at the same row distance of 17.5 cm. In the crop rotation with straw retention, straw was chopped and retained after harvest, whereas straw was removed in the crop 145 rotation without straw retention. Cover crop seeds were scattered from a seeding machine after 146 147 harvest of the main crop (Table 1).

Table 2 shows the treatments and variables that were monitored in the experiment. With two tillage systems (PL and DS), each with or without straw retention (+S and –S), and with or without cover crop (+CC and –CC) in three replicate blocks, there were a total of 24 sampling positions. Precipitation and average temperatures for the experimental period were obtained from the meteorological station at Foulum and are shown in Fig. 1. Soil temperature was also monitored at 8 cm below the soil surface using Temperature-Moisture-Sensor (TMS) data loggers (Wild *et al.*, 2019).

155 Nitrate leaching

156 Nitrate leaching was determined from analyses of soil water samples collected via porous 157 ceramic cups (two in each plot) installed in autumn 2002 at a depth of 1 m. The sampling system consists of suction cups (655x01-B1M1, 1 bar, standard, Soil moisture Equipment Corporation, 158 159 Goleta, CA) mounted on PVC pipes (Hansen et al., 2015). Suction and collection tubes are 160 protected by rigid plastic tubes, which extend outside the experimental field to cupboards with three-way valves for sample collection. A suction of approximately 70-80 kPa was imposed 2-3 161 days before sampling of pore water. The soil water samples from each plot were bulked and 162 163 frozen within a few hours, and later analyzed for NO₃⁻-N (Best, 1975). Sampling took place biweekly except in periods with frost or drought. 164

165 The daily drainage in each plot was calculated with the EVACROP model (Olesen and Heidmann, 1990; Hansen et al., 2010), which applies a cascading model for calculating 166 percolation at a depth of 1 m based on a simple conceptual water-balance model with a number 167 168 of simple coupled linear reservoirs for snow, interception, evaporation, and transpiration. Soilspecific input parameters include the permanent available water content for each soil layer, and 169 170 drainage constants of the root zone reservoir and the subsoil reservoir, which describe the fraction of the water that drains to the next deeper layer each day if the soil moisture in the layer 171 is above field capacity. Data on daily precipitation, air temperature, and reference 172 evapotranspiration from a meteorological station located close to the experimental field, were 173 174 obtained to run the model. Precipitation was measured at 1.5 m height, and corrected to the soil 175 surface (Allerup et al., 2000).

176 Nitrate concentrations in the period between two observations were estimated by percolation-

177 weighted interpolation, or 'drainage-linear interpolation' (Vogeler *et al.*, 2019), which provides

the relative change in concentration based on daily percolation assuming that NO_3^-

179 concentrations in the extracted soil water represented average flux concentrations (Askegaard et

180 *al.*, 2005). Daily NO_3^{-1} leaching (kg N ha⁻¹) was calculated for each treatment plot by multiplying

daily percolation (mm) with flow-weighted interpolated daily NO_3^--N concentration (mg L⁻¹) and

dividing by 100. Afterwards the cumulative NO_3^--N leaching was calculated for the whole period from 30 August 2019 to 2 April 2020.

184 N_2O and CO_2 measurements

Monitoring of N₂O and CO₂ took place between 15 October 2019 and 25 June 2020 with a total 185 186 of 21 sampling days over the 36-week period. Fluxes were determined using 75 cm \times 75 cm \times 20 cm static chambers as previously described (Baral et al., 2019); collars were inserted one day 187 before the start of flux measurements. Chamber headspace air was continuously mixed by a 188 189 battery-powered fan during chamber deployment. Gas samples were taken with a 10-mL syringe and hypodermic needle via a septum after first pumping air in and out of the syringe three times 190 191 to flush the syringe. Five 10 mL gas samples were collected for flux measurements, the first sample immediately after chamber deployment and four other samples at 15–20 min intervals. 192 193 Sampling was always initiated between 10:00 and 13:00. Gas samples were stored in preevacuated 6 mL exetainers (Labco, High Wycombe, UK) until analysis for N₂O and CO₂ using 194 an Agilent 7890 (Agilent, Nærum, Denmark) gas chromatograph configured as previously 195 described (Petersen et al., 2012). The concentration-time series of CO₂ were mainly used for 196

quality control purposes. Nitrous oxide fluxes were calculated by the free software package
HMR avaiable as a package in R (Pedersen *et al.*, 2010).

199 Soil measurements

Soil samples were collected in the same plots where N_2O and CO_2 were monitored, and on the 200 same days as gas sampling. Six individual samples were randomly collected from each treatment 201 202 and block using an auger (2 cm dia., 0–20 cm depth); the subsamples were pooled to make a representative composite sample per plot, transferred to zip-lock plastic bags and kept at 2 °C 203 until analyzed. Soil samples were sieved (<2 mm) and subsamples extracted for mineral N 204 (ammonium (NH₄⁺-N) and nitrate (NO₃⁻-N) analysis within two days of soil sampling. 205 Approximately 10 g of soil was extracted in 40 mL of 1 M KCl. Additionally, two KCl blanks 206 207 were prepared per batch to correct for any bias from KCl impurities. For extraction, both the soil-KCl solutions and blank samples were shaken for 30 min on an orbital shaker set at 150 rpm and 208 209 then allowed to settle. The supernatant was then filtered through 1.6 µm glass microfiber filters 210 (VWR, Sweden) and frozen at -20 °C for later analysis. Inorganic-N analysis was done with standard colorimetric methods on a Foss FIAstar 5000 flow injection analyzer (FOSS Denmark). 211 212 Gravimetric soil water content was determined by drying approximately 10 g of soil for 24 h at 213 105°C. Using information about soil bulk density in the tillage experiment determined in November 2019 (Goméz-Mũnoz et al., 2021), gravimetric water content was used to calculate 214 215 water-filled pore space (WFPS). For 0-20 cm depth, bulk density of PL-S, DS-S, PL+S and DS+S were 1.39, 1.39, 1.29 and 1.31 Mg m⁻³, respectively. 216

217 Data analyses

218 Statistical analyses of the data were performed using R programming language version 4.0.0 219 (Noguchi et al., 2012; R, 2018). All data, except cumulative N₂O emissions and NO₃⁻-N leaching, were split into pre-tillage (15 October 2019 – 2 April 2020) and post-tillage (8 April – 220 221 25 June 2020) seasons for analysis. Main and interacting effects of tillage, straw retention and cover crop on the daily and cumulative N₂O emissions and mineral N were analyzed with the 222 223 linear mixed effect (*lme*) function of the *nlme* package using the restricted maximum likelihood (REML) method. Blocks were treated as a random factor in the analyses. Model assumptions, 224 i.e., normality and homogeneity of variance, were assessed using diagnostic plots of residuals. In 225 226 order to satisfy model assumptions, the daily and cumulative N₂O emissions and mineral N data were log-transformed. For time series of N₂O emissions and mineral N data, auto-correlation 227 between sampling positions were accounted with the corAR1 function. Pairwise comparisons 228 229 between treatments were performed using the estimated marginal mean (*emmeans*) function. The *p*-values were adjusted by Tukey's HSD method, and the hypothesis rejection threshold was 230 0.05. 231

Effects of soil and environmental variables, such as mineral N (NH₄⁺-N and NO₃⁻-N), soil temperature and moisture, to pre-tillage and post-tillage season N₂O emissions were analyzed using multiple regression analysis. Prior to the analysis, N₂O emission data were log-transferred and tested for collinearity between variables using a variance inflation factor (VIF) of 5 as threshold. During analysis, only two-way interactions of variables with respect to N₂O emissions were analyzed to make the results interpretable. The variable interactions that were not significant (p > 0.05) were removed in the final model.

239 Since daily NO_3^- leaching data violated model assumptions, even after transformation, the data 240 were analysed using the non-parametric rank-based model *nparLD*, which is a robust method to analyse repeatedly measured data with non-normal distribution (Noguchi et al., 2012). We used 241 242 F2-LD-F1 design during analysis, where F2 represents the two levels of independent factors, and F1 stands for repeatedly measured leaching data. Since this model can only handle interactions 243 244 between two independent factors at a time, we made three different interaction models during the analysis, i.e., tillage \times residue, residue \times cover crop, and tillage \times cover crop. Treatment effects 245 within factors were evaluated using ANOVA-type statistics. As in parametric tests, the 246 247 hypothesis rejection threshold was set at 0.05.

The overall carbon footprint of the eight treatment combinations was calculated from the direct 248 emissions of N₂O and indirect N₂O emissions from NO₃⁻ leached, and C from straw and fodder 249 250 radish stabilized in the soil. The indirect N_2O emission was estimated using an emission factor of 0.0075, as in the national inventory for Denmark (Nielsen et al., 2020), and a global warming 251 potential (GWP) of 265 for direct and indirect emissions (IPCC, 2014). The annual net change of 252 straw C was calculated from the change in soil C concentrations of PL and DS soil with and 253 without straw retention between 2002 and 2019 (17 years), and bulk density determined in 254 255 November 2019 (Gómez-Muñoz et al., 2021). The retention of cover crop C was based on dry 256 matter in plant cuts collected in January 2020; the total above- and below-ground C from the cover crop returned to the soil was calculated using allometric functions embedded in C-TOOL 257 258 (Taghizadeh-Toosi et al., 2014), and assuming that 10% of this annual input would persist in the soil after 15-20 years (Mutegi et al., 2013). 259

260

261 **Results**

262 Environmental conditions

During the monitoring period (15 October 2019 to 25 June 2020), daily mean air temperature
ranged from -1 to 21°C, and total precipitation was 582 mm (Fig. 1). The winter period
(December to February) was 2-4°C warmer than the average for the period 1991-2020), whereas
precipitation was above average every month between October and February. Rainfall in
February was particularly extreme at 134 mm against an average of 41 mm for the period 1991-

268 2020.

269 The soil temperature at 8 cm depth was recorded continuously in all eight treatment

270 combinations in one of the three experimental blocks. Main effects of tillage, straw residue

271 recycling and cover crop, respectively, are shown as box plots representing the measurements

during the 24-hour periods of individual sampling days (Fig. 2). For the autumn-winter period,

273 paired-sample t-tests of mean soil temperature for these selected days showed small, but

significantly higher soil temperature at 8 cm depth with no-till (p < 0.001), straw retention (p < 0.001)

275 0.05) and the presence of a cover crop (p < 0.01). After termination of the cover crop, the cover

crop treatment still had a positive effect on soil temperature (p < 0.05), while there was no main

effect of tillage or straw retention.

278 Soil WFPS and mineral N dynamics

Soil WFPS (Fig. S1) remained close to 60% during autumn, winter and early spring independent
of treatment, except for a transient increase for the sampling in February after a period with high

rainfall (Fig. 1). During spring and early summer, there was a gradual decline in WFPS in all
treatments to a final level of around 30%, and with a tendency for higher WFPS in cover crop
treatments (+CC) that may reflect moisture retention by the plant material.

Across all treatments, NH₄⁺-N content was always below 10 µg g⁻¹ dry wt. soil. There was a 284 minor increase in NH4⁺-N content in late autumn irrespective of management practice, and a 285 more significant accumulation following termination of the cover crop and planting of faba bean 286 (Fig. S2). During autumn and winter, there were significant effects of tillage practice and cover 287 crop, but not straw retention, on soil NH_4^+ -N content (Table S1), but the levels were low and 288 often variable. After termination of the cover crop, with tillage of the PL treatments and then 289 planting of faba bean in all plots, significant interactions between straw retention and both cover 290 crop residues and tillage treatment were observed. In general, NH4⁺-N accumulation in spring 291 was greater with direct seeding and presence of a cover crop, and with straw retention (up to 6 292 μ g NH₄⁺-N g⁻¹ dry soil). 293

The soil NO₃⁻-N content was in the range 0-5 μ g g⁻¹ dry wt. soil during autumn and winter, and 294 reached 10-15 µg g⁻¹ during spring (Fig. S3). Like NH₄⁺-N, NO₃⁻-N showed a minor increase in 295 296 late autumn independent of treatment, but NO₃⁻-N was subsequently depleted during the wet winter and early spring before tillage and planting. There was in this period a significant effect of 297 straw retention, and an interaction between cover crop and tillage treatment (Table S1). During 298 299 spring, accumulation of soil NO₃⁻-N was observed independent of treatment; the content peaked in late May (close to 15 µg NO₃⁻-N g⁻¹ dry soil in all treatments), and NO₃⁻-N was then depleted 300 during June. There were in this period significant positive effects of cover crop and straw 301

retention on NO_3^-N content, and a significant interaction between tillage and cover crop that suggested greater NO_3^-N accumulation with direct seeding (Table 3).

$304 N_2O$ emissions

Despite a WFPS around 60% and some accumulation of NO_3^- in the soil, N₂O emissions 305 remained low in all treatments during autumn, winter and early spring (Fig. 3). However, there 306 307 was a small positive effect of cover crop on N₂O emissions during that period, and an also 308 interaction between cover crop and tillage (Table 3) that may have been due to occasional higher emissions without a cover crop in PL (Fig. 3). After termination of the cover crop in +CC 309 treatments, and planting of faba bean, there was still little N₂O emission from -CC treatments, 310 but not significantly higher emissions from +CC treatments (Fig. 3, Table 3) with a maximum 311 flux of around 100 µg N₂O-N m⁻² h⁻¹ in treatment PL+S+CC. In all +CC treatments, the highest 312 rates were observed between mid-April and mid-May, but N₂O emissions during June were also 313 higher in +CC compared to -CC treatments. The statistical analysis indicated a significant effects 314 315 of straw retention (+S), and a significant interaction between tillage treatment and cover crop (Table 3). 316



Cumulative N₂O-N emissions ranged from 0.04 to 0.78 kg N₂O-N ha¹ (Fig. S4), with the highest
 amount in treatment PL+S+CC with conventional ploughing, straw retention, and cover crop.

323 Cover crop treatments consistently resulted in higher emissions than treatments without cover324 crop.

325 Nitrate leaching

Fig. S5 shows the NO₃⁻-N leaching during the monitoring period. Cumulated N loss ranged from 21 to 28 kg ha⁻¹ in treatments without CC, and from 4 to 5 kg ha⁻¹ in the presence of fodder radish, corresponding to a reduction of 80-84% (Table 4). There was no significant difference between tillage treatments, although leaching tended to be higher in PL treatments, and in treatments without straw retention. Cover crop was the only variable that affected NO₃⁻-N leaching significantly (Table S2, Fig. S6).

332 Nitrogen uptake by faba bean

The faba bean N uptake at harvest ranged from 179 to 211 kg N ha⁻¹ (Table S4). There were no significant effects of experimental treatments on faba bean seed dry matter yield or N uptake, but a significant (p < 0.01) effect of straw retention on grain N content (Table S5). Yield-scaled N₂O emissions were significantly higher in the presence of a cover crop during the previous winter

337 Overall carbon footprint

For each of the eight treatments, an overall GHG balance was calculated using the observed emissions of N_2O and leaching of NO_3^- during the monitoring period, the annual C stock change in each tillage × straw combination between 2002 and 2019, and a model-estimated long-term retention of C in fodder radish residues (Fig. 4). In all treatment combinations, the overall carbon

footprint was dominated by the long-term trends in soil C stock changes. With straw removal the carbon footprint was always positive, corresponding to C loss from the soil, and this was independent of the other components of the GHG balance. The emissions of N₂O resulting from degradation of cover crop residues, mainly after cultivation in spring, were comparable to the expected retention of C from cover crop residues. The indirect N₂O emissions from NO₃⁻ leaching were comparable to or greater than direct N₂O emissions from the soil in the absence of a cover crop.

349 **Discussion**

Transition from conventional to conservation agriculture will affect the degree of soil 350 disturbance and distribution of crop residues returned. A meta-analysis by Pittelkow et al. (2014) 351 352 indicated a small yield penalty in most cases that suggests a reduction in nutrient use efficiency 353 with conservation agriculture, which in turn could increase environmental losses. In our 354 experiment, fodder radish reduced NO_3^{-1} leaching irrespective of other management factors, but 355 this did not affect the N uptake of the following crop; any difference in N availability may have been compensated by N fixation of the faba bean crop (Rodriguez et al., 2020). There was a 356 positive effect of straw retention in general on grain N, which is consistent with immobilization 357 during the initial phase of straw decomposition of N that is later re-mineralized (Powlson *et al.*, 358 1985). As an intermediate of denitrification, N_2O emissions may serve as an indicator of 359 atmospheric losses that should be minimized to improve N use efficiency and reduce the carbon 360 footprint of conservation agriculture. The following sections discuss possible controls of N2O 361 emissions as basis for the identification of mitigation strategies. 362

363 Tillage

The adoption of direct seeding in the long-term experiment in 2002, 17 years prior to this study, 364 reduced N₂O emissions compared with conventional ploughing, as hypothesized (Table S2). 365 Across straw retention and cover crop treatments, the reduction in N₂O emissions by direct 366 seeding averaged 46%. Within the same field experiment, the corresponding reduction of N_2O 367 368 emissions from direct seeding during autumn, winter and spring from winter barley in 2007-2008 369 (Mutegi et al., 2010), and from fodder radish in 2008-2009 (Petersen et al., 2011), were 27 and 31%, respectively. These observations are consistent with the meta-analysis of van Kessel *et al.*, 370 (2013) concluding that long-term (>10 years) reduced- or no-till management enhances the N₂O 371 372 mitigation potential.

373 Galdos et al. (2019) found, using X-ray computed tomography, a larger total pore volume and higher connectivity at 0-12 cm depth in a clay soil under zero-tillage compared to conventional 374 tillage after 30 years. VandenBygaart et al. (1999) investigated pore structure of a silt loam soil in 375 a no-till chronosequence and found that the number of biopores (>500 µm) was lower under no-376 377 till management four years after the transition to no-till, but higher after six and eleven years. In the field experiment used in the present study, Abdollahi and Munkholm (2017) found a lower 378 379 total porosity in DS compared to PL at 11 years after transition, in accordance with the bulk density 380 measurements given above. However, it should be noted that biopores may be under-represented in the 100-cm³ samples used here for determination of bulk density when comparing with larger 381 sample volumes (da Silva et al., 2021), and aeration through biopores created by roots and 382 383 earthworm activity could be a constraint on N₂O emissions in no-till soil.

384 Straw retention

Straw retained under conservation tillage is prone to slower decomposition compared to
conventional systems because of the limited mixing with other soil constituents and organisms

387 (Mitchell *et al.*, 2013). Also, the potential for long-term stabilization is less for residues decomposing at the soil surface (Goméz-Mũnoz et al., 2021). Although significant effects of 388 straw retention on mineral N were identified, straw was not related to N₂O emissions in neither 389 autumn-winter nor spring. Aulakh et al. (1991) studied N₂O emissions and denitrification from 390 residues of wheat and other crops when mixed with soil or left at the soil surface; in all 391 392 treatments, the stimulation of N₂O emissions and denitrification occurred mainly during the initial 8-10 days of incubation, which implies that any direct effect would be associated with the 393 initial stage of straw decomposition. In the present field study, oat straw was returned to the soil 394 395 surface after harvest in both tillage systems in August 2019, two months before monitoring began, and therefore direct effects of straw retention on N₂O emissions could not be expected 396 until spring ploughing in PL treatments. 397

398 Cover crop effects

Although the growth period is shorter and characterized by lower temperatures compared to the main growing season, fodder radish may contribute a substantial amount of C to the soil during growth and *via* crop residues (Mutegi *et al.*, 2011). Using ¹⁴CO₂ pulse labelling, these authors showed that more than 70% of the C fixed by fodder radish was incorporated at 0-10 cm depth. Yet, this C input from fodder radish did not lead to substantial N₂O emissions during the growth period, whereas termination of the cover crop triggered N₂O emissions.

405 The fact that N_2O emissions after termination were lower in DS treatments indicates that

406 depletion of soil O₂ during the decomposition of CC residues, incorporated by ploughing in PL

407 treatments, was a driver of N₂O emissions. Rochette *et al.* (2008), analyzing N₂O response ratios

408 of no-till vs. ploughing as a function of soil wetness, found that tillage treatments had lower or

409 similar N₂O emissions from soil with good and moderate drainage, but no-till showed higher

emissions than ploughing in poorly drained soil, which corroborates the conclusion that soil
aeration at the depth of residue decomposition is a key factor regulating emissions. Song *et al.*(2019) found a strong relationship between soil O₂ and N₂O in soil profiles, but N₂O emissions
will also depend on the potential for N₂O reduction during transport to the surface.

The accumulation of NO_3^- observed in the topsoil during autumn and winter (Fig. S3) was mainly derived from organic matter input in previous years, which would have a very different distribution in the soil profile of no-till and ploughed soil. As a consequence, the contact between decomposing residues and soil NO_3^- was probably better in ploughed soil where residues and fertilizers are incorporated each year, and this in turn may have enhanced N₂O emissions as shown by Taghizadeh-Toosi *et al.* (2021) in a manipulation experiment with mixed or layered distribution of crop residues, and two levels of, respectively, soil moisture and NO_3^- content.

Previous meta-analyses have documented that cover crops could reduce N leaching by 50-70%
compared with bare fallow (Basche *et al.*, 2014; Valkama *et al.*, 2015). The present study
indicated a reduction of 80-84%, and hence the effect was largely independent of tillage and
residue management on this soil type, in accordance with previous results (Hansen *et al.*, 2015).

425 Soil conditions

Soil WFPS followed the same pattern in all treatments. During autumn and winter with aboveaverage precipitation, the WFPS level at sampling was always close to 60%, which has been
proposed to be a threshold for N₂O emissions based on controlled laboratory experiments
(Aulakh *et al.*, 1991; Shelton *et al.*, 2000). The N₂O emissions remained low in this period
despite some mineral N availability (Figs S2 and S3), although higher rates associated with rain
events could have been missed. In contrast, significant N₂O emissions occurred during April and

432 May 2020 where soil WFPS was below 60% (Fig. S3), but mainly where fodder radish residues were returned. Together this indicates that, for the site investigated here, intense decomposer 433 activity was more important as driver for N_2O emissions than soil drainage, in accordance with 434 previous observations at this experimental site (Brozyna et al., 2013; Pugesgaard et al., 2017). 435 As reported by others, soil temperature during autumn-winter was higher with no-till (Yang et 436 437 al., 2018), straw retention (Chen et al., 2007) and a cover crop (Kahimba, 2008). The cover crop 438 maintained a positive effect on soil temperature after termination, possibly because cover crop 439 residues promoted soil warming during spring due to a reduction in soil bulk density (Li et al., 440 2015; Chalise et al., 2019). Considering the importance of temperature for microbial transformations of C and N, such effects could influence N₂O emissions. Thus, Petersen et al. 441 442 (2011) concluded that a large proportion of emitted N₂O was produced above a soil depth of 5 cm in both tilled and non-tilled soil after termination of a fodder radish cover crop. While there 443 was a significant effect of temperature during autumn-winter (Table S3), N₂O emissions 444 445 remained low independent of treatment in this period (Fig. 3); during spring, any effect of temperature was confounded by the main effect of cover crop. 446

447 *Carbon footprints of conservation agriculture practices*

The carbon footprints showed a GHG mitigation potential of direct seeding (no-till) and straw retention, and a neutral effect of cover crop, indicating that conservation tillage practices will have net benefits for the GHG balance of sandy loam soil in wet temperate climates. It should, however, be emphasized that N₂O emissions from main crops, i.e., fertilization of the previous oat crop, and decomposition of residues after harvest of oat and faba bean crops, were not included in the carbon footprints in Fig. 4, which represent effects of management outside the main crop growing period. For example, Petersen *et al.* (2011) quantified N₂O emissions in

PL+S and DS+S of the same long-term tillage experiment with and without fodder radish as
winter cover crop, and here pig slurry was applied after termination of the cover crop. The
combined N₂O emissions from residue and slurry decomposition reported by Petersen *et al.*(2011) corresponded to 0.7-1.6 Mg CO₂eq and thus were considerably higher than those from
residues alone in the present study. Therefore, N₂O emissions after fertilization could outweigh
the net benefits of the scenarios with straw retention reported in Fig. 4.

461 The largest component of the carbon footprint was the change in soil C associated with straw 462 retention. It should be noted that cover crops had been part of all treatments in previous years 463 (Goméz-Mũnoz et al., 2021), and therefore the soil C change in Fig. 4 also included a 464 contribution from cover crops. The soil C retention observed for fodder radish in 2019-2020 may indicate the relative importance of cover crops and straw retention, respectively, for the soil C 465 466 stock changes. In a global meta-analysis, McClelland et al. (2021) estimated the annual C input from cover crops to be on average 0.21 Mg ha⁻¹. These authors also found that the response to 467 cover crops was smaller in wet temperate compared to warmer climates, and that the apparent 468 effect of cover crops on soil C stocks did not change with time since adoption. This has recently 469 470 been corroborated by a long-term study in Denmark showing that the soil C effect of cover crops 471 saturate after a period of approximately 15 years (Jensen *et al.*, 2021). It indicates that the longterm retention of residue C in wet temperate climates is uncertain and, accordingly, that the 472 retention of fodder radish C estimated from plant cuts in the present study, 0.23-0.43 Mg ha⁻¹, 473 474 may be too high. If true, this would increase the relative importance of N₂O emissions for the GHG balance. 475

The use of a cover crop was highly effective in preventing NO_3^- leaching, which is a pollutant of recipient water bodies and an indirect source of N₂O, but the direct emissions of N₂O from cover

478 crop residues were far greater than indirect emissions prevented in this study. This is in contrast 479 to the results of a global meta-analysis of cover crop effects (Abdalla et al., 2019) which concluded there was no significant effect of cover crops on N_2O emissions. The short duration (9) 480 481 months) of the present study may have resulted in a higher relative importance of N_2O emissions 482 associated with cover crop residues, but crop residues have also been identified as a main driver 483 of N₂O emissions across entire four-year crop rotations on the light-textured soil investigated here (Brozyna et al., 2013; Pugesgaard et al., 2017). Thus, confounding effects of analysing field 484 data across several soil types, climate zones and management practices may prevent the 485 486 observation of effects that are seen with a greater disaggregation of the data (Chen *et al.*, 2013). As GHG mitigation strategy, the fodder radish crop in the present study depended on the 487 concurrent C storage which, however, will be less permanent than N₂O in the atmosphere. Direct 488 seeding resulted in less N₂O emission than spring tillage, and the combination of GHG 489 mitigation methods under conservation agriculture should be further explored. 490

491 Conclusion

This study investigated effects of tillage practice, straw retention, and a winter cover crop on 492 N_2O emissions and NO_3^- leaching, during the cover crop growth period and subsequent 493 494 decomposition in spring. The study did not find effects of straw retention on nitrate leaching or 495 N₂O emissions, but straw retention was critical for the overall GHG balance through soil carbon storage, and without straw retention after harvest there was always a positive GHG balance, i.e., 496 net emissions. As expected, fodder radish was highly effective in reducing NO₃⁻ leaching during 497 winter, but N_2O emissions after spring cultivation were enhanced; the increase in direct N_2O 498 499 emissions could in part be compensated by storage of residue C and by the adoption of direct 500 seeding. Even though N losses associated with a main crop were not covered in this study, the

- 501 results indicated that direct seeding, straw retention and the use of cover crops could
- substantially improve the carbon footprint of agroecosystems on sandy soil in a wet temperate
- 503 climate.

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Date	Field operation			
12 August 2019	Harvest of oat			
19 August 2019	Spreading of fodder radish seeds (14 kg ha ⁻¹) in +CC plots			
19 November 2019	Spraying with glyphosate in Glyphomax HL, 1.5 l ha ⁻¹ in $-CC$ plots (bare soil) ¹			
14 March 2020	Spraying with glyphosate in Glyphomax HL, 21 ha ⁻¹ (herbicide)			
30 March 2020	Ploughing, PL plots			
31 March 2020 Sowing of faba bean (228 kg ha ⁻¹)				
6 May 2020 Fertilisation with PK 0-4-10 (800 kg ha ⁻¹)				
20 May 2020	Spraying with Fighter 480, 1 l ha ⁻¹ (herbicide), Profi Mn nitrate 235, $1.5 l$ ha ⁻¹ and Contact, $0.2 l$ ha ⁻¹ (additive).			

Table 1. Field management during April 2019 to May 2020.

 $\overline{}^{1}$ All four tillage and straw treatment combinations

Main plot	Subplots	Sub-subplots	Key			
Straw removal (-S)	Ploughing (PL)	Cover crop (+CC)	PL-S+CC			
		No cover crop (-CC)	PL-S-CC			
	Direct seeding (DS)	Cover crop (+CC)	DS-S+CC			
		No cover crop (-CC)	DS-S-CC			
Straw retention (+S)	Ploughing (PL)	Cover crop (+CC)	PL+S+CC			
		No cover crop (-CC)	PL+S-CC			
	Direct seeding (DS)	Cover crop (+CC)	DS+S+CC			
		No cover crop (-CC)	DS+S-CC			
Measurement variables						
N ₂ O and CO ₂ emissions						
Soil mineral N dynamics						
NO ₃ ⁻ leaching						
Soil moisture and temperature						

5 Table 2. An overview of treatments and variables that were measured in the experiment.

Table 3. Analysis of variance (ANOVA) of temporal N₂O emissions. Significance of *p* values:

8	*** < 0.001,	** < 0.01,	* < 0.05,	non-significance	(ns) >	0.05.
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		Before spring tillage					After sp	ring tillage
Treatments	numDF	denDF	F	р	numDF	denDF	F	р
Intercept	1	244	26224	***	1	178	3898	***
Tillage	1	244	0.022	ns	1	178	7.94	**
Straw	1	244	0.91	ns	1	178	0.062	ns
Cover Crop	1	244	12.67	***	1	178	72.78	***
Date	11	244	3.32	***	8	178	8.84	***
Tillage*Straw	1	244	0.29	ns	1	178	0.14	ns
Straw*Cover Crop	1	244	1.09	ns	1	178	1.2	ns
Tillage*Cover Crop	1	244	4.23	*	1	178	0.41	ns

11 **Table 4.** Cumulated emissions of N_2O , and of NO_3^- leaching, between October 2019 and June

12 2020. The experimental treatments were: Ploughing (PL); direct seeding (DS); straw retention

- 13 (+S); straw removal (-S); growth of fodder radish as a winter cover crop (+CC); no cover crop (-
- 14 CC).

Cumulative loss (kg N ha ⁻¹)				
N ₂ O-N	NO ₃ -N			
$0.19 ~\pm~ 0.18$	27.7 ± 3.3			
$0.56 ~\pm~ 0.07$	$5.0~\pm~0.8$			
0.07 \pm 0.01	25.3 ± 3.9			
$0.35 ~\pm~ 0.06$	$4.5 ~\pm~ 1.9$			
$0.06 ~\pm~ 0.03$	$20.9 ~\pm~ 1.2$			
$0.78 \hspace{0.2cm} \pm \hspace{0.2cm} 0.18$	$4.3 ~\pm~ 0.3$			
0.04 ± 0.02	$22.2 ~\pm~ 0.7$			
0.41 ± 0.14	3.6 ± 1.1			
	Cumulative loss N2O-N 0.19 ± 0.18 0.56 ± 0.07 0.07 ± 0.01 0.35 ± 0.06 0.06 ± 0.03 0.78 ± 0.18 0.04 ± 0.02 0.41 ± 0.14			



Figure 1. Daily average air temperature and precipitation during experimental period. Note: Blue line shows air temperature, and grey bars show Precipitation.



Figure 2. Average soil temperature at 8 cm below the soil surface in different treatments, which include tillage (PL: ploughing, DS: direct seeding), residue management (S+: straw retained, S-: straw removed), cover crops (CC+: with cover crop, CC-: without cover crop). Tillage was performed on 03 April 2020. Middle blue dots and solid lines of the boxplot represent mean and median values respectively. Whiskers represent minimum and maximum temperature at the particular dates of the measurements. Black dots represent extreme values which were outside the range. Error bars are standard errors of mean (s.e.m.).



Figure 3. Nitrous oxide (N₂O) emissions from different treatments determined in the all treatments during October 2019 to July 2020 (error bars represent s.e.m.; n = 3) different treatments, which include tillage (PL: ploughing, DS: direct seeding), residue management (S+: straw retained, S-: straw removed), cover crops (CC+: with cover crop, CC-: without cover crop). On 14th March, the cover crop were sprayed with glyphosate, and on 30th March the cover crop residues were ploughed in PL treatments. Error bars are standard errors of mean (s.e.m.).



Figure 4. Net greenhouse gas balance (red filled circles) of the eight combinations of ploughing (PL) *vs.* direct seeding (DS), straw retention (+S) *vs.* straw removal (-S), and growth of fodder radish as a winter cover crop (+CC) *vs.* no cover crop (-CC). Positive effects indicate net emission of greenhouse gases from the soil. Nitrous oxide emissions and NO_3^- leaching was measured between October 2019 and June 2020. The changes in carbon stock represent the long-term retention after around 20 years.

Supplementary Material

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Declaration of competing interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.
Authorship contribution statement

Arezoo Taghizadeh-Toosi: Writing of original draft, investigation, formal analysis, visualization, revieing, editing, final submission.

Khagendra R. Baral: Statistical analysis, formal analysis, editing.

Søren o. Petersen: Writing, Reviewing, editing, Investigation.

Elly M. Hansen: Nitrate leaching calculations, reviewing, and editing.

Jørgen E. Olesen: Reviewing, editing, and funding acquisition.