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5 **Soil carbon dioxide and methane fluxes as affected by**
6 **tillage and N fertilization in dryland conditions**
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24 **Abstract**

25 Background and Aims. The effects of tillage and N fertilization on CO₂ and CH₄
26 emissions are a cause for concern worldwide. This paper quantifies these effects in a
27 Mediterranean dryland area.

28

29 Methods. CO₂ and CH₄ fluxes were measured in two field experiments. A long-term
30 experiment compared two types of tillage (NT, no-tillage, and CT, conventional
31 intensive tillage) and three N fertilization rates (0, 60 and 120 kg N ha⁻¹). A short-term
32 experiment compared NT and CT, three N fertilization doses (0, 75 and 150 kg N ha⁻¹)
33 and two types of fertilizer (mineral N and organic N with pig slurry). Aboveground and
34 root biomass C inputs, soil organic carbon stocks and grain yield were also quantified.

35

36 Results. The NT treatment showed a greater mean CO₂ flux than the CT treatment in
37 both experiments. In the long-term experiment CH₄ oxidation was greater under NT,
38 whereas in the short-term experiment it was greater under CT. The fertilization
39 treatments also affected CO₂ emissions in the short-term experiment, with the greatest
40 fluxes when 75 and 150 kg organic N ha⁻¹ was applied. Overall, the amount of CO₂
41 emitted ranged between 0.47 and 6.0 kg CO₂-equivalent kg grain⁻¹. NT lowered yield-
42 scaled emissions in both experiments, but these treatment effects were largely driven by
43 an increase in grain yield.

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45 Conclusions. In dryland Mediterranean agroecosystems the combination of NT and
46 medium rates of either mineral or organic N fertilization can be an appropriate strategy
47 for optimizing CO₂ and CH₄ emissions and grain yield.

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49

50 **Keywords**

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52 Carbon dioxide, Mediterranean dryland, methane, nitrogen fertilization, tillage, soil
53 organic carbon, yield-scaled GHG emissions.

54

55 **Introduction**

56 The agricultural sector is responsible for 10%-12% of the global anthropogenic
57 emissions of greenhouse gases (GHG) (Smith et al. 2007). This effect could be greatly
58 mitigated through a proper choice of crop and land management systems. Moreover,
59 optimized agronomic practices can also increase the soil C sink, a climate change
60 mitigation measure that was proposed in the Kyoto Protocol (United Nations, 1998)
61 (Smith, 2004). There is therefore a great need to identify agricultural practices with the
62 smallest GHG emission footprints while maintaining high crop productivity.

63 Carbon dioxide (CO₂) and methane (CH₄) are two of the most important GHG owing to
64 their global warming potential (GWP) and long residence time in the atmosphere
65 (IPCC, 1995). Soil emission of CO₂ from agricultural systems causes a loss of soil
66 organic carbon (SOC) that directly affects the fertility and sustainability of soils
67 (Davidson and Janssens, 2006). Soil CO₂ emissions are the result of SOC mineralization
68 and root respiration processes. However, only the mineralization process represents a
69 net C loss from the soil to the atmosphere owing to its heterotrophic nature (Morell et
70 al. 2012). Agricultural soils can also act as net emitters or oxidizers of CH₄, depending
71 on the relative balance of the methanotrophic and methanogenic processes (Hütsch,
72 2001). The methanotrophic process involves the microbial oxidation of CH₄ in aerobic
73 conditions while the methanogenic process entails the anaerobic digestion of soil
74 organic matter (Le Mer and Roger, 2001). Although those processes can occur
75 simultaneously in arable ecosystems, upland soils usually act as net CH₄ oxidizers
76 (Conrad, 1995).

77 Tillage and N fertilization of cropland imply a significant investment by farmers and
78 therefore have great potential for optimization. They also play a major role in the
79 mechanisms that drive the production, transport and consumption of GHG in soils.
80 During tillage operations, soil structure is greatly disturbed and the CO₂ contained in the
81 soil pore system is lost due to a process known as degassing (Reicosky et al. 1997). In
82 addition to this physical release of gas, tillage also affects soil microbial activity
83 through changes in substrate availability and micro-environmental conditions. For
84 instance, tillage buries crop residues, thus increasing the contact between C-rich
85 substrates and soil particles where greater soil moisture and nutrients are available
86 (Balesdent et al. 2000; Paustian et al. 1997). Tillage also accelerates the breakdown of

87 soil aggregates, thus releasing the organic carbon protected within them and increasing
88 its availability to soil microorganisms (Beare et al. 1994). Tillage can also influence the
89 processes that regulate the emission and/or consumption of CH₄ through its impact on
90 the soil water regime, soil structure and microbial diversity. For instance, Ball et al.
91 (1999) hypothesized that no-tillage (NT) increases the oxidation of CH₄ because of the
92 absence of soil disturbance, greater gas diffusivity, and the reduction of damage to CH₄
93 oxidizers compared with conventional tillage (CT). This hypothesis has been tested in
94 field experiments, in which a greater (Ball et al. 1999; Kessavalou et al. 1998) or equal
95 (Alluvione et al. 2009; Piva et al. 2012; Sainju et al. 2012) CH₄ oxidative capacity was
96 found under NT than under CT. Venterea et al. (2005) reported an interaction between
97 tillage and N fertilization treatments, with greater or lower CH₄ oxidation under NT
98 depending on the type of fertilizer.

99 The application of nitrogen fertilizer affects soil C stocks and GHG emissions. In a
100 semiarid area of NE Spain, Morell et al. (2011) found an increase in the amount of C
101 sequestered in the soil after 15 years of mineral N fertilizer application as a result of
102 greater crop residue production. The same authors also found greater CO₂ emissions
103 when mineral N was applied in wet years, but no differences between fertilized and
104 unfertilized treatments in dry years. The type of fertilizer applied also has a great
105 influence on soil CO₂ emissions (Ding et al. 2007). In turn, several studies (e.g. Hütsch
106 et al. 1993) have shown that the addition of N reduces the uptake of atmospheric CH₄
107 by soil. This finding has been mainly related to a direct inhibition of CH₄ oxidation by
108 ammonium in the soil (Conrad, 1996; Whittenbury et al. 1970). When slurries (e.g. pig
109 slurry) are used as fertilizers, soil respiration is enhanced and can promote anaerobic
110 microsites, thus reducing the oxidation of CH₄ and increasing its production (Meijide et
111 al. 2010).

112 The main characteristic of rainfed Mediterranean agroecosystems is the lack of water
113 available for crop growth (Cantero-Martínez et al. 2007), a limiting factor that also
114 affects crop response to N fertilization (Cantero-Martínez et al. 2003; Ryan et al. 2009).
115 Although the benefits of irrigation in terms of crop productivity in Mediterranean areas
116 have been clear since ancient history, the scarcity of water usually prevents the
117 establishment of new irrigated areas.

118 In Mediterranean Spain, the use of reduced tillage or no-tillage techniques has been
119 suggested as a promising strategy for increasing the amount of SOC because higher soil
120 water conservation and greater physical protection of carbon within soil aggregates
121 under NT in comparison with CT lead to an increase in C inputs (Cantero-Martínez et
122 al. 2007; Álvaro-Fuentes et al. 2008a). Furthermore, the application of animal waste to
123 agricultural soils is a common practice in Mediterranean Spain because of the intensive
124 animal production in the area (Yagüe and Quílez, 2013).

125 Prior to the present study, Morell et al. (2011) studied the effect of different types of
126 tillage and rates of mineral N on CO₂ emissions in the same semiarid area. Also,
127 Meijide et al. (2010) quantified the emissions of both CO₂ and CH₄ under different
128 types of organic and mineral fertilization. However, in the literature there is a lack of
129 CH₄ data to better understand C cycling in agroecosystems. To date, no studies have
130 been conducted in the Mediterranean area to investigate the impact of different tillage,
131 N rates and fertilizer types on the fluxes of CH₄ and CO₂, including their effect on the
132 yield-scaled emissions of those gases, in order to evaluate their efficiency in terms of
133 GHG emitted per unit of grain mass produced.

134 Therefore, our objective was to quantify the interactive effects of tillage and N
135 fertilization type and rate on the emission of CH₄ and CO₂ as well as on biomass C
136 inputs and SOC stocks, in order to identify environmentally sustainable practices while
137 maintaining crop yields. We hypothesized that the interaction between tillage and N
138 fertilization practices would affect crop performance and soil microbial activity and,
139 consequently, GHG emission and soil C storage in Mediterranean rainfed cropping
140 systems.

141

142 **Material and Methods**

143 *Sites and treatments*

144 *Long-term experiment*

145 A tillage and mineral N fertilization experiment was established in 1996 in Agramunt,
146 NE Spain (41°48'36''N, 1°07'06''E, 330 masl). The climate in the area is
147 Mediterranean temperate, with mean values of annual precipitation, annual air
148 temperature and annual reference evapotranspiration (FAO Penman-Monteith
149 methodology) of 430 mm, 13.8 °C and 855 mm, respectively. The soil was classified as
150 Typic Xerofluvent (Soil Survey Staff, 1975). Selected soil properties at the start of the
151 experiment in the 0-30 cm layer were as follows: pH (H₂O, 1:2.5) was 8.5; electrical
152 conductivity (1:5) was 0.15 dS m⁻¹; organic C concentration was 7.6 g kg⁻¹; and sand
153 (2000-50 µm), silt (50-2 µm) and clay (<2 µm) content were 465, 417 and 118 g kg⁻¹,
154 respectively. Two types of tillage (no-tillage and conventional intensive tillage with a
155 moldboard plow) and three mineral N fertilization rates (0, 60 and 120 kg N ha⁻¹) were
156 compared in a randomized block design with three replications. The medium N rate
157 (60 kg N ha⁻¹) was chosen according to the productive potential in the area, while the
158 high N rate (120 kg N ha⁻¹) was chosen because it was the most common among
159 farmers. Plot size was 50 x 6 m. The NT treatment consisted of a total herbicide
160 application (1.5 L 36% glyphosate per hectare) to control weeds before sowing. The CT
161 treatment consisted of one pass of a moldboard plow to 25 cm depth followed by one or
162 two passes of a cultivator to 15 cm depth, both performed in September-October.
163 Mineral N fertilizer was applied manually and split into two applications: one-third of
164 the dose as ammonium sulphate (21% N) before seeding and the rest of the dose as
165 ammonium nitrate (33.5% N) at the beginning of tillering in February. The cropping
166 system consisted of a barley monocropping (with *Hordeum vulgare* L.; cv. Hispanic in
167 the 1996-2010 period and cv. Cierzo in the 2010-2013 periods), which is a traditional
168 system in the area. Planting was performed in November with a direct drilling machine
169 with disk openers set to 2-4 cm depth and 17 cm between rows. Harvesting was carried
170 out with a commercial medium-sized combine in June. The straw residue was chopped
171 and spread over the soil by the same machine. The historical management of the field
172 prior to the establishment of the experiment was based on conventional intensive tillage
173 with moldboard plowing and winter grain cereal monoculture.

174 *Short-term experiment*

175 An experimental field was established in Senés de Alcubierre, NE Spain (41°54'12''N,
176 0°30'15''W, 395 masl) in 2010. Mean values of annual precipitation, annual air
177 temperature and annual evapotranspiration (FAO Penman-Monteith methodology) in
178 the area are 327 mm, 13.4 °C and 1197 mm, respectively. The soil was classified as
179 Typic Calcixerept (Soil Survey Staff, 1975). Selected soil properties at the start of the
180 experiment in the 0-30 cm depth were as follows: pH (H₂O, 1:2.5) was 8.0; electrical
181 conductivity (1:5) was 1.04 dS m⁻¹; organic C (g kg⁻¹) was 15.6; organic N (g kg⁻¹) was
182 1.4; and sand (2000-50 µm), silt (50-2 µm) and clay (<2 µm) content were 62, 633 and
183 305 g kg⁻¹, respectively. The cropping system before and during the experiment
184 consisted of a barley (cv. Meseta) monoculture. During the four years prior to the set-up
185 of the experiment, soil management consisted of NT with mineral N fertilizer additions
186 at rates of 75-100 kg ha⁻¹. Before that period two passes with a subsoiler or a chisel had
187 been used since the 1970s.

188 Two tillage systems (CT, with two passes of chisel plowing, and NT), three N
189 fertilization doses (0, 75 and 150 kg N ha⁻¹) and two types of fertilizer products (mineral
190 N and organic N with pig slurry) were compared. The highest N rate (150 kg N ha⁻¹)
191 was chosen according to the most common dose applied by farmers in the area, while
192 the medium rate (75 kg N ha⁻¹) was chosen to evaluate the possibility of reducing the N
193 application rate without compromising crop yields. The NT treatment consisted of a
194 total herbicide application (1.5 L 36% glyphosate per hectare) to control weeds before
195 sowing. Mineral N fertilizer was applied manually. The treatment with 150 kg N ha⁻¹
196 was split into two applications: half of the dose as ammonium sulphate (21% N) before
197 tillage and the other half as ammonium nitrate (33.5% N) at the beginning of tillering in
198 February. For the 75 kg N ha⁻¹ treatment the entire dose was applied as ammonium
199 nitrate at tillering. Likewise, in the treatments with organic fertilization, the 75 kg N ha⁻¹
200 rate was applied entirely at tillering and the 150 kg N ha⁻¹ rate was split into two
201 applications of 75 kg N ha⁻¹ each, one before tillage and the other one at tillering. The
202 organic fertilization treatment consisted of the application of pig slurry from a
203 commercial farm of the area. The slurry was conventionally surface-spread using a
204 commercial vacuum tanker fitted with a splashplate. The machinery was previously
205 calibrated to apply the precise dose after analyzing the pig slurry composition. The main
206 characteristics of the pig slurry applied during the whole experimental period are shown

207 in Table 1. As in the long-term experiment, planting was performed in November with a
208 direct drilling machine with disk openers set to 2-4 cm depth and 17 cm between rows
209 and harvesting was carried out with a commercial medium-sized combine in June. The
210 straw residue was chopped and spread over the soil by the same machine. The
211 experiment consisted of a randomized complete block design with three replications.
212 Plot size was 40 x 12 m in the organic N fertilization treatment and 40 x 6 m in the
213 mineral N fertilization treatment.

214 For both experiments, air temperature and rainfall observations were recorded on a daily
215 basis using an automatic weather station located at each experimental site.

216 *Gas sampling and analyses*

217 CO₂ and CH₄ emissions were measured every two or three weeks with the non-steady-
218 state chamber methodology (Hutchinson and Mosier, 1981). Additional gas
219 measurements were made the day prior to fertilizer application and 4 and 72 hours after
220 the application. The measurement period covered three cropping seasons (2010-2011,
221 2011-2012 and 2012-2013) in the short-term experiment and two cropping seasons
222 (2010-2011 and 2011-2012) in the long-term experiment. Samplings were also
223 performed during the summer-autumn fallow period (June-November) in order to
224 quantify emissions for the entire year. However, owing to methodological constraints,
225 the first gas samplings started in both experiments in February 2011 at the time of top-
226 dressing fertilizer application.

227 At the beginning of both experiments, two polyvinyl chloride rings (31.5 cm internal
228 diameter) per plot were inserted 5 cm into the soil of each experimental plot. The rings
229 were only removed at the time of tillage, planting and harvesting operations, allowing a
230 minimum lapse of 24 hours following ring rearrangement at the initial location before
231 any gas sampling to avoid the concomitant effects of soil disturbance on gas emissions.
232 Polyvinyl chloride chambers (20 cm height) were fitted into the rings when
233 measurements were performed. A polytetrafluoroethylene vent (10 cm long and 0.4 cm
234 internal diameter) was installed on one side of the chambers to prevent possible changes
235 in pressure during the deployment of chambers and gas sampling. The chambers were
236 covered with a reflective insulation fabric (model Aislatermic, Arelux, Zaragoza, Spain)
237 that consisted of two reflective layers of aluminum film bonded to an inner layer of
238 polyethylene bubbles in order to diminish internal increases in temperature. A metal

239 fitting was attached in the center of the top of the chamber and lined with two silicon-
240 Teflon septa as a sampling port.

241 Soil gas samples (15 mL) were obtained with polypropylene syringes at 0, 30 and 60
242 minutes after closing the chamber and injected into 12-mL Exetainer® borosilicate glass
243 vials (model 038W, Labco, High Wycombe, UK). Each block of the experiment (i.e., 10
244 treatments) was sampled by one operator in order to reduce as much as possible the
245 amount of time during the sampling process, thus avoiding temperature-induced biases
246 (Rochette et al. 2012). Gas samples were analyzed with an Agilent 7890A gas
247 chromatography system equipped with a flame ionization detector + methanizer and two
248 valves in order to obtain the gases of interest (i.e., CH₄ and CO₂) for each gas injection.
249 A HP-Plot Q column (30 m long, 0.32 mm in section and 20 μm thick) was used, with a
250 15-m-long pre-column of the same characteristics. The injector and the oven
251 temperatures were set to 50 °C. The temperatures of the flame ionization detector and
252 the methanizer were set to 250 and 375 °C, respectively. For the detector, H₂ was used
253 as a carrier gas and N₂ as a make-up gas at 35 and 25 mL min⁻¹, respectively. The
254 volume of sample injected was 1 mL. The system was calibrated using ultra-high purity
255 CH₄ and CO₂ standards (Carbueros Metálicos, Barcelona, Spain). Emission rates were
256 calculated taking into account the linear increase in the gas concentration within the
257 chamber over the sampling time and correcting for the air temperature.

258 *Biomass sampling and analyses*

259 In the short-term experiment, crop aboveground biomass was measured right before the
260 harvest in the three growing seasons studied by cutting the plants at the soil surface
261 level along 0.5 m of the seeding line at three randomly selected locations per plot.
262 Taking into account that the distance between seeding lines was 0.2 m, the sampled area
263 in each plot was 0.3 m². The samples were dried at 65 °C for 48 h and weighed. Then
264 the dried samples were threshed and the grain was weighed. Aboveground biomass per
265 unit of area was calculated by dividing the weight of the aboveground biomass
266 excluding the grain by the area sampled.

267 Root biomass was measured at flowering in April 2012 and in May 2013 in the short-
268 term experiment. For each plot, four soil cores (0-30 cm) were obtained, two in the
269 seeding line and two between lines. Special care was taken to avoid wheel track
270 locations. Each soil sample was dispersed with a 5% sodium hexametaphosphate

271 solution in a reciprocal shaker for at least 30 minutes and then washed by hand with a
272 low-pressure shower jet through a 0.5-mm sieve to recover the roots, following the
273 methodology proposed by Böhm (1979). Once washed, the sieve was submerged in a
274 tray filled with water in order to ease the skimming of the roots. Finally, the roots were
275 oven-dried at 65 °C and weighed. Root biomass per unit of area was calculated by
276 dividing the weight of roots by the area sampled with the core. Afterwards, above- and
277 belowground biomass samples were analyzed for C content by dry combustion. The
278 above- and belowground biomass C inputs were calculated by multiplying the weight of
279 each fraction of biomass by its C content.

280 Grain yield of each treatment was measured in 2012 in the long-term experiment and in
281 2011, 2012 and 2013 in the short-term experiment by harvesting the plots with a
282 commercial combine and weighing the grain. After determining the grain moisture
283 content, grain yield was corrected to 10% moisture.

284 *Soil sampling and analyses*

285 Soil samples from the 0-5 cm soil layer were collected on each sampling date near each
286 gas sampling chamber. Water-filled pore space (WFPS) was calculated as the quotient
287 between soil volumetric water content and total porosity. The volumetric water content
288 was calculated as the gravimetric water content times the soil bulk density. The
289 gravimetric water content was obtained by oven-drying the soil samples at 105 °C for
290 the long-term experiment and at 50 °C for the short-term experiment until constant
291 weight. In the short-term experiment, soil was dried at 50 °C in order to avoid the
292 dehydration of the gypsum present in the soil in this experiment (Porta, 1998). Soil
293 porosity was calculated as a function of soil bulk density assuming a particle density of
294 2.65 Mg m⁻³. Soil bulk density was determined using the cylinder method (Grossman
295 and Reinsch, 2002). Moreover, on each gas sampling date, soil temperature was
296 measured at 5 cm soil depth with a hand-held probe.

297 In the short-term experiment, a soil sampling was performed at the end of the
298 experiment (June 2013) to quantify SOC stocks. Two sampling areas per plot were
299 selected and soil samples were taken from the whole soil profile at five depths: 0-5, 5-
300 10, 10-25, 25-50 and 50-75 cm. For the same depths, soil bulk density was determined
301 using the cylinder method (Grossman and Reinsch, 2002). Once in the laboratory, the
302 samples were 2-mm sieved and then air-dried. The SOC concentration was determined

303 using the dichromate wet oxidation method of Walkley and Black described by Nelson
304 and Sommers (1996). During the oxidation, extensive heating at 150 °C for 30 minutes
305 was used in order to increase the digestion of SOC (Mebius, 1960). Finally, the SOC
306 stock was calculated using the equivalent soil mass procedure proposed by Ellert and
307 Bettany (1995).

308 *Calculations and data analysis*

309 For both experiments, the cumulative soil C loss and gain due to the fluxes of CO₂ and
310 CH₄, respectively, during the whole experimental period were quantified on a mass
311 basis (i.e., kg C ha⁻¹) using the trapezoid rule. Also, for both experiments the yield-
312 scaled net fluxes of CH₄ and CO₂ were calculated and expressed in terms of kg of CO₂
313 equivalent emitted per kg of grain produced. In the long-term experiment, this ratio was
314 calculated for the 2011-2012 growing season by integrating the emissions of CH₄ and
315 CO₂ from the pre-seeding application of fertilizers until the harvest of the crop, taking
316 into account that CH₄ has a GWP 25 times greater than CO₂ (Forster et al. 2007), and
317 dividing that result by the amount of grain produced by each treatment in that season.
318 The ratio was also calculated in the short-term experiment for the 2011-2012 and 2012-
319 2013 growing seasons by integrating the emissions of CH₄ and CO₂ from the pre-
320 seeding application of fertilizers in the 2011-2012 growing season until the harvest in
321 the 2012-2013 season and dividing that result by the sum of grain produced by each
322 treatment in both cropping seasons.

323 For each site, data for WFPS and CO₂ and CH₄ fluxes were analyzed using the SAS
324 statistical software (SAS institute, 1990) to perform a repeated measures analysis of
325 variance (ANOVA). ANOVAs for the cumulative C losses of the two gases, the
326 aboveground and root biomass C inputs, the SOC stocks, and the yield-scaled ratios
327 between the C-gases emitted and the grain produced were also performed. When
328 significant, differences between treatments were identified at 0.05 probability level of
329 significance using a Tukey test. A stepwise regression was performed with the JMP 10
330 statistical package (SAS Institute Inc., 2012) to test the presence of relationships
331 between CH₄ and CO₂ fluxes and soil WFPS and temperature at 0-5 cm soil depth.

332

333 **Results**

334 *Environmental conditions and soil WFPS during the experiments*

335 Rainfall and air temperature for the 2010-2011, 2011-2012 and 2012-2013 cropping
336 seasons are shown in Figure 1. At both sites a large variation in precipitation was
337 recorded during the three cropping seasons, as expected in our Mediterranean
338 conditions. Annual rainfall ranged from 211 to 530 mm and from 280 to 537 mm in the
339 long-term and short-term experiments, respectively. In the long-term experiment
340 (Fig. 1 A), precipitation was lower than the 30-year average for the area (430 mm) in
341 the 2010-2011 and 2011-2012 cropping seasons but higher in the 2012-13 season. In the
342 short-term experiment (Fig. 1 B), precipitation was lower than the 30-year average (327
343 mm) in the 2011-12 cropping season, but exceptionally high in the 2012-13 season,
344 particularly in the autumn and spring months. Air temperature showed the highest
345 values during the summer months (June-August) and the lowest during the winter
346 months (December-February). Over the experimental period, soil temperature ranged
347 from -1.3 to 29.1 °C in the long-term experiment (Fig. 2A) and from 1.4 to 29.3 °C in
348 the short-term one (Fig. 2 B). For both experiments, soil temperature was below 15 °C
349 during the applications of fertilizers except in the pre-seeding application of the 2011-
350 2012 cropping season in the short-term experiment, when soil temperature reached 23.7
351 °C (Fig. 2 B).

352 In both experiments, tillage significantly affected WFPS (Fig. 3 and Tables 2 and 3). In
353 the long-term experiment, mean WFPS values were 19.8% and 44.1% for the CT and
354 NT treatments, respectively (Table 2), while in the short-term experiment mean WFPS
355 for the same treatments was 18.5% and 32.0%, respectively (Table 3). For both
356 experiments NT had greater WFPS than CT on most sampling dates (Fig. 3). On the
357 other hand, neither the nitrogen treatments nor the interaction between tillage and
358 nitrogen significantly affected WFPS (Table 2).

359 *Tillage and N fertilization effects on CH₄ emissions*

360 In the long-term experiment, greater net uptake of CH₄ was observed under NT (2.4 kg
361 CH₄-C ha⁻¹) than under CT (1.1 kg CH₄-C ha⁻¹) (Table 2), with no interaction between
362 time and tillage treatment (data not shown). By contrast, in the short-term experiment
363 greater mean CH₄ oxidation was found under CT (2.7 kg CH₄-C ha⁻¹) than under NT

364 (1.2 kg CH₄-C ha⁻¹) (Table 3). Moreover, in this experiment, the temporal dynamics of
365 the CH₄ fluxes was affected by tillage, with higher emission peaks of CH₄ under NT
366 than under CT for two of the five fertilizer applications (Fig. 4A). Also, for both CT and
367 NT, a net emission of CH₄ from the soil to the atmosphere occurred during the coldest
368 months (December-February) (Fig. 4A). In the long-term experiment, net emissions of
369 CH₄ were observed in six and four sampling dates for CT and NT, respectively (data not
370 shown).

371 No significant effects of mineral N rate on the dynamics of CH₄ fluxes were found in
372 the long-term experiment. However, net uptake of CH₄ tended to decrease with
373 increasing fertilizer N rates (Table 2). In the short-term experiment, although no
374 differences between fertilization treatments were noted in the mean values of CH₄
375 fluxes, N fertilization affected the dynamics of CH₄ fluxes, with significant differences
376 on six dates, four of them coincident with fertilizer applications (Table 3, Fig. 5A).
377 Moreover, a significant (r^2 : 0.27; $P < 0.001$) logarithmic relationship was found between
378 CH₄ fluxes and soil temperature in the long-term experiment (Fig. 6). On the other hand,
379 no significant relationship was found between CH₄ fluxes and soil gravimetric moisture
380 content (data not shown). In the short-term experiment no correlations were found
381 between soil variables and GHG emissions.

382 *Tillage and N fertilization effects on CO₂ emissions*

383 Tillage significantly affected the average CO₂ emissions in the entire period studied,
384 with a greater mean CO₂ flux under NT than under CT in both experiments (Tables 2
385 and 3). In the long-term experiment, soil CO₂ fluxes ranged between 91.50 and
386 1872.18 mg CO₂-C m⁻² d⁻¹ and were higher in the summer months (June-September)
387 than in the winter months (December-March) (Fig. 7). Greater CO₂ fluxes were
388 observed under NT than under CT on most sampling dates (Fig. 7). In the short-term
389 experiment, a trend of higher CO₂ emissions during the fast-growing period of the crop
390 (February-May) was observed for both tillage treatments (Fig. 4B). As in the long-term
391 experiment, significant differences between tillage treatments were found for most of
392 the sampling dates, with greater values under NT than under CT (Fig. 4B).

393 In the long-term experiment, the mineral N rates applied did not affect soil CO₂
394 emissions (Table 2). On the other hand, fertilization treatments affected CO₂ emissions
395 in the short-term experiment (Fig. 5B). In this case, the application of organic N

396 fertilizers resulted in short-lasting peaks of CO₂. The average CO₂ values also showed
397 differences among fertilization treatments, with the greatest value in the 150 kg N ha⁻¹
398 organic fertilizer treatment (Table 3). In addition, during the fast-growing period of the
399 crop (February-May), significant differences were also found between N fertilization
400 treatments (Fig. 5B).

401 *Cumulative C losses, grain yield and yield-scaled CH₄ and CO₂ emissions*

402 In the long-term experiment, taking into account the whole period of gas measurements,
403 the soil absorbed 1.07 and 2.40 kg CH₄-C ha⁻¹ and emitted 2610.57 and
404 3984.85 kg CO₂-C ha⁻¹ in the CT and NT treatments, respectively, with significant
405 differences between them (Table 2). On the other hand, no significant differences in the
406 absorption/emission of CH₄ and CO₂ were found between N fertilization treatments or
407 the interaction between tillage and N fertilization. Although not significant, we found a
408 trend of lower CH₄ consumption with increasing fertilizer N rates (Table 2). In the
409 short-term experiment, the cumulative absorption of CH₄-C by the soil amounted to
410 2.69 and 1.16 kg CH₄-C ha⁻¹ under CT and NT, respectively, the values being
411 significantly different (Table 3). Significant differences between tillage and N
412 fertilization treatments were also found for cumulative CO₂-C losses. Averaged across
413 fertilizer treatments, CT emitted 3312.67 kg CO₂-C ha⁻¹, while NT emitted 4480.39 kg
414 CO₂-C ha⁻¹ (Table 3). Averaged across tillage treatments, the losses of C as CO₂ ranged
415 from 3226.56 kg CO₂-C ha⁻¹ for the control treatment to 4585.60 kg CO₂-C ha⁻¹ for the
416 150 kg organic N ha⁻¹ treatment (Table 3).

417 Greater grain production was observed in both experiments under NT. In the long-term
418 one, grain yield in the 2011-12 growing season was 246 and 1554 kg ha⁻¹ for the CT
419 and NT treatments, respectively (Table 2). In the short-term experiment, grain yield,
420 expressed as the sum of the 2011-12 and 2012-13 growing seasons, reached 2263 and
421 5692 kg ha⁻¹ for the CT and NT treatments, respectively (Table 3). The application of
422 increasing rates of N significantly increased grain yield in the long-term experiment,
423 with 720, 941 and 1040 kg grain ha⁻¹ for the 0, 60 and 120 kg N ha⁻¹ treatments,
424 respectively (Table 2). In the short-term experiment, the yields obtained when 75 and
425 150 kg ha⁻¹ of organic N was added as pig slurry (4657 and 5335 kg grain ha⁻¹) were
426 greater than when the same rates were added as mineral N fertilizer (3651 and
427 3885 kg grain ha⁻¹) (Table 3).

428 As was explained in the Materials and Methods section, the quotient between the
429 amount of CO₂ equivalent emitted as CH₄ and CO₂ and the production of grain was
430 calculated for each treatment. In the long-term experiment, the NT treatment emitted
431 five times less CO₂ equivalent per kg of grain than the CT treatment (Table 2). In the
432 same experiment, the use of increasing rates of mineral N fertilizer showed no statistical
433 differences between treatments in the CO₂ equivalent emitted per kg of grain, although a
434 trend to a higher efficiency (i.e., less emissions of CO₂ per unit of grain produced) was
435 observed when the amount of N fertilizer applied was increased.

436 In the short-term experiment, tillage and fertilization both significantly affected the
437 yield-scaled GHG emissions (Table 3). The lowest yield-scaled emissions were found in
438 the NT treatment with either 75 kg mineral N ha⁻¹ or 150 kg organic N ha⁻¹ (0.47 kg CO₂
439 equivalent kg grain⁻¹), while the highest emissions were found in CT with 75 kg mineral
440 N ha⁻¹ (1.64 kg CO₂ equivalent kg grain⁻¹) (Table 3). Following the result found in the
441 long-term experiment, in the short-term experiment the NT treatment showed two times
442 less emission of CO₂ equivalent than the CT treatment. Furthermore, the organic
443 fertilizer treatments (75 and 150 kg organic N ha⁻¹) caused lower ratios than the control
444 and the 75 kg mineral N ha⁻¹ treatments, while the application of 150 kg mineral N ha⁻¹
445 resulted in intermediate values (Table 3).

446 *Tillage and N fertilization effects on soil C inputs and stocks in the short-term* 447 *experiment*

448 In the short-term experiment, tillage and N fertilization treatments significantly affected
449 the aboveground C inputs (crop residues), while no differences between treatments were
450 found in the root biomass C inputs (Table 4). As an average of all treatments, the
451 aboveground C inputs accounted for 86.5% of the biomass C inputs to the soil while the
452 root biomass C inputs only accounted for 13.5%. For the three growing seasons studied
453 (2010-2011, 2011-2012 and 2012-2013), the CT and NT treatments resulted in mean
454 aboveground C inputs of 97 and 155 g C m⁻², respectively (Table 4). These values imply
455 that the aboveground C inputs are 60% greater under NT than under CT. On average,
456 the application of 150 kg organic N ha⁻¹ resulted in the greatest amount of aboveground
457 biomass C inputs (169 g C m⁻²) and the control treatment in the lowest (93 g C m⁻²)
458 (Table 4). After three years of contrasting treatments, no differences between tillage and
459 fertilization treatments were observed in SOC stocks (Table 5). Mean SOC stock for the

460 whole soil profile (0-75 cm) expressed on an equivalent soil mass basis was 98.7 and
461 95.8 Mg C ha⁻¹ in the CT and NT treatments, respectively.

462

463 **Discussion**

464 *CH₄ regulating variables*

465 The activity of methanotrophic bacteria is regulated by soil physic-chemical conditions
466 (Bender and Conrad, 1995). However, in our study soil temperature was the only
467 variable that showed a significant relationship with CH₄ fluxes according to the
468 stepwise regression performed, without effects of soil moisture. This result could be
469 explained by the low amount of water present in the soil during most of our experiment,
470 which would not represent a limitation for methanotrophic bacteria.

471 *Tillage effects*

472 In both the long-term and short-term field experiments, the soil acted as a net sink of
473 CH₄. However, we obtained contrasting results between tillage systems, with CH₄
474 oxidation under NT greater in the long-term experiment and lower in the short-term one.
475 Different authors have suggested that CH₄ oxidation can be reduced by tillage because
476 of its effects on gas diffusivity or because it causes long-term damage to the
477 methanotrophic community (Ball et al. 1999; Hütsch, 2001). These findings suggest that
478 the number of years under NT can influence the methanotrophic capacity of a soil. In an
479 NT chronosequence performed in a dryland area similar to that in the present study,
480 Plaza-Bonilla et al. (2013) found an improvement of soil structure when the number of
481 years under NT increased. Thus, the greater methanotrophic activity found under NT in
482 the long-term experiment might be related to a better soil structure that could
483 counterbalance the higher WFPS found under this system. By contrast, the greater CH₄
484 oxidation found under CT in the short-term experiment might be explained by its short
485 duration and the possible lack of differences between tillage treatments in soil porous
486 architecture or methanotrophic communities (Hütsch, 1998). Another possible
487 explanation for these contrasting results between the experiments could be the effect of
488 soil texture, which was coarser in the long-term experiment. In a study on the effects of
489 soil texture on CH₄ uptake, Dörr et al. (1993) found that gas permeability was one order
490 of magnitude higher in coarse-textured soils than in fine-textured soils.

491 The magnitude of CO₂ fluxes in our experiments, with a maximum of
492 2500 mg CO₂-C m⁻² d⁻¹, is in line with the values observed by other authors in the
493 Mediterranean area. For instance, under dryland cereal production in central Spain,

494 Meijide et al. (2010) reported a maximum flux of 1102 and 770 mg CO₂-C m⁻² d⁻¹
495 during the crop growth and fallow periods, respectively. Similarly, values below
496 2000 mg CO₂-C m⁻² d⁻¹ were reported when CO₂ fluxes were measured under different
497 tillage and cropping systems in a dryland area of NE Spain (Álvaro-Fuentes et al. 2008).

498 In both experiments, higher CO₂ fluxes and also cumulative CO₂-C losses were
499 observed under NT than under CT. Soil CO₂ emissions are the result of two processes:
500 first, the autotrophic respiration of plant roots, which does not represent a net loss of C
501 from the soil and, second, the heterotrophic respiration of decomposer microorganisms
502 that use SOC as a source of energy for their activity. In the literature, NT has often been
503 claimed as a soil management system that reduces the emission of CO₂ from soils to the
504 atmosphere compared with CT (Kessavalou et al. 1998). However, some authors have
505 found that, as compared with more humid regions, in dryland Mediterranean
506 agroecosystems the use of NT causes greater or equal CO₂ emissions when compared
507 with CT, particularly in dry years (Álvaro-Fuentes et al. 2008b; Morell et al. 2011). The
508 greater CO₂ emissions found under NT could be due to the enhancement of soil
509 respiration and mineralization processes. The higher soil water content under NT could
510 have enhanced microbial activity. In line with this hypothesis, greater microbial
511 biomass C and enzymatic activities under NT than under CT have been found in the
512 Mediterranean area (Madejón et al. 2009; Álvaro-Fuentes et al. 2013).

513 Though we observed greater CO₂ emissions from the soil to the atmosphere under NT
514 in both experiments, our results showed a five and two times lower yield-scaled CO₂
515 equivalent under NT than under CT in the long-term and short-term experiments,
516 respectively. These findings demonstrate the need for a holistic evaluation of the GWP
517 of each agricultural management practice, taking into account its associated grain
518 production. Mosier et al. (2006) introduced the concept of greenhouse gas intensity,
519 relating GWP to crop yield. Van Groenigen et al. (2010) pointed out the need to link
520 agronomic productivity and environmental sustainability, postulated that expressing
521 GHG emissions as a function of land area is not helpful and may be counterproductive,
522 and suggested that GHG emissions should be assessed as a function of crop yield.
523 Although the latter authors referred to the effect of nitrogen application on N₂O
524 emissions, our results demonstrate that the concept of yield-scaled emissions can also be
525 applied to other GHG (CH₄ and CO₂) and agricultural management practices such as
526 soil tillage.

527 *Nitrogen type and rate effects*

528 According to our results, the application of pig slurry to the soil led to peaks of CH₄ and
529 CO₂ emissions while the application of mineral fertilizers did not. The instantaneous
530 (i.e., after three hours) increase in the emission of CH₄ after the application of pig slurry
531 implied a change in the role of soil, from CH₄-oxidizer to emitter. This change in the
532 dynamics of CH₄ fluxes could be the result of several processes. First, as an average of
533 all applications, the pig slurry used in our experiment contained about 94% water by
534 weight. Thus, each addition of pig slurry to the soil represented an input of about 3 mm
535 of water. Although this is a relatively small amount, it could have produced anaerobic
536 conditions in some soil microsites, especially in the most superficial soil layer, thus
537 changing them from methanotrophic to methanogenic activity. Also, due to the liquid
538 nature of the organic manure, the NH₄⁺ present in the pig slurry could have infiltrated
539 into the soil matrix much faster than in the mineral fertilizer. It is known that the
540 application of NH₄⁺ to the soil has an inhibitory effect on the methanotrophic
541 communities as a result of competitive inhibition of methane monooxygenase, the
542 enzyme responsible for CH₄ oxidation (Dunfield and Knowles, 1995; Le Mer and
543 Roger, 2001). The volatilization of the CH₄ dissolved in the slurry and the microbial
544 degradation of short-chained volatile fatty acids present in animal manures have also
545 been pointed out as mechanisms that can produce peaks of CH₄ when pig slurry is
546 applied to the soil (Chadwick et al. 2000).

547 We found no significant differences in the cumulative losses of C as CO₂ when
548 increasing rates of mineral N were applied in the long-term and short-term experimental
549 fields. By contrast, the application of pig slurry in the short-term experiment led to
550 higher CO₂ fluxes than the application of mineral fertilizer. Moreover, in the short-term
551 experiment, although greater biomass C inputs to the soil were found under organic
552 fertilization than under mineral fertilization, no differences in SOC stocks were found
553 between the two fertilizer types. Plaza et al. (2004) studied the effects of applying
554 increasing rates of pig slurry (from 30 to 150 m³ ha⁻¹ y⁻¹) to the soil in a semiarid area of
555 Spain. They observed no differences in SOC between pig slurry rates and suggested that
556 this result could be attributed to the small amount of organic C and the relatively large
557 N content of that manure, which could lead to microbial oxidation of native soil organic
558 C. Thus, our findings of higher CO₂ emissions and C inputs when using pig slurry and
559 the lack of differences in SOC stocks when compared to the control or the mineral

560 treatments could be explained by an enhanced mineralization of the C contained in the
561 pig slurry. On average, each application of 75 kg N ha⁻¹ as pig slurry in the short-term
562 experiment represented an input of 340 kg C ha⁻¹. Thus, during the experimental period
563 1020 and 2040 kg C ha⁻¹ were applied in the 75 and 150 kg organic N ha⁻¹ treatments,
564 respectively. Taking into account that these treatments emitted 719 and 784 kg CO₂-C
565 ha⁻¹, respectively, more than their equivalent treatments with mineral N fertilizer, a
566 decomposition of about 30%-70% of the C applied with the pig slurry can be estimated,
567 a range in line with those reported by Rochette and Gregorich (1998) for manured soils.
568 Although pig slurry increased CO₂ emissions when compared with mineral N
569 fertilization, its application reduced the CO₂ equivalent per unit of grain produced, thus
570 showing a lower emission of GHG. However, we found no differences in that ratio
571 between N rates, regardless of the type of N fertilizer applied.

572 *Tillage and nitrogen interaction*

573 The interaction between tillage and N fertilization significantly affected grain yield in
574 both experiments and the amount of aboveground biomass and the yield-scaled
575 emissions only in the short-term one. In Mediterranean areas crop response to N
576 application is usually limited by the availability of water in the soil. Therefore, in these
577 areas, the greater amount of water in the soil when NT is used usually leads to a higher
578 biomass and yield production after N application (Cantero-Martínez et al. 2003). A
579 significant interaction between tillage and N fertilization was also found in the fluxes of
580 CH₄ and CO₂ from the soil to the atmosphere. The higher amount of water in the soil
581 under NT led to greater CH₄ and CO₂ pulses during organic fertilizer application events
582 due to the antagonism between NH₄⁺ and low methanotrophic activity and high
583 microbial activity, respectively (Conrad, 1996; Almagro et al. 2009).

584

585 **Conclusions**

586 The results of this study show that tillage and N fertilization and their interaction affect
587 the soil fluxes of CH₄ and CO₂. The NT treatment led to higher emissions of CO₂ to the
588 atmosphere than the CT treatment. Although in general the soil acted as a CH₄ sink,
589 contrasting tillage effects were found in two experimental fields. Thus, whereas in the
590 long-term experiment greater CH₄ oxidation was observed under NT than under CT, in
591 the short-term experiment, CH₄ oxidation was much lower under NT. The application of
592 pig slurry led to immediate peaks of CH₄ and CO₂ emission fluxes and also enhanced
593 the C lost as CO₂ during the whole experimental period. By contrast, there were no
594 significant differences in the cumulative losses of C as CO₂ when increasing rates of
595 mineral N were applied in both the long-term and the short-term experiments.
596 Compared with CT, the use of NT caused a five- and two-fold reduction in the CO_{2eq}
597 emitted per unit of mass of grain in the long-term and short-term field experiments,
598 respectively. The use of pig slurry also reduced the ratio when compared with the
599 mineral or the control treatments. Our study demonstrates that, in dryland
600 Mediterranean agroecosystems, the combination of NT and medium rates of either
601 mineral or organic N fertilization can be an appropriate management strategy for
602 optimizing CO₂ and CH₄ emissions and grain yield production.

603

604 **Acknowledgements**

605 The priceless involvement of Montse Llovera in setting-up and maintaining the gas
606 chromatography equipment facilitated this work. We also acknowledge the field and
607 laboratory assistance of Silvia Martí, Carlos Cortés, Miquèl Segalàs, Josan Palacio,
608 Héctor Martínez, Ana Bielsa, Jonatan Ovejero, Douglas Winter, Soni Hueftle and Dr.
609 Jorge Lampurlanés. Dr. Carmen Castañeda and Dr. Juan Herrero characterized the soil
610 of the short-term experiment. D. Plaza-Bonilla was awarded an FPU fellowship by the
611 Spanish Ministry of Education. This research was supported by the Comisión
612 Interministerial de Ciencia y Tecnología of Spain (grants AGL 2007-66320-C02-01 and
613 AGL 2010-22050-C03-01/02), the Aragon Government and La Caixa (grant GA-LC-
614 050/2011), the Department of Agriculture of the Government of Catalonia (grant 2012
615 AGE00012) and the European Union (FEDER funds).

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829 cropping and soil. Agronomy Journal 105:70-78.

830

831 **Figure captions**

832

833 **Fig. 1** Air temperature (continuous line) and rainfall events (bars) in (A) the long-term
834 experiment and (B) the short-term experiment.

835

836 **Fig. 2** Soil temperature as affected by tillage (CT, conventional tillage; NT, no-tillage)
837 in (A) the long-term experiment and (B) the short-term experiment. Vertical arrows
838 indicate fertilizer applications.

839

840 **Fig. 3** Soil water-filled pore space as affected by tillage (CT, conventional tillage; NT,
841 no-tillage) in the long-term and the short-term experiments. *Indicates significant
842 differences between tillage treatments for each date at $P<0.05$. Vertical arrows indicate
843 fertilizer applications.

844

845 **Fig. 4** Soil CH₄ (A) and CO₂ (B) emissions in the short-term experiment as affected by
846 tillage (CT, conventional tillage; NT, no-tillage). *Indicates significant differences
847 between tillage treatments for each date at $P<0.05$. Vertical arrows indicate fertilizer
848 applications.

849

850 **Fig. 5** Soil CH₄ (A) and CO₂ (B) emissions in the short-term experiment as affected by
851 nitrogen fertilization (0, control; 75 Mineral, 75 kg N ha⁻¹ of mineral N; 150 Mineral,
852 150 kg N ha⁻¹ of mineral N; 75 Organic, 75 kg N ha⁻¹ as pig slurry; 150 Organic, 150 kg
853 N ha⁻¹ as pig slurry). * Indicates significant differences between fertilization treatments
854 for each date at $P<0.05$. Vertical arrows indicate fertilizer applications.

855

856 **Fig. 6** Regression analysis between soil temperature and CH₄ flux. Each point represents
857 the average of all treatments for each sampling date. Data from samplings performed
858 three hours after each fertilizer application are excluded in order to avoid the effect of N
859 on CH₄ oxidation.

860

861 **Fig. 7** Soil CO₂ emissions in the long-term experiment as affected by tillage (CT,
862 conventional tillage; NT, no-tillage). * Indicates significant differences between tillage
863 treatments for each date at $P<0.05$. Vertical arrows indicate fertilizer applications.

864 **Table 1.** Composition of the pig slurry used in the organic fertilization treatment as pre-seeding and top-dressing applications in the short-term
 865 experiment during the three growing seasons studied (2010-2011, 2011-2012, 2012-2013) (values in g kg⁻¹ dry weight).
 866

Pig slurry characteristics	2010-2011		2011-2012		2012-2013	
	Pre-seeding	Top-dressing	Pre-seeding	Top-dressing	Pre-seeding	Top-dressing
Dry matter	45.0	94.0	19.0	19.5	56.0	138.0
Organic C*	412.5	nd	337.0	392.5	391.5	396.0
Kjeldahl N*	34.2	23.6	29.8	34.2	24.2	23.6
Ammonium N	44.5	33.0	104.9	125.5	36.4	42.5
P	18.7	19.3	16.9	17.1	16.8	18.7
K	22.6	18.2	77.4	81.45	27.9	26.5

867

868 * Values of the dry residue

869 nd: not determined

870

871 **Table 2.** Analysis of variance of water-filled pore space (WFPS) (%), fluxes of CH₄ and CO₂ (mg CH₄-C m⁻² d⁻¹ and mg CO₂-C m⁻² d⁻¹,
872 respectively), cumulative C losses for both gases during the whole experimental period (kg C ha⁻¹), 2011-2012 grain yield (kg ha⁻¹ at 10%
873 moisture) and ratio between the CH₄ and CO₂ losses expressed in CO₂ equivalent and grain yield in the 2011-2012 growing season as affected by
874 tillage (CT, conventional tillage; NT, no-tillage), N fertilization (0, control; 60, mineral N at 60 kg N ha⁻¹; 120, mineral N at 120 kg N ha⁻¹), date
875 of sampling and their interactions in the long-term field experiment. Values of gas fluxes and WFPS are the means of all samplings.

Effects	Long-term experiment							
	WFPS	Gas fluxes		Cumulative C flux		2011-12 Grain yield	kg CO ₂ eq. kg grain ⁻¹	
		CH ₄	CO ₂	CH ₄	CO ₂			
CT	19.84 b¶	-0.249 a	516.29 b	-1.065 a	2610.57 b	245.8 b	4.64 a	
NT	44.08 a	-0.424 b	779.33 a	-2.396 b	3984.85 a	1554.3 a	0.91 b	
0	32.07	-0.443	617.00	-2.249	3139.09	719.6 c	3.51	
60	31.55	-0.341	667.89	-1.700	3338.43	940.7 b	2.90	
120	32.27	-0.230	663.21	-1.242	3415.62	1039.8 a	1.92	
CT – 0	19.32	-0.390	462.21	-1.747	2370.03	178.4 c	6.00	
CT – 60	22.21	-0.183	551.47	-0.726	2716.57	226.8 c	4.97	
CT – 120	17.99	-0.174	535.63	-0.726	2745.12	332.1 c	2.95	
NT – 0	44.82	-0.495	768.85	-2.751	3908.16	1260.8 b	1.01	
NT – 60	40.89	-0.494	779.89	-2.676	3960.29	1654.5 a	0.83	
NT – 120	46.54	-0.285	789.19	-1.760	4086.11	1747.5 a	0.89	
				ANOVA				
Tillage	<0.001	0.009	<0.001	<0.001	<0.001	<0.001	<0.001	
Nitrogen	0.191	0.068	0.739	0.061	0.748	<0.001	0.072	
Date	<0.001	0.011	<0.001					
Tillage x Nitrogen	0.550	0.435	0.875	0.427	0.922	<0.001	0.094	
Tillage x Date	<0.001	0.488	<0.001					
Nitrogen x Date	0.995	0.846	0.844					
Tillage x Nitrogen x Date	0.021	0.324	0.529					

876

877 ¶ For each variable, different letters indicate significant differences between treatments at $P < 0.05$.

878 **Table 3.** Analysis of variance of water-filled pore space (WFPS) (%), fluxes of CH₄ and CO₂ (mg CH₄-C m⁻² d⁻¹ and mg CO₂-C m⁻² d⁻¹, respectively), cumulative C
879 losses for both gases during the whole experimental period (kg C ha⁻¹), 2011-2012 plus 2012-2013 grain yield (kg ha⁻¹ at 10% moisture) and the ratio between the loss
880 of CH₄ and CO₂ expressed in CO₂ equivalent and grain yield (sum of the 2011-2012 and 2012-2013 growing seasons) as affected by tillage (CT, conventional tillage;
881 NT, no-tillage), N fertilization (0, control; 75 Min, mineral N at 75 kg N ha⁻¹; 150 Min, mineral N at 150 kg N ha⁻¹; 75 Org, organic N as pig slurry at 75 kg N ha⁻¹
882 and 150 Org, organic N as pig slurry at 150 kg N ha⁻¹), date of sampling and their interactions in the short-term field experiment. Values of gas fluxes and WFPS are
883 the means of all samplings.

Effects	Short-term experiment						
	WFPS	Gas fluxes		Cumulative C flux		2011-13 grain yield	kg CO ₂ eq. kg grain ⁻¹
		CH ₄	CO ₂	CH ₄	CO ₂		
CT	18.47 b¶	-0.281 b	455.99 b	-2.690 b	3312.67 b	2262.8 b	1.07 a
NT	32.01 a	-0.062 a	627.08 a	-1.161 a	4480.39 a	5692.3 a	0.51 b
0	24.29	-0.287	425.21 c	-2.436	3226.56 c	2358.6 d	1.00 a
75 Min	24.54	-0.250	461.29 c	-2.073	3574.64 bc	3651.1 c	1.05 a
150 Min	26.11	-0.191	486.52 c	-1.827	3802.07 bc	3885.2 c	0.72 ab
75 Org	25.78	-0.176	607.85 b	-2.055	4293.78 ab	4657.4 b	0.62 b
150 Org	25.47	0.051	727.55 a	-1.238	4585.60 a	5335.4 a	0.55 b
CT – 0	16.35	-0.419	365.68	-3.512	2819.18	992.3 f	1.42 ab
CT – 75 Min	16.16	-0.369	385.82	-2.903	2899.34	1308.3 ef	1.64 a
CT – 150 Min	22.11	-0.173	402.77	-1.914	3130.57	2225.7 de	0.89 bc
CT – 75 Org	18.50	-0.366	480.46	-3.654	3497.46	2755.4 cd	0.75 c
CT- 150 Org	19.22	-0.079	643.77	-1.468	4216.79	4032.6 b	0.63 c
NT – 0	32.23	-0.154	484.51	-1.360	3633.94	3725.0 bc	0.57 c
NT – 75 Min	32.92	-0.136	535.02	-1.243	4249.95	5993.9 a	0.47 c
NT – 150 Min	30.11	-0.208	569.61	-1.739	4473.56	5544.8 a	0.55 c
NT – 75 Org	33.06	0.010	732.80	-0.456	5090.09	6559.5 a	0.49 c
NT- 150 Org	31.72	0.179	810.37	-1.008	4954.40	6638.3 a	0.47 c
				ANOVA			
Tillage	<0.001	0.013	<0.001	0.006	<0.001	<0.001	<0.001
Nitrogen	0.732	0.082	<0.001	0.7	<0.001	<0.001	<0.001
Date	<0.001	<0.001	<0.001				
Tillage x Nitrogen	0.057	0.567	0.384	0.378	0.426	<0.001	<0.001
Tillage x Date	<0.001	0.039	<0.001				
Nitrogen x Date	<0.001	<0.001	<0.001				
Tillage x Nitrogen x Date	0.034	<0.001	0.019				

884 ¶ For each variable, different letters indicate significant differences between treatments at $P < 0.05$.

885 **Table 4.** Analysis of variance of aboveground and root biomass C inputs (g C m⁻²) as affected by tillage (CT, conventional tillage; NT, no-
 886 tillage), N fertilization (0, control; 75 Min, mineral N at 75 kg N ha⁻¹; 150 Min, mineral N at 150 kg N ha⁻¹; 75 Org, organic N as pig slurry at 75
 887 kg N ha⁻¹ and 150 Org, organic N as pig slurry at 150 kg N ha⁻¹), growing season and their interactions in the short-term field experiment.

Effects	Short-term experiment						
	Aboveground C inputs				Root biomass C inputs		
	<i>2010-11</i>	<i>2011-12</i>	<i>2012-13</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>2011-2012</i>	<i>2012-13</i>	<i>Mean</i>
CT	100.79	53.56	179.70	96.90 b	12.87	23.98	17.81
NT	176.01	105.28	233.14	154.93 a	20.46	23.28	21.51
0	81.75 c	59.60	169.31 b	92.56 c	16.02	20.13	17.67
75 Min	184.31 ab	90.23	164.56 b	132.33 b	15.80	12.00	14.28
150 Min	125.45 abc	92.29	224.51 ab	133.64 b	16.53	30.41	21.16
75 Org	106.58 bc	48.93	202.69 ab	101.78 bc	19.81	35.61	26.99
150 Org	193.90 a	106.05	271.02 a	169.25 a	15.16	19.89	27.60
CT – 0	58.67 c	62.91 abc	151.82 b	84.08 d	15.50	11.34	13.84
CT – 75 Min	115.43 bc	20.83 c	147.44 b	76.13 d	7.16	9.57	8.12
CT – 150 Min	83.72 c	91.86 abc	200.26 b	116.93 cd	12.20	32.60	20.36
CT – 75 Org	92.42 c	26.31 c	212.88 b	89.48 cd	16.24	40.20	28.22
CT- 150 Org	153.71 abc	65.87 abc	186.12 b	117.89 cd	13.26	20.04	16.65
NT – 0	104.83 bc	56.28 abc	186.81 b	101.05 cd	16.54	28.92	21.49
NT – 75 Min	253.19 a	159.63 a	181.68 b	188.53 ab	24.45	14.43	20.44
NT – 150 Min	167.18 abc	92.72 abc	248.77 ab	150.35 bc	20.87	26.03	22.16
NT – 75 Org	120.75 abc	71.54 abc	192.51 b	114.09 cd	23.37	28.73	25.51
NT- 150 Org	234.10 ab	146.22 ab	355.92 a	220.62 a	17.05	19.65	18.09
	ANOVA						
Tillage		<0.001				0.191	
Nitrogen		<0.001				0.086	
Growing season (GS)		<0.001				0.073	
Tillage x Nitrogen		<0.001				0.630	
Tillage x GS		0.455				0.323	
Nitrogen x GS		<0.001				0.349	
Tillage x Nitrogen x GS		0.033				0.447	

888

889 ¶ For each variable, different letters indicate significant differences between treatments at $P < 0.05$.

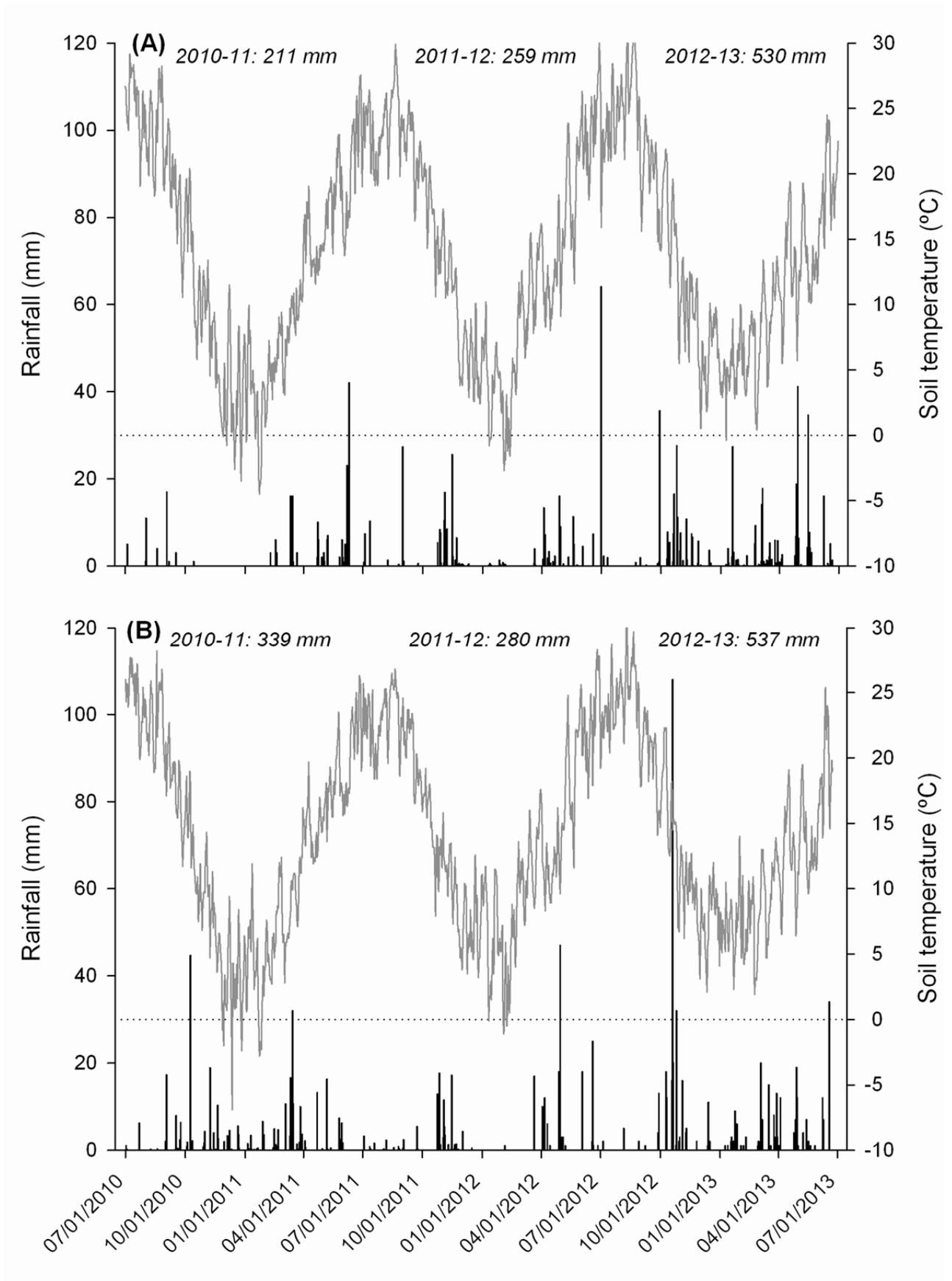
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891 **Table 5** Soil organic carbon stock expressed on an equivalent mass basis (SOC_{esm}) as affected by tillage (CT, conventional tillage; NT, no-
 892 tillage) and N fertilization (0, control; 75 Min, mineral N at 75 kg N ha⁻¹; 150 Min, mineral N at 150 kg N ha⁻¹; 75 Org, organic N as pig slurry at
 893 75 kg N ha⁻¹ and 150 Org, organic N as pig slurry at 150 kg N ha⁻¹) in the short-term field experiment.

Soil depth (cm)	SOC _{esm} stock (Mg C ha ⁻¹)											
	CT						NT					
	0	75 Min	150 Min	75 Org	150 Org	Mean	0	75 Min	150 Min	75 Org	150 Org	Mean
0-10	17.9 (2.4)*	16.9 (2.5)	17.2 (2.5)	21.1 (3.6)	19.3 (4.1)	18.5 (3.1)	21.2 (1.7)	19.7 (6.0)	19.5 (3.3)	21.3 (8.1)	20.9 (6.0)	20.5 (4.7)
10-75	78.4 (10.6)	70.5 (17.2)	83.1 (13.1)	88.7 (5.1)	80.3 (10.7)	80.2 (11.9)	61.2 (17.7)	80.9 (19.0)	71.9 (20.6)	76.5 (7.8)	85.7 (1.1)	75.3 (15.5)
0-75	96.2 (12.9)	87.4 (18.0)	100.2 (14.5)	109.8 (8.7)	99.7 (7.7)	98.7 (13.3)	82.5 (17.0)	100.6 (24.4)	91.4 (23.9)	97.8 (15.9)	106.6 (6.7)	95.8 (18.0)

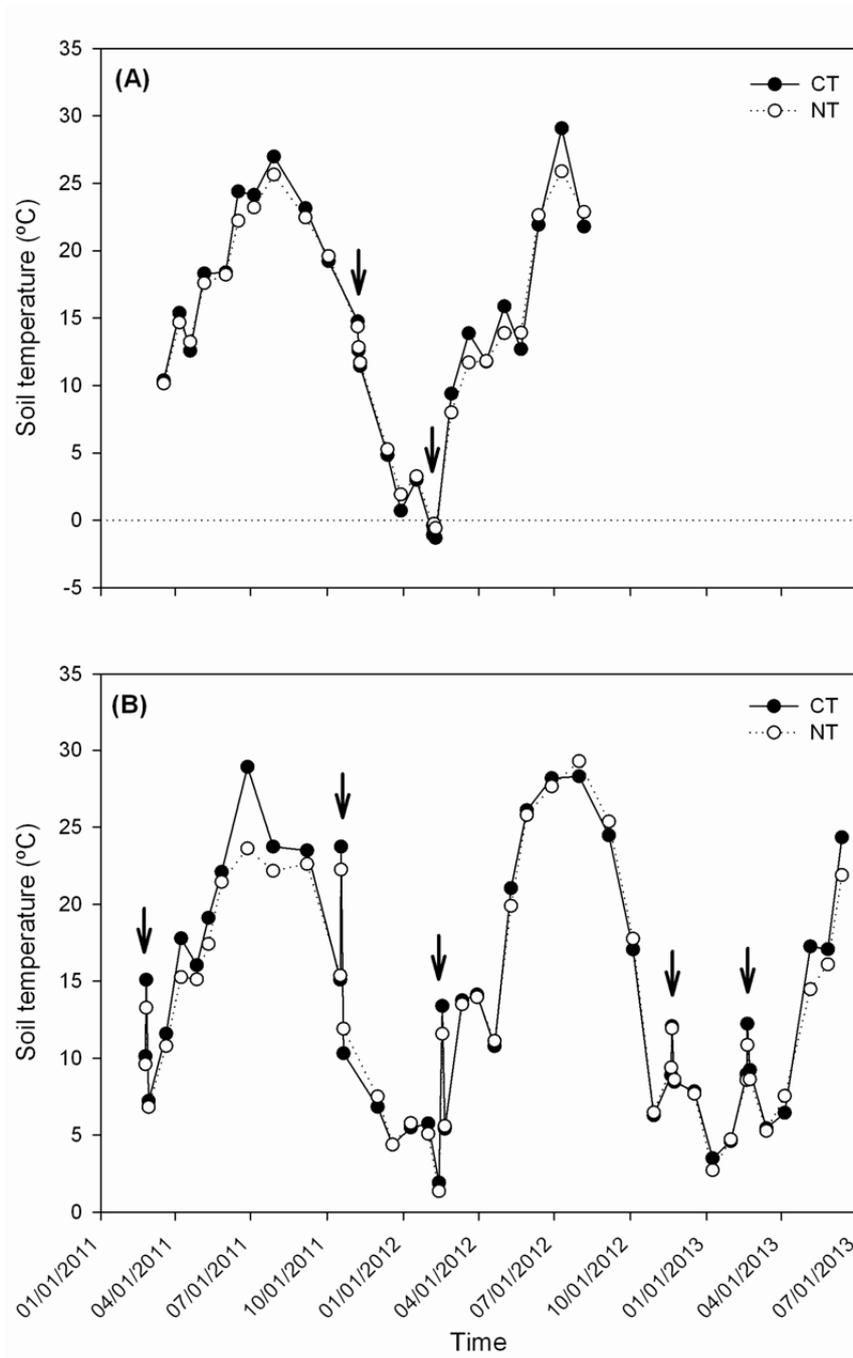
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895 * Values in parentheses are the standard deviations of the mean.



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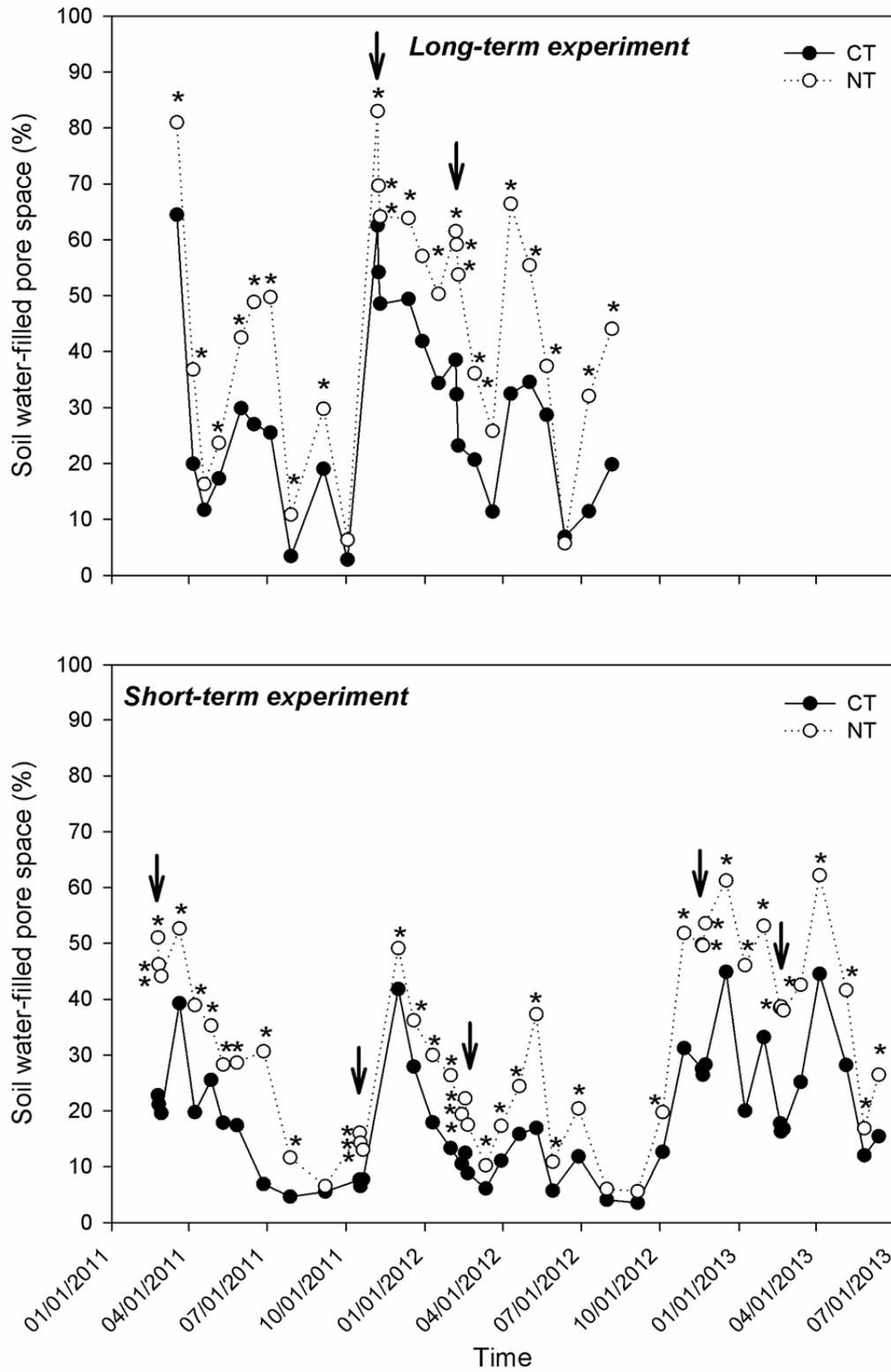
897 **Fig. 1**



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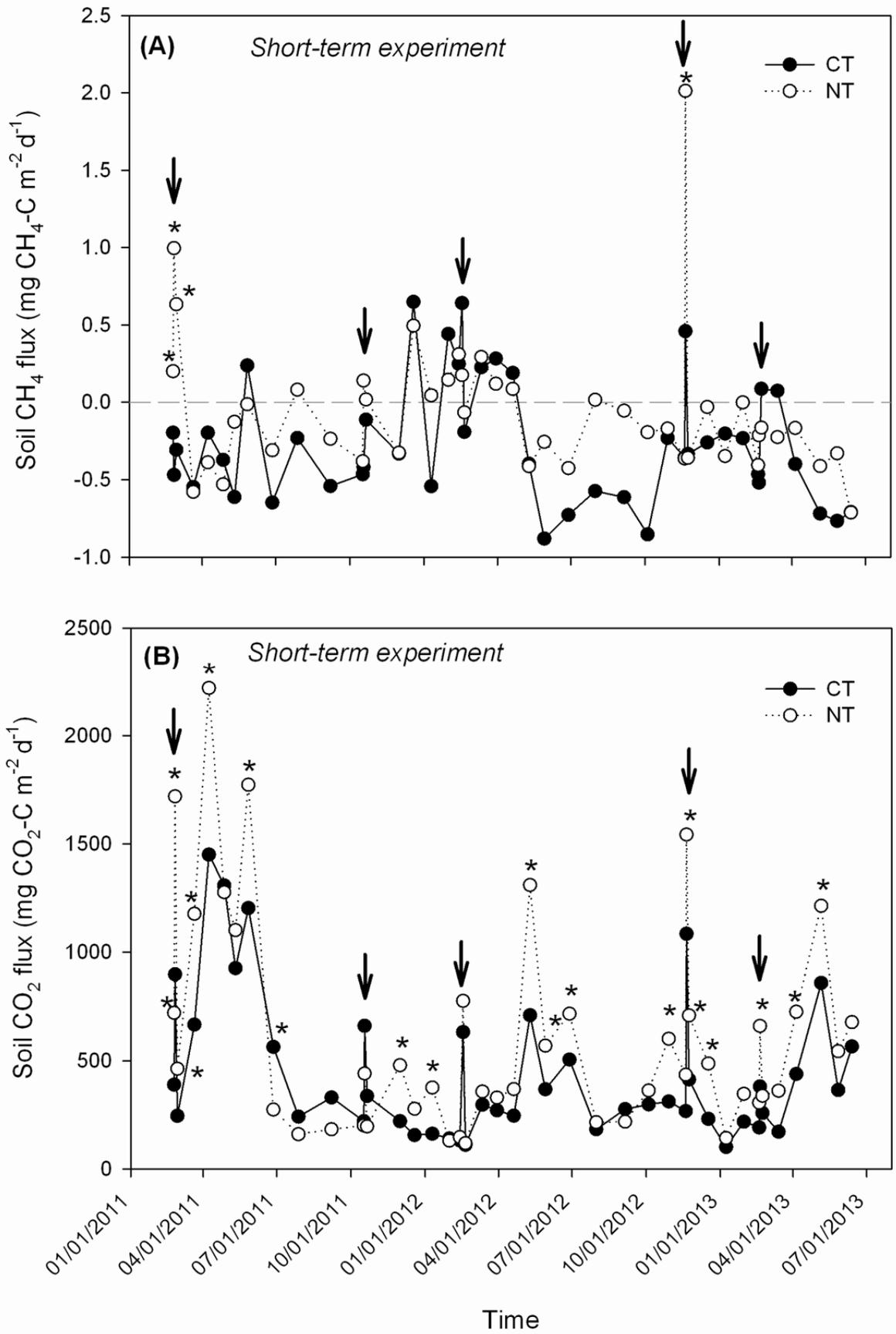
899 **Fig. 2**

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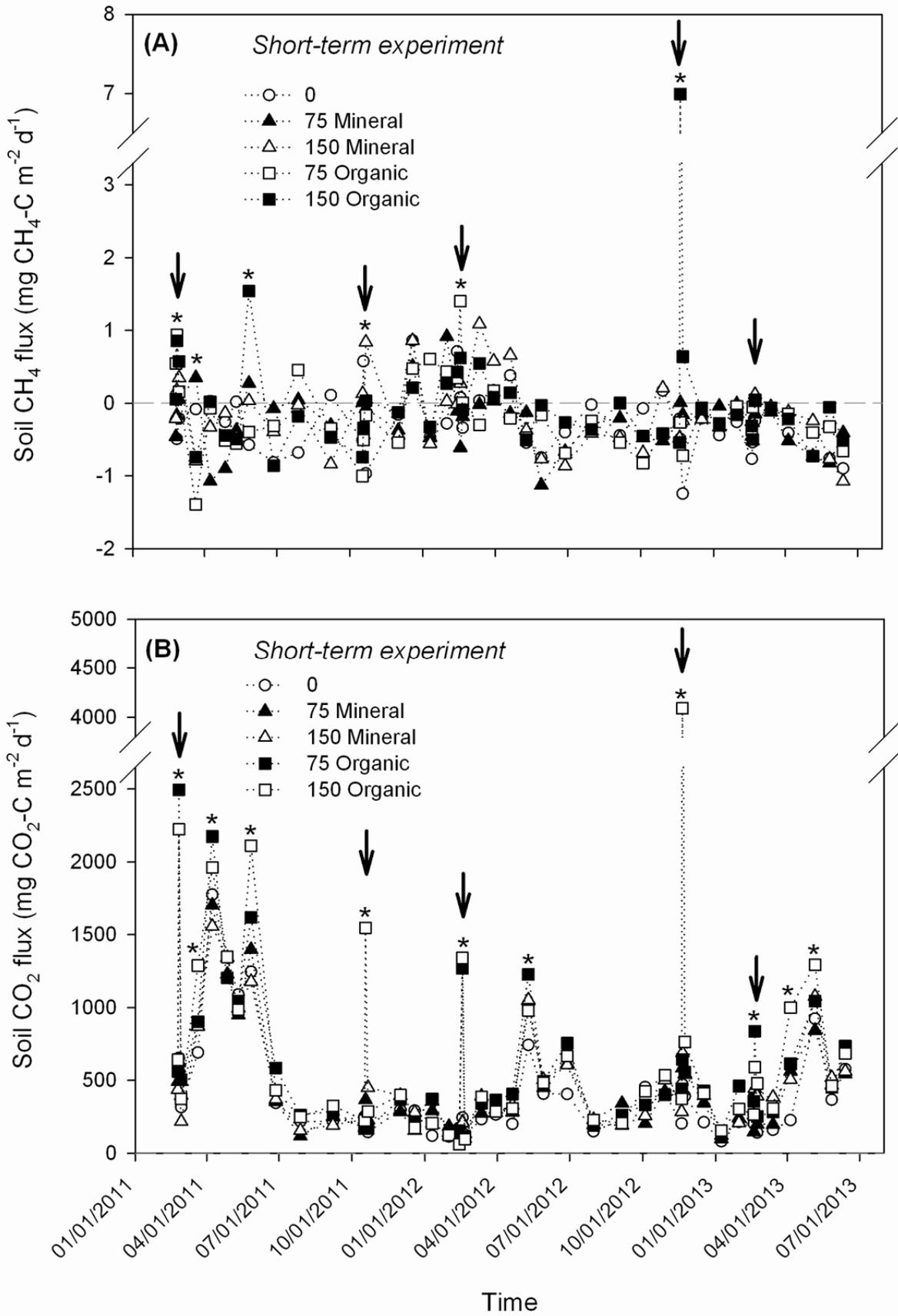
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902 **Fig. 3**



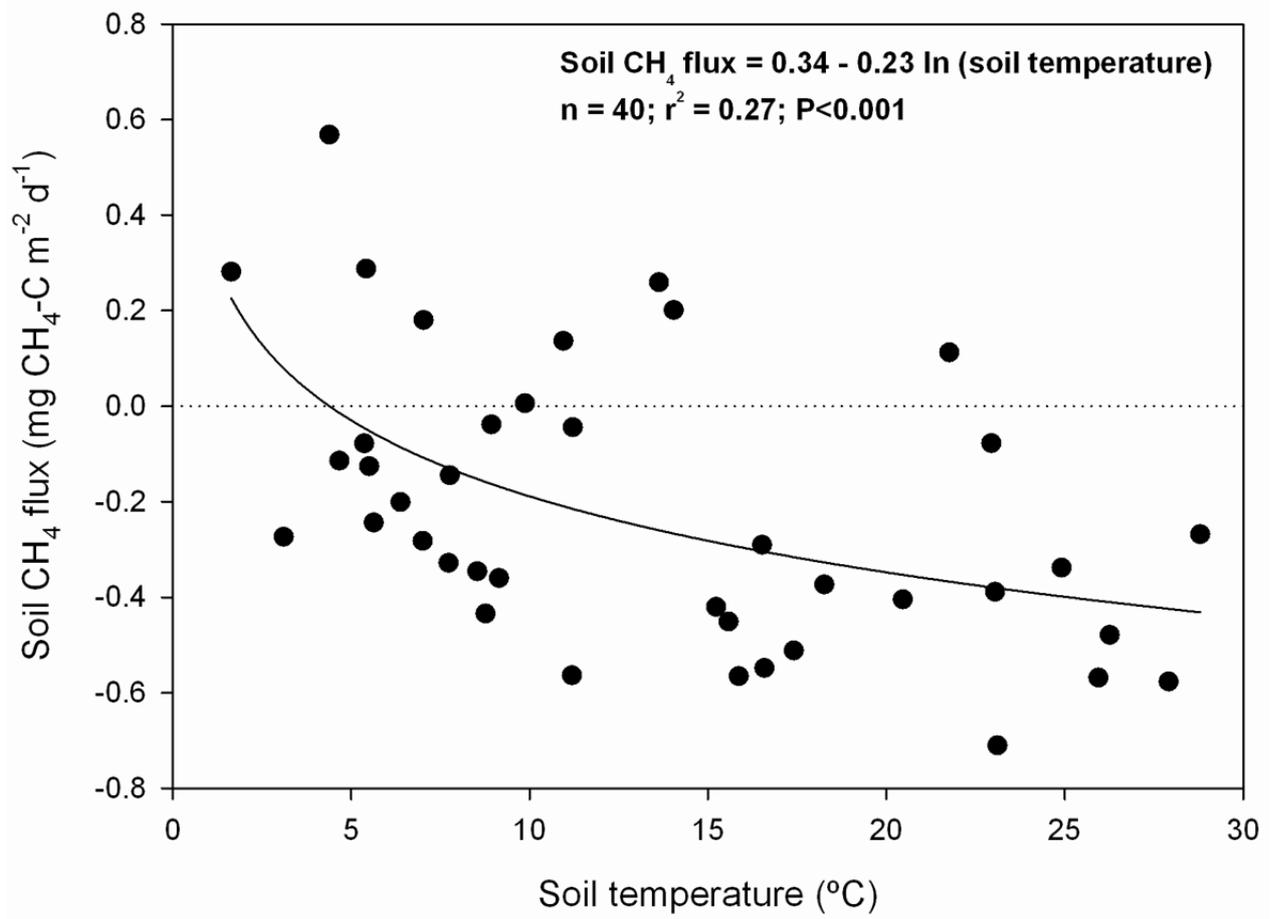
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904 **Fig. 4**



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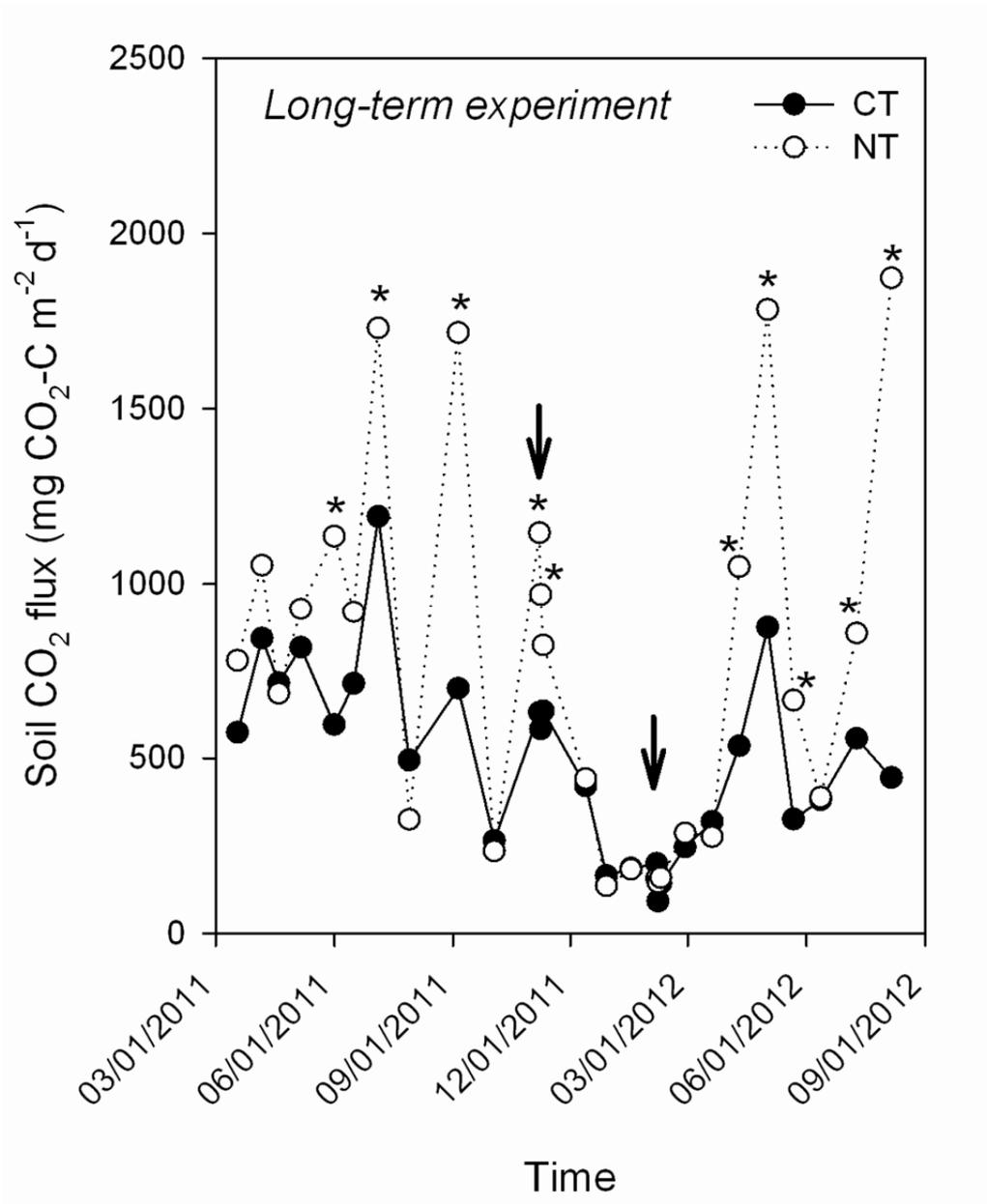
906 **Fig. 5**



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908 **Fig. 6**

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910

911 **Fig. 7**

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