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Long-term effects of contrasting tillage on soil organic carbon, nitrous oxide and ammonia emissions in a Mediterranean Vertisol under different crop sequences

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1 **Long-term effects of contrasting tillage on soil organic carbon, nitrous oxide and ammonia**
2 **emissions in a Mediterranean Vertisol under different crop sequences**

3

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18

19

20 **Abstract**

21 This 2-year study aimed to verify whether the continuous application of no tillage (NT) for over 20
22 years, in comparison with conventional tillage (CT), affects nitrous oxide (N₂O) and ammonia
23 (NH₃) emissions from a Vertisol and, if so, whether such an effect varies with crop sequence
24 (continuous wheat, WW and wheat after faba bean, FW). To shed light on the mechanisms involved
25 in determining N-gas emissions, soil bulk density, water filled pore space (WFPS), some carbon (C)
26 and nitrogen (N) pools, denitrifying enzyme activity (DEA), and nitrous oxide reductase gene
27 abundance (nosZ gene) were also assessed at 0–15 and 15–30 cm soil depth. Tillage system had no
28 significant effect on total NH₃ emissions. On average, total N₂O emissions were higher under NT
29 (2.45 kg N₂O-N ha⁻¹) than CT (1.72 kg N₂O-N ha⁻¹), being the differences between the two tillage
30 systems greater in FW than WW. The higher N₂O emissions in NT treatments were ascribed to the
31 increased bulk density, WFPS, and extractable organic C under NT compared to CT, all factors that
32 generally promote the production of N₂O. Moreover, compared to CT, NT enhanced the potential
33 DEA (114 vs 16 μg N kg⁻¹ h⁻¹) and nosZ gene abundance (116 vs 69 copy number mg⁻¹ dry soil) in
34 the topsoil. Finally, NT compared to CT led to an average annual increase in C stock of 0.70 Mg C
35 ha⁻¹ year⁻¹. Though NT can increase the amount of soil organic matter so storing CO₂ into soil,
36 some criticisms related to the increase of N₂O emission arise, thereby suggesting the need for
37 defining management strategies to mitigate such a negative effect.

38

39 **Keywords** No tillage; Greenhouse gas emissions; Carbon stock; nosZ gene; Mediterranean
40 environment; Wheat

41

42 **Abbreviations** NT, no tillage; CT, conventional tillage; WW, wheat grown after wheat; FW, wheat
43 grown after faba bean; TOC, total organic carbon; EOC, extractable organic carbon; TN, total
44 nitrogen; WFPS, water filled pore space; BD, bulk density; DEA, denitrifying enzyme activity

45 **1. Introduction**

46

47 Agricultural activities are considered as the primary source of nitrous oxide (N₂O) and ammonia
48 (NH₃) emissions (IPCC, 2007; EEA, 2009). Nitrous oxide emissions are linked to many soil
49 microbial processes: 1) dissimilatory reduction of nitrates and nitrites to N₂ when O₂ concentrations
50 is decreasing (denitrification); 2) nitrification (oxidation of NH₃ to NH₂OH and then to N₂O); and
51 3) by nitrifiers paradoxically denitrifying (reduction of nitrites to N₂O) (Čuhel et al. 2010; Abalos et
52 al. 2017; Kool et al. 2017). The emission of N₂O from soil is influenced by O₂ partial pressure,
53 moisture and temperature, pH, organic C and nitrates availability (Čuhel et al. 2010; Stevenson et
54 al. 2011). In a recent meta-analysis, Cayuela et al. (2017) indicated water regime, crop type, and N
55 fertilizer management as the most important factors controlling the magnitude of N₂O emissions
56 from Mediterranean agricultural lands. Similarly to N₂O, NH₃ volatilization is positively related to
57 soil organic C and microbial biomass, soil pH, moisture, temperature, NH₄⁺ concentration in the soil
58 solution, and negatively related to soil cation exchange capacity (Cameron et al. 2013). Due to the
59 plurality of factors influencing N gases emissions, it is not surprising that the estimates for both
60 N₂O and NH₃ emissions from agricultural soils are extremely variable.

61 Tillage system, by influencing soil aeration and temperature, water content, total and labile organic
62 C, and the supply of N (Martin-Lammerding et al. 2011; Laudicina et al. 2014), may affect the soil
63 microbial structure and activity and hence the N gas emissions (Mutegi et al. 2010; García-Marco et
64 al. 2016). However, knowledge of the effects of tillage system on N gas emissions from soils is still
65 limited and often controversial, at least for the Mediterranean areas. Comparing no tillage (NT) to
66 conventional tillage (CT; usually based on moldboard plowing), Plaza-Bonilla et al. (2014)
67 observed, under rainfed Mediterranean conditions, higher N₂O emissions under NT in the short-
68 term (<4 years) but similar N₂O fluxes between NT and CT in the long term (>10 years). Similar
69 results are reported in many studies conducted in temperate, humid or sub-humid environments
70 (Baggs et al. 2003; Six et al. 2004; Rochette 2008; Beare et al. 2009; Kong et al. 2009; Bayer et al.

71 2015), where the authors ascribed these effects to the poorer water drainage and aeration, and to the
72 resulting lower availability of O₂ and the minor diffusion of gases through the soil under NT
73 compared to CT conditions. On the contrary, other studies reported lower N₂O emissions in NT
74 than in CT soils, both in temperate (Chatskikh and Olesen 2007; Omonode et al. 2011; van Kessel
75 et al. 2013) and Mediterranean areas (García-Marco et al. 2016).

76 Tillage system can also have an important role in determining the amount of N lost as NH₃ via
77 volatilization. Several authors observed higher NH₃ emissions in NT than CT soils, especially when
78 crop residues left on soil surface are abundant and N fertilizer used is urea (Palma et al. 1998;
79 Rochette et al. 2009). In NT systems, in fact, the lack of mixing the N fertilizer into the soil and
80 conversely the direct contact of the N fertilizer granules with the crop residues present on soil
81 surface increases the risk of NH₃ losses. Crop rotations that include N₂-fixing legume species within
82 the crop sequence have been often reported as a valuable N gas emission mitigation strategy (as
83 reviewed by Jensen et al. 2012 and Sanz-Cobena et al. 2017), mainly due to less mineral N
84 fertilizers applied to soil. On the other hand, other authors have highlighted that, since
85 denitrification rate is positively related to the concentration of soil nitrates (Wagner-Riddle and
86 Thurtell 1998), legumes can increase N₂O emissions as a result of N released from decomposition
87 of the N-rich crop residues (Rochette and Janzen 2005; Tellez-Rio et al. 2015a) and/or due to their
88 poor efficiency in recovering the plant-available soil mineral N (Jensen et al. 2012; Saia et al.
89 2016).

90 Therefore, we performed a 2-year study in a typical Mediterranean environment: to verify i)
91 whether the long-term (over 20 years) NT affects the C and N pools, and the emissions of N₂O and
92 NH₃ from soil and, if so, ii) whether such effect varies when crop sequence varies, and iii) to gain a
93 better insight into how agricultural management may affect N gas emissions through changes on
94 soil physical and chemical properties. Durum wheat (*Triticum durum* Desf.) was used as focal crop.

95

96 **2. Material and methods**

97

98 *2.1. Experimental site*

99

100 The field crop trial was carried out under rainfed conditions at the experimental Pietranera farm of
101 the University of Palermo. The farm is located about 30 km north of Agrigento (Sicily, Italy, 37°30'
102 N, 13°31' E; 178 m a.s.l.). The soil was classified as Chromic Haploxerert (Vertisol) and its
103 characteristics, determined at the beginning of the experiment (year 1991) and referring to the 0–40
104 cm top layer, were 525 g kg⁻¹ clay, 216 g kg⁻¹ silt, 259 g kg⁻¹ sand, pH 8.1 (in water), 14 g kg⁻¹
105 total organic C, 1.29 g kg⁻¹ total N, 36 mg kg⁻¹ available P (Olsen).

106 The climate at the experimental site is semiarid Mediterranean, with a mean annual rainfall of 572
107 mm (1995 to 2015), concentrated mostly during the autumn–winter period (September–February;
108 76%), and spring (March–May; 19%). The dry period occurs from May to September. Mean air
109 temperature is 15.9°C in autumn, 9.7°C in winter, and 16.5°C in spring. Climatic data from
110 September 2013 to July 2015 was collected from the nearest weather station located 500 m far from
111 the experimental site.

112

113 *2.2. Experimental design and crop management*

114

115 The experiment was set up in fall 1991 as a strip-plot design with two replications, where three soil
116 tillage systems (conventional, reduced, and no tillage) acted as vertical treatments and three crop
117 sequences (wheat–wheat, wheat–faba bean, and wheat–berseem clover) as horizontal ones. More
118 details are reported in Giambalvo et al. (2012) and Amato et al. (2013). The experimental factors
119 tested here were tillage system (conventional tillage, CT, and no tillage, NT) and crop sequence
120 (continuous wheat, WW, and wheat after faba bean, FW). Conventional tillage consisted of one
121 moldboard plowing to a depth of 30 cm in the summer, followed by one or two shallow harrowing
122 (0–15 cm) operations before planting. No tillage consisted of sowing by direct drilling. Plot area

123 size was 370 m² (18.5 × 20.0 m). In NT plots, weeds were controlled before planting with
124 glyphosate at a dose of 533 to 1,066 g acid equivalent ha⁻¹, depending on the development of
125 weeds. Every year, WW and FW plots were broadcast fertilized with 69 kg ha⁻¹ of P₂O₅ just before
126 planting. Nitrogen fertilizer was broadcast on the soil surface at 120 kg N ha⁻¹ in WW plots and 80
127 kg N ha⁻¹ in FW plots. The total amount of N fertilizer was broadcasted as follows: 50% applied
128 immediately before planting (as diammonium phosphate and urea) and 50% applied at mid-tillering
129 (end of March; during this experiment, it was just before the 2nd soil sampling) as ammonium
130 nitrate. Crop planting was always in December using a no-till seed drill with hoe openers under
131 both CT and NT, making the appropriate sowing depth adjustments to ensure a homogeneous
132 planting depth (3–5 cm). Durum wheat (cv. Anco Marzio) was planted in rows spaced 16 cm apart
133 at 350 viable seeds m⁻². In WW and FW plots, weeds were controlled by applying post-emergence
134 herbicides at the early growth stage of the crop. Wheat was harvested in late June or beginning of
135 July and stubble (about 20–25 cm from the soil surface) was left standing. Wheat straw was baled
136 and removed from the field. The soil surface covered by mulch in the NT treatments was always
137 >30%. Faba bean (*Vicia faba* L., cv. Gemini) in rotation with wheat was managed as follows:
138 broadcast fertilized with 46 kg ha⁻¹ P₂O₅ before planting; sown at 40 viable seeds m⁻² with an inter-
139 row spacing of 75 cm; no rhizobial inocula were applied before planting because soil has a native
140 rhizobial population; harvested in late June or beginning of July, leaving standing straw and
141 uniformly spreading crop residues.

142

143 *2.3. Soil sampling and analyses*

144

145 During the cropping season 2013–2014, in each plot, two soil samples (each composed by 3 mixed
146 subsamples) were collected from the 0–15 cm and 15–30 cm soil layers in December 2013 (before
147 sowing), April 2014 (wheat heading), and July 2014 (wheat harvest) for a total of 96 soil samples,
148 which were gently sieved to pass through a 2 mm mesh sieve. Total organic carbon (TOC) was

149 determined by the Walkley–Black procedure whereas total nitrogen (TN) by the Kjeldhal method.
150 Extractable organic carbon (EOC) and nitrates were determined on soil extracts prepared by
151 shaking 25 g of soil with 100 mL 0.5 M K₂SO₄ (1:4 w/v) for 45 min on a horizontal shaker (70
152 rpm). Soil suspensions were filtered through Whatman 42 paper and extracts analysed by acid
153 dichromate oxidation method (Vance et al. 1987) to determine organic C and by the chromotropic
154 acid method (Sims and Jackson 1971) for nitrate concentration. The concentration of EOC was used
155 as a reliable indicator of available C (Laudicina et al. 2013). Carbon (C) inputs per each treatment
156 were calculated on the basis of the mean biomass productions of the crops since the beginning of
157 the experiment (Giambalvo et al. 2012; Amato et al. 2013). As regards wheat, stubble was
158 estimated as corresponding to the 30% of total straws. For both wheat and faba bean, root biomass
159 was considered as 30% of the total epigeic biomass according to Zanatta et al. (2007). The C
160 content of both root and shoot residues was considered in the proportion of 43% for both crops
161 (Kong et al. 2005). Thus, C inputs were calculated as follows:

$$C \text{ input wheat} = [(TEB - G) \times 0.3 + (TEB \times 0.3)] \times 0.43$$

162 and

$$C \text{ input faba bean} = [(TEB - G) + (TEB \times 0.3)] \times 0.43$$

163 where TEB and G are total epigeic biomass and grain yield of wheat (or faba bean), respectively.

164 At each N₂O field measurement, gravimetric water content of soil at 0–15 cm and at 15–30 cm
165 depth was determined by weight difference between fresh and dried (24 h at 105°C) sample while
166 WFPS was calculated as follows:

$$WFPS = \frac{SWC \times BD}{(1 - BD/PD)} \times 100$$

167 where SWC is the gravimetric soil water content, BD is the soil bulk density and PD is the soil
168 particle density (2.65 g cm⁻³). Soil BD was determined by core method (Grossman and Reinsch
169 2002).

170

171 *2.4. Ammonia and nitrous oxide emissions*

172

173 Ammonia emissions were monitored after each fertilization, i.e. at sowing and at tillering, in two
174 cropping cycles, in 2013–2014 (from 18.12.2013 to 02.01.2014 and from 24.03.2014 to 09.04.2014)
175 and in 2014–2015 (from 23.12.2014 to 09.01.2015 and from 13.04.2015 to 28.04.2015). Soil NH₃
176 volatilization was evaluated using the Conway's microdiffusion-incubation method adapted for soil
177 by Bremner and Krogmeier (1989) according to Qi et al. (2012). Briefly, a plastic jar of 100 mL of
178 volume (5.0 cm of diameter) containing 20 mL of 3% (w/v) of boric acid solution was suspended
179 above the ground. Then, an airtight chamber with a diameter of 16.0 cm (6,032 cm³ of volume)
180 was put on the soil surface covering the plastic jar. The chamber was anchored to the ground
181 through small wire arches in order to avoid gas leakages from the system and the chamber
182 movement caused by wind. Three chambers per plot were placed for a total of 24 chambers. The
183 NH₃ volatilized from soil was trapped by boric acid solution and determined by titration with 0.005
184 M H₂SO₄ back to the original pH (3.4~3.5). The boric acid solution was replaced each day during
185 the first week and then every two days until the NH₃ emission was negligible (generally after 20
186 days since fertilization). Total NH₃ volatilization was calculated as the sum of the NH₃ volatilized
187 during the observation period. Also soil N₂O fluxes were measured over two cropping cycles, from
188 sowing to harvest, in 2013–2014 and in 2014–2015. Greenhouse gas fluxes were sampled using the
189 closed chamber technique (Hutchinson and Mosier 1981; Baker et al. 2003). Three polyvinyl
190 chloride opaque chambers, with a diameter of 31.5 cm and height of 30.0 cm, were placed in each
191 plot. The chambers were fitted in a polyvinyl chloride frame inserted into the soil to a depth of 5 cm
192 in order to minimize the later diffusion of gases and avoid the soil disturbance. The frames were
193 placed at the beginning of each sampling year, after the plant emergence, enclosing two plant rows,
194 and were removed at the end of the crop cycle. During crop growth, the chambers height was
195 progressively increased to accommodate the plants, using appropriate extension of the same
196 diameter of the chamber, reaching a maximum height of 90.0 cm. At the top of each chamber, a

197 rubber stopper with a three-way stopcock was placed in order to take gas samples. Gas samples (10
 198 mL in volume) were taken at 0, 30 and 60 minutes after the chamber closure from the headspace of
 199 each chamber using a 10 mL syringes, fitted on the three-way stopcock, connected with a needle in
 200 order to store the samples in a 7 mL pre-evacuated Exetainer[®] (Labco Limited, Buckinghamshire,
 201 UK). Before gas sampling the air inside the chamber was mixed by suctioning and pumping using
 202 the 10 mL syringe. Air samples were taken simultaneously for each crop in both tillage systems. All
 203 gas samples were taken always at the same interval (7–10 a.m.). After air sampling, the chambers
 204 were immediately removed from the frames to minimize enclosure effects on soil environmental
 205 conditions and plant growth. Eight gas samples per plot were taken at regular interval from January
 206 10th to June 6th 2014 as well as from January 8th to June 17th 2015. Concentration of N₂O in the gas
 207 samples were determined by GC-ECD (TRACE-GC, Thermo Scientific, Milan, Italy) as described
 208 below for the denitrifying enzyme activity (detection limit < 50 ppb). Flux rates were calculated
 209 from the N₂O concentration increase during the 60 minutes chamber closure period by applying the
 210 equation of Jantalia et al. (2008):

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

211 where $\Delta C/\Delta t$ is the change in N₂O concentration in the chamber during the closing time Δt , V and A
 212 are respectively the volume of the chamber and the area of the soil covered by the chamber, V_m is
 213 the molar volume corrected for the air temperature at the sampling time and m is the molecular
 214 weight of N₂O. The seasonal amount of N₂O emissions were accumulated from the emission rates
 215 between every two consecutive days of the measurements by following equation according with Cai
 216 et al. (2012):

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

217

218 *2.5. Denitrifying enzyme activity (DEA)*

219

220 Denitrifying enzyme activity was determined on soil samples collected on 10.12.0.2013, 01.04.2014
221 and 09.07.2014 using the anaerobic slurry technique as described by Šimek et al. (2004). Briefly, 20
222 g of soil were weighted in a 125 mL flask and 20 mL of a solution 1mM in glucose, 1mM in KNO₃
223 and containing 1 g L⁻¹ of chloramphenicol, were added. Flasks were sealed with butyl rubber
224 stoppers, evacuated and flushed four times with 99.999% helium, thus equilibrating the internal
225 pressure to the atmospheric one. Each evacuation and/or flushing lasted for 2 min. Then, using a 15
226 mL syringe, 10 mL of internal atmosphere was removed and replaced with pure acetylene in order
227 to block the conversion of N₂O to N₂ (Smith and Tiedje 1979). After which, the flasks were then
228 shaken horizontally at 70 rpm. After 30 and 60 min from the addition of acetylene, 1 mL samples of
229 headspace atmosphere were taken with a gas-tight syringe and N₂O concentration was measured by
230 a gas chromatograph (TRACE-GC, Thermo Scientific, Milan, Italy) equipped with a 80–100 mesh
231 stainless-steel column packed with Poropak Q and an electron capture detector. DEA was calculated
232 from the N₂O increase during half an hour incubation (60–30 min).

233

234 *2.6. NosZ gene abundance*

235

236 In the first week of May 2014, when the soil and plants likely reached the maximum biological
237 activity, four soil samples (each composed by mixing 3 subsamples) were collected from the
238 superficial layer (0–15 cm) of all plots and stored at –20°C until analyses. Immediately before
239 starting analyses, soil samples were thawed and gently sieved at 2 mm mesh size. DNA was
240 extracted and purified from 2 g aliquots of soil samples using the PowerSoil[®] DNA Isolation Kit
241 (MoBio, Carlsbad, CA, USA) following the manufacturer's instructions. Then, DNA was quantified
242 using a Nanodrop ND-1000 spectrophotometer (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA)
243 and amplified by PCR using specific primers for nosZ genes, i.e. typical of denitrifying bacterial
244 community; more precisely nosZ-1840F and nosZ-2090R primers (267 bp). PCR conditions

245 consisted of an initial denaturation step of 95°C for 15 min, followed by 30 cycles of 95°C for 15 s,
246 60°C for 30 s, 72°C for 30 s and a final step of 72°C for 8 min. Reaction mixture of PCR consisted
247 of 25 µL with the following ingredients: soil DNA dilution (from 1:10 to 1:5), 1 µL at concentration
248 of 30 µM for both nosZ primers, 2 µL of 0.2mM dNTPs, 0.15 µL of 5 U Taq polymerase (Bioline,
249 London, UK), 2.5 µL of 10X PCR buffer, 0.75 µL of 1.5 mM MgCl₂ and sterile Milli-Q water to a
250 final volume of 25 µL. Sterile water was used as a negative control to replace DNA in PCR
251 reactions. PCR products were analysed by electrophoresis in 2% agarose gels stained with GelRed[®]
252 (Biotium, Fremont, CA, USA). The PCR results for each gene were used in order to choose the best
253 DNA PCR concentration for qPCR. Real time PCR (qPCR) was performed on BioRad iQ 5 QPCR.
254 Amplification was performed in 20 µL reaction mixtures composed by 10.5 µL of SyberGreen 2X,
255 0.84 µL of both primers, and sterile Milli-Q water to a final volume of 20 µL. Primers and qPCR
256 conditions were the same of PCR amplification described above. NosZ standard curve was
257 constructed using plasmid relating Ct (cycle threshold) to the added mass of linearized plasmid
258 DNA and the number of gene copies. The amount of template DNA was calculated by interpolating
259 the cycle threshold with the standard curve, determined by the Bio-Rad iQ5 software program. All
260 reactions were carried out in triplicate with four replications per qPCR.

261

262 *2.7. Statistical analyses*

263

264 Before performing parametric statistical analyses, normal distribution and variance homogeneity of
265 the data were checked by Kolmogorov–Smirnov goodness-of-fit and Levene’s tests, respectively.
266 Following the strip-plot procedure, two-way ANOVA was performed with tillage (CT, conventional
267 tillage, and NT, no tillage) and crop sequence (WW, continuous wheat, and FW wheat after faba-
268 bean) as factors for total NH₃ and N₂O emissions (field measures averaged for two consecutive
269 years and cumulated with regard to crop stages) and nosZ, while with repeated measures (soil
270 sampled in three occasions per cropping year) for TOC, TN, EOC, N-NO₃⁻, DEA. Treatment means

271 were compared using Tukey's HSD test at the 5% probability level. Residual maximum likelihood
272 variance components were also performed to determine which of the two factors or their interaction
273 accounted for the majority of the variation in each of the measured variable. Statistical analyses
274 were carried out with SAS statistical package (SAS 2009). Reported data, expressed on oven-dry
275 basis (105°C) of soil, are the arithmetic means \pm standard deviation.

276

277 **3. Results**

278

279 *3.1. Weather conditions*

280

281 Total rainfall in 2013–2014 was 603 mm, with a homogenous rain distribution during the crop cycle
282 (Fig S1; supporting information). Mean year temperature was 15.2°C. In the 2014–2015 the total
283 rainfall was 660 mm. Rainfall distribution showed an opposite trend during the crop cycle; the
284 period from September to January had low rainfall while from February to July the rainfall was
285 high. Mean year temperature was 15.8°C.

286

287 *3.2. Soil characteristics and carbon inputs*

288

289 Bulk density was affected only by tillage and was higher in NT than CT (Table 1). In the 0–15 cm
290 soil layer, TOC ranged from 13.3 g kg⁻¹ in WW-CT to 18.8 g kg⁻¹ in FW-NT and was affected only
291 by tillage. In the deeper soil layer (15–30 cm), TOC was not affected by any treatment and it was on
292 average 14.0 g kg⁻¹ (Table 1). Carbon inputs showed significant differences by crop sequence (on
293 average 1.81 and 2.44 t ha⁻¹ y⁻¹ in WW and in FW rotation, respectively) whereas no differences
294 were observed due to tillage system (Figure 1). At the 0–30 cm soil layer, C stock was 58 and 41 t
295 C ha⁻¹ in NT and CT, respectively. Thus, the continuous application of NT for over 20 years
296 determined in the 0–30 cm soil layer, relative to CT, an average annual increase of about 0.70 t C

297 $\text{ha}^{-1} \text{ year}^{-1}$. Extractable organic C in the 0–15 cm soil layer ranged from 53.9 mg kg^{-1} to 78.9 mg
298 kg^{-1} . On average, NT plots had an EOC content 42% higher than CT ones. On the contrary, in the
299 15–30 cm soil layer, EOC concentration was higher in CT plots than NT ones (+25% on average;
300 Table 1). Total nitrogen (TN) content in the 0–15 cm soil layer paralleled that of TOC and was
301 affected only by tillage . On average, TN was 0.55 g kg^{-1} higher in NT (+42%) than in CT. In the
302 15–30 soil layer, tillage system and crop sequence had no significant effect on TN. Soil nitrate
303 concentration in the topsoil and in the subsoil was not affected by the experimental factors (Table
304 1).

305

306 *3.3. Ammonia emissions*

307

308 Crop sequence markedly affected soil NH_3 emissions at both sowing and tillering. Tillage system
309 had no significant effect on this gaseous emission. After the fertilization at tillering time, NH_3
310 emissions, on average during the two experimental years, ranged from 7.4 kg N ha^{-1} with FW to
311 12.9 kg N ha^{-1} with WW (Figure 2). Total NH_3 emissions, as sum of NH_3 -N emissions after sowing
312 and tillering, were about 10.0 kg N ha^{-1} to 16.0 kg N ha^{-1} , respectively, under wheat after faba and
313 continuous wheat, regardless of tillage (Figure 2). Total NH_3 emissions accounted for
314 approximately 13% of the N added with fertilizer, whose rate varied in relation to the previous crop
315 (80 and 120 kg N ha^{-1} respectively in FW and WW).

316

317 *3.4. Nitrous oxide emissions*

318

319 Nitrous oxide fluxes, at the beginning of the measurement period (crop cycle 2013–2014, January
320 10th), on average, was 17.6 $\mu\text{g N}_2\text{O-N m}^{-2} \text{ h}^{-1}$, with NT slightly but significantly higher than CT
321 (Figure 3a). Nitrous oxide emission rate increased during the experimental period reaching the
322 maximum at the third measurement occasion (February 14th) with NT-WF having an emission rate

323 184.7 $\mu\text{g N}_2\text{O-N m}^{-2} \text{ h}^{-1}$; at this time, the widest and significant differences in nitrous oxide
324 emission rate (up to 64.0 $\mu\text{g N}_2\text{O-N m}^{-2} \text{ h}^{-1}$) between CT and NT plots were recorded. After the
325 third measurement, N_2O emission rate drastically decreased, with a new slight increase recorded
326 from April to half May. Thereafter, at the end of May, the rate returned back almost to the values
327 recorded at the beginning of the measurements. On average, NT plots showed higher emission rates
328 compared to CT ones, whereas the trend was less clear when comparing crop sequences within the
329 same tillage system. During the second year of observation (cropping season 2014–2015, Figure
330 3b), N_2O emission rate from soil ranged from 8.8 $\mu\text{g N}_2\text{O-N m}^{-2} \text{ h}^{-1}$ to 179.4 $\mu\text{g N}_2\text{O-N m}^{-2} \text{ h}^{-1}$. At
331 the beginning of the measurements (January 8th), the emission rate showed similar values to those
332 recorded during the previous cropping season. Then, the emission rate started to highly increase so
333 reaching the maximum values during the third measurement occasion (February 12th). Thereafter, it
334 quickly decreased reaching almost the initial values. On April 30th, N_2O emission rate started again
335 to remarkably increase so showing values ranging from 76.4 to 146.6 $\mu\text{g N}_2\text{O-N m}^{-2} \text{ h}^{-1}$. At the end
336 of the cropping season, finally, emission rate again decreased but not reaching the initial values for
337 all treatments. Also for the cropping season 2014–2015, on average, NT plots showed higher
338 emission rates compared to CT ones, although such trend appeared less pronounced compared to
339 the previous cropping season. Again, no clear trend was evident by comparing crop sequences
340 within the same tillage system. Total N_2O emissions, on average between the two cropping seasons,
341 ranged from 170.8 $\text{mg N}_2\text{O-N m}^{-2}$ to 260.5 $\text{mg N}_2\text{O-N m}^{-2}$ (Figure 4) and were significantly
342 affected by both experimental factors (tillage system and crop sequence) and by their interaction. In
343 particular, tillage had a greater effect on N_2O emissions while the effect of crop sequence was
344 narrow although significant, similarly to factor interaction. NT plots, in both years, on average
345 showed 43% more N_2O emission than CT plots (2.45 and 1.72 $\text{kg N}_2\text{O-N ha}^{-1}$ in NT and CT
346 respectively). In CT plots, no difference was observed among crop sequences, while in NT, FW
347 plots showed higher emissions than WW plots (2.61 and 2.29 $\text{kg N}_2\text{O-N ha}^{-1}$ in NT and CT
348 respectively, corresponding to 1.9% and 3.3% of the total N applied with the fertilizer).

349

350 3.5. Denitrifying Enzyme Activity (DEA)

351

352 Denitrification enzyme activity (average of the three samplings) ranged from 15.2 to 128.4 $\mu\text{g N kg}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$
353 $\text{kg}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$, and from 12.7 $\mu\text{g N kg}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$ to 17.4 $\mu\text{g N kg}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$, in the 0–15 cm and in the 15–30 cm soil
354 samples, respectively (Table 2). In the 0–15 cm soil samples, DEA was mainly affected by tillage
355 whereas in the 15–30 cm layer DEA was, on average, 15.0 $\mu\text{g N kg}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$, with no treatment effect.
356 In the topsoil samples, within the same crop sequence, DEA was much higher in NT compared to
357 CT. In CT plots, DEA did not show significant differences between crop sequences, whereas in NT
358 continuous wheat, DEA was 128.3 $\mu\text{g N kg}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$ against 99.3 $\mu\text{g N kg}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$ in wheat after faba bean
359 (+29%, Table 2).

360

361 3.6. Denitrifying bacterial community gene (*NosZ*)

362

363 Denitrifying bacterial community gene (*NosZ*) abundance, determined on 0–15 cm soil, ranged
364 from 62.2 to 126.1 copy number mg^{-1} of dry soil (Figure 5). *NosZ* abundance was mainly affected
365 by tillage and, marginally, by the interaction Tillage \times Crop. *NosZ* was, on average, 43% higher in
366 NT than CT plots. Within the same tillage systems, significant differences among crop sequences
367 occurred only in NT plots, with WW plots having *NosZ* abundance 20% higher than FW plots
368 (Figure 5).

369

370 4. Discussion

371

372 4.1. C and N pools

373

374 Long-term NT played a significant role in affecting C and N pools. After over 20 years, both TOC
375 and TN concentrations were significantly higher in NT than CT, but this was true only in the upper
376 soil layer (0–15 cm); no differences for these two parameters were found between CT and NT in the
377 15–30 cm soil layer. These results agree with those of previous studies carried out in environments
378 similar to (López-Bellido et al. 2010), or different from (Conceição et al. 2013; Liu et al. 2014), that
379 of the present experiment. Many studies have highlighted the importance of considering also deeper
380 soil horizons to compare TOC values in soils under different tillage systems. Most of these studies
381 have shown that the higher TOC concentration generally observed in the upper soil layer under NT
382 compared to CT is often counteracted by an opposite effect in the deeper soil layer (VandenBygaart
383 and Angers 2006; Luo et al. 2010). These findings do not seem to be confirmed by our study where
384 an average annual increase in C stock of about $0.70 \text{ t C ha}^{-1} \text{ year}^{-1}$ in the top 30 cm of soil was
385 observed in NT compared to CT. Considering that the C input was similar between the two soil
386 tillage systems, the different TOC concentration between CT and NT could be linked to the effects
387 that these two tillage techniques had on the fate of crop residues and, consequently, on the labile
388 soil organic C pools. In CT soils, crop residues are mixed into the soil so favouring their
389 accessibility to microorganisms (Dungait et al. 2012), thereby speeding up their mineralization.
390 Intensive soil cultivation increases degradation of the soil organic matter, through both the increase
391 of aeration, that favors the oxidation processes, and the increase of soil aggregates disruption, that
392 reduces the physical protection of the soil organic matter from microbial attack (Six et al. 2000;
393 Plaza-Bonilla et al. 2013; Laudicina et al. 2014; 2016). EOC showed higher values under NT than
394 CT in the upper soil layer (0–15 cm) and the opposite pattern in the deeper soil layer (15–30 cm).
395 This result can be ascribed to the different stratification of the crop residues induced by the different
396 tillage systems rather than to differences in C transfer between upper and lower soil layers.
397 Although a higher concentration of nitrates was expected in CT than NT soils, due to the higher
398 mineralization of the organic matter under CT (Ruisi et al. 2016), no differences between the two
399 soil tillage systems were detected for this parameter. Several factors can have contributed to this

400 result, such as possible differences by tillage system in the environmental releases of N. Anyway,
401 an important role has been played by the differences in the N uptake in wheat grown under CT and
402 NT. It is well known that wheat is a crop with high N requirements and able to effectively utilize N
403 when it becomes available. So the different amount of N taken up by wheat grown under CT and
404 NT could have canceled the differences in the soil nitrate availability between the two tillage
405 systems.

406 Although C inputs were greatly different between the two crop sequences, no differences were
407 observed between WW and FW for C and N pools probably because of the different quality of the
408 crop residues returned to the soil. Due to the lower C/N ratio, the faba bean residues are more easily
409 mineralizable compared to wheat residues (Nguyen and Marschner 2016) so the greater C inputs in
410 FW is counteracted by their more easily mineralization.

411

412 *4.2. NH₃ emissions*

413

414 The total amount of NH₃ emitted was on average of 13.2 kg N ha⁻¹, which is comparable with the
415 values of other authors (Gioacchini et al. 2002; Engel et al. 2011;). On average, NH₃ losses
416 represented the 13% of the total N applied in the field. Such percentage value is similar to that
417 reported in other studies conducted in other environments (Ferm 1998; Palma et al. 1998), lower
418 than that observed by de Morais et al. (2013) and higher than that observed by Bouwman et al.
419 (2002) and Jantalia et al. (2012). Such data discrepancy may be due to different doses and types of
420 the N-fertilizers applied, soil types, and crops (Bouwman et al. 2002). In the present study, 76% of
421 the total NH₃-N emitted were observed after the N fertilization carried out at tillering (while the
422 remaining 24% occurred after the N fertilization carried out at sowing. This result can be explained
423 taking into account that, in both CT and NT soils and regardless to the crop sequence, the N
424 fertilizer was buried, even if partially, into the soil during the sowing operations, whereas it was
425 applied on the soil surface at tillering time. Indeed, NH₃ losses are reduced by burying N fertilizers

426 into the soil because of the increased resistance to the upward diffusion of ammoniacal N present in
427 the liquid and gaseous phases and the increased adsorption of NH_4^+ on soil particles when urea is
428 incorporated at a depth (Sommer et al. 2004; Rochette et al. 2013).

429 Total soil NH_3 emissions were not affected by tillage. This result disagrees with the findings of
430 many authors that usually report higher soil NH_3 losses in NT soils compared to CT ones (Palma et
431 al. 1998; Sommer et al. 2004; Rochette et al. 2009). Such differences for NH_3 emissions are
432 generally attributed to the higher urease activity in NT soils compared to CT soils (Roscoe et al.
433 2000; Jian-She et al. 2011), the presence of surface residues in NT that reduces the contact of N
434 fertilizer granules with soil (McInnes et al. 1986; Rochette et al. 2009), and the more abundant
435 presence of shallow cracks on the soil surface in CT soils compared to NT soils that favors the
436 penetration of N fertilizer granules into the soil profile (Rochette et al. 2009). Probably, in our
437 experiment, two factors may have contributed to determine a similar response between CT and NT
438 for NH_3 emissions: the type of N fertilizer applied (ammonium nitrate that we have used at tillering
439 time versus urea as often used in the experiments mentioned above) and the occurrence of rains in
440 the period immediately following the top-dressing N fertilization, which has certainly favored the
441 dragging of the N fertilizer along soil profile. Total soil NH_3 losses were strongly affected by crop
442 sequences, being significantly higher under WW than WF. This result is attributable to the different
443 amounts of N fertilizer applied to wheat in the two crop sequences (120 kg N ha^{-1} in wheat grown
444 after wheat and 80 kg N ha^{-1} in wheat grown after faba bean), so much so that the percentage of
445 fertilizer N applied that was emitted as NH_3 accounted for 13% in both FW and WW crop
446 sequences; it is well known that, generally, the higher the amount of N-fertilizer applied the higher
447 the NH_3 emissions (Saggar et al. 2013).

448

449 *4.3. N_2O emissions, DEA, nosZ abundance*

450

451 Total N₂O losses measured from sowing to harvest were, on average, 2.08 kg N₂O-N ha⁻¹, which
452 are close to the mean value (2.8 kg N₂O-N ha⁻¹) reported by Cayuela et al. (2017) in a recent meta-
453 analysis that included data from 53 field studies performed in Mediterranean areas. Specifically, for
454 winter cereals, the authors reported average cumulative emissions much lower than those observed
455 in the present experiment (0.7 versus 2.1 kg N₂O-N ha⁻¹) but, at the same time, they observed
456 higher values (2.3 kg N₂O-N ha⁻¹ on average) in environments with a mean annual precipitation
457 >450 mm, that is the condition under which our experiment has been conducted.

458 Besides the differences in magnitude among treatments, daily N₂O emission rates varied during the
459 crop cycle showing a first peak in February and a second peak in May. Also Mutegi et al. (2010)
460 observed two peaks: the first one in autumn, which was attributed to the soil disturbance during
461 seedbed preparation and crop sowing under wet and warm weather conditions; and a second peak in
462 spring, as a result of the rapid transformations in soil of the N applied as fertilizer or slurry as also
463 observed by other authors (Dobbie and Smith 2003; Chatskikh et al. 2005). However, the two peaks
464 observed in the present study did not occur in concomitance or immediately afterwards wheat
465 sowing or N-fertilization. The peak observed in February was likely favored by the occurrence of
466 abundant rains, which led to a much lower availability of O₂ in the soil, associated to a concomitant
467 availability of the N residual from the fertilization done at sowing time. The second peak (in May)
468 was favored by rainfall events and also by the increase of the temperatures in the spring, both
469 factors that can have stimulated the activity of denitrifying bacteria, associated to an adequate
470 availability of nutrients (mainly C and N) from both the N residual from the fertilization done at
471 tillering (top-dressing) and the mineralization of the soil organic matter.

472 In the present research, rates of N₂O emissions were higher in NT soils than CT soils, similarly to
473 many other studies (Liu et al. 2007; Oorts et al. 2007; Rochette et al. 2008). This result has to be
474 ascribed to the co-occurrence of at least three main factors. Firstly, long-term NT increased bulk
475 density, and, as a consequence, the incidence of soil anaerobic microsites (Tellez-Rio et al. 2015b);
476 this condition certainly have enhanced the activity of denitrifiers and the emission of N₂O.

477 Secondly, due to the increase of bulk density, also WFPS values were higher in NT than in CT and,
478 for most of the time, higher than 60%, that is commonly considered the critical threshold above
479 which denitrification is promoted (Linn and Doran 1984; Regina and Alakukku 2010). Thirdly, as
480 NT increased the amount of labile C (EOC) but apparently not nitrates, it is likely that, with the
481 lower oxygen availability and in the presence of readily decomposable organic substrates, classical
482 denitrifier microorganisms were constrained to use nitrates as final acceptors of electrons. This
483 explains why nitrates could not accumulate. Laboratory measurements confirmed higher soil
484 denitrification potential in topsoil under NT than under CT, according to Baudoin et al. (2009).
485 However, an increase in DEA may not necessarily result in a proportional increase in the N₂O
486 emissions as these latter also depend on the molar N₂O/(N₂O+N₂) ratio. In fact, the DEA assay
487 provides a measure of the potential denitrification since it is performed under laboratory optimal
488 conditions. Moreover, during the DEA assay the further reduction of N₂O to N₂ is inhibited, thus
489 leading to N₂O accumulation. The N₂O reduction to N₂ is catalyzed by the nitrous oxide reductase
490 enzyme that is the last enzyme of the denitrification pathway. Therefore, a greater abundance of
491 N₂O-reducers is an important factor for soil N₂O sink capacity and our data seem to highlight that
492 the adoption of NT can drive microbial communities favoring these microorganisms. In fact, the
493 nosZ gene was significantly higher under NT than CT conditions and this may have at least partly
494 offset the drastic increase in DEA by increasing the proportion of total N losses as N₂, in other
495 words by reducing the N₂O/(N₂O+N₂) ratio. This might also explain why lower N₂O emissions in
496 the field were observed in the NT-WW compared to NT-FW system; in fact, despite the upper soil
497 layer of NT-WW showed higher values of DEA compared to NT-FW (mainly due to the greater
498 amount of N-fertilizer applied), it also showed a greater abundance of nosZ gene that, as a result,
499 determined lower N₂O emissions in the field in comparison to NT-FW. From another perspective,
500 despite the minor total denitrification potential in NT-FW compared to NT-WW (–23% of DEA
501 value, on average), the lower abundance of nosZ gene determined a lower conversion from N₂O to
502 N₂, and thus higher N₂O emissions in the field. Therefore, in NT, the inclusion of faba bean in

503 rotation with wheat, diversifying crop residues and hence substrate availability for microbial
504 community, affected the composition of denitrifier community and the soil potential to reduce the
505 N₂O emissions and the N₂O/(N₂O+N₂) product ratio (Domeignoz-Horta et al. 2015; Tatti et al.
506 2015; Giles et al. 2017). This circumstance can explain the Tillage × Crop interaction observed in
507 the field and the slight but significant differences between the two crop sequences under NT for the
508 N₂O emissions.

509

510 **5. Conclusions**

511

512 The continuous use of NT, applied for over 20 years to a Vertisol in a semiarid Mediterranean
513 environment, determined relevant changes in the soil physical and chemical properties, with an
514 increase, compared to CT, in the soil organic matter content but only in the uppermost soil layer (0–
515 15 cm). The different organic carbon stratification between NT and CT soils has considerable
516 implications from an agronomic point of view. In fact, the uppermost soil layer is undoubtedly the
517 most fragile, being exposed to the atmospheric agents. In the semiarid Mediterranean environments,
518 where soil erosion often represents a major issue, the maintenance of crop residues on soil surface
519 coupled with the increase of organic C in the uppermost soil layer can contribute to significantly
520 reduce such a phenomenon. It must be noted that effects of NT on the physical and chemical
521 properties of soil did not vary with crop sequence. The latter had little or no influence on the soil
522 parameters although C inputs varied considerably (being higher in FW than in WW), highlighting
523 how the quality of crop residues, by influencing their own fate, is as important as their amount.

524 No tillage showed contrasting effects on N gas emissions from soil. No differences were observed
525 between CT and NT as regard NH₃ emissions, whereas NT determined higher N₂O emissions. After
526 all, NT determined a considerable increase of the potential denitrifying enzyme activity in the
527 uppermost soil layer, favored by the increase of organic matter (and in particular of its labile
528 fractions) and by the increase of the water filled pore space. Such effects were counterbalanced only

529 partially by the increase of the nitrous oxide reductase activity (as evidenced by the higher values of
530 *nosZ* gene abundance observed in NT than in CT soils), responsible of the N₂O reduction to N₂.
531 In conclusion, though the long-term application of NT offers some agronomic and environmental
532 benefits in semiarid Mediterranean environment at the same time it presents some critical points
533 related to the increase in nitrous oxide emissions. This highlights the importance of defining
534 particularly accurate management strategies that can mitigate these negative effects.

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788 **FIGURE CAPTIONS**

789

790 **Fig. 1.** Carbon inputs to the soil under different management practices (CT, conventional tillage;
791 NT, no tillage; WW, wheat after wheat; FW, wheat after faba bean). Reported values are means
792 ($n=17$) \pm SE (bars). Different letters indicate significant differences among treatments at $P \leq 0.05$.

793

794 **Fig. 2.** Ammonia (NH_3) emission from soil under different management practices (CT,
795 conventional tillage; NT, no tillage; WW, wheat after wheat; FW, wheat after faba bean). Red
796 rectangles (bottom) represent the NH_3 emitted after the fertilization at sowing, while grey rectangles
797 represent the NH_3 emitted after the fertilization at tillering. Each full column (the sum of previous
798 two rectangles) represent the total NH_3 emitted from each treatment averaged on the two growing
799 seasons. Reported values are means ($n=6$) \pm SE (bars). Different letters indicate significant
800 differences among treatments at $P \leq 0.05$ for total NH_3 emissions.

801

802 **Fig. 3.** Nitrous oxide (N_2O) emission fluxes ($\mu\text{g m}^{-2} \text{h}^{-1}$) and water filled pore space (WFPS; $\text{m}^3 \text{m}^{-3}$)
803 from soil under different management practices (CT, conventional tillage; NT, no tillage; WW,
804 wheat after wheat; FW, wheat after faba bean) during the 2013–2014 [a] and 2014–2015 [b]
805 growing seasons. Reported values are means ($n=6$) \pm SE (bars). F and black arrows indicate the
806 time of N top-dressing.

807

808 **Fig. 4.** Total nitrous oxide (N_2O) emission from soil under different management practices (CT,
809 conventional tillage; NT, no tillage; WW, wheat after wheat; FW, wheat after faba bean). Reported
810 values are means ($n=6$) \pm SE (bars). Different letters indicate significant differences among
811 treatments at $P \leq 0.05$.

812

813 **Fig. 5.** Abundances of nosZ gene (expressed as gene copy number mg⁻¹ of dry soil) in the 0–15 cm
814 soil layer under different management practices (CT, conventional tillage; NT, no tillage; WW,
815 wheat after wheat; FW, wheat after faba bean). Reported values are means (n=4) ± SE (bars).
816 Different letters indicate significant differences among treatments at $P \leq 0.05$.

817 **TABLES**

818

819 **Table 1**

820 Bulk density, total organic carbon (TOC), total nitrogen (TN), extractable organic carbon (EOC),
 821 and nitrates (NO_3^- -N) determined on samples collected at 0–15 cm and 15–30 cm soil layers under
 822 different management practices (CT, conventional tillage; NT, no tillage; WW, wheat after wheat;
 823 FW, wheat after faba bean). For each parameter, the proportion of variance explained by Tillage,
 824 Crop, and Tillage \times Crop interaction is also reported.

825

Treatment		Bulk density kg m^{-3}	TOC g C kg^{-1}	TN g N kg^{-1}	EOC mg C kg^{-1}	NO_3^- -N mg N kg^{-1}
<i>0–15 cm</i>						
CT	WW	987	13.3	1.3	53.9	1.6
	FW	950	14.2	1.3	54.8	1.6
NT	WW	1174	17.4	1.9	75.8	1.8
	FW	1128	18.8	1.8	78.9	1.6
Tillage (%)		93.2***	89.9**	96.2***	85.3**	ns
Crop (%)		ns	ns	ns	ns	ns
Tillage \times Crop (%)		ns	ns	ns	ns	ns
<i>15–30 cm</i>						
CT	WW	1040	13.7	1.3	55.8	1.5
	FW	1047	14.2	1.4	62.4	1.6
NT	WW	1344	13.6	1.4	47.2	1.4
	FW	1260	14.3	1.5	47.5	1.3
Tillage (%)		93.6***	ns	ns	68.3**	ns
Crop (%)		ns	ns	ns	ns	ns
Tillage \times Crop (%)		ns	ns	ns	ns	ns

826 *, **, and *** significant at $P \leq 0.05$, $P \leq 0.01$, and $P \leq 0.001$, respectively; ns, not significant.

827 **Table 2**

828 Average potential denitrifying enzyme activity (DEA) determined on soil samples collected at 0–15
 829 cm and 15–30 cm soil layers under different management practices (CT, conventional tillage; NT,
 830 no tillage; WW, wheat after wheat; FW, wheat after faba bean). The proportion of variance
 831 explained by Tillage, Crop, and Tillage × Crop interaction is also reported.

832

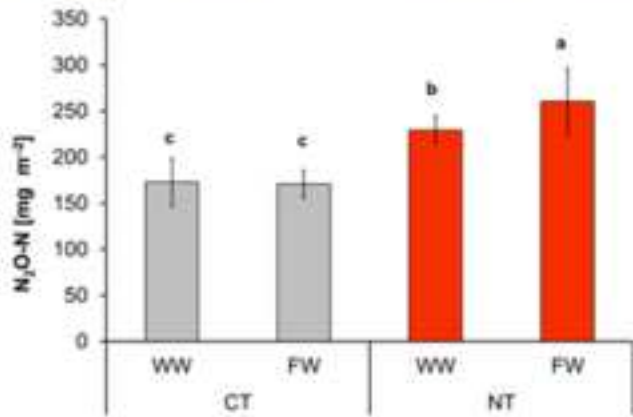
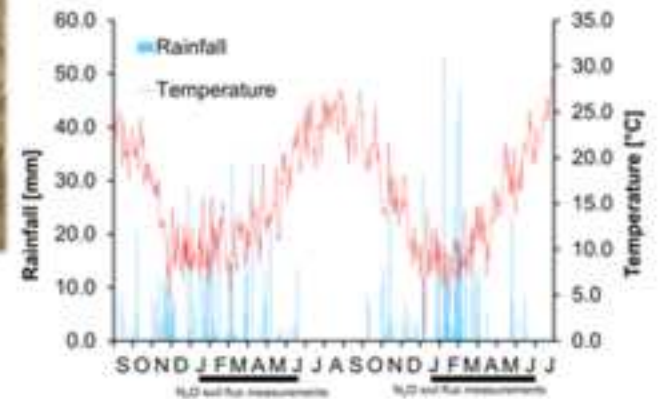
Treatment		DEA ($\mu\text{g N}_2\text{O-N kg}^{-1} \text{ h}^{-1}$)	
		0–15 cm	15–30 cm
CT	WW	16.5 c	17.0
	FW	15.2 c	17.4
NT	WW	128.3 a	12.7
	FW	99.3 b	12.8
Tillage (%)		93.7***	ns
Crop (%)		2.2**	ns
Tillage × Crop (%)		3.6*	ns

833 Where the Tillage × Crop interaction is significant, different letters indicate significant differences
 834 among treatments at $P \leq 0.05$.

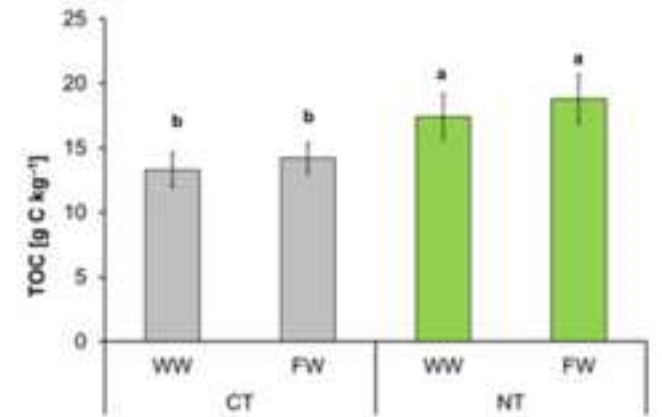
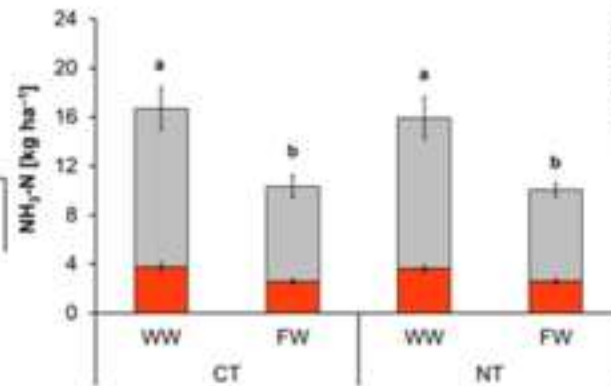
835 *, **, and *** significant at $P \leq 0.05$, $P \leq 0.01$, and $P \leq 0.001$, respectively; ns, not significant.



In semiarid Mediterranean environment, long term no tillage provides contrasting agronomic and environmental impacts



WW, continuous wheat
FW, wheat after faba bean



CT, conventional tillage
NT, no tillage

Highlights

- Tillage effects on soil organic C and N gases emissions were assessed in two crop sequences
- N₂O emissions, but not total NH₃ emissions, were higher in NT than CT
- Continuous application of NT for 23 years increased bulk density, WFPS, TOC and EOC in the topsoil compared to CT
- Denitrifying enzyme activity and nosZ gene were enhanced by long term NT

