- 1 **Title:** Potentials to mitigate greenhouse gas emissions from Swiss agriculture
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32 Abstract

33 There is an urgent need to identify and evaluate management practices for their biophysical potential to maintain productivity under climate change while mitigating greenhouse gas 34 (GHG) emissions from individual cropping systems under specific pedo-climatic conditions. 35 Here, we examined, through DayCent modeling, the long-term impact of soil management 36 practices and their interactions on soil GHG emissions and GHG intensity from Swiss 37 cropping systems. Based on experimental data from four long-term experimental sites in 38 Switzerland (Therwil, Frick, Changins, and Reckenholz), we robustly parameterized and 39 evaluated the model for simulating crop productivity, soil C dynamics and soil N₂O emissions 40 41 across a range of management practices and pedo-climatic conditions. Net soil GHG emissions (NSGHGE) were derived from changes in soil C, N₂O emissions and CH₄ 42 oxidation. Soils under conventional management acted as a net source of soil GHG emissions 43 $(1361-1792 \text{ kg CO}_2\text{eq ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1})$ and NSGHGE were dominated by N₂O (50 - 63%). Reduced 44 tillage and no-tillage reduced long-term NSGHGE by up to 31 and 58%, respectively. 45 Organic farming, represented by organic fertilization, reduced NSGHGE by up to 31% 46 compared to systems based solely on mineral fertilization. Replacement of slurries with a 47 composted FYM led to an additional reduction in NSGHGE by 46%, although our approach 48 considered only soil GHG emissions and thus did not take into account GHG emissions from 49 the composting process. Cover cropping did not significantly influence NSGHGE, however 50 vetch tended to reduce NSGHGE (-19%). The highest mitigation potential was associated 51 52 with organic farming plus reduced tillage management, it reduced long-term NSGHGE by up to 128%. Soil C sequestration accounted, on average, for 89% of GHG mitigation potentials. 53 Not all the management practices sustained crop yields. Nevertheless, composting of organic 54 manures, reduced tillage and no-tillage effectively reduced NSGHGE and GHG intensity 55 without a noticeable yield reduction. Our results suggest that implementation of the above soil 56

management practices in Swiss cropping systems have a considerable potential for climatechange mitigation, although time-limited.

59

60 Highlights:

61	 DayCent was parameterized and evaluated using data from four LTEs in Switzerland
62	• Organic farming with reduced tillage reduced net soil GHG emissions and also yield
63	• Composting, RT and NT reduced net soil GHG emissions without a yield reduction
64	• Soil C sequestration accounted, on average, for 89% of GHG mitigation potentials
65	
66	Key words: soil management; cropping system; soil organic carbon; nitrous oxide; methane
67	oxidation; greenhouse gas mitigation; greenhouse gas intensity; greenhouse gas sink;

68 DayCent; biogeochemical modeling

69

1. Introduction

70 There is a global concern related to the increase in greenhouse gases (GHG) in the

atmosphere, primarily CO₂, N₂O, and CH₄ and their impact on climate change. Intensification 71 72 of agriculture due to technological advancement has doubled crop yields between 1970–2010, but also posed severe environmental problems (Pimentel et al., 1995; FAOSTAT, 2017). 73 Cultivation of agricultural land has caused a historical loss of 50 Pg of soil organic carbon 74 75 (SOC) (Houghton, 1999). Soil and manure management, enteric fermentation, biomass burning, and rice cultivation have become the largest anthropogenic source of N₂O and CH₄, 76 although there are regional differences in importance of these emissions sources (Smith et al., 77 2014). In 2010, agriculture accounted for 5.0–5.8 Pg $CO_2eq yr^{-1}$, i.e., 10 - 12% of total global 78 anthropogenic GHG emissions (Tubiello et al., 2013; FAOSTAT, 2017). Switzerland is small, 79 but a large part of its area (1522.7 km²) is used for agriculture. In 2015, agriculture accounted 80 for 12.6% (6.07 Tg CO₂eq yr⁻¹) of total Swiss GHG emissions (FOEN, 2017). Soil 81 management, which is the second largest source, induces N₂O emissions that account for 82 30.9% of Swiss agricultural GHG emissions (FOEN, 2017). Reduction of these emissions 83 therefore constitutes an important part of agriculture's GHG mitigation potential concerning 84 climate change as well as achieving Swiss GHG reduction targets aiming to limit global 85 climate warming below 2°C by 2100 in line with the RCP2.6 scenario (Kyoto Protocol, Lima 86 2014 and Paris 2015 agreements). 87 Research proposed a number of management options that can significantly contribute to 88

89 reducing soil GHG emissions from cropping systems, such as more efficient use of fertilizers

90 (Bouwman *et al.*, 2002; Venterea *et al.*, 2012), organic farming (Gattinger *et al.*, 2012;

91 Skinner et al., 2014), reduced tillage intensity or no-tillage (West and Marland, 2002; Six et

92 *al.*, 2004; van Kessel *et al.*, 2013; Cooper *et al.*, 2016), residue retention, cover cropping

93 (Poeplau and Don, 2015; Kaye and Quemada, 2017), improved water and rice management.

The biophysical mitigation potential of these practices need to be evaluated for individual 94 95 cropping systems under specific pedo-climatic conditions, historical land use and management (Smith, 2012). Previous research on Swiss cropping systems has been designed 96 to investigate the influence of a range of soil management practices on agronomic 97 performance, SOC and soil fertility (Mäder et al., 2002; Fließbach et al., 2007; Berner et al., 98 2008; Krauss et al., 2010; Wittwer et al., 2017). Yet, relatively little is known about effects of 99 100 these practices on soil GHG emissions. Identification and quantification of GHG mitigation potentials associated with soil managements is key to designing effective agricultural 101 mitigation strategies. In addition to evaluation of mitigation options on an area basis, more 102 103 attention has been recently paid to assessment of GHG intensity (GHGI) per agricultural product unit that indicates the GHG efficiency of production (Burney et al., 2010). This 104 105 assessment has been allied to the concept of sustainable intensification (Godfray et al., 2010; 106 Tilman et al., 2011; Smith, 2013) and promotes management practices that increase production without a commensurate increase in emissions (Smith et al., 2014). 107 108 Net potential of soil management practices to contribute to GHG mitigation depends on the direction and magnitude of changes in SOC, N₂O and CH₄ emissions associated with their 109 implementation compared to conventional practices. Direction and magnitude of soil GHG 110 111 emissions and thus mitigation potentials might change over time in response to the management and climate change (Smith, 2012). Long-term field experiments (LTE) suggest 112 that rates of SOC change in response to soil management are the greatest in the first 10 years 113 114 and then attenuate when reaching a new steady-state (Johnston et al., 2009; Gattinger et al., 2012). Six et al. (2004) and van Kessel et al. (2013) found a noticeable time dependency in 115 no-tillage and reduced tillage effects on N₂O emissions. Nevertheless, there is a lack of long-116 term observations. Most GHG studies are based on a sampling period over one to two 117 growing seasons that does not even cover the entire crop rotation length. Soil management 118

and crop interaction effects on soil GHG emissions can be complex and cannot be entirely 119 120 identified in a short-term. This is most pronounced in complex cropping systems, like those in organic farming leading to a pronounced temporal decoupling of N input und corresponding 121 N₂O emission (Skinner et al., 2014). Therefore, there is an urgent need for long-term 122 monitoring of management-specific GHG emissions over entire crop rotations preferably 123 across a wide range of pedo-climatic conditions to elucidate long-term N and C dynamics in 124 125 response to changes in management. However, the spatial and temporal resolution and the extent of GHG measurements are generally limited by cost and time constraints. 126 Alternatively, ecosystem process-based models that are capable of capturing complex long-127 128 term dynamics in soil-crop-atmosphere systems, when correctly integrated with empirical data, provide effective and robust tools to bridge data gaps, to understand and quantify soil 129 GHG emissions responses to changes in soil management. Furthermore, these models can be 130 131 used to identify and evaluate long-term effects and strengths of selected GHG mitigation options and thus support climate change strategies. DayCent (Del Grosso et al., 2001; 132 Campbell and Paustrian, 2015) is a dominant coupled soil-plant dynamic model that has been 133 widely used to simulate long-term ecosystem responses to changes in soil management and 134 climate in the US (Parton and Rasmussen, 1994; Del Grosso et al., 2008b; De Gryze et al., 135 136 2011; Lee *et al.*, 2015). However, its application to European cropping systems has been limited (e.g., Foereid et al. (2012), Alvaro-Fuentes et al. (2017)). Hence, if DayCent is to be 137 reliably used to address agriculture GHG mitigation under Swiss conditions, it requires robust 138 139 parameterization for common Swiss crops and management practices and evaluation across a range of management practices and pedo-climatic conditions. Accordingly, this study was 140 designed with the following objectives: i) to parameterize DayCent for common crops and 141 management practices using long-term empirical data collected under various pedo-climatic 142 conditions in Switzerland; ii) to evaluate the model's ability to simulate long-term crop 143

productivity, SOC dynamics and soil N_2O emissions in diverse Swiss cropping systems; and iii) to examine the long-term impact of management practices and their interactions on soil GHG emissions and GHGI at each experimental site.

147

148 **2.** Materials and methods

149 <u>2.1 LTE descriptions</u>

150 The empirical data was derived from four Swiss LTEs located in Changins (P29C LTE),

151 Therwil (DOK LTE), Reckenholz (FAST LTE) and Frick (Frick LTE, Table 1). These LTEs

have evaluated effects of various farming systems and soil management practices (Table 2).

153 **DOK LTE** compares farming systems differing with respect to fertilization and plant

154 protection management: a) biodynamic (D2) and organic (O2) systems fertilized with

155 farmyard manure (FYM) and slurry at the typical intensity of Swiss organic farms (Mäder et

al., 2006); b) conventional system (K2) with the same organic fertilizer input and additional

157 mineral fertilization up to recommended plant-specific levels; c) mineral conventional system

158 (M2) fertilized with mineral fertilizers, representing a stockless system; and d) unfertilized

159 system (N) (Mäder *et al.*, 2006). The N, P and K inputs in D2 and O2 were 34-51% lower

than in K2 and M2 systems (Mäder *et al.*, 2002). Organic (D, O) and the conventional system

161 (K) were managed at two fertilization levels, corresponding to 100% and 50% of typical

162 fertilization. Systems were arranged in a split-split-plot design with four replicates. Seven-

163 year crop rotation consisted of potatoes (Solanum tuberosum), green manure, winter wheat

164 (*Triticum aestivum*), fodder intercrop, white cabbage (*Brassica oleracea*), winter wheat,

165 winter barley (*Hordeum vulgare*) and a two-year grass-clover ley (*Trifolium pratense*,

166 Trifolium repens, Dactylis glomerata, Festuca rubra, Phleum pratense, Lolium perennne, Poa

167 *pratensis, Festuca pratensis*) (Fließbach *et al.*, 2007). White cabbage was replaced with

168 beetroot (*Beta vulgaris*) and soybeans (*Glycine max*), and one winter cereal with silage maize

(Zea mays) in later years. As fodder intercrops, rye and vetch or sunflower and vetch mixtures 169 170 were planted. Crop rotation was planted with a temporal shift on three rotation subplots (later referred to a rotation A, B and C) so that three crops were grown simultaneously in each 171 system each year. Soils were managed under conventional tillage and cereal straw was 172 removed. SOC at 0-20 cm was measured annually after crop harvest (Fließbach et al., 2007). 173 Climate data (1977-2013) were recorded at the Basel-Binningen weather station. Symbiotic 174 N₂ fixation by soybeans, and red (Trifolium pratense) and white clover (Trifolium repens) in 175 grass-clover ley was measured using ¹⁵N natural abundance methods (Oberson *et al.*, 2007; 176 Oberson et al., 2013). Weekly soil N₂O and CH₄ emissions and mineral N (NO₃⁻ and NH₄⁺ at 177 178 0-20 cm) from K2, M2, O2 and N systems were measured during August 2012–March 2014 (Gattinger *et al.*, 2017). 179 180 Frick LTE compares the following management factors: i) tillage practices (conventional 181 (CT) vs. reduced (RT)); ii) type of organic fertilization (slurry alone (SL) vs. manure compost (MC)); and iii) without vs. with biodynamic compost and field preparations (Berner et al., 182 2008). Treatments were arranged in a split-split-plot design with four replicates. Six-year crop 183 rotation consisted of winter wheat, oat-clover (Trifolium alexandrinum), sunflower 184 (Helianthus annuus), spelt (Triticum spelta), a two-year grass-clover ley (Trifolium 185 186 campestre, Dactylis glomerata, Festuca pratensis Huds., Phleum pratense, Lolium perenne), winter pea green manure (Pisum sativum) and silage maize (Zea mays)(Krauss et al., 2010). 187 Winter pea was grown only under RT following the grass-clover incorporation. Cereal straw 188 and intercrop were harvested (Berner et al., 2008; Gadermaier et al., 2012); sunflower stalks 189 were removed only in 2010. Organic matter (OM) inputs were higher in MC than in SL, 190 partially due to straw content. Differences in N inputs between MC and SL were driven by 191 differences in N content of solid and liquid organic manures and N losses during the storage 192 (Gadermaier et al., 2012). The SOC at 0-10 and 10-20 cm was measured in 2002, 2005 and 193

2008 (Berner *et al.*, 2008; Gadermaier *et al.*, 2012). Climate data (2002-2013) were recorded
at the FiBL vineyard weather station.

FAST LTE compares conventional (CON) and organic (ORG) farming systems with different 196 197 tillage intensity (intensive tillage by mouldboard ploughing (IT) vs. no-tillage (NT) and reduced tillage (RT) in CON and ORG systems, respectively) and four cover crop treatments 198 (legume (VETCH), non-legume (MUST), mixture of several species (MIX), and a control 199 200 without cover crops (CONT)) (Wittwer et al., 2017). Six-year crop rotation consisted of winter wheat, maize, field bean (Vicia faba), winter wheat and a two-year grass-clover 201 mixture (Trifolium pratense, Trifolium album, Dactylis glomerata, Festuca pratensis, Lolium 202 203 perenne, Phleum pratense). Due to a lack of data only first four years of the rotation were considered in the analysis. Cover crops were sown before winter wheat and maize. Crop 204 residues (cover crops, maize and field bean) remained on plots, except for the winter wheat 205 206 straw. Climate data (1981-2014) were downloaded from MeteoSwiss (2016). P29C LTE compares four tillage practices: i) plough (PL), ii) chisel (CH), iii) cultivator (CL) 207 and iv) rototiller (RT) on two contrasting soil textures. The CH treatment was converted to 208 direct seeding with no-tillage after 2007. Although data from the whole experimental period 209 were considered for model parametrization, GHG predictions only for 1978-2007 were 210 211 included in analyses. SOC at 0-20 cm was measured in all treatments on 15 occasions (Büchi et al., 2017). Four-year crop rotation consisted of rapeseed (Brassica napus), winter wheat, 212 grain maize and winter wheat. Climate data (1969-2013) were recorded at the site. 213 214 The number of treatments, factorial design and long-term duration of LTEs provided a rich dataset for DayCent parameterization and evaluation across a range of management practices 215 and pedo-climatic conditions in Switzerland, although only single site measurements on soil 216 mineral N and N₂O emissions were available for evaluation of the model's ability to simulate 217

218 soil N processes. Due to a limited model representation of biodynamic amendments,

219 biodynamic systems/treatments were neglected.

220

221 <u>2.2 DayCent model</u>

DayCent (version 2012)(Del Grosso et al., 2001) is a fully resolved terrestrial ecosystem 222 223 model of intermediate complexity that simulates C and N biogeochemical processes in 224 various soil-plant systems. It includes sub-models for plant productivity, decomposition of dead plant material and soil organic matter (SOM), soil water and temperature dynamics, N 225 gas fluxes and CH₄ oxidation. Net primary productivity is a function of genetic potential, 226 227 plant phenology, nutrient availability, soil water, temperature, shading and solar radiation. The SOM, represented by plant litter and three conceptual pools (active, slow, and passive), is 228 229 simulated for the upper 20 cm. N gas sub-model represents both denitrification and 230 nitrification. Denitrification rates are calculated for each soil layer based on soil NO_3 , available labile C, water content, texture, and temperature; while nitrification rates are 231 calculated based on soil NH₄⁺, water content, texture, and temperature. CH₄ oxidation is a 232 function of soil temperature, water content, porosity, and field capacity. DayCent has been 233 shown to accurately simulate crop yields, soil C and N dynamics, and N₂O emissions when 234 rigorously calibrated and evaluated against empirical data representing various ecosystems 235 and pedo-climatic conditions (Paustian et al., 1997; Del Grosso et al., 2005; Del Grosso et al., 236 2008a). 237

238 <u>2.3 Modeling approach</u>

239 <u>Model parameterization</u>: Model parameterization was accomplished using an inverse

- 240 modeling package PEST (version 13.0) (Doherty and Hunt, 2010) that iteratively estimates
- 241 parameter values using a nonlinear regression method based on the principle of least-squares

242 minimization. Details on coupling DayCent with PEST have been reported by Necpalova *et*243 *al.* (2015).

Parametrization dataset comprised time series of crop yields (n = 2618) and SOC contents (n244 245 = 1284) collected across 46 treatments and 19 crops at four sites. Model integration with empirical data was evaluated using a weighted multicomponent objective function represented 246 by weighted least-squared difference between measured and simulated values. Crop-specific 247 and SOC data formed independent components of the objective function. The inter-248 component weighting strategy was defined such that each component contributed equally to 249 the objective function at the start of parametrization, regardless of the number of 250 251 measurements per component, units, and other confounding factors. Individual measurements within each component were weighted equally. 252 Initially, a local sensitivity analysis of model parameters at their default values identified 253 254 parameters sensitive to the parametrization dataset. The sensitivity was derived from the firstorder partial derivatives of simulated values corresponding to available empirical data with 255 256 respect to selected uncertain parameters. Temperature response functions and nutrient limitations were parametrized at the crop-species level, while the genetic growth potential and 257 maximum harvest index were adjusted at the crop cultivar level. A list of selected model 258 259 parameters and their uncertainty ranges are listed in Table A.1. Default parameter values were considered as initial values, their uncertainty ranges were 260 derived from the literature review and our prior knowledge. All parameters were log-261 transformed to strengthen linear relationships between parameters and simulated values. Prior 262 to the parameterization, we observed a large number of correlations between parameters in the 263 correlation coefficient matrix. Therefore, the parameterization was achieved in several 264 independent stages. Firstly, crop parameters were inferred from crop productivity data 265 collected under conventional management practices. Secondly, tillage decomposition 266

multipliers for individual SOM pools were inferred from long-term SOC data collected under 267 268 various tillage managements and under mineral fertilization. Lastly, bio-chemical composition of organic fertilizers was inferred from long-term crop productivity and SOC 269 270 data collected under organic fertilization. Each stage was based on a specific subset of the parametrization dataset, while remaining data were assigned 0 weights, and thus did not 271 272 contribute to the overall objective function computed for the individual stages of 273 parametrization. Model parameters adjusted in the initial stages were frozen at their values for the later stages of parametrization. Parameterization runs across numerous treatments and four 274 sites reduced uncertainty ranges for selected parameters and delivered arithmetic means and 275 276 confidence intervals considered in the model application. Due to a lack of yield data, Persian and red clover intercrops, green manures at DOK, winter rye, sunflower-summer vetch, and 277 clover-mustard mixtures remained represented by default values in the model application. To 278 279 retain the model widely applicable, the parameterization was kept as general as possible across the sites. 280

281

Spin-up simulations: Distribution of modeled SOM pools was initialized using spin-up 282 simulations of native temperate deciduous forest (0-1399), already strongly influenced by 283 284 human activities (Pfister, 1995), that brought SOM pools into equilibrium with OM inputs. Simulations proceed from equilibrium with base simulations of historical land use 285 management in the following periods (Bürgi et al., 2015; Bürgi, 2016): 1) appearance of 286 agriculture (1400 - 1750; winter grain - summer grain - fallow rotations and limited manure 287 inputs), 2) agricultural revolution (1751 - 1850; introduction of improved seeds, planting 288 clover in fallow fields, replacement of summer grains by potatoes, cultivation of formerly 289 290 uncultivated land due to excessive drainage and higher availability of organic manures due to higher number of animals), 3) agricultural intensification (1851 - 1950; manufacturing of 291

mineral fertilizer that provided supplemental fertilization), and 4) modern agriculture (from 292 293 1950; introduction of maize and diverse crop rotations with three grass-clover ley years). Due to a scarcity of site-specific data, the land use history was assumed to be identical for all sites, 294 295 although the last period finished in different years depending on the LTE establishment year. Initial measurements of site-specific SOC content were used by an inverse modeling 296 algorithm to adjust the forest radiation use efficiency for calculating potential productivity to 297 298 reach pre-experimental SOC content at each site. For these simulations, site-specific climate data was used recursively. Following base simulations, the model simulated long-term soil 299 management effects as imposed in treatments established in LTEs. These simulations started 300 301 when the actual LTEs were established and continued until the end of the experimental period. 302

303

304 Long-term simulations: Parameterized DayCent was used to simulate crop yields, SOC dynamics, N₂O emissions and CH₄ oxidation capacity for individual treatments under site-305 306 specific pedo-climatic conditions at each site over 30 years. The model was driven by recorded management, soil physicochemical properties and daily climate data. If the LTE was 307 shorter than 30 years, the management and climate data were used repeatedly until the end of 308 309 the simulation period. Simulations were run independently by replicate, as soil profiles were characterized at the plot level, except for P29C and Frick, where only average soil properties 310 were available. Soil hydraulic properties (field capacity, wilting point and saturated hydraulic 311 conductivity) were calculated based on soil texture, bulk density and SOC concentration using 312 pedo-transfer functions (Wosten et al., 1999). Soil physical properties were assumed to be 313 constant over time, i.e., SOC content was computed on an equivalent mass basis using initial 314 bulk densities. For all crops, yields, straw and aboveground biomass was expressed on a C 315 content basis using published crop-specific plant component C concentrations. Crop 316

- 317 productivity and SOC content data were equally divided into two independent datasets, for
- model parameterization and evaluation, based on blocking in the experimental design. Soil
- 319 properties were available for all plot replicates, thus half of the plot replicates was used for
- 320 model calibration and the other half for model evaluation with the assumption that blocking
- 321 was effective and arrangement of the blocks reflected variability in soil properties at each
- 322 LTE. Additionally, soil NO_3^- , NH_4^+ and N_2O data from DOK were considered for the
- evaluation of the model's ability to simulate soil N processes.
- 324

325 <u>2.4 Model evaluation, calculations, and statistical analysis</u>

Model's ability to simulate crop productivity, long-term SOC, soil NH_4^+ and NO_3^- , daily and cumulative N₂O emissions was quantified using multiple statistical criteria (Wallach *et al.*, 2014): root mean square error (RMSE), relative RMSE (rRMSE), coefficient of determination (r²) and Willmott's index (WI).

Net soil GHG emissions (NSGHGE, kg CO₂eq ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹) were derived from annual changes in
SOC content, N₂O emissions and CH₄ oxidation capacity using 100-year time horizon global
warming potentials (IPCC, 2014) as follows:

NSGHGE =
$$\frac{44}{12} \times [\Delta SOC] + 265 \times [N_2O] - 28 \times [CH_4]$$

333

where $[\Delta SOC]$ is the change in SOC content (kg C ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹), [N₂O] is N₂O cumulative flux (kg N₂O ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹) and [CH₄] is CH₄ uptake (kg CH₄ ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹). Indirect N₂O emissions were not considered due to high uncertainties associated with their estimates and a lack of reliable evaluation data for Swiss conditions.

338 Due to an implementation of complex crop rotations causing a discrepancy between the

growing season of main crops and a period considered for NSGHGE calculation, GHGI (kg

CO₂eq kg⁻¹ yield) was computed as the sum of annual NSGHGE over 30 years, divided by
total harvested grain, tuber, vegetables and forages (kg DM ha⁻¹) over 30 years:

$$GHGI = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{30} NSGHGE}{\sum_{i=1}^{30} yield}$$

342

If the experimental period was longer than 30 years, only last 30 years were considered in the analysis. Management effects and their interactions were determined statistically using linear mixed-effects models in SAS (2014) with time included as a random effect and other factors and their interactions as fixed effects. Linear regression analysis was used to compute the annual change in SOC content over time corresponding to a slope of the regression line.

348

349 3. Results

350 <u>3.1 Model evaluation</u>

Following the parameterization, DayCent reproduced 81% of the measured variation in crop 351 productivity across years, treatments and sites (RMSE = 76 g C m^{-2} , rRMSE = 0.29). 352 353 Productivity predictions were more certain for Frick and FAST and less certain for P29C (Fig.1). The model substantially underpredicted the measured variation in productivity due to 354 spatial replication. Mean crop-specific productivity across years, treatments and sites was 355 356 simulated adequately (Table 3). Nevertheless, the model noticeably underpredicted productivity of winter peas, mixture, white mustard, potatoes and overpredicted rapeseed 357 productivity. As indicated by r^2 , it substantially underpredicted the measured variation in 358 spelt, winter barley, white cabbage, field beans and potatoes productivity. The highest rRMSE 359 was associated with productivity predictions of tuber crops, winter peas, spelt and white 360 361 cabbage.

DayCent predicted treatment-associated crop productivity satisfactorily (Fig.2). Nevertheless, it overpredicted productivity for N system in DOK, PL treatment on loam soil in P29C, and underpredicted productivity for ORG-RT treatments with mixture and vetch cover cropping in FAST. The model reproduced most of the variation in measured productivity within each treatment ($r^2 > 0.6$), except for N system in DOK and CH treatment on clay soil in P29C. The rRMSE associated with productivity predictions was below 0.4 for all modeled treatments, excluding N system in DOK.

369 For SOC content, the model reproduced 76% of the measured variation across years,

treatments and sites (RMSE = 504 g C m⁻², rRMSE = 0.13; Fig.3a). It also reproduced 63% of the measured variation in treatment-induced SOC change over time, although it substantially underpredicted higher SOC losses (Fig.3b), particularly for N, M2, K2 and K1 systems, all in rotation A in DOK (Fig.B1), and PL treatment on clay soil in P29C (Fig.B2). Although r² greatly varied between treatments, rRMSE associated with SOC predictions was consistently below 0.23 (Fig.2).

376 Soil N₂O emissions were evaluated against measured data collected in four main systems in

377 DOK over 1.5 years. DayCent predicted 25% of the measured variation in daily N_2O

378 emissions. Soil N₂O predictions for grass-clover and silage maize were adequate, although

less certain for green manure (Fig.4). While the error associated with daily emissions was

high (RMSE = 19.89 g N m⁻²; rRMSE = 1.73), the model predicted measured variation and

magnitude of cumulative N_2O emissions across all systems satisfactorily (Fig.5).

382 Soil NO_3^- and NH_4^+ data from the same systems were used to evaluate model predictions of

soil N dynamics. The model reproduced 73% and 42% of the measured variation in soil NO_3^-

and NH_4^+ concentrations, respectively, across all systems. However, it substantially

385 overpredicted soil NH_4^+ and underpredicted soil NO_3^- , particularly after both mineral and

- organic fertilization events. This amplified the overall predictive error for soil NO_3^- and NH_4^+ (Fig.B3).
- 388 There was no field data available to validate modeled CH₄ uptake at Swiss LTEs, therefore
- the magnitude of the model's predictions was evaluated with the results from peer-reviewed
- 390 studies conducted on temperate agricultural soils (Flessa *et al.*, 1995; Smith *et al.*, 2000;
- 391 Hütsch, 2001; Skinner *et al.*, 2014).
- 392
- 393 <u>3.2 Soil GHG emissions and mitigation potentials</u>

Tillage treatments and differences in soil texture did not significantly influence soil CO₂ 394 395 emissions in P29C LTE (Table 4). Soils under all treatments acted as a net CO₂ source (Fig.6). The SOC decrease in response to tillage intensities was consistent across two soil 396 textures and followed the order: PL > CH = CL > RO. The rate of decrease was higher for 397 398 clay than for loam soil (Table 5). In comparison, soil N₂O emissions exhibited sensitivity to tillage intensities and soil texture (Fig.6, Table 4). They decreased in the order: PL > CH> CL 399 400 > RO, and were significantly higher from clay than from loam soil (Fig.6). The proportion of N inputs lost as N₂O ranged from 1.24 to 1.35% for loam and from 1.36 to 1.53% for clay. All 401 reduced tillage treatments were more effective in reducing N2O emissions from clay than 402 from loam soil. 403

- 404 NSGHGE for P29C ranged from 989 to 1792 kg CO_2 eq ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ with a 61% contribution from
- 405 N₂O (Fig.6). The highest NSGHGE were simulated for PL treatments (Table 5). Under CH
- relative to PL, NSGHGE from loam decreased by 8%, and from clay by 14% (Table 6). This
- 407 was mainly attributed to the reduction in soil CO₂ emissions. Similarly, CL decreased soil
- 408 CO₂ emissions relative to PL treatments and thereby NSGHGE by 10 to 14% depending on
- 409 soil texture. RO treatments exhibited the highest potential to reduce NSGHGE. This reduction

410 was driven by a 49 to 50% decrease in soil CO₂ emissions and a simultaneous 9 to 11%
411 decrease in soil N₂O emissions.

412 Yields were noticeably higher for loam than for clay soil, with a minor increase under RO 413 treatments (Table 5). The GHGI, ranging from 0.22 to 0.41 kg CO_2eq kg⁻¹ yield, responded to 414 tillage intensities consistently across two soil textures. The highest GHGI was simulated for 415 PL treatments. Reduced tillage decreased GHGI by up to 32%, with RO having the highest 416 mitigation potential (Table 6).

417

For DOK LTE, two independent statistical analyses were conducted: a) N and M2 systems
were excluded to include the fertilization level as a fixed factor; and b) K1 and O1 were
excluded to compare all systems at their typical fertilization.

Soils under all systems acted as a net CO₂ source and the rate of SOC decrease was driven by 421 422 total C inputs (Table 5), which explained 89% of the variation in SOC change. Soil CO₂ emissions were significantly higher for N than for O2 and K2 systems (Fig.6). Soil N₂O 423 424 emissions were influenced by a system and level of fertilization interaction (Table 4), and decreased in the order: K2 > M2 = O2 > N with reduced fertilization reducing N₂O emissions 425 more effectively in K1 than in O1 (Fig.6). Soil N₂O emissions were noticeably driven by total 426 427 N inputs to the systems and their proportion ranged from 1.01 to 1.42% (Table 5). Soil CH₄ oxidation potential was significantly influenced by soil management, not just in DOK (Table 428 4). 429

430 NSGHGE in DOK ranged from 927 to 1498 kg CO_2 eq ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ and were not significantly

different between systems (Fig.6). The average contribution of N_2O to NSGHGE was 60%.

432 The highest NSGHGE were simulated for M2 and decreased in the order: M2 > K2 > N > O2

433 > K1 > O1 (Table 5). Implementation of K2 reduced NSGHGE by 4% relative to M2,

434 resulting from a 64% decrease in soil CO₂ emissions but a simultaneous 44% increase in soil

N₂O emissions (Table 6). When fertilizer inputs were reduced to 50% of typical fertilization,
K1 decreased both N₂O and CO₂ emissions, and led to a 21% reduction in NSGHGE.
Adoption of O2 reduced NSGHGE by 18%, primarily due to a 37% reduction in soil CO₂
emissions. In comparison, there was an overall decrease in NSGHGE by 24% for O1, mainly
due to a 35% reduction in soil N₂O emissions relative to M2. N system reduced soil N₂O
emissions by 59% but increased soil CO₂ emissions by 41% relative to M2, thus the overall
reduction in NSGHGE was only 16%.

442 Crop yields were influenced by system and fertilization level (Table 4), and decreased in the 443 order: K2 > M2 > O2 > K1 > O1 > N. The GHGI for these systems ranged from 0.13 to 0.20 444 kg CO₂eq kg⁻¹ yield (Table 5). Implementation of K2 and O2 led to a GHGI reduction by 11 445 and 16%, respectively. The reduction in fertilization intensity in K1 led to a further reduction 446 in GHGI, which was not observed for O1 system (Tables 5 and 6).

447

In FAST LTE, soil CO₂ emissions were significantly affected by a system and tillage 448 449 interaction (Table 4) and decreased in the order: CON-IT > CON-NT = ORG-IT > ORG-RT (Fig.6). Soils under all treatments, except for ORG-RT, acted as a net CO₂ source. Total C 450 inputs controlled rates of SOC change under RT and NT treatments, explaining 95 and 89% 451 variation in SOC changes, respectively. Soil N₂O emissions were influenced by a system and 452 tillage interaction and cover cropping (Table 4), and decreased in the order: ORG-IT > CON-453 IT = ORG-RT > CON-NT, with NT reducing N_2O emissions more effectively in CON system 454 455 than RT in ORG system (Fig.6). Soil N₂O emissions under vetch were significantly higher than those from other cover crop treatments, and were strongly correlated with total N inputs 456 for IT treatments. However, there was no relationship observed with total N inputs for NT and 457 RT treatments. The proportion of total N inputs lost as N₂O ranged from 0.80% to 1.09% 458 (Table 5). 459

460	NSGHGE for FAST ranged from -594 to 1397 kg $CO_2eq ha^{-1} yr^{-1}$ and were significantly
461	affected by a system and tillage interaction (Table 4). The average N_2O contribution to
462	positive NSGHGE was 63%. The highest NSGHGE were simulated for CON-IT treatment
463	and decreased in the order: CON-IT > ORG-IT = CON-NT > ORG-RT, with ORG-RT
464	reducing NSGHGE twice more effectively than CON-NT treatment (Table 5). Mustard and
465	mixture cover cropping reduced NSGHGE by 6 to 10% relative to CON-IT-CONT, mainly
466	due to a 10 to 15% reduction in soil CO_2 emissions (Table 6). Vetch cover crop reduced soil
467	CO_2 emissions by 35%, but increased soil N_2O emissions, thus the overall reduction in
468	NSGHGE was only 19% relative to CON-IT-CONT. NT reduced NSGHGE by 58%, relative
469	to CON-IT, through a reduction in soil CO_2 and N_2O emissions by 76% and 22%,
470	respectively. Cover cropping in combination with NT reduced the mitigation potential of NT.
471	Implementation of ORG reduced NSGHGE by 31%, primarily due to a 51% reduction in soil
472	CO ₂ emissions. ORG in combination with cover cropping, particularly with vetch, decreased
473	NSGHGE even more. This was mainly attributed to a higher reduction in soil CO ₂ emissions.
474	Furthermore, the reduction in CO ₂ emissions was doubled when ORG was implemented with
475	RT. This ORG-RT combination led to a 128% reduction in NSGHGE compared to CON-IT
476	and thereby turned the cropping system into a net GHG sink. Additional strengthening of the
477	sink potential induced by ORG-RT management was simulated in combination with vetch
478	cover cropping (Table 6).
479	Yields in FAST were influenced by a system and tillage interaction and cover cropping (Table
480	4), and decreased in the order: CON-IT > CON-NT = ORG-IT > ORG-RT, with lower yield
481	reduction due to NT in CON system than due to RT in ORG system (Table 5). Cover
482	cropping had a positive effect on yields; i.e., mustard and mixture significantly increased

- 483 yields by 4%, and vetch by 14% on average. The GHGI ranged from -0.19 to 0.35 kg CO_2eq
- 484 kg⁻¹ yield (Table 5). NT reduced GHGI by 56%, ORG by 20%, and the ORG-RT combination

exhibited the highest potential to reduce GHGI relative to CON-IT treatment (Table 6). Use

486 of cover crops, vetch in particular, effectively reduced GHGI when applied with IT.

487 Conversely, no GHGI reduction was observed for cover cropping under NT or RT

488 management.

490	In Frick, soil CO ₂ emissions were significantly affected by the type of organic fertilization
491	(Table 4); i.e., soil CO ₂ emissions from SL were significantly higher than from MC
492	treatments. Soils under all treatments, except for RT-MC, acted as a net CO ₂ source. The rate
493	of SOC change was driven by total C inputs. SL treatments received about 42% less C inputs
494	in organic fertilizers (consistent with Berner et al. (2008)), but 12% more C in crop residues
495	due to a slightly higher productivity. Soil N_2O emissions were also affected by the type of
496	organic fertilization (Table 4); i.e., soil N ₂ O emissions from SL were higher than those from
497	MC irrespectively of the tillage management (Fig.6). Total N inputs were comparable
498	between fertilization treatments, i.e., SL received 19% more N in organic fertilizers, while
499	MC received 29% more N through biological fixation. The proportion of N inputs lost as N_2O
500	emissions was 1.75 and 1.96%, for MC and SL treatments, respectively (Table 5).
501	The type of organic fertilization had a significant effect on NSGHGE ranging from 661 to
502	1654 kg CO ₂ eq ha ⁻¹ yr ⁻¹ (Table 6). The highest NSGHGE were simulated for CT-SL treatment
503	and decreased in the order: CT-SL > RT-SL > CT-MC > RT-MC (Table 5). The average N_2O
504	contribution to NSGHGE was 80%. Replacement of SL with MC reduced NSGHGE by 46%,
505	through a decrease in both soil CO ₂ emissions by 80% and soil N_2O emissions by 13% (Table
506	6). Implementation of RT led to a 13% reduction in NSGHGE relative to CT-SL. This
507	reduction was mainly attributed to a 27% decrease in soil CO ₂ emissions. The highest
508	reduction in NSGHGE was observed for the RT-MC combination. This was driven by a 108%

decrease in soil CO₂ emissions turning the system into a net CO₂ sink, and a simultaneous
13% decrease in N₂O emissions.

Yields were mainly affected by tillage management, where RT significantly increased yields
by about 4%. The GHGI ranged from 0.09 to 0.23 kg CO₂eq kg⁻¹ yield (Table 5).
Replacement of SL with MC reduced GHGI by 45%, and RT reduced GHGI by 16%. The
RT-MC combination exhibited the highest mitigation potential by decreasing GHGI by 60%
relative to CT-SL treatment (Table 6).

516

517 **4. Discussion**

518 <u>4.1 Model evaluation</u>

DayCent's ability to simulate crop yields was comparable with other modeling studies (Grant 519 et al., 2016; Senapati et al., 2016; Dutta et al., 2017). For P29C, a lack of plot-specific soil 520 521 properties limited simulation of the measured yield variation induced by soil heterogeneity. However, even for sites where plot-specific soil data were available and data per replicate plot 522 523 were modeled independently, the model underpredicted the measured yield variation due to spatial replication. This suggests that ecosystem factors and processes not represented in the 524 model (e.g., pests, diseases, micronutrient deficiencies, weed infestation and topography) 525 526 might have a substantial influence on crop yields under field conditions. Nevertheless, DayCent captured the most important sources of variation due to treatment effects and 527 biophysical conditions, such as soil properties and climate. 528 Predictive errors generally originate from either uncertainty in the input data or from the 529 limited representation of mechanisms in the model (Ogle et al., 2006). High errors associated 530 with yield predictions of tuber crops seem to be directly related to a simplistic representation 531 of C allocation to belowground plant components during the growth. Similarly, errors 532 associated with yield predictions of winter crops can be explained by the limited 533

representation of crop vernalization in the crop growth sub-model. Larger predictive errors for
cover crops and white cabbage yields, which were planted only in one or two years, can be
related to a scarcity of time series data required for sufficiently robust model
parameterization.
Mäder *et al.* (2002) and Mayer *et al.* (2015) reported that yields in N system in DOK have

been limited by N, P and K availability and higher incidence of *Phytophora infestans*

540 compared to other systems. Lack of model representation of these processes resulted in a

541 higher predictive error and overprediction of yields for N system.

542 DayCent predicted less variation in SOC content than in yield. This can be associated with a)

high uncertainties in empirical data (Fig.B1); b) default parameterization of cover crops and

green manures due to data limitation that might have led to under/overprediction of C inputs;

and c) reduced ability to simulate growth and biomass allocation for some crops in the

546 rotations.

547 Treatment-induced changes in SOC content were underpredicted in rotation A in DOK,

548 presumably due to exogenous factors that have not affected SOC dynamics in rotation B and

549 C, particularly associated with the top row position of these plots in the experimental blocking

550 (e.g., soil erosion (Siegrist *et al.*, 1998)). Underprediction of SOC change in response to PL in

clay soil in P29C can be attributed to a prolonged effect of deep tillage disturbance in clays

552 (La Scala *et al.*, 2006) whereas DayCent increases decomposition rates for SOM pools only

for one month (Del Grosso *et al.*, 2011).

554 DayCent difficulties to replicate the measured variation in daily N_2O emissions are consistent

with other N₂O modeling studies (Fang *et al.*, 2015; Senapati *et al.*, 2016). Soil N₂O

emissions are highly variable in time and space due to a complex interaction of biotic and

abiotic processes involving multiple drivers (Davidson *et al.*, 2000; Venterea, 2007;

558 Castellano et al., 2010; Venterea et al., 2012; Zhu et al., 2013). Limited representation of

some key drivers (e.g., topography and spatial heterogeneity in nutrient availability) might 559 560 lead to discrepancies in the timing of N₂O peaks (Del Grosso *et al.*, 2011). Additionally, DayCent underpredicted N₂O emissions from green manure crops, which can be directly 561 related to the default crop parametrization that might have led to overprediction of their 562 productivity. Higher error associated with soil NO_3^- and NH_4^+ predictions, particularly after 563 fertilization events, were also reported in other studies (Del Grosso et al., 2008a; Fang et al., 564 565 2015; Necpalova et al., 2015) suggesting that model representation of fertilization effects on mineral N pools requires further improvements. 566

567

568 <u>4.2 Soil GHG emissions and mitigation potentials</u>

DayCent substantially underpredicted the variation in measured data. Accordingly, the probability of not committing type II error, i.e., detecting statistically significant differences between management practices with the type I error of 0.05 using ANOVA, was expected to be higher for model predictions. Statistical power to detect differences in measured N₂O emissions between systems in DOK was 0.78, while for model predictions the power increased to 0.92. This should, however, not diminish the validity of our statistical analyses.

576 Soils under conventional managements at all sites acted as a net soil GHG source, ranging

from 1361 to 1792 kg CO_2 eq ha⁻¹yr⁻¹. Despite the consistent decrease in SOC content,

578 NSGHGE were dominated by N_2O (50 - 63%), indicating the relative importance of N_2O over

579 CO₂ emissions in soil GHG mitigation from Swiss cropping systems. The same has been

observed for cropping systems in Europe, UK (Smith, 2012) and California (De Gryze *et al.*,

581 2010; De Gryze *et al.*, 2011).

582

Reduced tillage practices reduced the long-term SOC loss and thus CO₂ emissions by up to 583 584 50% in P29C, although this decrease was not significant. In comparison, NT significantly reduced long-term CO₂ emissions by 76% in FAST. It has been well established that both 585 reduced tillage and NT decrease disturbance of soil aggregates and therefore lead to higher 586 SOC stabilization compared to conventional tillage (Six et al., 2000; Six and Paustian, 2014). 587 However, recent studies involving deeper sampling depth suggest that SOC sequestration 588 potential in NT and reduced tillage systems may have been over-estimated as the apparent 589 increase in SOC mostly results from a vertical redistribution of C due to allocation of crop 590 residues into the shallower soil layers (Baker et al., 2007; Angers and Eriksen-Hamel, 2008; 591 592 Luo et al., 2010; Powlson et al., 2014). Since the SOC measurements at the LTE sites were carried out only to 20 cm depth and the DayCent model has been parametrized to represent 593 the evolution of SOC under RT based on this data, our predictions of SOC sequestration in 594 595 response to reduced tillage and its role in the CO_2 emission mitigation might be

596 overestimated.

597 Furthermore, our results show that reduced tillage and NT led to an 11% and 22% reduction in long-term N₂O emissions, respectively. Consequently, NSGHGE were reduced by 31% and 598 58% due to reduced tillage and NT over 30 years, respectively. These estimates are consistent 599 600 with meta-analyses conducted on long-term effects of NT and reduced tillage on NSGHGE (Six et al., 2004; van Kessel et al., 2013). Six et al. (2004) reported that a short-term adoption 601 of NT increased NSGHGE relative to conventional tillage primarily due to an initial increase 602 in N₂O, but NT adoption over 20 years reduced NSGHGE. Similarly, van Kessel et al. (2013) 603 reported that area and yield-scaled N₂O emissions were significantly reduced after a 10 year 604 implementation of NT or reduced tillage relative to conventional tillage. Our results show that 605 606 GHGI decreased by up to 32% due to reduced tillage and by 56% due to NT, but also a 5% reduction in the yield. Furthermore, reduced fuel consumption strengthens the GHG 607

mitigation potential associated with the adoption of these practices (Kern and Johnson, 1993;
West and Marland, 2002).

610

611 Organic farming, represented by organic fertilization, reduced long-term SOC loss and thereby CO₂ emissions by 37 and 51% in DOK and FAST, respectively. These estimates are 612 consistent with a recent meta-analysis of 74 studies reporting that organic management has 613 614 the capacity to substantially increase SOC sequestration compared with non-organic management (Gattinger et al., 2012). The SOC increase was driven by total C inputs like 615 elsewhere (e.g. Leifeld and Fuhrer (2010); Kong et al. (2005); Autret et al. (2016)). 616 617 Consequently, the reduction in C inputs through organic fertilization in O1 led to a reduction in the CO₂ mitigation potential. 618 619 Although organic farming did have the capacity to reduce CO₂ over 30 years, it did not reduce 620 N₂O emissions relative to systems relying only on mineral fertilizers. This contradicts a metaanalysis based on 12 studies reporting that organic systems reduce soil N₂O emissions relative 621 622 to non-organic farming systems (Skinner et al., 2014). Authors attributed this reduction to lower external and total N inputs to organic systems and reduced bioavailability of organic 623 fertilizers. External N inputs to organic systems in FAST were, however, higher, whereas in 624 625 DOK, they were slightly lower than the inputs to systems solely under mineral fertilization. However, due to differences in plant residues and biological N fixation, total N inputs to 626 organic and conventional systems were comparable in these LTEs. Another possible 627 explanation of inconsistency with Skinner et al. (2014) can be that the slow release of mineral 628 N from organic fertilizers might lead to soil N₂O emissions after the crop growth period, 629 which is generally not covered by GHG measurements, but accounted in the modeled results. 630 The N₂O emissions form organic systems might be even higher if we considered indirect N₂O 631

emissions associated with ammonia volatilization (Hristov et al., 2011; Petersen and Sommer,

633 2011). In Switzerland, about 24% of animal manure N applied to soils is assumed to be lost as634 ammonia (FOEN, 2017).

635 Our results further indicate that N_2O emissions from organic systems were driven by total N 636 inputs. Consequently, a 50% reduction in N inputs through organic fertilizers led to a 35% 637 reduction in N_2O emissions, but simultaneously to a reduction in CO_2 mitigation potential, 638 resulting in a small overall effect on NSGHGE.

Organic farming in comparison with systems based solely on mineral fertilizers reduced 639 NSGHGE by 18% in DOK and by 31% in FAST. The inability of DayCent to represent 640 641 ammonia volatilization from organic fertilizers should have also increased the nutrient availability and yield potential, and consequently led to an inferior modeled yield gap 642 compared to results from field experimentation (De Ponti et al., 2012; Seufert et al., 2012). 643 644 Nevertheless, organic farming led to a yield reduction by 2% in DOK and 14% in FAST, and accordingly reduced GHGI by 16 and 20%, respectively. These results are in line with a 645 recent LCA study for FAST, which indicated that organic farming reduced overall 'cradle to 646 grave' GHG emissions (excluding SOC change) by 46% and 26% on an area and a yield-unit 647 basis, respectively (Prechsl et al., 2017). 648

649

The GHG mitigation potential of organic fertilization was strengthened by OM stabilization prior to its application through composting. Replacement of slurries with a FYM composted over 4 months in Frick led to an 80% and 13% reduction in soil CO₂ and N₂O emissions, respectively. This is associated with higher C inputs and lower N availability of the composted FYM compared to the slurry. The positive effect of composted FYM on SOC and N₂O has been previously reported (Fließbach *et al.*, 2007; Powlson *et al.*, 2012). This fertilization strategy had also no effect on yield and thereby reduced GHGI by 45%. However, our assessment took into consideration only soil GHG emissions within the field boundaries
and therefore additional GHG emissions associated with the composting process might
partially offset the soil GHG mitigation potential on-site (Pardo *et al.*, 2015).

660

A strong positive interactive effect of organic farming and reduced tillage in FAST 661 662 strengthened the mitigation potential of these practices as when they were applied 663 independently. This management combination led to a 200% reduction in CO₂, while its effect on N₂O emissions was negligible. SOC sequestration completely offset N₂O emissions 664 and turned the cropping system into a GHG sink. Consequently, GHGI was reduced by 142% 665 666 relative to conventional management, despite a substantial yield reduction. Positive interaction of these practices on GHG emissions has been previously reported (De Gryze et 667 al., 2011). Nevertheless, soils under organic farming and reduced tillage in Frick did not act 668 669 as a net GHG sink. This can be a result of i) an implementation of more intensive and deeper tillage practices, and ii) lower C inputs associated with residues removal and lower proportion 670 of legumes in the rotation in Frick than in FAST (Berner et al., 2008; Krauss et al., 2010; 671 Gadermaier et al., 2012). 672

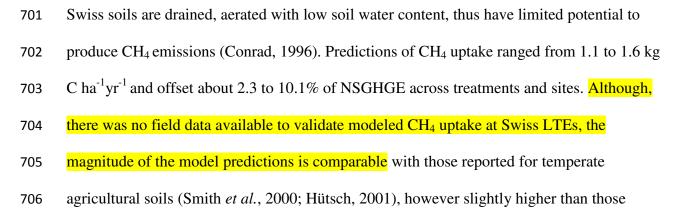
673

674 Cover crops residues represent a substantial C source that has been reported to increase SOC and thus reduce soil CO₂ emissions (Kong and Six, 2010; Poeplau and Don, 2015; Kaye and 675 Quemada, 2017). In our study, cover cropping did not significantly reduce long-term soil CO₂ 676 677 emissions, although there were some trends of decreasing CO₂ emissions in FAST. Vetch reduced CO₂ under IT by 35%, and had no effect on CO₂ emissions under NT management 678 679 relative to no-cover cropping. Mustard and mixture reduced CO₂ under IT by up to 15%, while they increased CO₂ emissions by 12% under NT management. This may be due to a 680 slower incorporation of surface residues into the soil under NT than under conventional 681

tillage management (Six *et al.*, 2004). Tillage associated with the incorporation of cover crop residues increases SOM mineralization rates, and accordingly the net reduction in soil CO_2 emissions for cover crop and IT was substantially smaller than for the cover crop and NT combinations.

Mustard and mixture did not significantly affect long-term N₂O emissions. Vetch significantly 686 increased N₂O emissions by 10%, most likely due to an additional N input through biological 687 N fixation (~ 7 kg ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹). Recent meta-analysis of cover crop effects on N₂O emissions 688 indicated that legumes might increase N₂O emissions at lower N input rates more than non-689 legume species (Basche et al., 2014). This can be associated with an increased soil mineral N 690 691 via N fixation (Kaspar and Singer, 2011) and/or an increased soil N availability during decomposition of residues with low C:N ratios (Baggs et al., 2006; Basche et al., 2014). 692 Furthermore, N₂O from vetch cover cropping can be driven by cover crop-derived DOC 693 694 (Garland et al., 2014). Although cover cropping did not significantly influence NSGHGE, vetch showed a tendency to reduce NSGHGE. Overall, cover cropping increased yields due to 695 696 an improved nutrient efficiency and an additional N input through biological fixation in case of legumes. Vetch decreased GHGI by 40% on average, while the reduction in GHGI was 697 negligible for mustard and mixture. This suggests that biological N fixation can contribute to 698 699 the mitigation potential of cover cropping.

700



reported by Flessa et al. (1995) and Skinner et al. (2014). This discrepancy can be attributed 707 708 to insufficient measurements using chamber-based field methodologies (Smith and Dobbie, 2001; Parkin, 2008; Barton et al., 2015) and seasonality of the measurements which generally 709 710 cover only a crop growth period (e.g., Flessa et al. (2002)). Another possible explanation of this inconsistency can be the DayCent's inability to represent methanogenesis following the 711 712 organic manure application (Gattinger et al., 2007; Chadwick et al., 2011; Gattinger et al., 2017) and might therefore slightly overestimate annual CH₄ uptake. Due to a small variance 713 around the means, the modeled oxidation potential was shown to be strongly influenced by 714 studied management practices, perhaps through altering soil water and temperature 715 716 conditions, which drive the model predictions.

717

718 Although N₂O emissions represented a substantial proportion of NSGHGE (60 - 80% across 719 treatments and sites), management practices and their combinations evaluated in this study showed a larger mitigation potential for CO₂ than N₂O emissions, i.e., organic farming with 720 721 reduced tillage, composting of organic manures, NT, reduced tillage and organic farming only. The CO₂ mitigation through SOC sequestration is considered as time-limited since the 722 capacity of soils to sequestrate C is limited once it approaches a new equilibrium (Six et al., 723 724 2004; Johnston *et al.*, 2009). Furthermore, this process is reversible. If the management is not maintained, previously sequestered C can be released back to the atmosphere (Smith et al., 725 2014). 726

A significant GHG mitigation was also achieved through the reduction in N_2O emissions for the following practices: a 50% reduction in N inputs, NT, composting of organic manures, and reduced tillage. This mitigation is, on the other hand, considered permanent as the GHG emissions are avoided (Smith *et al.*, 2014).

731

732	As not only soil management but also pedo-climatic conditions control soil GHG emissions,
733	the extent of the mitigation potential of soil management practices and their combinations
734	should be further evaluated across a wider range of pedo-climatic conditions. Furthermore, a
735	more comprehensive GHG assessment of Swiss cropping systems taking into account all
736	other emissions associated with the production of fertilizers, energy use, manure storage,
737	composting, farm machinery and livestock emissions is needed.
738	
739	5. Conclusions
740	This present study was established on the long-term empirical data that was used to
741	parameterize and evaluate the DayCent model for Swiss cropping systems. The model
742	demonstrated adequate ability to simulate long-term yields and SOC dynamics in complex
743	crop rotations, although the evaluation of its ability to simulate soil N_2O emissions and CH_4
744	uptake was compromised by the limited data availability and therefore requires further
745	assessment based on higher resolution data collected over an entire crop rotation period
746	covering a range of pedo-climatic gradients.
747	In this study, we evaluated the long-term impact of management practices and their
748	interactions on soil GHGE and GHGI in order to identify and quantify potential opportunities
749	for mitigating GHG emissions in the Swiss agricultural sector. Our results demonstrated that
750	organic farming, particularly in combination with reduced tillage management, substantially
751	reduced long-term NSGHGE and GHGI, but it simultaneously led to a decrease in crop
752	yields. In contrast, composting of organic manures, reduced tillage and NT managements
753	effectively reduced long-term NSGHGE and GHGI without a noticeable crop yield reduction
754	(up to 5%). The least GHG mitigation potential was associated with cover cropping
755	management, which had a minor impact on NSGHGE. Despite the relative importance of N_2O
756	over CO ₂ emissions in soil GHG mitigation, SOC sequestration accounted, on average, for

- 757 89% of GHG mitigation potentials. Thus, the conversion to the above soil management
- 758 practices have a considerable potential for climate change mitigation in Swiss agriculture,
- 759 without affecting the overall production levels, however this potential is not permanent.
- 760

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- 766 Initiative on Agriculture, Food Security and Climate Change (FACCE-JPI).

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768
Table 1 Soil and climate characteristics of Swiss long-term field experimental (LTE) sites.
 Table 2 Description of management factors and levels studied in long-term field experiments 769 770 (LTEs) in Switzerland. FYM refers to farm yard manure. LU refers to livestock unit. Table 3 Mean (± standard deviation) measured and modeled crop productivity by crop across 771 all treatments, years and sites, and error associated with model predictions. N, 772 RMSE, rRMSE, r^2 and WI refer to the number of observations, root mean squared 773 error, relative root mean squared error, coefficient of determination and Willmott's 774 index calculated for each simulated crop across all treatments, years and sites. 775 776 Table 4 Analysis of variance for the effects of management practices and their interactions on soil greenhouse gas emissions and yield at each long-term experimental (LTE) site. 777 NSGHGE refers to net soil GHG emissions. For DOK, two independent analyses 778 were conducted: a) we excluded unfertilized (N) and mineral (M2) treatments in 779 order to include the level of fertilization as a fixed factor in the model statement; b) 780 treatments at 50% fertilization (i.e., K1 and O1) were excluded, in order to compare 781 all farming systems at their typical fertilization levels. 782 Table 5 Greenhouse (GHG) emissions, changes in soil organic C (SOC) content, total N and 783 C inputs and yield calculated for the main treatments at four long-term experimental 784 (LTE) sites over 30 years. Standard errors (SE) were computed by linear mixed 785 effects models in SAS. Positive change in SOC indicates SOC sequestration, while a 786 negative change indicates a decrease in SOC. Positive values of soil CH₄ oxidation 787 refer to CH₄ uptake. Positive values for net soil GHG emissions (NSGHGE) denote 788 net GHG source, while negative values denote a net sink for GHG emissions. GHGI 789 refers to GHG intensity. 790

791	Table 6 Relative (%) and absolute (kg CO_2 eq ha ⁻¹ or kg CO_2 eq kg ⁻¹) changes in annual soil
792	GHG emissions in response to studied soil management combinations compared with
793	the baseline treatment in four long-term experiments (LTEs). GHGI refers to GHG
794	intensity. The baseline represented by the treatment with the highest soil GHG
795	emissions on an area basis at each LTE site is denoted by underlining. Mean
796	differences (± standard error) relative to the baseline were calculated as differences
797	of least squares means by linear mixed effects models in SAS.

798 List of Figures

Figure 1 Modeled vs. measured grain, straw, tuber, forage yields by crop across various 799 years, and treatments at four long-term field experimental sites in Switzerland. Each 800 point represents a crop-specific mean of two spatial replications for a year. The 801 horizontal error bars refer to standard deviations around measured yields due to 802 spatial replication, while the vertical error bars refer to standard deviations around 803 modeled yields. N, r^2 , RMSE, rRMSE, WI refer to the number of observations, 804 coefficient of determination, root mean squared error, relative root mean squared 805 error and Willmott's index calculated for each experimental site across all 806 807 treatments, crops and years, respectively. RMSE has the same unit as the variable shown. The solid line is the 1:1 line and the dashed line is the linear regression line. 808 Figure 2 Mean measured and modeled crop productivity and changes in soil organic C 809 810 content at the 0 to 20 cm depth by long-term experimental site and treatment across all crops and years, and error associated with model predictions. Productivity 811 comprises of grain, straw, tuber, vegetable, forages such as silage maize and grass-812 clover, and cover crop biomass. The error bars refer to standard deviations around 813 measured and modeled means. rRMSE refers to the relative root mean squared error 814 and r^2 refers to the coefficient of determination. The annual change in soil organic C 815 content was calculated as a slope of the linear regression over time. For FAST, no 816 soil C data were available. For Frick, soil organic C data from three sampling 817 occasions in 2002, 2005 and 2008 were available, and these were considered to be 818 insufficient for the linear regression analysis. 819 Figure 3 Modeled vs. measured (a) soil organic C content at 0 to 20 cm across various 820 treatments, years and four long-term field experimental sites in Switzerland. Each 821

point represents a mean soil organic C content of two spatial replications; (b) annual

changes in soil organic C content over time for each individual treatment. Each point represents a slope of the linear regression against time. N, r^2 , RMSE, rRMSE and WI refer to the number of observations, coefficient of determination, root mean squared error, relative root mean squared error and Willmott's index calculated across all sites, treatments and years. RMSE has the same unit as the variable shown. The solid line is the 1:1 line and the dashed line is the linear regression line.

Figure 4 Measured and modeled daily soil N₂O emissions over time for four farming system 829 treatments in DOK. The dashed error bars refer to standard deviations around 830 measured daily emissions due to spatial replication. The solid error bars refer to 831 standard deviations around modeled daily emissions. The following crops were 832 planted during this period: grass-clover lay until 13th May 2013, silage maize 833 between 28th May and 25th September 2013 and green manure after 9th October 2013. 834 835 The measured N2O data is unpublished data obtained through Pers. Comm. with Dr. Andreas Gattinger and Colin Skinner. 836

Figure 5 Modeled vs. measured cumulative soil N_2O emissions by treatment in DOK. Each point represents a cumulative treatment mean. The horizontal error bars refer to standard deviations around measured emissions due to spatial replication, while the

- 840 vertical error bars refer to standard deviations around modeled emissions. r^2 , RMSE,
- rRMSE and WI refer to the coefficient of determination, root mean squared error,
- relative root mean squared error and Willmott's index calculated across all
- treatments at this site. RMSE has the same unit as the variable shown. The solid lineis the 1:1 line and the dashed line is the linear regression line.
- Figure 6 Mean modeled net soil greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions, as calculated from soil
 CO₂, N₂O and CH₄ emissions for individual treatments at four long-term
- 847 experimental sites over a 30 years period. Net soil GHG emissions and individual

848	components of net soil GHG balance are expressed in CO ₂ equivalents. The error
849	bars represent standard errors of the least squares means calculated by linear mixed
850	effects models. Letters next to the error bars indicate which treatment means are
851	significantly different from each other within the site-specific analysis of variance
852	represented by the color coding. Positive soil CO ₂ emissions indicate a decrease in
853	soil organic C, while negative soil CO ₂ emissions indicate soil C sequestration from
854	the atmosphere. Negative CH ₄ emissions indicate CH ₄ oxidation potential.

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LTE	Location	Coordinates	Soil type	Sand (%)	Clay (%)	Soil bulk density (g m ⁻³)	Soil C (%)	Soil pH	Mean annual temperature (°C)	Mean annual precipitation (mm)
P29C	Changins (Clay)	46°24'N, 06°14'E	Calcaric Cambisol	16	46	1.17	2.92	6.2	10.2	999
	(Loam)	_		30	26	1.44	1.34	6.8		
DOK	Therwil near Basel	47°30'N, 7°3 3'E	Haplic Luvisol	12	16	1.22	1.66	6.3	9.5	791
FAST	Reckenholz near Zurich	47°26'N, 8°31'E	Calcareous Cambisol	43	23	1.48	1.44	7.3	9.4	1054
Frick	Frick	47°30'N, 8°01'E	Stagnic Eutric Cambisol	22	45	1.58	2.20	7.1	8.9	1000

 Table 1 Soil and climate characteristics of Swiss long-term field experimental (LTE) sites.

LTE	Management	Levels	Description		Abbreviation	No.	Reference
(duration)	factors			kg N ha⁻¹		treatments	
P29C	Tillage	Plough	Plough to 25 cm	90 - 168	PL	8	(Büchi <i>et al.,</i> 2017a; Büch
(1969-		Chisel until 2007, then no-tillage	Chisel to 25 cm, then 0 tillage	90 - 168	СН		<i>et al.,</i> 2017b)
2013)		Reduced tillage - cultivator	Cultivator to 10 to 15 cm	90 - 168	CL		
		Reduce tillage - rototiller	Rototiller or rotary harrow to 8 cm	90 - 168	RO		
DOK	Farming	Control	Unfertilized	0	N	18	(Siegrist <i>et al.</i> , 1998;
(1977-	system	Bio-Organic	FYM and slurry at a level of 1.2, later at 1.4 LU ha ⁻¹ yr ⁻¹ ;	47/93	01/02		Fließbach <i>et al.</i> , 2000;
2013)			50%/100% fertilization				Mäder <i>et al.,</i> 2000;
		Conventional	Mixed FYM and slurry at a level of 1.2, later at 1.4 LU ha ⁻¹	75/149	K1 /K2		Mäder <i>et al.,</i> 2002;
			yr ⁻¹ + mineral NPK; 50%/100% fertilization				Mäder <i>et al.,</i> 2006;
		Mineral	Mineral NPK according to Swiss guidelines	125	M2**	_	Esperschutz et al., 2007;
	Crop rotation		Three crops are planted in each system simultaneously		А, В, С		Leifeld <i>et al.,</i> 2009)
			every year				
FAST	Farming	Organic	Slurry at a level of 1.4 LU ha ⁻¹ yr ⁻¹	119 - 132	ORG	16	(Prechsl <i>et al.,</i> 2017;
(2009-	system	Conventional	Mineral fertilizer	90 - 110	CON	_	Wittwer <i>et al.,</i> 2017)
2013)	Tillage	Intensive tillage	Mouldboard plough to 20 cm		IT		
		No-tillage in CON;	Crops were seeded directly into the soil		NT and RT		
		Reduced tillage in ORG	Rotary harrow before wheat and rotary harrow before				
			maize, both to 5 cm			_	
	Cover crop	Legume	Common vetch (Vicia sativa) before winter wheat, hairy		VETCH		
			vetch (Vicia villosa) before maize				
		Non-legume	White mustard (Sinapis alba)		MUST		
		Mixture	Mixture of legume and non-legume spp.*		MIX		
		Control	Fallow – natural vegetation		CONT		
FRICK	Tillage	Conventional	Mouldboard plough to 15 cm followed by rotary harrow		СТ	4	(Berner <i>et al.,</i> 2008;
(2002-			to 5 cm				Krauss <i>et al.</i> , 2010; Sans
2013)		Reduced	Chisel plough to 15 cm followed by rotary harrow 5 cm		RT		et al., 2011; Gadermaier
	Fertilization	Manure compost supplemented	Composted farmyard manure	~90	MC	_	<i>et al.,</i> 2012; Kuntz <i>et al.,</i>
		with slurry	and slurry at a level of 1.4 LU ha ⁻¹ yr ⁻¹				2013; Peigné <i>et al.,</i> 2013;
		Only slurry	Slurry alone at a level of 1.4 LU ha $^{-1}$ yr $^{-1}$	~ 85	SL		Armengot <i>et al.,</i> 2015; Krauss <i>et al.,</i> 2017)

Table 2 Description of management factors and levels studied in le	ng-term field experiments (LTEs) in Switzerland. FYM refers to farm yard manure. LU refers to livestock unit.
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*containing 20% phacelia (*Phacelia tanacetifolia*), 30% Persian clover (*Trifolium resupinatum*) and 50% berseem clover (*Trifolium alexandrinum*) before winter wheat and a self-designed mixture containing 15% phacelia, 52% hairy vetch, 32% buckwheat (*Fagopyrum esculentum Moench*) and 1% camelina (*Camelina sativa*) before maize.

** unfertilized during the first crop rotation (1978-1984).

Table 3 Mean (± standard deviation) measured and modeled crop productivity by crop across all treatments, years and sites, and error associated with model predictions. N, RMSE, rRMSE, r² and WI refer to the number of observations, root mean squared error, relative root mean squared error, coefficient of determination and Willmott's index calculated for each simulated crop across all treatments, years and sites.

Crop	Measured	Modeled	N	RMSE	rRMSE	r²	WI
	productivit	ty (g C m ⁻²)		(g C m ⁻²)			
Winter wheat	206 ± 56	207 ± 71	1032	57	0.27	0.39	0.78
Spring wheat	130 ± 35	119 ± 29	40	25	0.20	0.55	0.82
Silage maize	694 ± 156	689 ± 191	88	124	0.18	0.58	0.80
Winter barley	172 ± 48	173 ± 36	96	46	0.27	0.16	0.64
Rapeseed	134 ± 34	156 ± 32	150	30	0.23	0.66	0.80
Beetroot	245 ± 182	270 ± 151	108	124	0.50	0.55	0.85
Grain Maize	332 ± 102	340 ± 94	176	51	0.15	0.76	0.93
Potatoes	312 ± 146	357 ± 70	168	127	0.41	0.34	0.64
White cabbage	108 ± 32	111 ± 4	24	33	0.30	0.24	0.13
Sunflower	184 ± 51	210 ± 50	20	32	0.17	0.84	0.89
Spelt	129 ±39	129 ± 23	32	48	0.37	0.07	0.21
Winter peas	87 ± 3	52	4	35	0.40	-	0.10
Soybeans	143 ± 48	154 ± 50	144	35	0.25	0.58	0.86
Field beans	193 ± 42	169 ± 13	32	42	0.22	0.33	0.55
Mixture	78 ± 13	62 ± 13	16	20	0.26	0.37	0.56
Common vetch	88 ± 24	80 ± 19	16	11	0.13	0.91	0.93
White mustard	85 ± 31	71 ± 22	16	18	0.21	0.91	0.88
Fodder intercrop	157 ± 81	169 ± 51	60	42	0.27	0.83	0.89
Grass-clover mixture	478 ± 134	495 ± 85	392	93	0.19	0.53	0.80

Table 4 Analysis of variance for the effects of management practices and their interactions on soil greenhouse gas emissions and yield at each long-term experimental (LTE) site. NSGHGE refers to net soil GHG emissions. For DOK, two independent analyses were conducted: a) we excluded unfertilized (N) and mineral (M2) treatments in order to include the level of fertilization as a fixed factor in the model statement; b) treatments at 50% fertilization (i.e., K1 and O1) were excluded, in order to compare all farming systems at their typical fertilization levels.

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LTE	Factors and their interactions	df	CO ₂	N_2O	CH_4 oxidation	NSGHGE	Yield
P29C	Tillage	3	0.32	< 0.001	0.06	0.16	<0.01
	Soil texture	1	0.14	< 0.001	<0.001	<0.05	< 0.001
	Tillage x soil texture	3	0.98	0.33	0.86	0.97	0.97
DOK	Farming system	1	0.43	< 0.001	<0.001	0.53	<0.05
(excluding unfertilized and	Level of fertilization	1	0.26	< 0.001	<0.001	0.35	<0.01
mineral treatments)	Rotation	2	0.47	0.40	<0.001	0.38	0.44
	Farming system x level of fertilization	1	0.90	< 0.001	<0.05	0.68	0.97
	Farming system x rotation	2	1.00	0.13	< 0.01	0.97	0.98
	Level of fertilization x rotation	2	0.99	0.92	0.9953	0.99	0.98
	Farming system x level of fertilization x rotation	2	1.00	0.80	< 0.01	1.00	0.93
DOK	Farming system	3	<0.05	< 0.001	< 0.001	0.66	< 0.001
(excluding 50% fertilization	Rotation	2	0.46	0.22	<0.001	0.37	0.56
level treatments)	Farming system x rotation	6	1	0.70	<0.001	1	1.00
FAST	Farming system	1	< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001
	Tillage	1	< 0.001	< 0.001	<0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001
	Cover cropping	3	0.35	< 0.001	< 0.001	0.52	< 0.001
	Farming system x tillage	1	< 0.001	< 0.001	<0.001	< 0.01	< 0.001
	Farming system x cover cropping	3	0.95	0.85	< 0.001	0.94	0.34
	Tillage x cover cropping	3	0.83	0.97	<0.001	0.79	0.09
	Farming system x tillage x cover cropping	3	0.97	0.93	<0.001	0.96	0.88
Frick	Tillage	1	0.40	0.80	<0.01	0.40	<0.05
	Fertilization	1	<0.05	< 0.001	0.13	< 0.01	0.15
	Tillage x fertilization	1	0.99	0.89	0.85	0.98	0.86

Table 5 Greenhouse (GHG) emissions, changes in soil organic C (SOC) content, total N and C inputs and yield calculated for the main treatments at four long-term experimental (LTE) sites over 30 years. Standard errors (SE) were computed by linear mixed effects models in SAS. Positive change in SOC indicates SOC sequestration, while a negative change indicates a decrease in SOC. Positive values of soil CH₄ oxidation refer to CH₄ uptake. Positive values for net soil GHG emissions (NSGHGE) denote net GHG source, while negative values denote a net sink for GHG emissions. GHGI refers to GHG intensity.

LTE	Treatmen	t	N ₂ O	N inputs*	N_2O proportion**	Δ SOC	C inputs***	CO ₂	CH ₄ oxidation	NSGHGE	Yield****	GHGI
			kg N ha ⁻¹ y ⁻¹	kg N ha⁻¹ y⁻¹	%	g C m ⁻² y ⁻¹	g C m ⁻² y ⁻¹	g C m ⁻² y ⁻¹	g CH ₄ m ⁻² y ⁻¹	kg CO ₂ eq ha ⁻¹ yr ⁻¹	kg ha ⁻¹ yr ⁻¹	kg CO ₂ eq kg- ¹ yield
			± SE	± SD		± SE	± SD	± SE	± SE	± SE	± SE	± SE
P29C‡	Clay	CL	2.06 ± 0.08	141.59 ± 29.56	1.45	-19.90 ± 15.83	184 ± 148	730 ± 581	0.148 ± 0.002	1545 ± 594	4365 ± 351	0.35 ± 0.000
		СН	2.09 ± 0.08	141.56 ± 29.57	1.48	-19.21 ± 15.83	180 ± 145	704 ± 581	0.148 ± 0.002	1534 ± 594	4322 ± 351	0.35 ± 0.000
		PL	2.16 ± 0.08	141.53 ± 29.57	1.53	-25.49 ± 15.83	179 ± 144	934 ± 581	0.148 ± 0.002	1792 ± 594	4339 ± 351	0.41 ± 0.000
		RT	1.92 ± 0.08	141.48 ± 29.60	1.36	-12.84 ± 15.83	187 ± 140	471 ± 581	0.147 ± 0.002	1230 ± 594	4385 ± 351	0.28 ± 0.000
	Loam	CL	1.83 ± 0.08	141.50 ± 29.58	1.30	-14.11 ± 15.83	172 ± 138	518 ± 581	0.189 ± 0.002	1228 ± 594	4452 ± 351	0.28 ± 0.000
		СН	1.88 ± 0.08	141.50 ± 29.59	1.33	-14.17 ± 15.83	168 ± 136	520 ± 581	0.190 ± 0.002	1249 ± 594	4402 ± 351	0.28 ± 0.000
		PL	1.91 ± 0.08	141.47 ± 29.59	1.35	-16.86 ± 15.83	168 ± 135	618 ± 581	0.190 ± 0.002	1361 ± 594	4418 ± 351	0.31 ± 0.000
		RT	1.75 ± 0.08	141.41 ± 29.60	1.24	-8.57 ± 15.83	175 ± 131	314 ± 581	0.189 ± 0.002	989 ± 594	4484 ± 351	0.22 ± 0.000
DOK	K1		1.66 ± 0.07	134.50 ± 42.89	1.23	-12.83 ± 7.31	244 ± 223	471 ± 268	0.207 ± 0.003	1103 ± 264	8799 ± 549	0.13 ± 0.001
	К2		2.81 ± 0.07	198.22 ± 70.09	1.42	-6.42 ± 7.31	313 ± 264	235 ± 268	0.205 ± 0.003	1347 ± 264	9907 ± 549	0.14 ± 0.001
	M2		1.95 ±0.07	164.03 ± 47.08	1.19	-17.62 ± 7.31	185 ± 203	646 ± 268	0.208 ± 0.003	1402 ± 264	9169 ± 549	0.15 ± 0.001
	Ν		0.79 ± 0.07	78.30 ± 49.97	1.01	-24.78 ± 7.31	155 ± 193	908 ± 268	0.205 ± 0.003	1182 ± 264	6049 ± 549	0.20 ± 0.001
	01		1.27 ± 0.07	112.65 ± 44.10	1.13	-16.20 ± 7.31	236 ± 224	594 ± 268	0.208 ± 0.003	1064 ± 264	7924 ± 549	0.13 ± 0.001
	02		1.94 ± 0.07	150.46 ± 64.33	1.29	-11.10 ± 7.31	306 ± 266	407 ± 268	0.208 ± 0.003	1156 ± 264	9009 ± 549	0.13 ± 0.001
FAST	CON - IT	CONT	1.36 ± 0.06	131.02 ± 79.25	1.04	-23.98 ± 13.93	191 ± 182	879 ± 511	0.171 ± 0.003	1397 ± 511	5048 ± 465	0.35 ± 0.002
		MUST	1.38 ± 0.06	131.13 ± 79.46	1.05	-21.53 ± 13.93	208 ± 200	789 ± 511	0.176 ± 0.003	1314 ± 511	5255 ± 465	0.31 ± 0.002
		MIX	1.35 ± 0.06	131.35 ± 79.67	1.03	-20.28 ± 13.93	210 ± 204	744 ± 511	0.176 ± 0.003	1258 ± 511	5292 ± 465	0.30 ± 0.002
		VETCH	1.48 ± 0.06	138.03 ± 75.74	1.07	-15.55 ± 13.93	243 ± 252	570 ± 511	0.176 ± 0.003	1136 ± 511	5787 ± 465	0.25 ± 0.002
	CON - NT	CONT	1.05 ± 0.06	131.04 ± 79.91	0.80	-5.75 ±13.93	184 ± 163	211 ± 511	0.214 ± 0.003	590 ± 511	4829 ± 465	0.15 ± 0.002
		MUST	1.07 ± 0.06	131.08 ± 79.96	0.82	-8.74 ± 13.93	197 ± 172	320 ± 511	0.167 ± 0.003	721 ± 511	4832 ± 465	0.19 ± 0.002
		MIX	1.08 ± 0.06	131.03 ± 79.87	0.83	-8.54 ± 13.93	198 ± 173	313 ± 511	0.167 ± 0.003	718 ± 511	4816 ± 465	0.19 ± 0.002
		VETCH	1.17 ± 0.06	138.04 ± 76.43	0.85	-6.20 ± 13.93	217 ± 195	227 ± 511	0.166 ± 0.003	667 ± 511	5087 ± 465	0.16 ± 0.002
	ORG - IT	CONT	1.40 ± 0.06	135.48 ± 77.25	1.03	-11.67 ± 13.93	237 ± 211	428 ± 511	0.171 ± 0.003	962 ± 511	4344 ± 465	0.28 ±0.002
		MUST	1.45 ± 0.06	134.60 ± 75.70	1.08	-7.72 ± 13.93	260 ± 235	283 ± 511	0.176 ± 0.003	837 ± 511	4694 ± 465	0.22 ±0.002
		MIX	1.45 ± 0.06	134.60 ± 75.66	1.08	-6.56 ± 13.93	265 ± 243	241 ± 511	0.176 ± 0.003	794 ± 511	4700 ± 465	0.21 ±0.002
		VETCH		141.32 ± 72.94	1.09	-1.98 ± 13.93	297 ± 291	73± 511	0.177 ± 0.003	662 ± 511	5251 ± 465	0.16 ±0.002
	ORG - RT	CONT	1.31 ± 0.06	130.12 ± 69.07	1.01	24.04 ± 13.93	255 ± 217	-882 ± 511	0.171 ± 0.003	-384 ± 511	3310 ± 465	-0.15 ±0.002
		MUST	1.39 ± 0.06	129.94 ± 68.61	1.07	21.94 ± 13.93	280 ± 239	-805 ± 511	0.176 ± 0.003	-275 ± 511	3450 ± 465	-0.10 ±0.002
		MIX	1.35 ± 0.06	129.98± 68.80	1.04	22.76 ± 13.93	284 ± 246	-834 ± 511	0.175 ± 0.003	-322 ± 511	3497 ± 465	-0.11 ±0.002
		VETCH	1.43 ± 0.06	136.87 ±66.48	1.05	31.13 ± 13.93	328 ± 312	-1142 ± 511	0.175 ± 0.003	-594 ± 511	3939 ± 465	-0.19 ±0.002
Frick	СТ	MC	1.86 ± 0.10	107.35 ± 44.21	1.73	-4.36 ± 22.14	206 ± 96	160 ± 812	0.168 ± 0.003	886 ± 797	7142 ± 762	0.12 ± 0.002
		SL	2.14 ± 0.10	110.18 ± 47.16	1.94	-22.05 ± 22.14	191 ± 99	808 ± 812	0.168 ± 0.003	1654 ± 797	7345 ± 762	0.23 ± 0.002

RT	MC	1.86 ± 0.10 105.95 ± 42.11	1.76	1.82 ± 22.14 226 ± 104	-67 ± 812	0.169 ± 0.003	661 ± 797	7428 ± 762	0.09 ± 0.002	* Total
	SL	2.16 ± 0.10 108.82 ± 44.33	1.98	-16.12 ± 22.14 209 ± 106	591 ± 812	0.169 ± 0.003	1443 ± 797	7586 ± 762	0.19 ± 0.002	Ν
										inputs

comprise of organic and mineral fertilizers, biological N fixation, and atmospheric deposition.

** Refers to a proportion of total N inputs lost as soil N_2O emissions.

*** Total C inputs comprise of plant litter (above-, belowground) and organic fertilizers.

**** Yield comprises of harvested grain, tuber, vegetable and forages such as silage maize and grass-clover.

[‡] Due to a lack of plot-specific soil properties, only one simulation was run per treatment at this LTE site.

Table 6 Relative (%) and absolute (kg CO_2 eq ha⁻¹ or kg CO_2 eq kg⁻¹) changes in annual soil GHG emissions in response to studied soil management combinations compared with the baseline treatment in four long-term experiments (LTEs). GHGI refers to GHG intensity. The baseline represented by the treatment with the highest soil GHG emissions on an area basis at each LTE site is denoted by underlining. Mean differences (± standard error) relative to the baseline were calculated as differences of least squares means by linear mixed effects models in SAS.

LTE	Treatment		NSGHGE		CO ₂		N ₂ O		GHGI	
			kg CO ₂ eq ha ⁻¹ yr ⁻¹	%	kg CO ₂ eq ha ⁻¹ yr ⁻¹	%	kg CO ₂ eq ha ⁻¹ yr ⁻¹	%	kg CO ₂ eq kg- ¹ yield	%
P29C	Clay	PL								
		СН	-258 ± 295	-14	-230 ± 291	-25	-28 ± 12	-3	-0.06 ± 0.000	-14
		CL	-247 ± 295	-14	-205 ± 291	-22	-42 ± 12	-5	-0.06 ± 0.000	-14
		RT	-563±295	-31	-464±291	-50	-99 ± 12	-11	-0.13 ± 0.000	-32
	Loam	PL								
		СН	-112 ± 295	-8	-99 ± 291	-16	-13 ± 12	-2	-0.02 ± 0.000	-8
		CL	-133 ± 295	-10	-101 ± 291	-16	-33 ± 12	-4	-0.03 ± 0.000	-10
		RT	-372 ± 295	-27	-304 ± 291	-49	-68 ± 12	-9	-0.09 ± 0.000	-28
DOK	<u>M2</u>									
	K1		-299 ± 230	-21	-176 ± 237	-27	-124 ± 31	-15	-0.03 ± 0.002	-18
	К2		-55 ± 230	-4	-411 ± 237	-64	355 ± 31	44	-0.02 ± 0.002	-11
	01		-338 ± 230	-24	-52 ± 237	-8	-286 ± 31	-35	-0.02 ± 0.002	-12
	02		-246 ± 230	-18	-239 ± 237	-37	-6 ± 31	-1	-0.02 ± 0.002	-16
	Ν		-220 ± 230	-16	262 ± 237	41	-483 ± 31	-59	0.04 ± 0.002	28
FAST	CON - IT	CONT								
		MUST	-83 ± 275	-6	-90 ± 287	-10	8 ± 24	1	-0.03 ± 0.003	-10
		MIX	-140 ± 275	-10	-136 ± 287	-15	-3 ± 24	0	-0.05 ± 0.003	-14
		VETCH	-261 ± 275	-19	-309 ± 287	-35	49 ± 24	9	-0.10 ± 0.003	-29
	CON - NT	CONT	-807 ± 275	-58	-668 ± 287	-76	-127 ± 24	-22	-0.19 ± 0.003	-56
		MUST	-677 ± 275	-48	-559 ± 287	-64	-119 ± 24	-21	-0.16 ± 0.003	-46
		MIX	-680 ± 275	-49	-566 ± 287	-64	-115 ± 24	-20	-0.16 ± 0.003	-46
		VETCH	-730 ± 275	-52	-652 ± 287	-74	-80 ± 24	-14	-0.18 ± 0.003	-53
	ORG - IT	CONT	-436 ± 275	-31	-451 ± 287	-51	16 ± 24	3	-0.07 ± 0.003	-20
		MUST	-560 ± 275	-40	-596 ± 287	-68	38 ± 24	7	-0.12 ± 0.003	-36
		MIX	-603 ± 275	-43	-639 ± 287	-73	37 ± 24	7	-0.13 ± 0.003	-39
		VETCH	-735 ± 275	-53	-806 ± 287	-92	73 ± 24	13	-0.19 ± 0.003	-54
	ORG - RT	CONT	-1782 ± 275	-128	-1761 ± 287	-200	-21 ± 24	-4	-0.49 ± 0.003	-142
		MUST	-1672 ± 275	-120	-1684 ± 287	-192	13 ± 24	2	-0.45 ± 0.003	-129
		MIX	-1719 ± 275	-123	-1714 ± 287	-195	-4 ± 24	-1	-0.46 ± 0.003	-133
		VETCH	-1991 ± 275	-143	-2021 ± 287	-230	31 ± 24	5	-0.53 ± 0.003	-154
Frick	CT	<u>SL</u>								
		MC	-768 ± 363	-46	-649 ± 373	-80	-119 ± 25	-13	-0.10 ± 0.003	-45
	RT	SL	-211 ± 363	-13	-217 ± 373	-27	7 ± 25	1	-0.03 ± 0.003	-16
		MC	-992 ± 363	-60	-875 ± 373	-108	-117 ± 25	-13	-0.14 ± 0.003	-60

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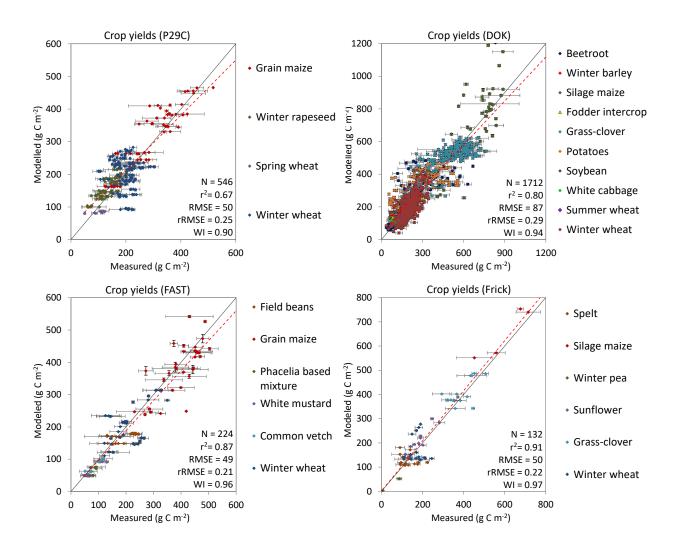


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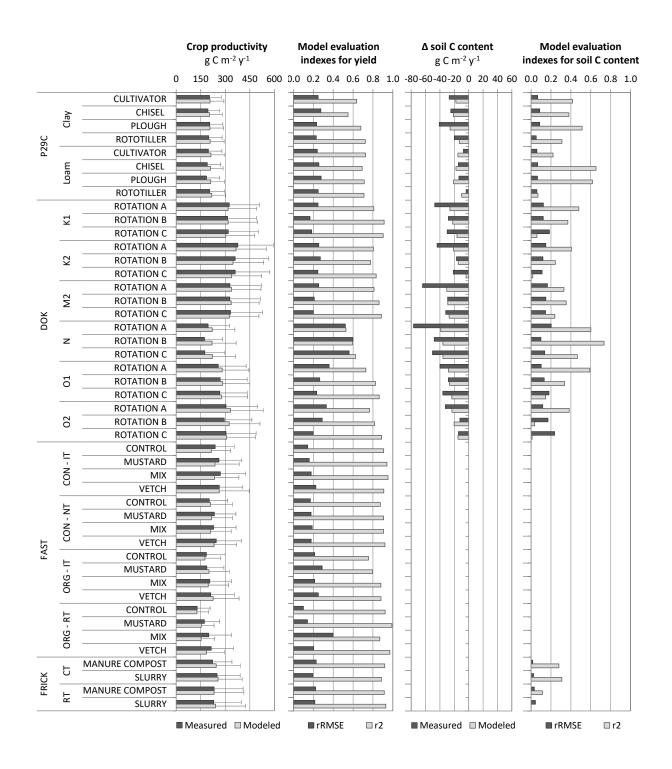
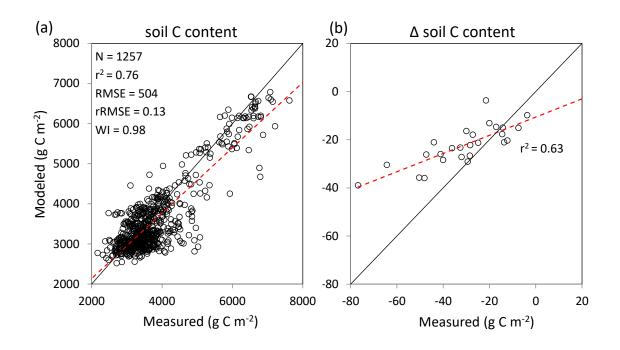


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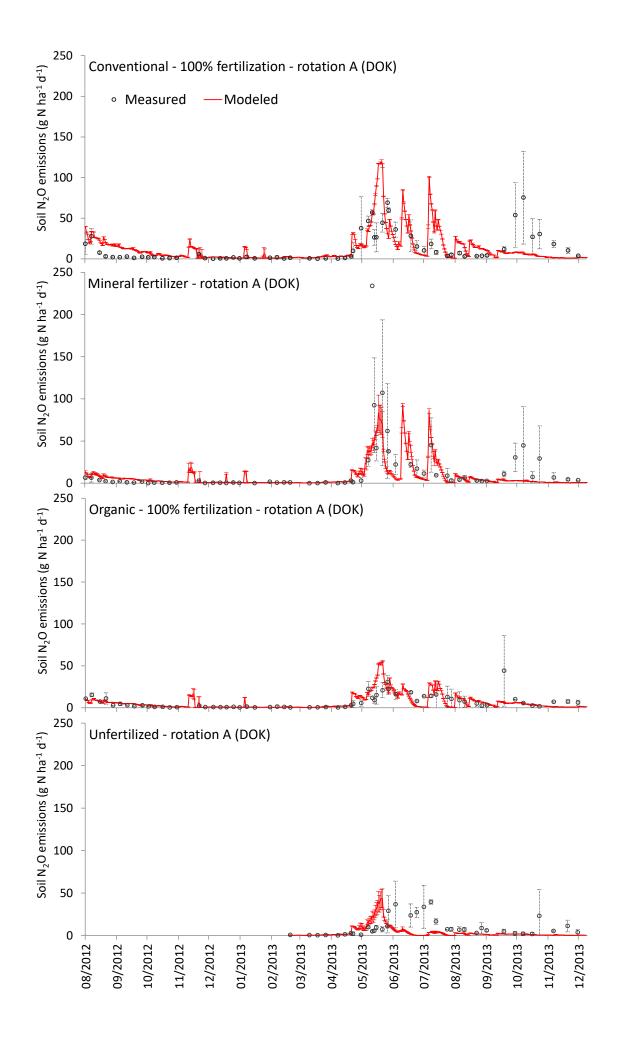


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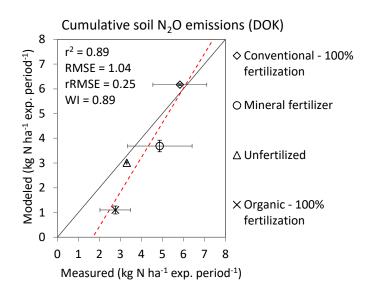
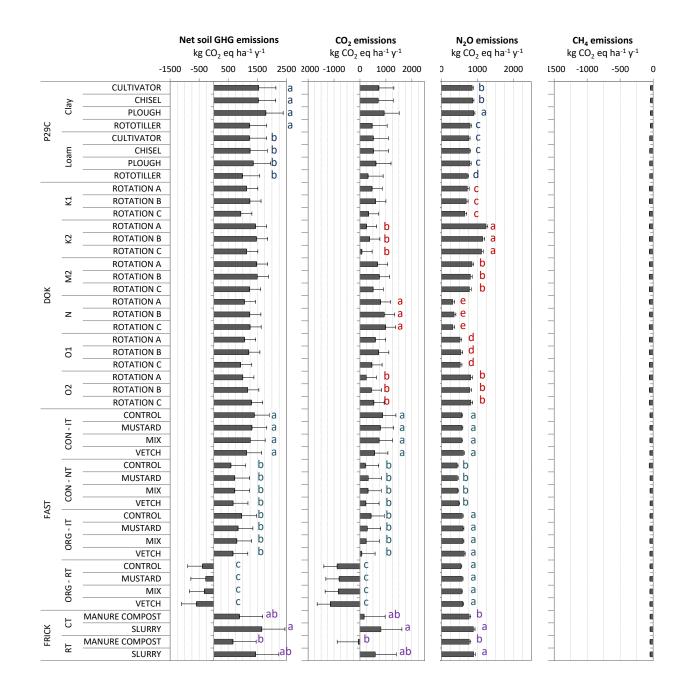
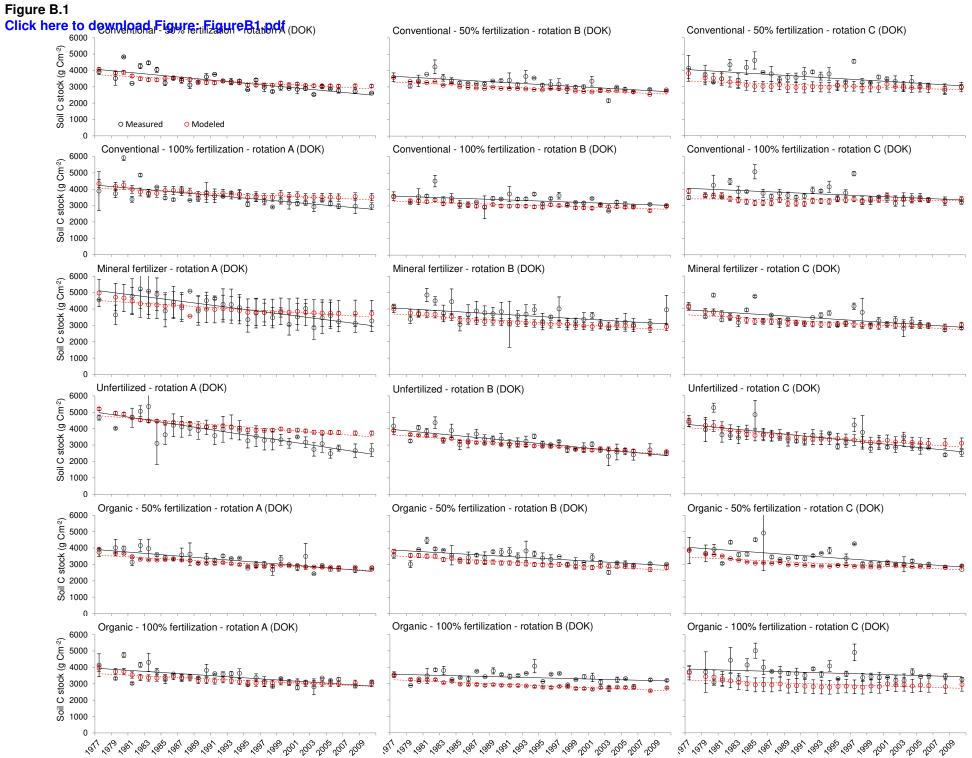


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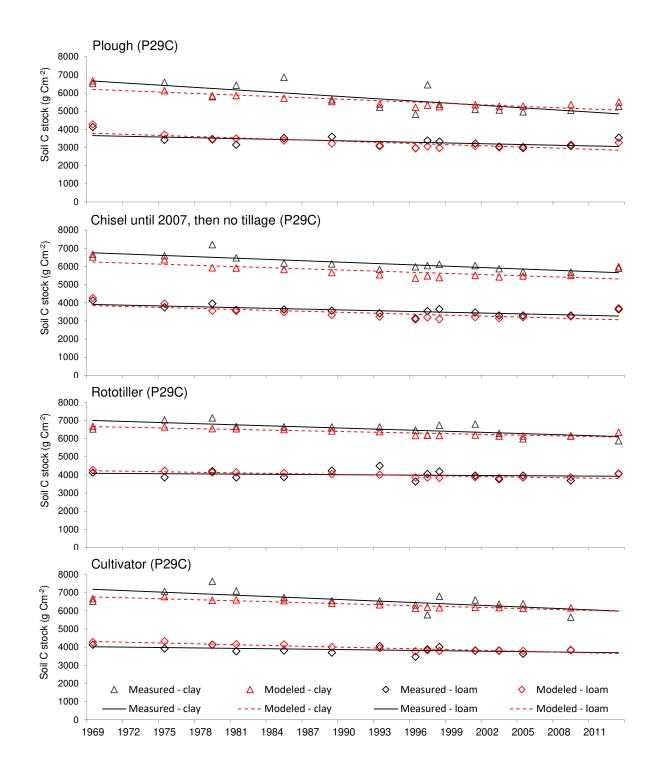


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