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1 **Can alternative cropping systems mitigate nitrogen losses and improve GHG**
2 **balance? Results from a 19-yr experiment in Northern France**

3

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15 organic farming, conservation agriculture, low input

16

17 **Abstract**

18 Alternative cropping systems are promoted to reduce nitrogen (N) losses in the environment
19 and mitigate greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions. However, these supposed benefits are not fully
20 known, rarely studied together and on the long-term. Here, we studied the N inputs, N exports,
21 soil organic N (SON) storage, N leaching, gaseous N emissions and GHG balance in a 19-yr
22 field experiment comparing four arable cropping systems without manure fertilization, under
23 conventional (CON), low-input (LI), conservation agriculture (CA) and organic (ORG)
24 managements. The N surplus, *i.e.* the difference between total N inputs and exports, was lowest
25 in LI (43 kg ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹), intermediary for CON and ORG with 63 kg ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ and highest in CA
26 (163 kg ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹). CA and ORG received high amounts of N derived from biological fixation
27 from alfalfa. The annual SON storage rates markedly differed between CA (55 kg ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹) and
28 both CON and LI (13 and 6 kg ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹), with intermediary value in ORG (30 kg ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹). N
29 leaching, calculated using soil mineral N measurements, reached an average of 21 kg ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹
30 and did not significantly differ between treatments. The gaseous N emissions (volatilization +
31 denitrification), calculated as the difference between N surplus, SON storage and N leaching,
32 ranged from 12 kg ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ in ORG to 83 kg ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ in CA. N₂O emissions were continuously
33 monitored with automatic chambers during 40 months. They varied from 1.20 kg ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ in LI
34 to 4.09 kg ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ in CA system and were highly correlated with calculated gaseous N
35 emissions. The GHG balance, calculated using SOC and N₂O measurements, varied widely
36 between systems: it was highest in CON and LI, with 2198 and 1763 kg CO_{2eq} ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹
37 respectively. In CA, the GHG balance was much more favourable (306 kg CO_{2eq} ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹),
38 despite important N₂O losses which partly offset the benefit of SOC storage. ORG was the
39 system with the smallest GHG balance (-65 kg CO_{2eq} ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹), acting as a CO₂ sink in the
40 long-term. Similar trends were observed when GHG was expressed per unit of N input or N
41 exported. The N surplus alone was not a good indicator of the N fate in the four agricultural

42 systems. Complementary predictors of N losses and GHG balance are required to obtain a true
43 overview of the C and N environmental impacts of cropping systems. On an operational point
44 of view, these results should lead to investigate the variability of the GHG emissions within
45 each cropping system.

46 **1. Introduction**

47 The objective of increasing crop yields to meet the worldwide increasing food demand has been
48 putting pressure on the use of nitrogen (N) fertilizers for sixty years, the amount of synthetic N
49 fertilizer applied being multiplied by 7 between 1960 and 1995 (Tilman et al., 2002). However,
50 the N use efficiency (NUE), *i.e.* the ratio between crop N export and N inputs, is often less than
51 50% (Tilman et al., 2002). The unrecovered N in the crop can be stored in the soil or released
52 in the environment throughout the “nitrogen cascade” (Galloway et al., 2003) as dinitrogen
53 (N₂), nitrogen oxides (NO_x), nitrous oxide (N₂O), ammonia (NH₃) and nitrate (NO₃). These N
54 losses cause environmental damages, with eutrophication of rivers, algal blooms in estuaries or
55 slimes under forest (Sutton et al., 2011) and for human health (Habermeyer et al., 2015; WHO,
56 2013). The other important environmental challenge of sustainable agriculture is to improve the
57 greenhouse gas (GHG) balance, with two aspects: reduce the CO₂ emissions or increase the
58 soil organic C (SOC) stocks and decrease the emissions of N₂O, with regard to its high global
59 warming potential (296 times greater than CO₂ over a 100-year time span).

60 The awareness of this situation led to the implementation of regulations or initiatives such as
61 the Nitrate Directive in Europe (91/676/CEE), which aims at reducing N losses from agriculture
62 to the groundwater, or the “4 per 1000” initiative launched by the COP21 in 2015
63 (<http://4p1000.org>) in order to increase SOC stocks by 4‰ every year. To meet these objectives,
64 alternative farming practices have been promoted, such as the reduction of mineral N
65 fertilization, the establishment of catch crops, the cultivation of legume crops as organic N
66 fertilizer, the introduction of perennial crops in arable systems, the reduction of tillage. An ideal
67 cropping system combining these practices would result in high N exportations, high NUE, low
68 N surplus (Eurostat, 2016) and high C and N storage in soil.

69 Most studies focused on evaluating separately the environmental impacts of each cropping
70 practice with regard to N losses. For example, straw incorporation, catch crops and reduced N

71 fertilization practices were shown to reduce N leaching (e.g. Beaudoin *et al.*, 2005; Constantin
72 *et al.*, 2010; Hansen *et al.*, 2015), while gaseous N emissions can be decreased by reduced
73 fertilization or increased by no-till (Constantin *et al.*, 2010). These improved practices are often
74 clustered in alternative farming systems, such as low-input farming, organic farming or
75 conservation agriculture. These systems are generally assumed to be more environmental-
76 friendly than conventional farming systems, because of their smaller nutrient inputs, improved
77 biodiversity and/or lower soil disturbance. However, the combination of various practices may
78 complicate the effects of alternative cropping systems on the N flows, and the biochemical
79 processes involved in N fate still need to be clarified. While the positive effect of long-term
80 reduced fertilization on N leaching is commonly accepted, the effect of organic farming and
81 conservation agriculture is still a matter of controversy. Conservation agriculture is
82 characterized by no-tillage and permanent living mulch growing under the main crop (Soane *et*
83 *al.*, 2012) and its impact on N flows is unclear. For example, it may either result in a reduced
84 N leaching by immobilization of N in the topsoil layer during crop residues decomposition or
85 increase it because of preferential water flows occurring under no-till (Kay *et al.*, 2009). Palm
86 *et al.* (2014) report inconsistent results concerning N₂O emissions which could be increased
87 with a higher moisture at soil surface in CA or decreased in the long-term. In organic farming
88 systems, N input to soil is mainly ensured by organic fertilizers and crop residues derived from
89 N₂ fixing legumes, but this N needs to be mineralized before becoming available (Thorup-
90 Kristensen and Dresbøll, 2010). The N inputs in stockless organic systems mainly derive from
91 the second source and are usually lower than in the corresponding conventional systems. A
92 greater N sequestration seems to occur with these inputs compared to mineral N inputs (Kramer
93 *et al.*, 2002). Gaseous N emissions from organic cropping systems are expected to be smaller
94 since soil mineral N is scarcer than in highly fertilized conventional systems (Skinner *et al.*,
95 2014).

96 At the field scale, the N surplus of a cropping system is calculated as the difference between N
97 inputs and N exported by crop harvests. N surplus is often considered as an indicator of the
98 negative impact of agricultural practices on the environment (OECD, 2001). N surplus must be
99 calculated over long enough period, in order to characterize properly the long-term effect of a
100 cropping system on the N fate in the soil-plant system.

101 Few studies have simultaneously estimated the components of the N balance (N surplus, N
102 leaching, SON storage, gaseous N emissions), the SOC storage and the GHG balance of
103 alternative cropping systems in the long-term. This was the general objective of this paper,
104 which analyses the long-term experiment of “La Cage”, comparing conventional (CON), low
105 input (LI), conservation agriculture (CA) and organic (ORG) cropping systems. Autret *et al.*
106 (2016) previously determined the changes in soil organic carbon (SOC) stocks in these four
107 cropping systems. In this paper, we i) compare changes in SON stocks between systems from
108 1998 to 2014; ii) quantify the N losses through leaching and N₂O emission, iii) determine the
109 N surplus and iv) calculate the GHG balance of each cropping system on the long-term (1998-
110 2017). The SON stocks measured in 1998 and 2014 were used to estimate the SON
111 sequestration rates. N leaching was calculated using measurements of soil mineral N and
112 LIXIM model (Mary et al., 1999). The direct N₂O emissions were continuously measured
113 during 40 months (2014-2017). The N surplus was calculated using records of N inputs and
114 exportations. With regard to the previous observations concerning SOC changes, we
115 hypothesized that the GHG balance could vary widely among the four cropping systems.

116 **2. Material and methods**

117 **2.1 Experimental site**

118 The study was conducted at the experimental site of “La Cage” at Versailles, France (48°48’
119 N, 2°08’ E) as described by Autret *et al.* (2016). The experiment was established in 1998 in

120 order to assess the agronomic, economic and environmental performances of three alternative
121 systems compared to a prevalent conventional cropping system of Northern France. Before the
122 experimental establishment, the site was evenly maintained under a conventional management.
123 The climate is oceanic temperate with mean annual temperature of 11.3°C and mean annual
124 precipitation of 673 mm. The soil is an artificially drained deep Luvisol (IUSS Working Group
125 WRB, 2006). Its clay content measured in 1998 is 167 g kg⁻¹ over the whole field and the pH
126 in water is 7.38 (Appendix A).

127 **2.2 Cropping systems and management**

128 Four cropping systems are compared: a conventional (CON), low input (LI), conservation
129 agriculture (CA) and organic farming (ORG) system. They differ in soil tillage, crop succession
130 and protection, fertilization and crop residues management. Soil was ploughed every year in
131 CON and ORG, and only one out of two years in LI. The CA system, consisting in direct seeding
132 with a permanent plant cover, is conducted in no-till since 1998. The crop rotation of CON and
133 LI was the following: rapeseed (*Brassica napus* L.), winter wheat (*Triticum aestivum* L.), spring
134 pea (*Pisum sativum* L.) and winter wheat. It slightly differed in CA where maize (*Zea mays* L.)
135 was grown two years instead of rapeseed. The main difference occurred in the ORG system in
136 which alfalfa (*Medicago sativa* L.) was introduced thereafter to replace pea and rapeseed. All
137 crop residues were left on the soil surface at harvest. Some of the alfalfa cuts were exported
138 while the others were returned to soil: the proportion of cuts return was 50% and 67% in CA
139 and ORG systems respectively. Catch crops were grown only in the CA system, being
140 composed of oat (*Avena sativa* L.), vetch (*Vicia sativa* L.), white mustard (*Sinapis alba* L.) or
141 fodder radish (*Raphanus sativus* L.). A permanent cover crop, composed of festuca (*Festuca*
142 *rubra* L.) in the first years and alfalfa thereafter, was maintained under the main crop in CA. It
143 was chemically destroyed at least once every 4 years, before seeding pea crops. Pesticides were
144 used in the CON, LI and CA systems for weed, pest and disease control; their application rate

145 was lower in LI and CA compared to CON system. The ORG system did not receive any
146 pesticide and received authorized P and K fertilizers, according to the European specifications
147 for organic farming. Phosphate fertilizer was applied at a mean rate of 14, 14, 9 and 3 kg P ha⁻¹
148 yr⁻¹ and potassium at a rate of 26, 26, 18 and 6 kg K ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ in CON, LI, CA and ORG
149 systems respectively. The rate was proportional to the crop yield. Mineral N fertilizers were
150 applied to non-legume crops of CON, LI and CA systems. The N fertilizer rate of each crop
151 was calculated in mid-winter according to a balance-sheet method and split in 2 or 3
152 applications. The N fertilization rate was highest in CON system and was reduced on average
153 by 22% in LI and 29% in CA systems. In the ORG system, organic N fertilizers (feather meal
154 and guano) were applied solely on wheat during the first years and in 1999 and 2005 for
155 rapeseed, at a low rate (6% of the CON system). No other manure or organic fertilizer was
156 applied.

157 **2.3 Measurements**

158 The timeline of N-related measurements made at La Cage between 1998 and 2017 is
159 summarized in Figure 1.

160 **2.3.1 Crop yields and N uptake**

161 Grain yield was determined based on the quantity of grain collected by the combine harvester
162 and average values of dry matter content of grain. Alfalfa yield was calculated as the sum of
163 the biomass content of exported cuts which was measured directly, and the aboveground
164 biomass returned to soil (not exported) which was estimated using regional references (Autret
165 *et al.*, 2016). When not available, N content in harvested grains and aboveground biomass was
166 assumed to be equal to national reference values (Appendix B.1). They were used to estimate
167 N export by main crops (Table 1). Crop residues, cover crops and catch crops were returned to
168 the soil and therefore not accounted for in the N outputs.

169 **2.3.2 Soil water and mineral N contents**

170 Soil mineral N (SMN) and soil water content (SWC) were measured three times per year: after
171 harvest (average date July 30), in autumn (average November 2) and winter (average February
172 11) between November 2012 and February 2017. Three soil samples were collected in each
173 subplot from soil surface down to 90 cm depth, corresponding to the maximum rooting depth.
174 Soil cores were divided into three layers of 30 cm and frozen until mineral N extraction. The
175 gravimetric water content was determined after 48h drying at 105°C. Mineral N was extracted
176 from 100 g of soil shaken in 200 mL of a potassium chloride solution (1M). Nitrate (NO₃) and
177 ammonium (NH₄) concentrations of the solution were measured by continuous-flow
178 colorimetry (Khan et al., 2007). Bulk densities used to calculate SMN stocks were taken from
179 previous measurements made in 2014 (Autret et al., 2016).

180 **2.3.3 SOC and SON stocks**

181 The SOC and SON concentrations and bulk densities were measured at different dates between
182 1998 and 2014, in order to calculate SON stocks on equivalent soil mass (ESM) basis (Ellert
183 and Bettany, 1995) over a depth at least equal to the deepest tillage event. Twenty samples were
184 taken in each subplot down to 30 cm depth in 1998, whereas six samples were picked up in
185 each subplot at 60 cm depth in 2014 with a hydraulic gauge of 6 cm diameter (Autret *et al.*,
186 2016). Soil samples were coarsely crushed, oven dried for 48h at 35°C and sieved (2 mm). Soil
187 subsamples were finely ground in a ball mill (PM 400, Retsch, Germany) before measurement
188 of the total N content by Dumas (dry combustion) with an elemental analyser (EURO EA,
189 Eurovector, Italy). Bulk density was measured in 1998 for the layers 0-10, 10-20 and 20-30 cm
190 and in 2014 on the top soil layer 0-5 cm, using a steel cylinder of 98 cm³. Soil was weighed
191 after drying during 48 h at 105 °C. A gamma-densitometer (LPC-INRA, Angers, France) was
192 used in 2014 to measure the bulk density every 5 cm in the layers from 5 to 40 cm depth.

2.3.4 *N₂O emissions*

193
194 Direct N₂O emissions were monitored continuously between April 2014 and July 2017, using
195 automatic chambers as described by Bessou *et al.* (2010) and Peyrard *et al.* (2016, 2017). On
196 April 8, 2014, twelve automatic, large size chambers (0.70 m x 0.70 m) were installed in four
197 plots of the block 1, representing the four cropping systems with three replicates. Three
198 chambers were installed at a mean distance of 10 m each other in each plot of 0.56 ha. They
199 were maintained in the plot throughout the growing season and removed only for the main
200 operations (sowing, mechanical weeding, harvest and disk ploughing), receiving the same
201 management than the rest of the plot. Chambers were connected to two infra-red gas analysers,
202 one for CO₂ (LiCor 820, LiCor Biosciences, USA) and the other for N₂O (Thermo 46c, Thermo
203 Fisher Scientific, USA) installed in an enclosure left *in situ*. The automatic chambers were
204 closed sequentially four times a day during 20 minutes (starting at 0, 6, 12 and 18 hours GMT).
205 The CO₂ and N₂O concentrations were measured every 10 seconds during the closure.
206 Additional corrections (besides those provided by the manufacturer) were made to account for
207 the (small) interferences between N₂O and CO₂ concentrations. N₂O concentrations were
208 converted into fluxes by fitting the concentration kinetics to a linear or an exponential model.
209 The smaller measurable flux using this method is lower than 1 g N₂O-N ha⁻¹ day⁻¹. Cumulative
210 N₂O emissions were obtained by summing up the fluxes measured during 20 minutes every 6
211 hours.

2.4 Calculations

2.4.1 *Biological N fixation*

214 The biological nitrogen fixation (BNF) of legume crops was estimated, either for the main
215 crops, cover crops undersown in the main crop, or catch crops preceding the main crop. The
216 total amount of fixed N was calculated as the sum of the contributions of each category of
217 grown legumes. BNF was calculated using the empirical relation established by Anglade *et al.*

218 (2015) between the amount of N derived from atmosphere ($Ndfa$) and the N yield of the legume
219 crop:

$$220 \quad Ndfa = \alpha \cdot Ny + \beta \quad (1)$$

221 where α and β are crop specific parameters (Appendix B.2) and Ny is the N yield, defined as
222 the total N accumulated in the aboveground biomass (kg N ha^{-1}), calculated as follows:

$$223 \quad Ny = Y \cdot Nc / NHI \quad (2)$$

224 where Y is the harvested crop yield (t DM ha^{-1}), Nc is the nitrogen content of the harvested
225 material (g kg^{-1}), and NHI is the nitrogen harvest index (ratio of N in the harvested material to
226 N in total aboveground biomass). Ny was determined using the following variables: i) the
227 measured grain yield for pulses (fababean, lupin, pea and soybean), ii) the estimates of
228 aboveground biomass for the other legumes (alfalfa, vetch and clover), iii) an average value of
229 measured N content for pea, and iv) standard values of N content for the other species
230 (CORPEN, 1988; Parr *et al.*, 2011; Anglade *et al.*, 2015). The $Ndfa$ was finally corrected by a
231 multiplicative factor (BGN-F) accounting for belowground contributions which varied between
232 species, in order to estimate the total BNF (Anglade *et al.*, 2015).

233 **2.4.2 N surplus**

234 The N surplus (N_{sur}) relative to the soil-plant system was calculated for each of the four cropping
235 systems according to OECD (2001) by subtracting the total N exportation from the total N
236 inputs. A positive N surplus indicates that N losses occur in the environment and/or that SON
237 stock increases, whereas a negative surplus means a soil impoverishment. The annual surplus
238 ($\text{kg ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$) was calculated as:

$$239 \quad N_{sur} = N_{fert} + N_{fix} + N_{atm} - N_{exp} \quad (3)$$

240 where N_{fert} is the annual N fertilization, N_{fix} the N derived from symbiotic fixation, N_{atm} the
241 atmospheric N deposition and N_{exp} the N exported from the field by harvests, all values
242 expressed in $\text{kg ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$. The values of N_{fert} and N_{exp} were recorded each year whereas N_{fix} was

243 calculated as indicated previously. N_{am} was estimated based on the European Monitoring and
244 Evaluation Program (<http://www.emep.int/>), providing an annual deposition of 12.9 kg ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹
245 at the regional scale in France over the 2000-2015 period.

246 **2.4.3 N leaching**

247 Water drainage, net N mineralization and N leaching were calculated using both measurements
248 of SWC and SMN contents and the LIXIM model (Mary et al., 1999). LIXIM simulates
249 simultaneous N mineralization and water and nitrate transfer between soil layers at a daily time-
250 step, fitting simulated water and mineral N stocks to observed values. We used the adaptation
251 made by Beaudoin *et al.* (2005) to account for the concomitant crop N uptake which can occur
252 when soil is not completely bare fallow during winter. Results showed that leaching predictions
253 were only slightly impacted by crop N uptake.

254 Input data for LIXIM model were the mean daily temperature and precipitation, potential
255 evapotranspiration, soil bulk density, soil water contents at permanent wilting point and field
256 capacity of each layer, SWC and SMN contents in autumn and winter. When soil was covered
257 by a crop (catch crop, cover crop, main crop or rapeseed regrowth), the date of seeding, depth
258 of rooting, root growth rate, base temperature and N absorption rate were also provided. The
259 depth of rooting, root growth rate and base temperature of each crop were set to values given
260 in Appendix C. The actual to potential evapotranspiration ratio (AET / PET) was set at 0.5 for
261 a bare soil and 0.6 or fitted by the model when a crop was present in winter. The net N
262 mineralization rate was optimized, as well as the nitrogen absorption rate, by fitting the
263 simulated values of water and SMN contents to the observed values.

264 Drainage and leaching were estimated differently according to the time period. First, they were
265 calculated for the five drainage seasons (2012 to 2017) during which water and mineral N
266 contents were measured both in autumn and winter. During this period, the amounts of drained
267 water (D , mm yr⁻¹) and N leached (L , kg N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹) were estimated using SWC and SMN

268 measurements together with LIXIM model. This calculation was not possible during the other
269 period (1998-2011), because SWC and SMN contents were measured only in winter. Therefore,
270 drainage was calculated using a simulator based on evapotranspiration, precipitation and soil
271 water capacity (Leenhardt, 1991) and leaching was determined using a statistical relationship
272 between N leached, drained water and SMN measured in February, as follows:

$$273 \quad L = D^2(a_1S_1 + a_2S_2 + a_3S_3) \quad (4)$$

274 where S_1 , S_2 and S_3 are the amounts of soil nitrate-N measured in mid-February in layers 0-30,
275 30-60 and 60-90 cm, respectively. This relationship, established with the data of the second
276 period (2012-2017), explained satisfactorily the leaching simulated by LIXIM: $r^2 = 0.85$, $n=20$.
277 The fitted value of coefficients a_1 , a_2 and a_3 was 0.98, -0.89 and 0.74 respectively.

278 **2.4.4 Gaseous N losses**

279 Based on N surplus, N leaching and SON storage estimated between 1998 and 2016, we
280 calculated the total gaseous N losses (G , in $\text{kg ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$) with the following equation (Mary *et*
281 *al.*, 2002; Constantin *et al.*, 2010):

$$282 \quad G = N_{sur} - (N_{stored} + L) \quad (5)$$

283 where N_{stored} is the SON sequestration rate which was measured between 1998 and 2014. This
284 equation assumes that the variation in soil mineral N between the beginning and end of the
285 period is negligible, which is true. G includes all N emissions through denitrification ($\text{N}_2+\text{N}_2\text{O}$),
286 nitrification ($\text{N}_2\text{O}+\text{NO}_x$) and volatilization (NH_3), without detail of their respective
287 proportions.

288 **2.4.5 GHG balance**

289 The total emissions of greenhouse gases at La Cage experiment result from total equivalent
290 CO_2 losses, deriving from the soil and crop management of each cropping. We calculated the
291 annual GHG balance (GHG_b , in $\text{kg CO}_2\text{eq ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$) as follows:

$$GHG_b = F + M + 296 \cdot \frac{44}{28} (direct\ N_2Oe + indirect\ N_2Oe) - \frac{44}{12} SOC_{storage} \quad (6)$$

292 where F is the amount of CO₂ emitted during the fertilizer synthesis (in kg CO₂ ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹), M
 293 the amount of CO₂ emitted during the plant and soil management (in kg CO₂ ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹), *direct*
 294 *N₂Oe* the amount of N₂O emitted by the soil (kg N₂O-N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹), *indirect N₂Oe* the amount of
 295 N₂O emitted throughout the N cascade (kg N₂O-N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹) and $SOC_{storage}$ the amount of carbon
 296 yearly stored in the soil (kg C ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹). F was calculated as the product of the amount of
 297 fertilizer applied per hectare and the corresponding emission factors which were 6.17 kg CO₂eq
 298 kg⁻¹ of N for ammonium nitrate, 1.30 kg CO₂eq kg⁻¹ of phosphate (P) and 0.54 kg CO₂eq kg⁻¹
 299 of potassium (K) for binary P-K fertilizers (Gac et al., 2010). M was obtained by multiplying
 300 the amount of fuel consumed per hectare for soil and crop management (Appendix D) by the
 301 emission factor of 0.81 kg CO₂eq per liter of fuel consumed. The direct N₂Oe emissions were
 302 measured for the 2014-2017 period. They were used to calculate the impact factors relative to
 303 mineral fertilizers and organic N residues for each system during three years. These factors
 304 were then used to estimate the *direct N₂O* emissions from 1998 to 2013. The *indirect N₂Oe*
 305 emissions were estimated with the emission factors defined in the IPCC Guidelines for National
 306 GHG Inventories (De Klein et al., 2006), namely 1% of the N volatilized derived from synthetic
 307 fertilizer being transformed into N₂O and 0.75% of the leached N being transformed into N₂O
 308 all along the N cascade in groundwater, rivers and estuaries. Finally, the $SOC_{storage}$ was taken
 309 from by Autret *et al.* (2016) who measured it during the 1998-2014 period, with 78, 22, 625
 310 and 277 kg C ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ for CON, LI, CA and ORG respectively.

312 **2.5 Statistical analysis**

313 Statistical analyses were performed using the R software (R Core Team, 2017). The weakness
 314 of the experiment was its design with only two randomized blocks, previously underlined by
 315 Henneron *et al.* (2014), Pelosi *et al.* (2015) and Autret *et al.* (2016). These authors considered

316 each of the two sided subplots of a given cropping system as replicate, thus producing four
317 pseudo replicates. Their choice was supported by different arguments and particularly the fact
318 that the intra-plot variability (between subplots) was as important as the inter-plot variability
319 (within blocks), as indicated by the comparison of variances ($F=1.83$, $p<0.05$) made by Autret
320 *et al.* (2016). In the present study, we made a more rigorous analysis as recommended by
321 Webster and Lark (2018). We did not consider 16 randomized plots (4 treatments x 2 blocks x
322 2 subplots) such as the previous authors but 8 randomized plots (4 treatments x 2 blocks) with
323 2 replicates within plots (in the sided subplots), applying a “nested” analysis of variance. This
324 ANOVA was performed to test the effect of cropping system on 1) SON stocks in 1998 and
325 2014 and their variation; 2) N inputs, N exportations and N surplus from 1998 to 2016; 3) N
326 leaching between 1998 and 2017; 4) N₂O emissions between April 2014 and July 2017 and 5)
327 GHG balance. The assumptions of ANOVA were checked by using the Shapiro-Wilk and
328 Levene’s tests. The existence of significant effects ($p<0.05$) was followed by a post-hoc
329 comparison test of means with the CLD from the *emmeans* package (Lenth, 2018).

330 **3. Results**

331 **3.1 N inputs and export by main and cover crops**

332 The mean input of fertilizer-N over the 19 years experiment was 199, 144 and 166 kg N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹
333 ¹ for wheat crops and 189, 169 and 98 kg N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ for rapeseed in the CON, LI and CA
334 cropping systems, respectively (Table 1). It was much lower in the ORG system, with an
335 average of 12 kg N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ (wheat) and 44 kg N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ (rapeseed), both applied as organic
336 fertilizer. The N input derived from symbiotic fixation, related to the legume crop N yield,
337 varied between species. It was estimated at 166, 168, 191 and 105 kg N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ for pea crop in
338 the CON, LI, CA and ORG systems, respectively. Alfalfa, whether grown as a main crop in CA
339 and ORG or as a cover crop mixed with a cereal in CA, provided the highest N inputs, ranging

340 from 154 to 350 kg N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹. BNF represented 20%, 23%, 56% and 84% of total N inputs for
341 CON, LI, CA and ORG systems, respectively. After 2008, organic N fertilizers were no longer
342 applied to the ORG system, which then relied exclusively on legume crops to inject reactive N.
343 The part of BNF in total N inputs also increased with time in the CA system, due to the more
344 frequent use of legumes as cover crop and green manure, from 30% until 2008 to an average of
345 77% since 2009.

346 N outputs (export) are directly linked to the grain yields and aerial biomass of alfalfa. Average
347 wheat yields varied between cropping systems, respectively 8.1, 7.4, 6.2 and 4.6 t DM ha⁻¹ in
348 CON, LI, CA and ORG. They were correlated to the N fertilizer rate ($r=0.51$, $n=152$, $p<0.001$).
349 The yields of spring pea and winter rapeseed were also lower in the ORG than in the other
350 cropping systems. The mean N export through wheat grains was 149, 137, 123 and 76 kg N ha⁻¹
351 yr⁻¹ in CON, LI, CA and ORG respectively. It represented 49 to 59% of the total N export.

352 **3.2 N surplus**

353 The average N surplus calculated between 1998 and 2016 was clearly positive for all systems
354 (Table 2). It varied from 43 to 163 kg N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ and ranked as follows: LI < CON = ORG <
355 CA. The smaller N surplus observed in LI compared to CON results from lower N inputs (169
356 kg N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹) and a similar symbiotic N fixation. The N surplus of the ORG system did not
357 differ from the CON system, despite its very low fertilizer input but the presence of alfalfa
358 generated high N input (101 kg N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹), three times greater than in the CON system. The
359 very high N surplus observed in CA results from the important amounts of symbiotic N fixation,
360 especially from alfalfa which accounts for 107 kg N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹, corresponding to 65% of the total
361 BNF inputs. The N surplus was positive in all cropping systems, indicating that N had been
362 stored in the soil and/or lost through leaching and gaseous emissions in all systems.

363 **3.3 SON storage**

364 The SON stocks calculated at ESM in the 0-30 cm layer (old ploughed layer) in 1998 and 2014
365 are presented in Table 3. Small differences, but not significant, were found between treatments
366 in SON stocks in 1998 ($p < 0.05$), the average SON value being 4.25 t N ha⁻¹. In 2014, SON
367 stocks were much higher in CA than in the three other systems, which did not differ
368 significantly each other. SON stocks in the layer 30-60 cm did not differ between systems
369 (results not shown), indicating that most SON variations occurred in the upper layer. The
370 change in SON stocks during the 16 years varied between 0.10 and 0.89 t N ha⁻¹. It was
371 significantly different from 0 in the CA system but not in the other systems. The average rates
372 of N sequestration were 13, 6, 55 and 30 kg N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ in CON, LI, CA and ORG respectively.

373 **3.4 SMN stocks, drainage and N leaching**

374 The measured SMN stocks and the calculated drainage, N leaching and NO₃ concentrations in
375 drained water are presented in Table 4. The SMN stocks in autumn, measured from 2012 to
376 2017, varied little between systems: they were on average 62, 58, 43 and 58 kg N ha⁻¹ in the
377 CON, LI, CA and ORG systems respectively. The SMN stocks found in winter during the same
378 years were lower, respectively 29, 33, 35 and 42 kg N ha⁻¹. The winter SMN during the rest of
379 experiment (1998-2011) were slightly higher but with the same ranking between systems.
380 Although no significant difference was found, the ORG system which received no mineral N
381 fertilizer tended to have the highest SMN stocks in February, varying between 18 and 86 kg N
382 ha⁻¹.

383 The calculated drainage did not vary significantly between cropping systems but varied
384 markedly between years, from 11 to 334 mm yr⁻¹. The average drainage over the whole period
385 (1998-2017) was 145 mm yr⁻¹. Similarly, the amounts of N leached did not differ significantly
386 between systems but widely among years. The mean amounts of leached N over the whole

387 period were 18, 22, 24 and 20 kg N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ for CON, LI, CA and ORG respectively. The nitrate
388 concentration in drained water did not differ significantly between systems with an average
389 value of 56 (period 2012-2017) and 65 mg NO₃ L⁻¹ (whole period), *i.e.* slightly greater than the
390 maximum content of 50 mg NO₃ L⁻¹ set by the Nitrate Directive (91/676/CEE). The
391 concentrations calculated during the last five years differed more between systems (37 mg NO₃
392 L⁻¹ in CA vs 63 mg NO₃ L⁻¹ in CON), suggesting that the improvement in the management of
393 the non-conventional systems might reduce nitrate leaching losses in the near future.

394 **3.5 N surplus and gaseous N losses**

395 The greatest source of uncertainty in the calculation of the N surplus lies in the BNF input from
396 alfalfa in the CA and ORG systems, with two components: 1) the estimate of aboveground
397 biomass and 2) the belowground N derived from BNF. We conducted a sensitivity analysis to
398 determine the change in the N surplus in response to a variation in aboveground production of
399 alfalfa and in the BGN-F factor (ratio of total to aboveground N fixed) (Table 5). Biomass
400 production varied between 90 and 110% of the nominal value (range determined using the
401 measurements made in the last years) and three values of the BGN factor were tested: 1.4, 1.7
402 and 2.1 corresponding to its minimum, average and maximum value reported by Anglade *et al.*
403 (2015). The N surplus thus calculated varied widely, from 134 to 196 kg N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ in CA and
404 43 to 95 kg N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ in ORG system. The average values were close to those previously
405 calculated, 161 ± 20 kg N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ for CA and 65 ± 17 kg N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ for ORG. It is noticeable
406 that the difference between the two cropping systems was much more stable, 95 ± 3 kg N ha⁻¹
407 yr⁻¹. This indicates that despite the rather large uncertainty in the estimates of N surplus, the
408 CA system is characterised by a much higher surplus than the ORG system.

409 The unrecovered N, *i.e.* the difference between the N surplus and the sum of N stored in soil
410 and N leached, corresponds to the gaseous N losses (denitrification + volatilization). Figure 2
411 displays the N surplus and its partitioning into its three components over the 1998-2017 period.

412 N surplus was mainly correlated with gaseous losses ($r=0.97$, $p<0.001$), moderately with SON
413 storage ($r=0.93$, $p<0.01$) and not correlated with N leaching ($r=0.60$, ns). The gaseous losses
414 differed widely among cropping systems: they were much greater in the CA (83 ± 22 kg N ha⁻¹
415 yr⁻¹) than in the CON system (32 ± 11 kg N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹) and smallest in the LI (15 ± 24 kg N ha⁻¹
416 yr⁻¹) and ORG system (12 ± 14 kg N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹). Similar differences were obtained when
417 calculations were made only during the period 2014-2017 (results not shown).

418 **3.6 N₂O emissions**

419 Emissions varied widely between systems and throughout time (Table 6). Over the whole
420 monitoring period (April 2014 – July 2017) the N₂O emissions were highest in the CA system
421 (11.96 kg N₂O-N ha⁻¹), intermediate in the CON system (6.85 kg N₂O-N ha⁻¹) and lowest in the
422 LI and ORG system (3.51 and 4.39 kg N₂O-N ha⁻¹). Emissions occurred mainly but not
423 exclusively after fertiliser application, in response to rainfall events, indicating that
424 denitrification was the main source of N₂O production. The ORG system produced very small
425 emissions except during the last period (November 2016 – July 2017) under wheat established
426 after the destruction of alfalfa. Conversely, the three other systems had small emission rates
427 during this period; this is likely due to a low denitrification itself linked with a low rainfall
428 during this period.

429 The N₂O emission factor relative to the total N inputs (mineral + organic N) during the whole
430 monitoring period was 1.19%, 0.92%, 1.49% and 1.42% for the CON, LI, CA and ORG
431 systems, respectively. These values are close to IPCC references. In addition, N₂O emissions
432 were highly correlated with total gaseous losses ($r=0.97$, $p<0.001$). This result suggests that a
433 large part of the gaseous losses originated from denitrification.

434 **3.7 Global GHG balance**

435 The GHG balance calculated for each cropping system is presented in Table 7. The upper part
436 of the table shows the GHG balance during the 2014-2017 period, during which N₂O fluxes
437 were continuously measured, whereas the lower part concerns the 19-yr period (1998-2017).
438 Over the 19 yr-period, emissions deriving from fertilizer synthesis were high in CON (927 kg
439 CO₂eq ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹) and low in ORG (44 kg CO₂eq ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹) which received small amounts of
440 organic fertilizers in the early years of the trial. The CO₂ emissions related to agricultural
441 operations varied less between systems, from 161 kg CO₂eq ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ in CA to 272 kg CO₂eq
442 ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ in CON. The differences were mainly due to the absence of soil tillage in CA, ploughing
443 being particularly fuel consuming. The indirect N₂O emissions occurring during the N cascade
444 contributed very little (average 118 kg CO₂eq ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹) to the GHG balance. The direct N₂O
445 emissions and the direct CO₂ emissions (estimated by the SOC variation) were the main sources
446 of variability. Taking into account the annual SOC sequestration, the net GHG balance was
447 estimated for each cropping system on the 1998-2017 period and ranked as follows: CON
448 (+2198 kg CO₂eq ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹) > LI (+1763) > CA (+306) > ORG (-65). A similar ranking and
449 amplitude of variation was obtained for the period 2014-2017, showing the robustness of the
450 calculations. The ranking was conserved when the GHG balance was expressed per unit of N
451 input or unit of exported N. Intensive mineral N fertilization and mechanization, associated
452 with a poor SOC sequestration rate lead to high GHG emissions in the CON, as well as in LI
453 even with reduced farming intensity. The CA system had a much better GHG balance due to its
454 very high SOC storage rate. However, its high N₂O emissions offset this beneficial effect,
455 resulting in a slightly positive GHG balance. Finally, the ORG system was the only cropping
456 system leading to a negative GHG balance.

457 **4. Discussion**

458 We have studied the long-term impacts of alternative cropping systems on the N fate, including
459 N uptake by crops, SON storage, N leaching and gaseous N emissions, and the GHG balance,
460 including direct and indirect emissions. The results are summarized in Figure 3: each variable
461 of each cropping system was scored between 0 (adverse impact) and 1 (beneficial impact),
462 compared to two reference values (low and high) of each variable, given in the legend.

463 **3.8 N use efficiency**

464 The NUE of each cropping system can be compared to the reference value of 0.66 obtained on
465 average for France during the 2000-2014 period (Eurostat, 2016). A nominal comparison of the
466 NUE of cropping systems requires precaution because NUE is linked to the N fertilizer rate
467 (Mary *et al.*, 2002). Thus, the NUE variability within each system would deserve to be
468 investigated. However, both the N input rate and origin is structurally determined by the nature
469 of each cropping system. During the 19 years of the experiment, LI system yielded the highest
470 NUE, 0.84, CON and ORG obtained respectively 0.69 and 0.55, and the lowest was found in
471 CA system, 0.39. This latter value was explained by the high organic N inputs derived from
472 legume cover crop residues which were preferentially stored in the soil rather than used for
473 plant uptake. Given that straw was systematically returned to soil during the experiment in all
474 cropping systems, the differences in NUE refer mainly to the efficiency of conversion of the
475 supplied N, either by inorganic fertilizers or through BNF, into crop uptake and grain N.
476 Aronsson *et al.* (2007) reported similar NUE values in Sweden: 0.54 for an organic system
477 relying on green manure, 0.68 for a conventional system, but higher efficiency in an organic
478 system with animal manure (0.70). In Italy, higher NUE were found for an organic system
479 (average 0.74 over 16 years) than for a conventional (average 0.51) (Migliorini *et al.*, 2014).

480 Lin *et al.* (2016) also reported higher NUE for organic systems in a 20-yr experiment in
481 Germany.

482 **3.9 N surplus, an ambiguous indicator**

483 The N surplus is often presented as an indicator of the N losses in arable fields (OECD, 2001),
484 useful to compare management practices at annual time step. However, a positive N surplus
485 may also reflect a SON storage. In our experiment, the N surplus was three times higher in CA
486 than in the other systems (157 vs 50 kg N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹), in spite of a smaller addition of mineral N
487 fertilizer compared to the CON system. The important amounts of symbiotic fixed N combined
488 with smaller N exportations are responsible of the very high N surplus in CA. The introduction
489 of legume cover crops in conservation agriculture is used to provide N for the subsequent crop
490 after crop residues mineralization and allow to reduce mineral N fertilization (Scopel *et al.*,
491 2012). Blesh and Drinkwater (2013) made contrasted observations in fields from the
492 Mississippi River Basin, where legumes and complex crop rotations including annual and
493 perennial species were grown. They found smaller surpluses in these cropping systems
494 compared to mineral N based systems (<10 and 35 kg N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ respectively). The difference
495 between their results and ours can be explained by the large proportion of alfalfa cuts returned
496 to soil in La Cage experiment: 90% in the CA system and 75% in ORG. The N surplus in the
497 LI and CON systems is equal or slightly greater than the mean value (47 kg N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹) reported
498 by Poisvert *et al.* (2017) in the same region over the period 2000-2010. The ORG system is
499 characterized by an unusual high N surplus (63 kg N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹) compared to other published
500 references. This results from the long duration of legumes in the rotation (42%), particularly
501 alfalfa (29%) whose cuts were often returned to soil. The asynchrony between the crop N uptake
502 and the release of mineral N from decomposing residues, described by Crews and Peoples
503 (2005), may have limited N uptake and increased the N surplus.

504 **3.10 N and C storage**

505 The SON measurements realized in 1998 and 2014 indicated that N storage occurred in all
506 treatments but was significant only in the CA system which had a mean rate of sequestration of
507 55 kg N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹. This result is consistent with Autret *et al.* (2016) who found significant SOC
508 sequestration in the CA system. The authors attributed the SOC increase to important crop
509 residues and root inputs, deriving from supplementary catch crops and cover crops. SOC
510 sequestration rates can be compared to the yearly increase of 4 ‰ targeted by the “4 per 1000”
511 initiative to mitigate CO₂ emissions. They were 1.8, 0.5, 14.1 and 7.0 ‰ yr⁻¹ for CON, LI, CA
512 and ORG systems respectively (Autret *et al.*, 2016). SON sequestration rates were close: 3.2,
513 1.3, 12.5 and 7.6 ‰ yr⁻¹ respectively; the conservation and organic systems thus demonstrated
514 a high potential of C and N storage in soil over almost a two-decade period. If the important
515 storage could be expected in the CA system (González-Sánchez *et al.*, 2012), the storage in the
516 ORG system is more surprising. The positive impact of organic systems on SOC/SON storage
517 claimed by some studies (Gattinger *et al.*, 2012; Lin *et al.*, 2016) is debated (Leifeld *et al.*, 2013)
518 and/or attributed to higher application of organic fertilizer in organic farming experiments
519 (Leifeld and Fuhrer, 2010). In our experiment, very low amounts of organic fertilizer were
520 applied in the ORG system. We hypothesize that the storage in ORG (and also CA) mainly
521 result from the important amount of legume residues, particularly alfalfa, which provided both
522 C and N substrate needed for C and N sequestration in soil: large C inputs were reported by
523 Autret *et al.* (2016) and large N surpluses were shown in this study. This hypothesis is consistent
524 with Van Groenigen *et al.* (2017) who pointed out the importance of N required for SOC
525 sequestration.

526 3.11 N leaching

527 The N leaching mitigation (Figure 3) was assessed by comparing the NO₃ concentrations in
528 drained water to a reference threshold of 50 mg L⁻¹ defined by the Nitrate Directive. The average
529 leaching loss over the 1998-2017 period was 16 kg N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹, without any difference between
530 cropping systems. This value was lower than the average N leaching reported by Benoit *et al.*
531 (2014) in the same region for conventional cropping systems (32-77 kg N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹) but closer
532 to those reported for organic farms (13-37 kg N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹). N leaching was not related with N
533 surplus. The correlation between N leaching and N surplus, reported by Billen *et al.* (2013) for
534 conventional systems, does no longer apply when comparing complex cropping systems
535 involving diversified cropping practices and/or rotation. Other studies also confirmed this poor
536 or absence of correlation in arable cropping systems (Sieling and Kage, 2006; Pugesgaard *et*
537 *al.*, 2017).

538 A moderate reduction in mineral fertilizer N has been shown to have small effects on N leaching
539 if the reference system is not over-fertilized (*e.g.* Constantin *et al.*, 2010). This was the case of
540 LI compared to CON. In the case of CA system, opposite effects occurred: the presence of
541 permanent cover crop favoured catching of mineral N whereas alfalfa destruction and
542 decomposition during autumn and winter increased SMN. The absence of tillage in this system
543 did not seem to reduce N leaching, in agreement with previous results (Oorts *et al.*, 2007;
544 Hansen *et al.*, 2015; Daryanto *et al.*, 2017). The similar N leaching observed in the ORG system
545 is more surprising with regard to the literature. Organic cropping systems generally lead to a
546 decrease of N leaching because of a lower level N fertilizer applied, as highlighted by Tuomisto
547 *et al.* (2012) in their meta-analysis. Syswerda *et al.* (2012) also found smaller nitrate losses in
548 an organic system using legume catch crops compared to a mineral N fertilizer-based
549 conventional system; the average nitrate concentration in drained water over 11 years was
550 decreased to 40 instead of 84 mg NO₃ L⁻¹, respectively. In our study, the favourable effect of

551 low fertilizer rate was probably offset by the risky phase of alfalfa destruction. Several authors
552 have mentioned that the poor synchrony between mineral N availability derived from alfalfa
553 residues and the subsequent crop uptake could increase N leaching (Crews and Peoples, 2005;
554 Aronsson *et al.*, 2007).

555 **3.12 Gaseous N emissions**

556 The N₂O emissions monitored continuously during 40 months are assumed to be representative
557 of the four systems, at least during the last years. The emission factor (ratio of cumulative N₂O-
558 N emissions to total N inputs) calculated for this period vary from 0.7% (LI) to 1.5% (CA), *i.e.*
559 close to the 1% value of IPCC. The CA system was characterized by high rates of N₂O
560 emissions after fertilization events, much higher than those observed in the LI system, although
561 both systems received almost the same amount of fertilizer-N. Such difference may result from
562 the absence of tillage or the presence of the living mulch or both effects. The influence of no
563 tillage on N₂O emissions is not clear yet, since opposite results have been reported. In their
564 meta-analysis, van Kessel *et al.* (2013) did not point out differences between tilled or no-tilled
565 systems during the first ten years, and found lower emissions in no-till systems after 10 years
566 under dry climates. Therefore, tillage does not seem to be the main reason for the difference
567 between systems at La Cage. The mulch formed by dead crop residues falling on the top soil
568 layer together with the more humid micro-climate created by the living cover crop may have
569 stimulated the emissions in the CA system. Shan and Yan (2013) have shown in their meta-
570 analysis that the presence of mulch of plant residues stimulates N₂O emissions compared to
571 their incorporation in soil. Crop residues, left as a mulch on the top soil layer, have been shown
572 to increase soil moisture content of soil surface and exacerbate the N₂O emissions under annual
573 or perennial crops (Peyrard *et al.*, 2017, 2016). Moreover, residues deriving from alfalfa
574 probably increased N₂O emissions in the CA system, since legumes residues are known to
575 induce higher N losses than non-legume (Basche *et al.*, 2014).

576 The total gaseous N emissions, assessed by the N mass balance, correspond to the sum of NH₃
577 volatilization, production of N₂ and N₂O by denitrification and NO_x and N₂O by nitrification,
578 all fluxes being stimulated by mineral N fertilization (De Klein et al., 2006). In our study these
579 losses were not correlated with the fertilizer rate, but with the N surplus ($r = 0.97$, $p < 0.001$).
580 They were also well correlated with N₂O emissions ($r = 0.98$, $p < 0.001$), which suggests that
581 denitrification was the major source of emission to the atmosphere. The CA system exhibited
582 the highest N losses (average 79 kg N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹) and ORG the smallest ones (10 kg N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹).
583 If we assume that most gaseous losses are due to denitrification, then the N₂O/(N₂+N₂O) molar
584 ratio would vary from 5% (CA) to 15% (ORG), *i.e.* in the lower range of reported values (*e.g.*
585 Wang *et al.*, 2011).

586 **3.13 The GHG balance, an ultimate environmental indicator**

587 Our GHG balance accounts for the main sources of CO₂ emissions, including mineral fertilizer
588 synthesis, fuel combustion due to crop and soil management, direct and indirect N₂O emissions
589 from soil, groundwater, rivers and estuaries and net CO₂ emissions from soil (assessed using
590 SOC change rate). The average GHG balance was 2198 kg CO_{2eq} ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ in the conventional
591 system and 20% smaller in the LI system. Due to its very high C sequestration rate, the CA
592 system had a much more favourable balance, emitting only 306 kg CO_{2eq} ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ to the
593 atmosphere. The best situation was found in the ORG system which was a sink for the
594 atmosphere (-65 kg CO_{2eq} ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹). The relative differences between systems are maintained
595 when the GHG is expressed per unit of N input or N exported instead of area unit.

596 Very few studies have quantified the GHG balance of such arable alternative cropping systems
597 without manure application. Most studies focused on gross GHG emissions, without
598 considering SOC storage and/or N₂O emissions. Six *et al.* (2004) estimated a negative GHG
599 balance in no-till systems compared to conventional tillage, but they mentioned the large
600 uncertainty of their estimation, related to the variability of N₂O emissions. Mary *et al.* (2014)

601 also compared tilled versus no-tilled systems in a long-term experiment at Boigneville (France)
602 in which SOC stocks had been monitored for 41 years and N₂O emissions for three years. They
603 found high values of the GHG balance both for no-till (3350 kg CO_{2eq} ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹) and ploughed
604 systems (4030 kg CO_{2eq} ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹). Aguilera *et al.* (2015) estimated the carbon footprint of
605 rainfed crops under conventional and organic management in 8 Spanish farms. They estimated
606 higher net GHG emissions from conventional than organic systems when expressed per unit of
607 area (1024 vs 361 kg CO_{2eq} ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹) and also per unit of production (315 vs 182 g CO_{2eq} kg⁻¹).
608 The authors attributed the low carbon footprint of organic management to reduced CO₂
609 emissions deriving from synthetic fertilizers use and lower direct N₂O emissions since SOC
610 sequestration rates were small and similar in conventional and organic systems.

611 The GHG balance can be presented as an ultimate indicator giving a wider evaluation of
612 cropping systems, in the context of the global climate change mitigation with alternative
613 cropping managements. In our study, the ranking of GHG balance among cropping systems
614 differed completely from the ranking of N surplus. The N₂O losses accounted for a small share
615 (5-15%) of the total N losses in the four cropping systems, whereas they represented on average
616 49% of total GHG emissions. In the CA system, N₂O emissions offset 66% of the SOC
617 sequestration, even though SOC change rate reached the top range achievable in arable cropping
618 systems. The importance of assessing N₂O fluxes on the global warming potential was
619 previously pointed out by Six *et al.* (2004). Using a simulation model, Li *et al.* (2005) predicted
620 that C sequestration often goes along with increased N₂O emissions in alternative cropping
621 systems. Our results confirm the idea that no-till management, which is often considered as the
622 main attribute of conservation agriculture, should not be seen as an ultimate solution to mitigate
623 global warming (VandenBygaart, 2016). Hence, the need for a complete evaluation of the GHG
624 balance in designing alternative cropping systems is highly critical, yet being an arduous task
625 (Skinner *et al.*, 2014).

626 **5. Conclusion**

627 The N surplus, N fate and the GHG balance were compared in the conventional and three
628 alternative arable cropping systems over 19 years in La Cage experiment (Northern France).
629 Our purpose was not to conclude about the performance of cropping systems in a nominal
630 approach but to understand how their characteristics could impact their N balance and GHG
631 emissions. The four systems had contrasted impacts on C and N cycles: they had similar effects
632 on nitrate leaching, but very different ability to sequester C and N in soil, and contrasted gaseous
633 N emissions, including denitrification and N₂O losses. Their GHG mitigation potential was not
634 reflected by their N surplus. The alternative systems all improved the GHG balance, slightly
635 for the low input system, markedly for the conservation agriculture system systems and even
636 more in the organic cropping system, which led to a negative GHG balance. In conservation
637 agriculture, the high N₂O emissions partially offset the very high carbon sequestration rate.
638 Agricultural policies targeting a single environmental objective, such as the “4 per 1000”
639 initiative (Minasny et al., 2017), are welcome but must be considered cautiously since they may
640 potentially overestimate the CO₂ sequestration potential (*e.g.* White *et al.*, 2017). Our results
641 clearly demonstrate that the full GHG balance has to be considered when comparing the
642 potential of new management practices. Hence, an appropriate assessment of the environmental
643 impact of a cropping system should be based on a global evaluation, considering both C and N
644 fluxes modified by the farming practices and not be limited to a patchy indicator. Our study
645 confirms the interest of long-term monitoring to accurately evaluate the impact of alternative
646 systems. Moreover, there is a need to investigate other CA or ORG systems varying in the
647 nature and importance of legume residue returns, which constitute the main alternative to
648 mineral N fertilizer for injecting reactive nitrogen into soils. This investigation can be done
649 using experiments, modelling or both.

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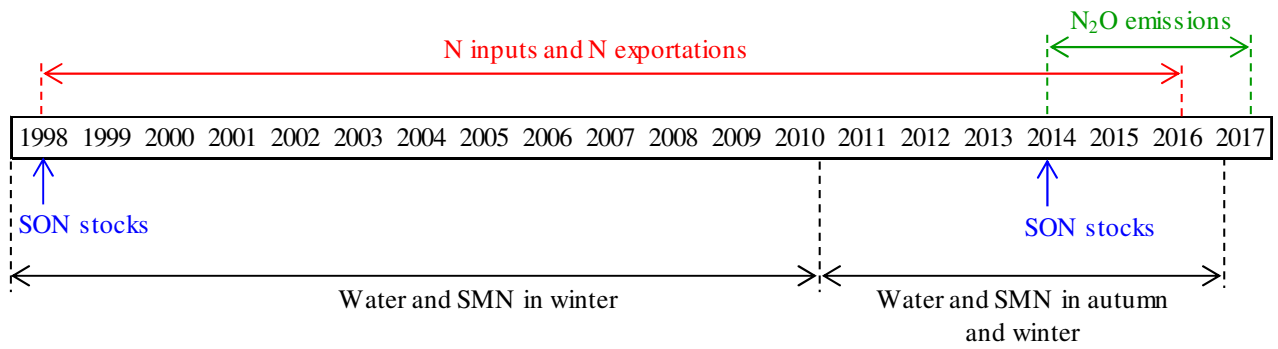


Figure 1.

Sequences of N measurements made between 1998 and 2017, used in this paper. SON = soil organic nitrogen; SMN = soil mineral nitrogen

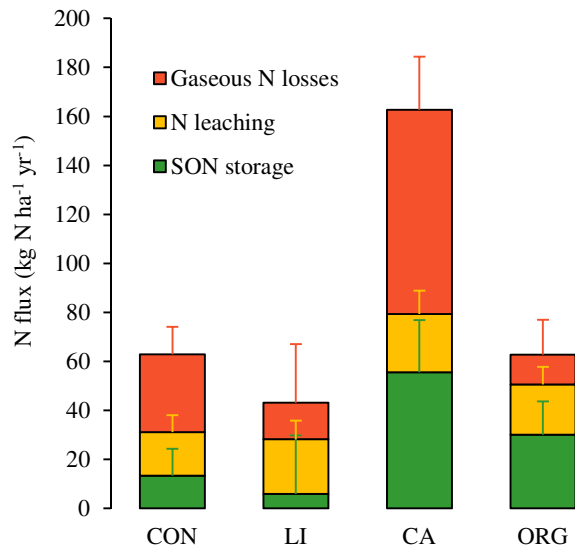


Figure 2.

Partitioning of the N surplus between SON storage, N leaching and gaseous N emissions (see eq. 5). Gaseous N losses were calculated as the difference between the N surplus and the sum of SON storage and N leaching. Error bars represent the standard deviations.

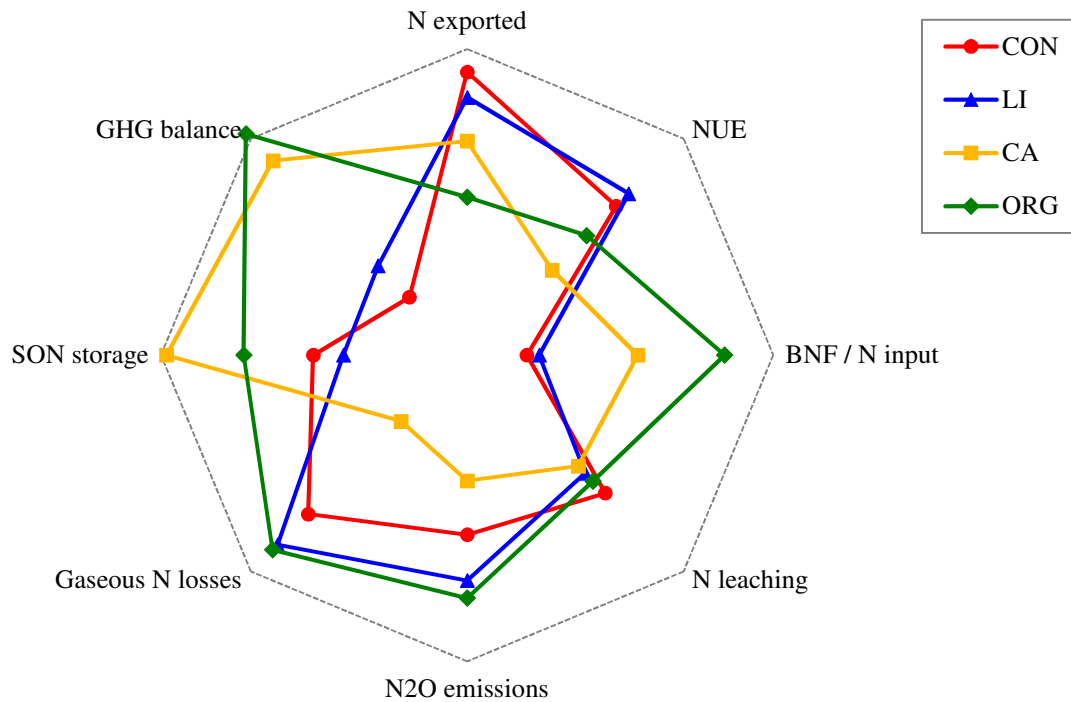


Figure 3.

Diagram summarizing the environmental C and N impacts of the four cropping systems. Each dimension was scored between 0 (adverse impact, center of the radar) and 1 (beneficial impact, periphery). These scores correspond to the following values (respectively): N exported: 0 and 150 kg N ha⁻¹; NUE: 0 and 1; BNF/N input: 0 and 1; N leaching: 150 and 0 mg NO₃ l⁻¹; N2O emissions: 6 and 0 kg N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹; gaseous N losses: 120 and 0 kg N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹; SON storage: -8 and +13 % yr⁻¹; GHG balance: 0 and 3000 kg CO₂eq ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹

Table 1.

Crop frequency, mean N inputs from fertilizers and BNF (biological N fixation), mean N offtake by crops and mean grain yield per crop and cropping system during the whole period (1998-2016). Values in brackets are standard deviations between years.

cropping system	main crop	cover crop	crop frequency	N fertilizer	BNF	N offtake	Grain yield	
				kg N ha ⁻¹ yr ⁻¹			t DM ha ⁻¹	
CON	wheat		50%	199 (25)		149 (27)	8.1	(1.5)
	rapeseed		26%	189 (31)		123 (24)	3.9	(0.8)
	pea		24%		166 (58)	135 (53)	3.7	(1.3)
LI	wheat		50%	144 (27)		137 (21)	7.4	(1.2)
	rapeseed		26%	169 (15)		99 (26)	3.1	(0.8)
	pea		24%		168 (62)	134 (55)	3.7	(1.4)
CA	wheat	fescue	26%	154 (19)		116 (12)	6.0	(0.9)
	wheat	alfalfa	21%	181 (36)	204 (44)	128 (26)	6.3	(1.5)
	wheat	clover	3%	166	112	149 (0)	7.3	
	rapeseed	alfalfa	5%	98 (4)	154 (7)	91 (57)	2.9	(1.8)
	pea		16%	8	191 (79)	121 (52)	3.3	(1.4)
	oat	alfalfa	3%		237	42 (0)	2.6	
	maize	clover	11%	154 (36)	82 (99)	74 (30)	5.2	(2.1)
	alfalfa		16%		317 (25)	67 (5)	9.8 *	(0.7)
ORG	wheat		50%	12 (23)		76 (27)	4.6	(1.6)
	rapeseed		8%	44 (40)		20 (18)	0.6	(0.6)
	pea		5%		105 (27)	94 (26)	2.6	(0.7)
	barley-pea		3%		112	67 (0)	2.9	
	lupin		3%		190	142 (0)	3.2	
	soyabean		3%		117	84 (0)	1.5	
	alfalfa		29%		350 (30)	87 (37)	10.7 *	(0.9)

* total aerial biomass produced for alfalfa as a main crop

Table 2.

Mean annual values of N input, N exported and N surplus (period 1998-2016). Total N input is the sum of N fertilization, BNF and atmospheric N deposition. Values in brackets are standard deviations between replicates. Different letters indicate significant differences between cropping systems ($p < 0.05$).

Cropping system	N fertilization	BNF	atmospheric deposition	total N input	total N exported	N surplus
	kg N ha ⁻¹ yr ⁻¹					
CON	149 (9) a	39 (13) b	13	202 (5) b	139 (10) a	63 (6) b
LI	117 (8) b	40 (17) b	13	169 (10) c	126 (11) a	43 (3) c
CA	106 (4) b	149 (9) a	13	268 (7) a	105 (7) b	163 (11) a
ORG	9 (1) c	118 (6) a	13	140 (7) d	77 (6) c	63 (2) b

Table 3.

SON stocks at equivalent soil mass in 1998 and 2014 and SON storage rate between 1998 and 2014. Values in brackets are standard deviations. Small letters indicate significant differences between cropping systems, capital letters indicate differences between years ($p < 0.05$).

Cropping system	SON stock 1998		SON stock 2014			SON storage rate (1998-2014)	
	t N ha ⁻¹		t N ha ⁻¹			kg N ha ⁻¹ yr ⁻¹	
CON	4.13	(0.33) <i>a</i>	4.34	(0.31) <i>b</i>	<i>A</i>	13	(11) <i>b</i>
LI	4.47	(0.74) <i>a</i>	4.57	(0.43) <i>b</i>	<i>A</i>	6	(24) <i>b</i>
CA	4.44	(0.64) <i>a</i>	5.33	(0.58) <i>a</i>	<i>B</i>	55	(21) <i>a</i>
ORG	3.95	(0.42) <i>a</i>	4.44	(0.27) <i>b</i>	<i>A</i>	30	(14) <i>ab</i>

Table 4.

Mean annual drainage, SMN stocks in autumn and winter, N leached and NO₃ concentration in drained water for each cropping system. NO₃ concentrations are weighted by water drainage. N leached and NO₃ concentrations were estimated with LIXIM model between 2013 and 2017 and calculated during the remaining years using eq. 4 and 5.

Drainage season	Drained water mm yr ⁻¹	CON				LI				CA				ORG			
		SMN autumn	SMN winter	N leached	[NO ₃ ⁻]	SMN autumn	SMN winter	N leached	[NO ₃ ⁻]	SMN autumn	SMN winter	N leached	[NO ₃ ⁻]	SMN autumn	SMN winter	N leached	[NO ₃ ⁻]
		kg ha ⁻¹	kg ha ⁻¹ yr ⁻¹	mg L ⁻¹		kg ha ⁻¹	kg ha ⁻¹ yr ⁻¹	mg L ⁻¹		kg ha ⁻¹	kg ha ⁻¹ yr ⁻¹	mg L ⁻¹		kg ha ⁻¹	kg ha ⁻¹ yr ⁻¹	mg L ⁻¹	
1998-1999	269		9	23	37		21	44	25		24	67	35		18	15	28
1999-2000	286		15	60	93		18	40	29		14	27	23		21	62	27
2000-2001	334		8	39	52		14	64	19		44	142	61		22	68	30
2001-2002	191		32	28	66		46	35	64		20	14	28		41	8	48
2004-2005	99		49	7	31		47	8	64		25	6	35		86	0	94
2005-2006	37		49	0	5		80	0	120		32	1	49		25	1	37
2006-2007	171		12	20	53		42	50	59		44	45	64		63	62	67
2007-2008	60		19	2	16		16	1	16		18	2	25		22	2	24
2008-2009	11		49	0	10		36	0	49		11	0	17		55	0	71
2009-2010	56		25	3	24		29	2	39		17	2	24		33	5	37
2011-2012	150		8	8	24		19	14	10		42	20	61		21	23	29
1998-2012	152		25	17	51		33	23	69		27	30	87		37	22	65
2012-2013	183	113	30	58	140	92	38	56	136	40	28	17	40	63	29	37	89
2013-2014	192	35	19	18	42	45	27	21	48	42	38	24	55	55	43	28	65
2014-2015	139	58	21	10	31	65	29	11	35	38	17	8	26	38	38	7	22
2015-2016	110	29	3	6	23	27	8	6	25	25	9	5	20	58	27	11	45
2016-2017	26	74	70	1	11	60	61	5	78	70	81	1	19	73	71	1	16
2012-2017	130	62	29	18	63	58	33	20	67	43	35	11	37	58	42	17	57
1998-2017	145		26	18	54		33	22	68		29	24	73		38	20	63

Table 5.

Sensitivity analysis of N surplus ($\text{kg N ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$) to the aboveground biomass and BGN factor of alfalfa for the conservation agriculture (CA) and organic (ORG) cropping systems. Values in brackets are standard deviations. The N surplus used in the study is shown in bold.

Cropping system	BGN factor	Relative variation of AG biomass				
		90%	100%	110%	mean	sd
CA	2.1	176	190	204		
	1.7	152	163	173	167	(21)
	1.4	139	148	157		
ORG	2.1	76	86	97		
	1.7	55	63	71	67	(17)
	1.4	44	51	58		
Difference	2.1	100	103	107		
CA-ORG	1.7	97	100	103	100	(4)
	1.4	94	97	99		

Table 6.

Cumulative N₂O-N fluxes (kg N ha⁻¹) measured continuously during 6 periods (4 crops and 40 months). Values in brackets are standard deviations. Letters indicate significant differences between cropping systems at each period (Student test, $p < 0.05$).

Measurement period	Duration days	Crop	Cropping system				
			CON	LI	CA	ORG	
08/04/2014	20/07/2014	104	wheat	1.50 (0.55) b	0.93 (0.19) b	2.98 (0.90) a	0.22 (0.07) c
02/09/2014	08/07/2015	310	rapeseed *	1.44 (0.14) b	1.30 (0.15) b	2.51 (0.39) a	0.51 (0.04) c
10/07/2015	19/10/2015	102	fallow *	0.17 (0.05) a	0.17 (0.10) a	0.09 (0.05) a	0.23 (0.02) a
10/11/2015	26/07/2016	260	wheat	2.31 (0.54) b	0.86 (0.16) c	5.21 (1.39) a	0.54 (0.13) d
31/08/2016	19/10/2016	50	fallow *	0.38 (0.08) b	0.15 (0.03) c	0.55 (0.09) a	0.57 (0.18) a
16/11/2016	16/07/2017	243	wheat	1.04 (0.10) b	0.11 (0.02) d	0.62 (0.14) c	2.32 (0.56) a
08/04/2014	16/07/2017	1069	all	6.85 (1.48) b	3.51 (0.88) c	11.96 (3.29) a	4.39 (0.95) c

* *alfalfa for the ORG system*

Table 7.

GHG balance and components at La Cage estimated during the 2014-2017 period (with N₂O monitoring) and the whole experimental period (1998-2017).

Period	Cropping system	<i>F</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>direct</i> N ₂ O _e	<i>indirect</i> N ₂ O _e	SOC storage rate	GHG balance		
							kg CO _{2eq} ha ⁻¹ yr ⁻¹	kg CO _{2eq} kg ⁻¹ N input	kg CO _{2eq} kg ⁻¹ N exported
2014-2017	CON	861 <i>a</i>	281 <i>a</i>	1088 <i>b</i>	94	286 **	2039 <i>a</i>	10.1 <i>a</i>	14.7 <i>a</i>
	LI	644 <i>b</i>	251 <i>a</i>	558 <i>c</i>	85	81 **	1457 <i>b</i>	8.6 <i>b</i>	11.5 <i>b</i>
	CA	606 <i>b</i>	131 <i>b</i>	1900 <i>a</i>	79	2292 **	425 <i>c</i>	1.6 <i>c</i>	4.0 <i>c</i>
	ORG	0 <i>c</i>	243 <i>a</i>	698 <i>c</i>	41	1016 **	-33 <i>d</i>	-0.2 <i>d</i>	-0.4 <i>d</i>
1998-2017	CON	927 <i>a</i>	272 <i>a</i>	1153 *	131	286 <i>a</i>	2198 <i>a</i>	10.9 <i>a</i>	15.8 <i>a</i>
	LI	728 <i>b</i>	249 <i>b</i>	736 *	132	81 <i>a</i>	1763 <i>b</i>	10.4 <i>b</i>	14.0 <i>b</i>
	CA	659 <i>b</i>	161 <i>c</i>	1645 *	132	2292 <i>c</i>	306 <i>c</i>	1.1 <i>c</i>	2.9 <i>c</i>
	ORG	44 <i>c</i>	255 <i>b</i>	576 *	76	1016 <i>b</i>	-65 <i>d</i>	-0.5 <i>d</i>	-0.8 <i>d</i>