



1 **Effects of mild alternate wetting and drying irrigation and rice**  
2 **straw application on N<sub>2</sub>O emissions in rice cultivation**

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17  
18 **Abstract.** The shortage of water resources and the decline in soil organic  
19 matter (SOM) are important limiting factors affecting the improvement of  
20 rice productivity, while alternate wetting and drying (AWD) irrigation  
21 and rice straw return are considered favorable mitigation measures.



22 However, its impact on rice yield and greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions,  
23 especially nitrous oxide (N<sub>2</sub>O) emissions, needs to be further clarified,  
24 which is essential for the development of agronomic measures for water  
25 savings, soil fertilization and GHG reduction. Therefore, we explored the  
26 effects of mild AWD irrigation combined with rice straw return on N<sub>2</sub>O  
27 emissions and rice yield through rice pot experiments. This study showed  
28 that N<sub>2</sub>O emissions were mainly affected by urea application and  
29 irrigation methods, and urea application was the main reason. Compared  
30 with continuous flooding (CF) irrigation, mild AWD irrigation increased  
31 cumulative N<sub>2</sub>O emissions, with an average increase of 28.8%. In  
32 addition, adding rice straw to mild AWD irrigation further stimulated N<sub>2</sub>O  
33 emissions. Compared with CF irrigation, mild AWD irrigation increased  
34 the yield-scaled N<sub>2</sub>O emissions, and the addition of rice straw further  
35 promoted the yield-scaled N<sub>2</sub>O emissions under mild AWD irrigation but  
36 reduced the global warming potential (GWP) by 62.9%. Under the  
37 condition of urea application, compared with CF irrigation, mild AWD  
38 irrigation reduced nitrogen uptake by rice in the soil and rice  
39 aboveground biomass without reducing rice yield. Therefore, mild AWD  
40 irrigation combined with rice straw return is a promising agronomic  
41 measure to ensure rice yield, reduce the greenhouse effect and maintain  
42 or improve soil fertility.

43



## 44 **1 Introduction**

45 Rice is the staple food for more than half of the world's population,  
46 and ensuring rice production is crucial to food security (Tang and Cheng,  
47 2018). More than 135 million hectares of rice are cultivated worldwide,  
48 and approximately 90% of paddy fields are submerged (Wang et al.,  
49 2017a). Feeding a growing population under water scarcity is a major  
50 challenge to Asia's food security in the coming decades (Lampayan et al.,  
51 2015). In China, more than 60% of freshwater resources are consumed by  
52 rice cultivation every year, which not only causes a great waste of  
53 freshwater but also causes many environmental problems, such as  
54 nonpoint source pollution, eutrophication of water bodies, and  
55 greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions (Liao et al., 2020). Therefore, it is  
56 urgent to explore paddy field fertilization management measures that can  
57 ensure rice yield, reduce water waste, and reduce environmental  
58 pollution.

59 Alternate wetting and drying (AWD) irrigation is an effective  
60 water-saving irrigation method that can save approximately 23% of fresh  
61 water resources compared with continuous flooding (CF) irrigation  
62 (Bouman and Tuong, 2001; Chu et al., 2014). There are usually two types  
63 of alternate wetting and drying irrigation: severe AWD irrigation (soil  
64 water potential  $\geq -30 \pm 5$  kPa) and mild AWD irrigation (soil water  
65 potential  $\geq -15 \pm 5$  kPa). Severe AWD irrigation could reduce rice yield by



66 22.6%, but under mild AWD irrigation, rice yield was stable or slightly  
67 increased (Carrijo et al., 2017; Zhou et al., 2017). Therefore, mild AWD  
68 irrigation may be a more promising paddy field management model.  
69 Previous studies have shown that AWD irrigation can significantly reduce  
70 methane (CH<sub>4</sub>) emissions but significantly promote nitrous oxide (N<sub>2</sub>O)  
71 emissions, while global warming potential (GWP) mitigation is  
72 dependent on the magnitude of the increase in N<sub>2</sub>O emissions  
73 (Lagomarsino et al., 2016; Liang et al., 2017; Kritee et al., 2018; Tan et al.,  
74 2018). Therefore, exploring the impact of mild AWD irrigation on GHG  
75 emissions, especially N<sub>2</sub>O emissions, is conducive to reducing paddy  
76 field emissions and maximizing environmental benefits.

77 Long-term cultivation without organic matter supplementation leads  
78 to serious degradation of cultivated land in China, which reduces the soil  
79 organic matter (SOM) content (zhou et al., 2021), which is not conducive  
80 to rice production and sustainable agricultural development (chen et al.,  
81 2016). Straw return to the field is considered to be an important measure  
82 for improving SOM (huang et al., 2021), and it is beneficial for reducing  
83 the environmental pollution caused by burning straw or discarding it  
84 randomly (wang et al., 2018). In addition, rice straw return may also  
85 cause changes in paddy field GHG emissions (Naser et al., 2007; Ye et al.,  
86 2017; Sun et al., 2018; Yu et al., 2021), nitrogen use efficiency (Liu et al.,  
87 2021), and rice yield (Chen et al., 2016; Ku et al., 2019). Although there



88 have been many studies on mild paddy AWD irrigation or rice straw  
89 return, few studies have focused on the effects of mild AWD irrigation  
90 combined with rice straw return on rice cultivation. Under the  
91 conventional fertilization mode, whether mild AWD irrigation combined  
92 with rice straw returning can achieve the optimal goals of water saving,  
93 yield increase, and reduction of greenhouse gas emissions needs to be  
94 further explored. Therefore, the purpose of this study was to investigate  
95 the effect of mild AWD irrigation combined with rice straw returning on  
96 N<sub>2</sub>O emissions and rice yield in rice cultivation, and to explore the  
97 nitrogen supply of soil, urea and rice straw to rice growth through <sup>15</sup>N  
98 labeling technology. We put forward the following hypotheses: 1) Mild  
99 AWD irrigation would promote N<sub>2</sub>O emission in rice cultivation; 2) Mild  
100 AWD irrigation would reduce soil nitrogen uptake by rice; 3) Mild AWD  
101 irrigation would maintain or promote rice yield.

## 102 **2 Materials and methods**

### 103 2.1 Experimental site and soil properties

104 The pot experiment was conducted in an open greenhouse at the  
105 Shenyang Experimental Station of the Institute of Applied Ecology,  
106 Liaoning Province, China (43 °32'N, 123 °23'E) from June 17<sup>th</sup> to October  
107 27<sup>th</sup>, 2020.

### 108 2.2 Experimental design

109 The pot experiment was designed with a completely random block



110 design, including 30 pots (30 cm diameter × 20 cm height). This  
111 experiment included two irrigation methods, two nitrogen application  
112 levels, two rice straw return levels and three replicates for each  
113 combination. The two irrigation methods were CF irrigation and mild  
114 AWD irrigation. CF irrigation maintained a water level depth of  
115 approximately 3-5 cm throughout the rice-growing season. Mild AWD  
116 irrigation water management in the first 7 days was consistent with CF  
117 irrigation and then it was naturally pursued. When the soil negative  
118 pressure gauge reached -15 kPa, it was subflooded 3-5 cm again and then  
119 naturally dried up again. This step was repeated until harvest. CF and  
120 mild AWD irrigation were halted 2 weeks before harvest. Nitrogen was  
121 applied at 0 kg N ha<sup>-1</sup> (CK (control check) and <sup>15</sup>S (rice straw)) and 225  
122 kg N ha<sup>-1</sup> (106.13 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> dry soil) (<sup>15</sup>U (urea), U<sup>15</sup>S (urea + rice straw)  
123 and <sup>15</sup>US (urea + rice straw)). The abundance of urea <sup>15</sup>N was 10.20%.  
124 Urea was applied three times: base fertilizer 40% (June 17<sup>th</sup>), tiller  
125 topdressing 30% (August 4<sup>th</sup>) and heading topdressing 30% (August 25<sup>th</sup>).  
126 Rice straw return was applied at 0 kg ha<sup>-1</sup> (CK and <sup>15</sup>U) and 9000 kg ha<sup>-1</sup>  
127 (4.25 g kg<sup>-1</sup> dry soil) (<sup>15</sup>S, U<sup>15</sup>S and <sup>15</sup>US). The total nitrogen content of  
128 unlabeled rice straw was 0.72%, and the isotope abundance of <sup>15</sup>N was  
129 0.59%. The total nitrogen content of labeled rice straw was 0.73%, and  
130 the <sup>15</sup>N isotope abundance was 22.94%. The rice straw was ground and  
131 applied together with the base fertilizer. Phosphate fertilizer was



132 superphosphate ( $150 \text{ kg P}_2\text{O}_5 \text{ ha}^{-1}$ ), and potassium fertilizer was  
133 potassium chloride ( $185 \text{ kg K}_2\text{O ha}^{-1}$ ) as a one-time application of basic  
134 fertilizer. Every pot was filled with  $10.51 \text{ kg}$  ( $9 \text{ kg}$  dry soil) of sieved ( $2$   
135  $\text{mm}$ ) fresh soil. Two hills of rice were planted in each pot. At maturity, the  
136 rice yield and aboveground biomass were recorded after being oven dried  
137 ( $105 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$  for  $0.5 \text{ h}$  and  $60 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$  for  $12 \text{ h}$ ).

### 138 2.3 Soil sample collection and analysis

139 At the regreening stage, tillering stage, jointing stage, booting stage,  
140 filling stage and maturity stage, five points were randomly selected from  
141 the  $0\text{-}10 \text{ cm}$  soil layer of each pot and mixed. The soil  $\text{NH}_4^+\text{-N}$  and  
142  $\text{NO}_3^-\text{-N}$  were extracted with  $2 \text{ mol L}^{-1}$  KCl solution (Wu et al., 2019),  
143 filtered and analyzed with a continuous flow analyzer (AA3, Bran +  
144 Luebbe, Germany). The extraction of soil  $^{15}\text{N-NH}_4^+\text{-N}$  followed Yu et al.  
145 (2020). Soil microbial biomass nitrogen (MBN) was fumigated with  
146 chloroform, extracted with  $0.5 \text{ mol L}^{-1}$   $\text{K}_2\text{SO}_4$  (soil: solution =  $5 \text{ g}: 20 \text{ ml}$ )  
147 (Joergensen et al., 1996), and determined by a TOC analyzer (Elementar  
148 vario TOC Analyzer, Germany). The soil  $^{15}\text{N-NH}_4^+\text{-N}$  content,  $^{15}\text{N-MBN}$   
149 and  $^{15}\text{N}$  of rice aboveground biomass were determined by a stable isotope  
150 ratio mass spectrometer (253 MAT, Thermo Finnigan, Germany).

### 151 2.4 Gas sampling and calculation

152 The static chamber method was used to determine the  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  flux (Li  
153 et al., 2018a). The static chamber with a top seal made of transparent



154 plexiglass consisted of two parts, namely, the base and the gas collecting  
155 chamber. The base had a diameter of 31 cm, a groove in the middle, and a  
156 height of 10 cm. The gas-collecting chamber had a diameter of 30 cm and  
157 a height of 70 cm. A small fan and a thermometer were installed in the  
158 gas-collecting chamber. N<sub>2</sub>O was collected every two days in the first  
159 week after fertilization or irrigation and every seven days on the other  
160 days. N<sub>2</sub>O was sampled at 8:00–11:00 am each sampling day. Every pot  
161 was sealed with water when N<sub>2</sub>O was collected. Three gas samples were  
162 collected at 0, 30 and 60 min after the chamber was airtight, and N<sub>2</sub>O was  
163 collected with a 50 mL injector and then injected into 200 mL gasbags.

164 The N<sub>2</sub>O concentration was analyzed by a gas chromatograph  
165 (Agilent 7890B, Gas Chromatograph, Delaware, USA). The calculation  
166 of N<sub>2</sub>O fluxes was as follows (Li et al., 2018a):

$$167 \quad F = \rho \times h \times dc/dt \times 273/(273 + T)$$

168 where  $F$  is the N<sub>2</sub>O flux ( $\mu\text{g m}^{-2} \text{ h}^{-1}$ );  $\rho$  is the N<sub>2</sub>O standard-state density  
169 ( $1.964 \text{ kg m}^{-3}$ );  $h$  is the chamber height above the soil (m);  $c$  is the N<sub>2</sub>O  
170 concentration;  $dc/dt$  is the slope of the N<sub>2</sub>O concentration curve,  
171 estimated using a linear regression model (Vitale et al., 2017); 273 is the  
172 gas constant; and  $T$  is the average air temperature inside the chamber  
173 during N<sub>2</sub>O collection ( $^{\circ}\text{C}$ ).

174 Cumulative N<sub>2</sub>O emissions were calculated using the following  
175 formula according to Wang et al. (2011):





$$CE (kg N_2O ha^{-1}) = \sum_{i=1}^n \left( \frac{F_i + F_{i+1}}{2} \right) (t_{i+1} - t_i) \times 24 \times 10^{-2}$$

176 where  $i$  is the various sampling times,  $t$  is the sampling date,  $n$  is the total  
177 measurement time and  $10^{-2}$  is the conversion factor.

178 The contribution of  $^{15}N$  markers to  $NH_4^+$ -N and MBN and the  
179 calculation of the nitrogen source of the aboveground biomass of rice  
180 follow Ma et al. (2015). Yield-scaled  $N_2O$  was calculated as the ratio  
181 between  $N_2O$  and rice yield (Li et al., 2018a).

## 182 2.5 Statistical analysis

183 All analyses were performed using SPSS Statistics 16.0 (SPSS, Inc.,  
184 Chicago, USA). One-way ANOVA was conducted to test the treatment  
185 effects with Duncan's test. Significant differences were set at  $\alpha = 0.05$ .  
186 Univariate analysis of variance was used to analyze the response of  
187 cumulative  $N_2O$  emissions to irrigation method, nitrogen level and rice  
188 straw application. Tables and figures were prepared with Excel 2016  
189 (Microsoft Corp., USA) and Origin 8 (Origin Lab Corp., USA),  
190 respectively. The data in the figures and tables are the average value  $\pm$   
191 standard error.

## 192 3 Results

### 193 3.1 $N_2O$ flux

194 Three higher  $N_2O$  flux peaks appeared after basal fertilizer and two  
195 topdressing treatments (Figure 1), and the  $N_2O$  flux peak after basal



196 fertilizer application was significantly larger than the last two peaks.  
197 After basal fertilizer was applied, the N<sub>2</sub>O flux peaks of CF irrigation and  
198 mild AWD irrigation were similar. After the first topdressing, the N<sub>2</sub>O  
199 flux peak of mild AWD irrigation was significantly greater than that of  
200 CF irrigation, which was 4 times that of CF on average. In contrast, the  
201 N<sub>2</sub>O flux peak of CF irrigation after the second topdressing was twice  
202 that of mild AWD irrigation. In addition to the above three peaks, the N<sub>2</sub>O  
203 flux of CF irrigation was close to zero, and mild AWD irrigation had a  
204 lower flux peak with alternating wet and dry conditions. The flux of N<sub>2</sub>O  
205 ranged from -103.93  $\mu\text{g m}^{-2} \text{h}^{-1}$  to 2770.50  $\mu\text{g m}^{-2} \text{h}^{-1}$ . The N<sub>2</sub>O flux  
206 appeared negative in the late stage of rice growth. The N<sub>2</sub>O fluxes of CF  
207 irrigation and mild AWD irrigation were similar in the later stage of rice  
208 growth, indicating that drainage had little effect on it. During the entire  
209 growth cycle of rice, the N<sub>2</sub>O flux of the CK and S treatments was low.  
210 There were significant differences in the peak N<sub>2</sub>O fluxes between the  
211 different treatments. Compared with CK, the application of rice straw  
212 alone significantly promoted the N<sub>2</sub>O flux on the first day after CF  
213 irrigation and mild AWD irrigation. Compared with U, the addition of  
214 rice straw in CF irrigation reduced the N<sub>2</sub>O flux, while the addition of  
215 rice straw in mild AWD irrigation increased the N<sub>2</sub>O flux.

### 216 3.2 Soil NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>-N, NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>-N and MBN concentrations

217 The soil NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>-N, NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>-N, and MBN concentrations varied with the



218 growing stage of rice (Fig. 2A, 2C and Fig. 3A). The soil  $\text{NH}_4^+\text{-N}$   
219 concentration first increased and then decreased. The  $\text{NH}_4^+\text{-N}$   
220 concentration under CF irrigation and mild AWD irrigation was low in  
221 the late growth period of rice (Fig. 2A). The concentration of  $\text{NO}_3^-\text{-N}$  in  
222 CF-irrigated soil showed a trend of first increasing and then decreasing  
223 and was at a low level in the later growth period of rice, while the  
224 concentration of  $\text{NO}_3^-\text{-N}$  in mild AWD irrigation showed a trend of first  
225 decreasing and then increasing, then decreasing and then increasing (Fig.  
226 2C). The concentration of MBN in CF-irrigated soil first decreased and  
227 then increased and then decreased to a lower level, while the  
228 concentration of MBN in mild AWD-irrigated soil decreased with the  
229 growth stage of rice (Fig. 3A).

230 There were significant differences in the  $\text{NH}_4^+\text{-N}$ ,  $\text{NO}_3^-\text{-N}$ , and MBN  
231 concentrations between the different treatments. In CF irrigation and mild  
232 AWD irrigation, the U treatment had a higher  $\text{NH}_4^+\text{-N}$  concentration in  
233 the early stage of rice growth, while the other treatments had no  
234 significant difference, but as rice grew, the  $\text{NH}_4^+\text{-N}$  concentration of the  
235 US treatment increased, which was significantly greater than that of the U,  
236 S and CK treatments (Fig. 2A). In CF irrigation, the  $\text{NO}_3^-\text{-N}$   
237 concentration of the U treatment was slightly higher than that of the other  
238 treatments, and all treatments had little difference. In mild AWD  
239 irrigation, the  $\text{NO}_3^-\text{-N}$  concentration of the US treatment was significantly



240 higher than that of the U, S and CK treatments. The U treatment had a  
241 higher  $\text{NO}_3^-$ -N concentration than the S and CK treatments in the later  
242 stage of rice growth (Fig. 2C). The US treatment in CF irrigation and  
243 mild AWD irrigation had the highest MBN concentration during the rice  
244 growth period (Fig. 3A).

245 Figure 2B shows that the  $\text{NH}_4^+$ -N in CF irrigation and mild AWD  
246 irrigation mainly came from urea rather than rice straw, and the combined  
247 application of urea and rice straw further promoted the release of  $\text{NH}_4^+$ -N  
248 from urea. Regardless of CF irrigation or mild AWD irrigation, rice straw  
249 nitrogen was difficult to utilize by microorganisms in the first year under  
250 single rice straw application, but rice straw and urea combined  
251 application significantly promoted the utilization of rice straw nitrogen by  
252 microorganisms. Urea combined with rice straw application was more  
253 easily used by microorganisms than urea applied alone (Fig. 3B).

### 254 3.3 Sources of aboveground biomass nitrogen in rice

255 As shown in Fig. 4, under CF irrigation and mild AWD irrigation,  
256 compared with CK, a single application of rice straw did not increase the  
257 aboveground nitrogen absorption of rice, while the U and US treatments  
258 significantly promoted the aboveground nitrogen absorption of rice.  
259 Under mild AWD irrigation, the US treatment reduced nitrogen uptake in  
260 rice shoots compared with the U treatment. The U and US treatments  
261 under CF irrigation promoted the nitrogen uptake of the aboveground rice



262 more than those under mild AWD irrigation.

263 With different irrigation methods, the effects of urea and rice straw  
264 addition on the nitrogen absorption of the aboveground rice were  
265 different. Compared with the CK and S treatments, the U and US  
266 treatments under CF irrigation significantly promoted the absorption of  
267 soil nitrogen by rice, while the difference was not significant except for  
268 the S and U treatments under mild AWD irrigation. Compared with mild  
269 AWD irrigation, the U and US treatments under CF irrigation  
270 significantly promoted the absorption of soil nitrogen by rice. Regardless  
271 of the irrigation and fertilization method, the soil was the main source of  
272 nitrogen in the aboveground parts of rice, followed by urea and finally  
273 rice straw (Fig. 4).

274 3.4 Cumulative N<sub>2</sub>O emissions, rice agronomic properties and  
275 yield-scaled N<sub>2</sub>O emissions

276 In addition to the CK treatment, compared with CF irrigation, mild  
277 AWD irrigation significantly promoted the accumulation of N<sub>2</sub>O during  
278 the rice growth period, with an average increase of 28.8% (Table 1).  
279 Under CF irrigation, there was no significant difference in the  
280 accumulation of N<sub>2</sub>O between S and CK or between US and U. However,  
281 the addition of rice straw under mild AWD irrigation significantly  
282 increased the accumulation of N<sub>2</sub>O. Compared with the CK and S  
283 treatments, the U and US treatments significantly promoted cumulative



284 N<sub>2</sub>O emissions under the two irrigation modes. As shown in Table 2, both  
285 irrigation methods and nitrogen application level affected cumulative  
286 N<sub>2</sub>O emissions, of which the nitrogen application level had the greatest  
287 impact. The interaction between irrigation level and nitrogen fertilizer or  
288 rice straw significantly affected cumulative N<sub>2</sub>O emissions.

289 As shown in Table 1, compared with CF irrigation, mild AWD  
290 irrigation significantly reduced rice aboveground biomass under US  
291 treatment but had no effect on other treatments. Regardless of whether CF  
292 irrigation or mild AWD irrigation was applied, there was no significant  
293 difference in the rice aboveground biomass between S and CK or  
294 between US and U. Compared with the CK and S treatments, the U and  
295 US treatments significantly promoted the rice aboveground biomass  
296 under the two irrigation modes. Irrigation level had no effect on rice yield  
297 under all treatments. Regardless of CF irrigation or mild AWD irrigation,  
298 rice yield under the U and US treatments was significantly higher than  
299 that under the CK and S treatments, but there was no difference between  
300 the former two and the latter two.

301 In addition to the CK treatment, compared with CF irrigation, mild  
302 AWD irrigation significantly promoted yield-scaled N<sub>2</sub>O emissions  
303 during the rice growth period. Regardless of CF irrigation or mild AWD  
304 irrigation, yield-scaled N<sub>2</sub>O emissions under the U and US treatments  
305 were significantly higher than those under the CK and S treatments. Rice



306 straw addition had no effect on the yield-scaled N<sub>2</sub>O emissions under CF  
307 irrigation but significantly increased the yield-scaled N<sub>2</sub>O emissions  
308 under mild AWD irrigation.

#### 309 **4 Discussion**

310 4.1 Effects of irrigation methods, nitrogen levels, and rice straw return on  
311 N<sub>2</sub>O emissions

312 N<sub>2</sub>O emission is significantly affected by soil temperature,  
313 water-filled pores and mineral N (NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>-N and NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>-N) content (Allen et  
314 al., 2010). The N<sub>2</sub>O emission peak in CF irrigation occurred only after  
315 nitrogen application, while mild AWD irrigation caused other N<sub>2</sub>O  
316 emission peaks, which might have been caused by the change in soil  
317 moisture conditions by mild AWD irrigation (Zhou et al., 2020). The peak  
318 of N<sub>2</sub>O after fertilization may be due to the fact that a large amount of  
319 nitrogen application increases the soil inorganic nitrogen concentration  
320 (Fig. 2A and 2C), which in turn promotes the generation of N<sub>2</sub>O, which  
321 mainly comes from the denitrification process (Wang et al., 2017b; Yano  
322 et al., 2014). During the denitrification process, it is easier for  
323 microorganisms to use NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>-N as an electron acceptor (Fig. 2C), which  
324 affects the reduction process of N<sub>2</sub>O, resulting in an increase in the ratio  
325 of N<sub>2</sub>O/N<sub>2</sub> in the denitrification products (Pérez et al., 2000). Our results  
326 showed negative N<sub>2</sub>O emission fluxes at the later stage of rice growth,  
327 which may be due to the decrease of surface soil N<sub>2</sub>O concentration due



328 to the strengthening of N<sub>2</sub>O reduction process or the weakening of N<sub>2</sub>O  
329 diffusion process in the soil profile, which allowed atmospheric N<sub>2</sub>O to  
330 diffuse back into the soil (Chapuis-Lydie et al., 2007). Mild AWD  
331 irrigation promoted cumulative N<sub>2</sub>O emissions by 28.8% on average,  
332 which was the same as hypothesis 1. Similar results were found in  
333 previous studies, which may be due to the increased N<sub>2</sub>O produced by  
334 nitrification and denitrification due to water level alternation (Liang et al.,  
335 2017; Zhou et al., 2020) and temperature change (Wu et al., 2019) of mild  
336 AWD irrigation. In order to reduce N<sub>2</sub>O emissions from paddy fields,  
337 researchers generally regulate N<sub>2</sub>O production by optimizing N  
338 management (Liang et al., 2017), applying inhibitors to control the  
339 nitrogen supply rate of nitrogen fertilizers (Wu et al., 2019), etc. In both  
340 CF and mild AWD irrigation, there was no obvious N<sub>2</sub>O emission peak at  
341 the later growth stage of rice, which may have been due to the decrease in  
342 soil inorganic nitrogen content (Fig. 2A and 2C) and microbial biomass  
343 (Fig. 3A).

344 Compared with CK and S, nitrogen fertilizer application (U and US)  
345 significantly increased N<sub>2</sub>O cumulative emissions and was the most  
346 important factor of N<sub>2</sub>O generation, mainly because nitrogen fertilizer  
347 application provided sufficient substrates for soil nitrification and  
348 denitrification to generate N<sub>2</sub>O (Fiedler et al., 2017; Wu et al., 2021). The  
349 peak of N<sub>2</sub>O emissions after base fertilizer application was larger than





350 that after two topdressing, which might have been due to a higher  
351 nitrogen application rate and simultaneous nitrification and denitrification  
352 in initial flooding (Mathieu et al., 2006; Wang et al., 2017b). The peak of  
353 N<sub>2</sub>O emissions after the two topdressing treatments with CF irrigation  
354 was similar, while the peak of N<sub>2</sub>O emissions of the first topdressing  
355 treatment with mild AWD irrigation was significantly larger than that of  
356 the second topdressing treatment. This may be because the soil  
357 environment (temperature, moisture, etc.) changed little in long-term  
358 flooding under CF irrigation (Lagomarsino et al., 2016; Verhoeven et al.,  
359 2018; Congreves et al., 2019), while the difference in the soil  
360 environment of the two top dressings under mild AWD irrigation changed  
361 the utilization of fertilizer nitrogen by microorganisms (Fig. 3B).  
362 Therefore, reducing the amount of the first top dressing under mild AWD  
363 irrigation and maintaining flooding for approximately one week after  
364 fertilization may be beneficial to N<sub>2</sub>O reduction (Liao et al., 2020). The  
365 negative value of N<sub>2</sub>O emissions appeared at the later stage of rice growth,  
366 indicating that the paddy field could also become a sink for N<sub>2</sub>O (van  
367 Groenigen et al., 2015), which might be caused by the lack of nitrogen  
368 supply at the later stage. Increasing the second topdressing might be  
369 beneficial for alleviating nitrogen deficiency (Liao et al., 2020).

370 Different from CF irrigation, the addition of rice straw under mild  
371 AWD irrigation conditions promoted N<sub>2</sub>O emissions, probably because



372 the alternation of wet and dry conditions promoted the decomposition of  
373 rice straw (Andren et al., 1993; Buchen et al., 2016; Chen et al., 2016),  
374 which was beneficial to the growth of microorganisms (Fig. 3A) and thus  
375 promoted the production of N<sub>2</sub>O (Said-Pullicino et al., 2014; Wang et al.,  
376 2018; Wu et al., 2021). In addition, compared with U and S, US promoted  
377 microbial absorption of urea and rice straw nitrogen (Fig. 3B), which also  
378 proved that US treatment was more conducive to the growth of  
379 microorganisms.

#### 380 4.2 Rice production and yield-scaled N<sub>2</sub>O emissions

381 The change in irrigation method did not cause differences in rice  
382 yield (Table 1), but under the US treatment, mild AWD irrigation  
383 significantly reduced the aboveground biomass of rice and the uptake of  
384 soil nitrogen by rice (Table 1 and Fig. 4), which was consistent with our  
385 hypothesis 2 and 3. Previous studies have also shown that mild AWD  
386 irrigation can stabilize or increase rice yield. This may be because mild  
387 AWD irrigation can promote the transport of nutrients from stems and  
388 leaves to grains during the reproductive growth stage of rice, while  
389 inhibiting ineffective tillering and increasing the number of effective  
390 panicles, thereby reducing the excessive vegetative growth of rice  
391 (Carrijo et al., 2017; Li et al., 2018b; Liao et al., 2020; Zhang et al., 2009).  
392 This may also be an important reason for the decrease in the uptake of  
393 soil nitrogen by rice under AWD irrigation. Urea application was a key



394 factor in improving rice yield (Wang et al., 2017a) but also aggravated  
395 soil nitrogen uptake by rice, and soil was the largest source of nitrogen  
396 for rice in all treatments (Fig. 4). Compared with U, under CF irrigation  
397 and mild AWD irrigation, US reduced the uptake of soil-derived nitrogen  
398 by rice (the difference was not significant), and the trend was more  
399 obvious under mild AWD irrigation, which may be another reason for rice  
400 straw return to maintain soil fertility.

401 In our study, mild AWD irrigation, urea application and rice straw  
402 return under mild AWD irrigation all increased yield-scaled  $N_2O$   
403 emissions (Table 1), mainly due to improved soil aeration and increased  
404 inorganic nitrogen and rice straw decomposition, resulting in more  $N_2O$   
405 production (Andren et al., 1993; Buchen et al., 2016; Chen et al., 2016;  
406 Lagomarsino et al., 2016; Fiedler et al., 2017; Verhoeven et al., 2018;  
407 Congreves et al., 2019; Wu et al., 2021). Although mild AWD irrigation  
408 had higher yield-scaled  $N_2O$  emissions than CF irrigation, the GWP ( $CH_4$   
409 +  $N_2O$ ) under mild AWD irrigation was significantly lower than that  
410 under CF irrigation and decreased by 8.1%, 57.9%, 11.8% and 62.9%  
411 under CK, S, U and US, respectively (Table S1). Therefore, mild AWD  
412 irrigation combined with rice straw return may be a promising agronomic  
413 measure that not only ensures rice yield and slows the greenhouse effect  
414 but also reduces soil fertility consumption.

## 415 **5 Conclusions**



416           The effects of irrigation methods, nitrogen levels and rice straw  
417 return on N<sub>2</sub>O emissions were explored through pot experiments with rice.  
418 We found that N<sub>2</sub>O emissions were mainly affected by urea application  
419 and irrigation methods, and urea application was the main reason.  
420 Compared with CF irrigation, mild AWD irrigation increased cumulative  
421 N<sub>2</sub>O emissions, with an average increase of 28.8%. In addition, adding  
422 rice straw to mild AWD irrigation further stimulated N<sub>2</sub>O emissions.  
423 Compared with CF irrigation, mild AWD irrigation increased the  
424 yield-scaled N<sub>2</sub>O emissions, and the addition of rice straw further  
425 promoted the yield-scaled N<sub>2</sub>O emissions under mild AWD irrigation but  
426 reduced the GWP by 62.9%. Under the condition of urea application,  
427 compared with CF irrigation, mild AWD irrigation reduced nitrogen  
428 uptake by rice in the soil and rice aboveground biomass without reducing  
429 rice yield. Therefore, mild AWD irrigation combined with rice straw  
430 return is a promising agronomic measure to ensure rice yield, reduce the  
431 greenhouse effect and maintain or improve soil fertility.

432

433 **Data availability.** Original data are available upon request. Material  
434 necessary for this study's findings is presented in the paper.

435 **Author contributions.** Kaikuo Wu, Wentao Li, Zhanbo Wei and Zhi  
436 Dong conceived and designed the experiments; Yue Meng and Na Lv  
437 performed the experiments; Kaikuo Wu analyzed the data; Kaikuo Wu



438 and Lili Zhang wrote the paper and all authors approved submission of  
439 the paper. All authors have read and agreed to the published version of the  
440 manuscript.

441 **Competing interests.** The authors declare that they have no conflict of  
442 interest.

443 **Acknowledgements.** The authors thank the editors and reviewers for  
444 their constructive comments and suggestions.

445 **Financial support.** This work was Supported by the Strategic Priority  
446 Research Program of the Chinese Academy of Sciences (XDA28090200),  
447 the National Scientific Foundation Project of China (31971531), the  
448 Liaoning “Take the Lead” Project of 2021: Arable Land Productivity  
449 improvement strategies development and promotion  
450 (LNJBGSHT202102), the K.C.Wong Education Foundation (Research  
451 and application of environmental-friendly polymer compound fertilizers  
452 2021-13), and the Youth Start-up Fund (2022000008).

453 **Review statement.**

454

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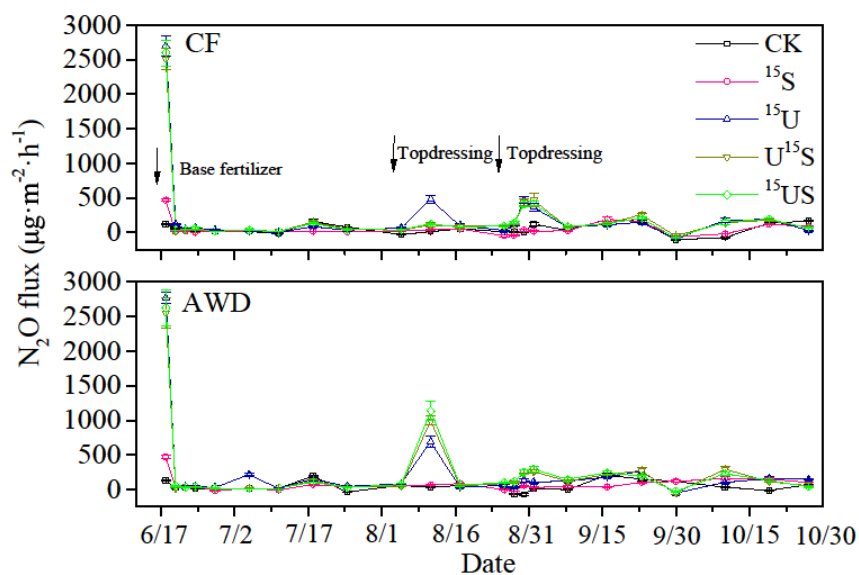
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640 Fig. 1 Effects of different treatments on N<sub>2</sub>O flux. Bars represent standard

641 errors (n=3), the same below.

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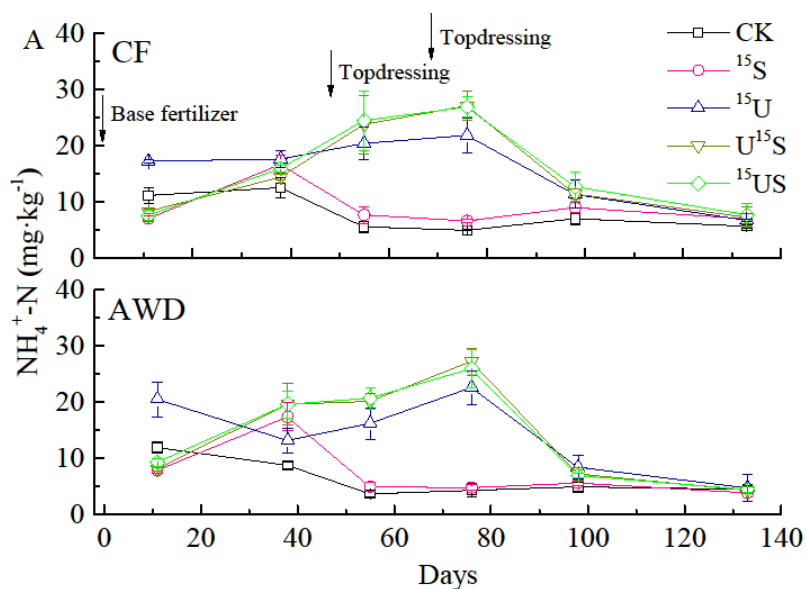
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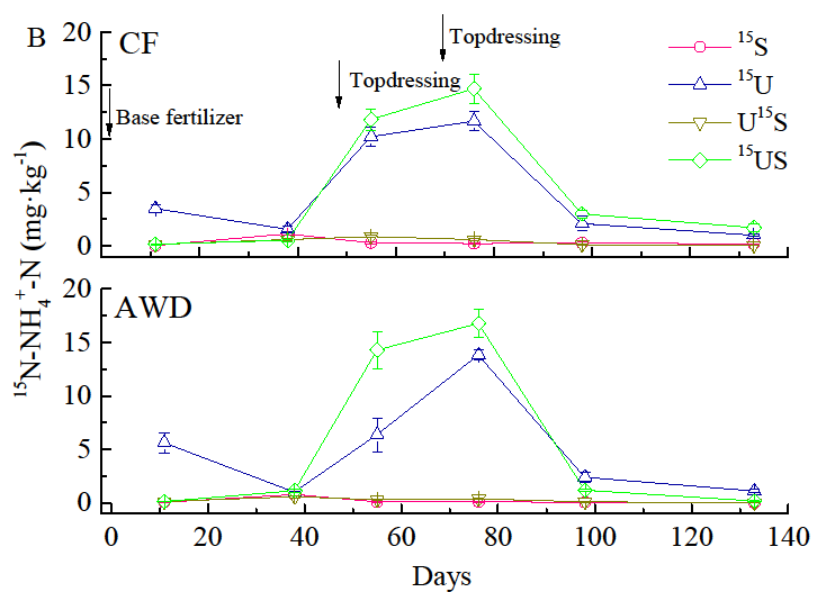
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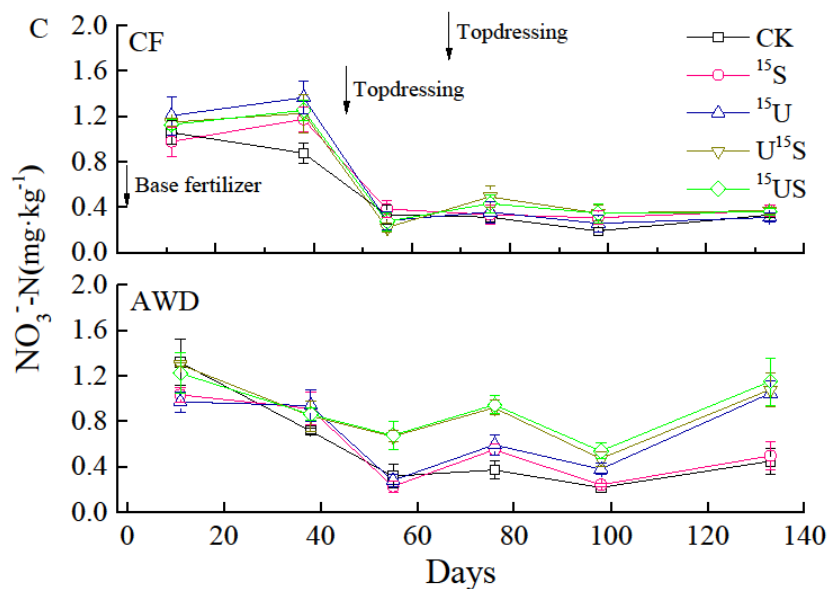


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654 Fig. 2 Changes in soil  $\text{NH}_4^+$ -N concentration (A), the contribution of  $^{15}\text{N}$   
655 markers to  $\text{NH}_4^+$ -N (B) and changes in soil  $\text{NO}_3^-$ -N concentration (C)  
656 during the growth period of rice (n=3).  
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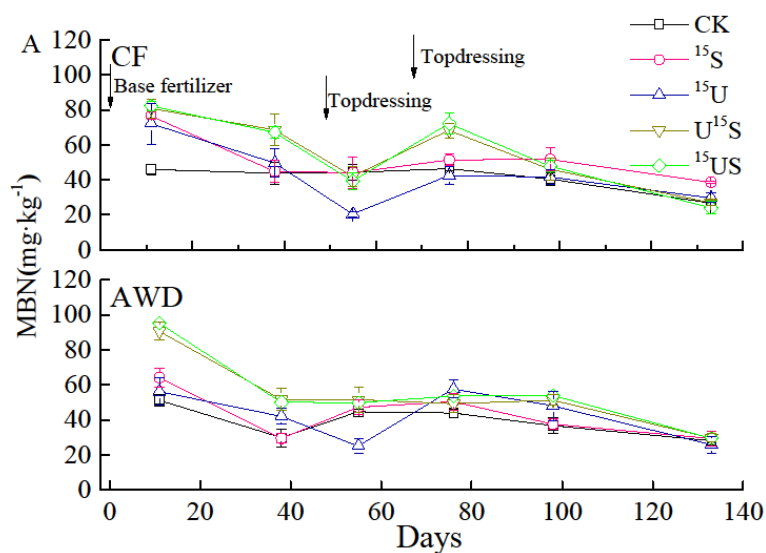
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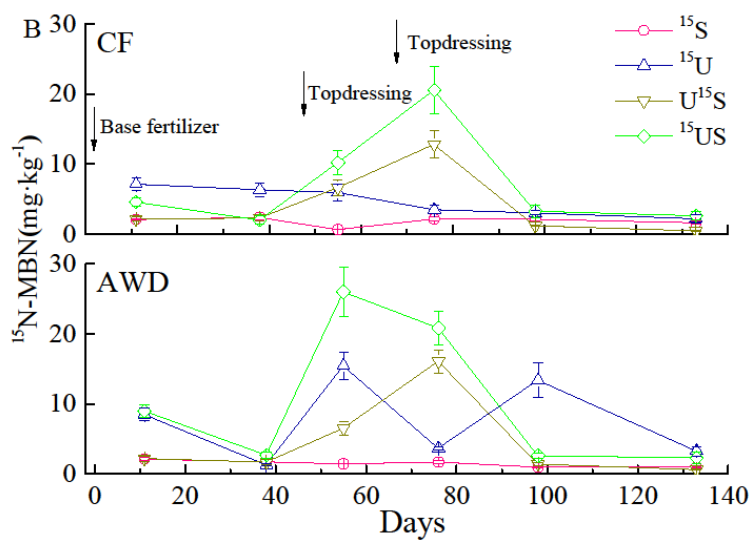
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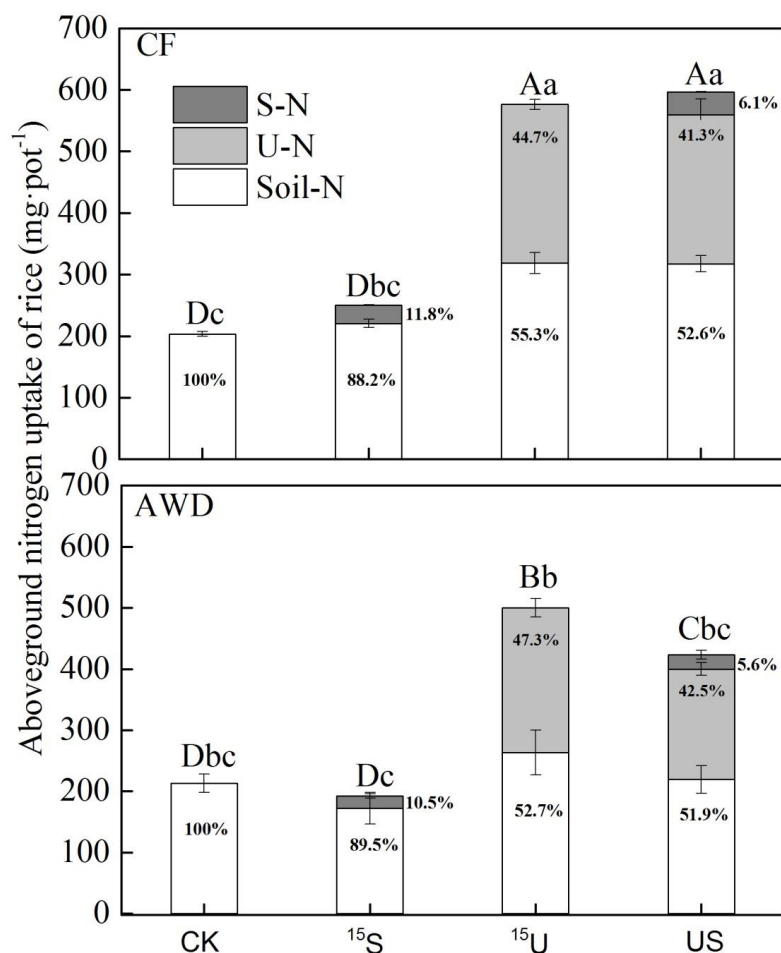


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669 Fig. 3 Changes in the concentration of MBN (A) in the soil during the

670 rice growth period and the contribution of <sup>15</sup>N markers to MBN (B)

671 (n=3).



672 Fig. 4 The source of nitrogen in the aboveground biomass of rice at the  
 673 maturity stage (n=3). Different capital letters indicate significant  
 674 differences in total nitrogen uptake of rice above ground ( $P < 0.05$ ), and  
 675 different lower case letters indicate significant differences in soil nitrogen  
 676 supply ( $P < 0.05$ ).  
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680 Table 1 Effects of different treatments on cumulative N<sub>2</sub>O emissions, rice  
 681 aboveground biomass, rice yield and yield-scaled N<sub>2</sub>O emission. The  
 682 values denote means ± standard errors (n=3). Different lowercase letters  
 683 indicate significant differences ( $P < 0.05$ ).

Treatments	Cumulative N <sub>2</sub> O emissions	Rice aboveground biomass	Rice yield	Yield-scaled N <sub>2</sub> O emission
	kg ha <sup>-1</sup>	g pot <sup>-1</sup>	g pot <sup>-1</sup>	g kg <sup>-1</sup>
CK	1.48±0.06 ef	37.11±2.53 f	21.63±1.81 b	0.24±0.01 d
<sup>15</sup> S	1.24±0.05 f	37.99±2.69 f	20.91±1.63 b	0.21±0.03 d
CF <sup>15</sup> U	4.02±0.30 c	82.54±10.39 ab	36.56±2.75 a	0.39±0.04 c
U+ <sup>15</sup> S	3.89±0.09 c	87.58±7.70 a	35.98±1.72 a	0.38±0.02 c
<sup>15</sup> U+S	3.76±0.02 c	80.99±19.54 abc	35.85±2.50 a	0.37±0.03 c
CK	1.64±0.15 e	45.31±3.07 ef	22.92±1.07 b	0.25±0.02 d
<sup>15</sup> S	2.07±0.17 d	34.78±4.86 f	20.42±0.46 b	0.36±0.02 c
AWD <sup>15</sup> U	4.48±0.12 b	64.44±7.33 bcd	34.81±1.64 a	0.46±0.03 b
U+ <sup>15</sup> S	5.05±0.28 a	62.92±2.49 cde	34.50±1.76 a	0.53±0.01 a
<sup>15</sup> U+S	5.29±0.25 a	60.44±6.74 de	34.85±1.18 a	0.54±0.03 a

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692 Table 2 Cumulative N<sub>2</sub>O emissions in response to irrigation method,  
693 nitrogen level, and straw returning. \*\* indicated significant treatment  
694 effects within a main category ( $P < 0.01$ ).

Factors	Cumulative N <sub>2</sub> O emissions
Irrigation method (I)	124.13**
Nitrogen level (N)	1903.3**
Straw (S)	7.98
I×N	11.74**
I×S	40.39**
N×S	1.78
I×N×S	1.21

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