

Lower soil nitrogen-oxide emissions associated with enhanced denitrification under replacing mineral fertilizer with manure in orchard soils

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5 **Replacing mineral fertilizer with manure suppressed nitrogen-oxide**
6 **emissions by regulating their production pathway in orchards soil**

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20

21 **ABSTRACT**

22 Emerging evidence suggests that replacing mineral fertilizers with manure was an effective way
23 to suppress soil nitrogen-oxide (N-oxide) emissions. However, the mitigation potential and its
24 microbial driving mechanism of replacing mineral fertilizers with manure on soil N-oxide
25 emissions in orchards soil remains unclear. In the study, annual in-situ observation of N-oxide
26 emissions was conducted respectively in deciduous orchards (pear) and evergreen orchards
27 (citrus) under three treatments: no fertilization (CK), compound fertilizer (CF), and manure
28 plus compound fertilizer (COF). The results showed that although the COF treatment increased
29 the peak fluxes of N₂O, it reduced the cumulative emissions of N₂O and NO by an average of
30 20% and 17%, respectively, when compared to the CF treatment. Partial replacement of mineral
31 fertilizers with manure enhanced the contribution of AOA to nitrification and reduced the
32 contribution of AOB, resulting in a decrease in the production of N₂O from nitrification. Isotope
33 analysis further suggested that the primary pathway for N₂O emissions in two orchards' soil is
34 bacterial denitrification and nitrifier denitrification (bD/nD), while the COF treatment reducing
35 the ratio of denitrification products. Additionally, the dual isotope mixing model results
36 indicated that partially replacing mineral fertilizers with manure facilitates soil denitrification,
37 resulting in the additional conversion of N₂O into N₂ and, consequently, less N₂O and NO
38 accumulation. The average cumulative N-oxide emissions in pear orchard were 67% higher
39 than in citrus. The difference in soil physicochemical properties and growth habits in pear and
40 citrus orchards may be the key regulators for the observed difference in N-oxide emissions.
41 Taken together, while partial replacement of mineral fertilizers with manure could have
42 mitigation potential, it should be prioritized as an important measure for emission reduction in
43 orchards to achieve the transition towards climate-smart agriculture.

44 **Keywords:** Climate change; Greenhouse gas; Soil nitrogen cycle; Mitigation option; Climate-
45 smart agriculture

46

47 1 Introduction

48 As two trace gases of major public concern, nitrous oxide (N₂O) and nitric oxide (NO) directly
49 or indirectly involved in global warming and play a disruptive impact on human and ecosystem
50 health (Ravishankara et al., 2009; Stocker et al., 2013). We are on course to miss the 2 °C target
51 as the acceleration of global N₂O emissions has tracked the path of the worst-possible
52 Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) scenario (RCP 8.5) since 2010 (Davidson
53 and Kanter, 2014; Tian et al., 2020). On the other hand, NO is involved in the formation of
54 tropospheric ozone and acid rain, both of which have adverse effects on ecosystem functioning
55 (Li et al., 2022). There is growing evidence that biogenic production in cultivated soils is a
56 significant source for N₂O and NO due to large amount of nitrogen (N) fertilizer inputs
57 providing substrates for soil nitrification and denitrification (Davidson, 2009). Statistically,
58 N₂O and NO emissions from N fertilizer utilized in agriculture accounted for approximately
59 52% (7.3 Tg N yr⁻¹) and 10% (3.7 Tg N yr⁻¹) of total anthropogenic emissions, respectively
60 (Davidson, 2009; Tian et al., 2020). Therefore, it is urgent to take effective measures to mitigate
61 nitrogen oxide (N-oxide) emissions from cultivated soils.

62 Orchard soil is a hotspot of N-oxide emissions in agricultural sector. Orchards are mainly
63 planted in well-drained neutral, slightly acidic or alkaline soils, with a wide variety and
64 distribution. From 2000 to 2019, the global area of orchards increased by 22.0% (FAOSTAT,
65 2021). As the third largest agricultural plantation industry, the area of Chinese orchards
66 increased from 5.18 to 12.66 Mha over the last 30 years (China Statistical YearBook, 2019;
67 FAO, 2020). Current average level of N inputs in Chinese orchards is 550 kg N ha⁻¹yr⁻¹, which
68 far exceeds the global average annual N fertilizer application rate of 303 kg N ha⁻¹yr⁻¹ (Xu et al.,
69 2022; Zhang et al., 2013). Furthermore, the amount of N input in orchards accounts for 16.24%
70 of the total input in China (China Statistical Yearbook, 2020). High N input and rapidly
71 expanding the orchard area may lead to potentially obvious N₂O and NO emissions. Previous
72 studies have shown that the direct N₂O emission from Chinese orchards was estimated to be
73 32–49 Gg N yr⁻¹ in the 2000s, accounting for about 14% of the total upland emissions (Xu et
74 al., 2022). Given such significant and unneglectable emissions, developing effective mitigation
75 options for N₂O and NO emissions from rapidly expanding orchards in China is instant.

76 Replacing mineral fertilizer with manure is a sustainable measure to improve soil fertility
77 and mitigate environmental degradation in agricultural management. Meanwhile, by optimizing
78 the soil microbial-driven internal cycling of nutrients and changing the abundance of functional
79 genes associated with N-cycling, manure substitution for mineral fertilizer may influence the
80 production and consumption of N₂O and NO (Bi et al., 2023; Hu et al., 2022; Xu et al., 2023).
81 For instance, by changing the quantity and quality of inorganic N substrate, replacing mineral
82 fertilizer with manure obviously decreased N₂O emissions in a citrus orchard (Zhou et al., 2022).
83 In contrast, manure substitution for mineral fertilizer stimulated N₂O emissions in an apple
84 orchard because manure application provided sufficient carbon sources for increasing the
85 activity of microorganisms involved in the N cycle, thereby promoting N₂O emissions
86 (Sompouviset et al., 2023). Although several individual studies have investigated the effect of
87 replacing mineral fertilizer with manure on N₂O emission in orchards, a general conclusion has
88 not been made due to the high variation of manuring effects across different experimental sites
89 (Escanhoela et al., 2019; Liu et al., 2017; Shan and Yan, 2013). Furthermore, no study has
90 examined the response of NO emissions to manure substitution for mineral fertilizer and its
91 microbial driving mechanisms in orchards. To make clear the effect of replacing mineral
92 fertilizer with manure on soil N₂O and NO emissions, we need a thorough understanding of the
93 soil properties and microbial activities underpinning N cycle.

94 In this study, we conducted respective annual in-situ field experiments from pear and citrus
95 orchards under same fertilizer management. We measured N₂O and NO dynamic fluxes and
96 recorded environmental factors, functional gene abundance related to N cycle and the
97 nitrification and denitrification potential based on isotope analysis. The main aims of this study
98 were to: (i) improve understanding of the effect of replacing mineral fertilizers with manure on
99 N₂O and NO emissions in orchards, (ii) evaluate the influence of key microbial processes on
100 N₂O emissions in orchard soils by using the inhibitor and isotope signature methods and (iii)
101 compare the differences in soil N₂O and NO emissions between deciduous (pear) and evergreen
102 (citrus) orchards. We hypothesized that replacing mineral fertilizer with manure mitigates N₂O
103 and NO production by changing the biogenic pathways.

104 **2 Materials and methods**

105 **2.1 Field experiment**

106 The field experiment was conducted from November 2020 to November 2021 in pear
107 (deciduous) and citrus (evergreen) orchards, which were located in the Shanxiangyuan family
108 farm in Jurong City, Jiangsu Province, China (108 m a.s.l., 31°97'N, 119°14'E). The climate is
109 a subtropical monsoon, with a long-term mean annual temperature (MAT) of 16.2 °C and
110 precipitation (MAP) of 1192 mm (<https://data.cma.cn/en>). The soil is classified as a Fluvisols
111 (FAO). The initial properties of orchard soil are shown in Table 1.

112 Trees from the two orchards were planted in 2015. The planting density of trees was 625
113 tree ha⁻¹, and the row spacing of trees was 4 m. Each orchard was set up with three treatments:
114 no fertilization (CK), compound fertilizer (N: P₂O₅:K₂O = 15:15:15) (CF), and cow manure
115 plus compound fertilizer (COF, 30% substitution for compound fertilizer). The cow manure
116 had a pH of 7.48, a total N of 2.86%, and a C/N ratio of 13. Each treatment was randomly
117 assigned to a block with an area of 16 m² per field plot, with three replicates. Following local
118 management, the fertilizer was applied using a circular furrow located 0.7 m away from the tree
119 roots. The total N input of the orchard was 300 kg N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹. Compound fertilizer was applied
120 as a base fertilizer on December 3, 2020, and two top dressing on March 18 and May 18, 2021,
121 with an application ratio of 7:8:10. Manure was divided into three portions, with two portions
122 were applied as basal fertilizer, while the remaining portion was applied as the first topdressing.
123 Phosphorus and potassium deficiencies in the CK and COF treatments were addressed through
124 the supplementation of calcium superphosphate and potassium sulfate. Additionally, all plots
125 were effectively maintained pest and weed-free following local practices (foliar pesticides and
126 manual weed control).

127 **2.2 Gas sampling and flux measurements**

128 Gas samples were collected weekly using the static chamber method throughout the experiment
129 to determine N₂O and NO fluxes. When N fertilizer was applied, gas samples were taken thrice
130 weekly to capture peak N-oxide emissions. A permanent square triangular PVC base (0.60 m
131 side length and 0.20 m height) was installed in each plot. A triangular sampling chamber
132 measuring 0.40 m in height was placed on the base and inserted into a trough at the top end of

133 the sampling chamber base. It was covered with an insulating membrane to reduce air
134 temperature variation. Four gas samples (1.5 L) were collected per plot and then sent to the
135 laboratory within 24 hours for concentration analysis. N₂O concentrations were analyzed using
136 a modified gas chromatograph (Agilent 7890A). NO concentrations were analyzed using a
137 Model 42i chemiluminescent NO-NO₂-NO_x analyzer (Thermo Environmental Instruments).

138 The direct emission factors (EF) of N₂O and NO can be calculated as the difference in
139 their total emissions between fertilized and unfertilized treatments, divided by the amount of N
140 applied. The formula is given below:

$$141 \quad EF = (E_N - E_0) / N_{-fer} \quad (1)$$

142 where E_N and E_0 represent the cumulative N₂O or NO emissions (kg N ha⁻¹) from the fertilized
143 and unfertilized treatments, and N_{-fer} is the total amount of N applied (kg N ha⁻¹). Annual
144 cumulative emissions of N₂O and NO were approximated by applying the trapezoidal rule to
145 the time interval between measured emission fluxes.

146 **2.3 Soil sampling and physicochemical analysis**

147 Soil samples (0-20 cm) of each plot were collected every two weeks with stainless steel corers
148 to determine physicochemical properties and quantitative microbial analysis. While collecting
149 gas samples, soil temperature and volumetric moisture were recorded at 0-10 cm depth near the
150 sampling site using a handheld thermometer and an MPM 160 moisture content meter. Soil
151 samples were passed through a 2-mm sieve to eliminate gravel and impurities. Subsequently,
152 the homogenized soil samples were stored at 4 °C and -80 °C, respectively, for further analysis.
153 The soil water content was determined by drying in an oven (105 °C, 24 h). The soil core
154 method is used to measure the bulk density (BD) of the surface soil (5 cm). The water-filled
155 pore space (WFPS) was calculated by dividing the volumetric moisture content by the total
156 porosity of the soil, where the calculation formula for the total porosity of the soil is [1-
157 (BD/2.65)]. Soil pH was analyzed separately using a pH electrode (PHS-3C) at a soil-to-water
158 ratio of 1:2.5 (w/v). NH₄⁺-N and NO₃⁻-N concentrations in 2 M KCl extracts were determined
159 using a flow analyzer (Auto-Analyzer 3). Soil total nitrogen and carbon (TN and TC) content
160 was determined using an elemental analyzer (Vario EL Cube, Elementar, Germany).

161 **2.4 Soil DNA extraction and quantitative PCR assay**

162 The abundance of N-cycling key functional genes was measured from soil samples on three
163 fertilization events and June 21st. Microbial DNA was extracted from 0.25 g fresh soil samples
164 using the DNeasy Power soil kit. Genomic DNA integrity was determined via agarose gel
165 electrophoresis, while DNA sample concentrations were measured using a Thermo Fisher
166 Nanodrop 2000 spectrophotometer and appropriately diluted when necessary. Real-time
167 quantitative PCR (qPCR) was used to determine the copy numbers of ammonia oxidizers (AOA
168 and AOB), nitrite reducers (*nirK* and *nirS*) and N₂O-reducers (*nosZ-I* and *nosZ-II*) genes with
169 three replicates. The StepOnePlus™ real-time PCR system from Applied Biosystems (ABI,
170 USA) was employed for qPCR reactions conducted in 96-well plates. Each reaction mixture,
171 containing 20 µl, comprised 2 µl of template DNA, 6.8 µl of sterile water, 0.4 µl of ROX
172 reference dye, 0.4 µl of forward and reverse primers (10 µmol L⁻¹), and 10 µl of SYBR@ Premix
173 Ex Taq. Melting curves were analyzed at the end of the real-time qPCR to confirm the
174 specificity of the PCR products. Amplification efficiencies ranged from 90-95% for all genes,
175 and *R*² values for the standard curve ranged from 0.990-0.998. Table S1 provides details of the
176 gene-specific primers and qPCR cycling thermal conditions.

177 **2.5 Isotope analysis and N₂O source partitioning**

178 Most N₂O emissions from orchards primarily occur in spring and summer, accounting for over
179 85% of the total annual emissions. Therefore, gas samples from two orchards on 18 May 2021
180 (second top-dressing fertilizer) were used for N₂O isotopic signature analysis. The analysis of
181 N₂O isotope natural abundance is a frequently utilized tool for determining the relative
182 contribution of specific pathways (Heil et al., 2015). N₂O isotopic signatures of gas samples
183 and air were analyzed using the IRMS isotope ratio mass spectrometer (IRMS, Isoprime100)
184 at the Institute of Environment and Sustainable Development, Chinese Academy of
185 Agricultural Sciences. The measured isotopic signatures of δ¹⁸O and δ¹⁵N^{SP} were determined
186 using Vienna Standard Water (VSMOW) and atmospheric air-N₂ as standards, respectively.
187 Perturbation factors and measurement correction principles were referenced in the previously
188 published literature (Heil et al., 2015). Where N₂O isotopic signatures δ¹⁵N^β and δ¹⁵N^{SP} values
189 are calculated in the following equations (2) and (3).

190
$$\delta^{15}N^{\beta} = 2 \cdot \delta^{15}N^{bulk} - \delta^{15}N^{\alpha} \quad (2)$$

191
$$\delta^{15}N^{SP} = \delta^{15}N^{\alpha} - \delta^{15}N^{\beta} \quad (3)$$

192 Isotopic signature values of N₂O emissions from soil ($\delta^{15}N$, $\delta^{18}O$, or $\delta^{15}N^{SP}$) were calculated
 193 from the total isotopic signature values of the gas sample and the two-component ambient air
 194 following the (4) equation.

195
$$\delta_{soil-emitted} = (\delta_{sample} \cdot C_{sample} + \delta_{ambient} \cdot C_{ambient}) / (C_{sample} - C_{ambient}) \quad (4)$$

196 where δ and C represent the isotopic signature and concentration of N₂O in ambient and sample,
 197 and the subscripts represent the sample and ambient air, respectively. The N₂O concentration in
 198 ambient field air was 271.86 ± 7.41 ppb, and the isotopic signature of N₂O was not calculated
 199 when the headspace N₂O concentration at the end of confinement was less than the ambient air
 200 concentration.

201 The four main microbial processes responsible for soil N₂O emissions include nitrification
 202 (Ni), fungal denitrification (fD), bacterial denitrification (bD), and nitrifier denitrification (nD)
 203 (Hart et al., 1994). Previous studies have proposed quantifying four major microbial processes'
 204 contribution to N₂O emissions using the $\delta^{18}O(N_2O/H_2O)$ vs. $\delta^{15}N^{SP}$ dual isotope approach
 205 (Lewicka-Szczebak et al., 2017). The contribution of microbial processes and the extent of N₂O
 206 reduction were quantified by dividing the four microbial processes into two main parts based
 207 on the difference between SP and $\delta^{18}O$ (Buchen et al., 2018). Ni and fD with similar and higher
 208 $\delta^{15}N^{SP}$ and $\delta^{18}O$ values were assumed to be Ni/fD in the estimation process, while bD and nD
 209 with lower and similar $\delta^{15}N^{SP}$ and $\delta^{18}O$ values were considered as bD/nD. To assess the
 210 contribution of N₂O from soil emissions originating from Ni/fD and bD/nD while taking into
 211 account the occurrence of N₂O reduction, we relied on the following equation (Buchen et al.,
 212 2018) :

213
$$\delta_{soil-emitted} = X \cdot \delta_{Ni/fD} + (1 - X) \cdot \delta_{bD/nD} + \eta r \cdot \ln(1 - Fr) \quad (5)$$

214 the equation has multiple variables expressed as ratios and isotopic signature values. X
 215 represents the contribution of Ni/fD microbial processes to total N₂O production, and ηr
 216 represents the net isotopic effect of N₂O reduction. Moreover, Fr is defined as the reduction of

217 N_2O as $\text{N}_2/(\text{N}_2\text{O} + \text{N}_2)$, and $\delta_{\text{Ni/fD}}$ and $\delta_{\text{bD/nD}}$ represent isotopic signature values of Ni/fD and
218 bD/nD, respectively. Finally, $1-F_r$, which is also called $r\text{N}_2\text{O}$, represents the unreduced N_2O
219 fraction expressed as the $\text{N}_2\text{O}/(\text{N}_2\text{O} + \text{N}_2)$.

220 **2.6 Nitrification and denitrification potential determination**

221 The potential for N_2O production from soil nitrification was evaluated using a modified shaking
222 slurry method during high temperatures and abundant rainfall events (21 June 2021) under the
223 three fertilization treatments (Hart et al., 1994). The following treatments were set up for each
224 soil sample: control (no inhibitor added), acetylene (288 μl , 6 μM) and 1-octyne (2.6 ml, 4 μM).
225 Briefly, 3 g fresh-sieved soil (equivalent to dry weight) was placed in 120 ml serum bottles and
226 20 ml of phosphate buffer (pH = 7.0) containing 1.0 mM $\text{NH}_4^+\text{-N}$ was added to maximize
227 nitrification. Afterwards, the soil was shaken at 200 rpm, as the constant aerating of the soil
228 slurry at high-speed shaking inhibits denitrification. The culture was aerated at 25 °C for 2 h
229 and then incubated in airtight conditions for 22 h. Acetylene was leveraged as a nitrification
230 inhibitor to differentiate the relative contribution of autotrophic and heterotrophic nitrification
231 processes to N_2O production, and 1-octyne was leveraged as a differential inhibitor to
232 differentiate the contribution of AOA and AOB. Cumulative N_2O emissions were calculated by
233 collecting headspace gas samples from 2 h and 24 h serum bottles.

234 In addition, we assessed the potential denitrification and denitrification end-product ratio
235 of soil by using the modified acetylene inhibition method (Jones et al., 2022). For each sample,
236 two 25 ml serum vials were weighed with the equivalent of 3 g dry soil weight of fresh-sieved
237 soil (10 mesh sieve). Then, 3 ml of the substrate (prepared from potassium nitrate, succinic acid,
238 glucose, and acetic acid) was added to each serum and vacuumed, adding N_2 or 10% v/v
239 acetylene gas. The serum vials were incubated in a temperature-controlled shaker at 25 °C in
240 the dark for 5 h and then shaken at 200 rpm. Gas samples were collected at the end of the
241 incubation and analyzed using a gas chromatograph (Agilent 7890A). Two serum vials were
242 used to determine potential denitrification and potential N_2O production, respectively.
243 Cumulative N_2O emissions from each serum bottle were determined by calculation, and the
244 denitrification end-product ratio of the soil sample was calculated.

245 **2.7 Statistical Analyses**

246 The results are expressed in terms of mean plus standard error (Mean \pm SE, n = 3). The effects
247 of soil physicochemical properties and microbial functional genes on N₂O and NO emissions
248 were investigated by Pearson correlation coefficients. All data were analyzed and plotted using
249 R version 4.1.2 (R Core Team, 2020). The '*Hmisc*' package was used for correlation analysis,
250 the '*multcomp*' package for variance analysis and multiple comparisons, and the '*ggplot*'
251 package for plotting.

252 **3 Results**

253 **3.1 Environmental factors**

254 Both orchards exhibited a clear seasonal pattern in soil temperature, with similar fluctuations
255 observed (Fig.1a and f). Seasonal variation of soil WFPS level in both orchards was observed
256 due to rainfall events, ranging from 15.45-93.67% (Fig.1b and g). Soil WFPS of the citrus
257 orchard displayed greater fluctuations in comparison to the pear orchard (Fig.1b and g).
258 Although there were no significant differences in WFPS between the two orchards, the average
259 WFPS of citrus orchards was observed to be higher than that of pear orchards (61.6% vs. 53.8%).
260 The average soil pH of the CF treatment was 6.75 across two orchards, which was lower than
261 the COF treatment (Fig. 1c and h).

262 The results indicated that soil NH₄⁺-N and NO₃⁻-N concentrations of two orchards varied
263 considerably depending on the N fertilizer utilized, with the CF treatment exhibiting higher
264 levels than the COF treatment (NH₄⁺-N: 174.76 vs 164.31 mg N kg⁻¹, NO₃⁻-N:134.04 vs 117.16
265 mg N kg⁻¹). After the first fertilizer application in spring, soil NH₄⁺-N concentrations in the soils
266 of both orchards increased rapidly and remained high until the second application. In addition,
267 soil NH₄⁺-N concentrations were higher in pear orchard soils than in citrus orchard soils (119.77
268 vs 100.68 mg N kg⁻¹). The average NO₃⁻-N concentration in fertilized soil was 84.98 mg N kg⁻¹
269 for pear orchards, which was higher than that for citrus orchards, with an average of 62.67 mg
270 N kg⁻¹.

271 **3.2 Soil N-oxide emissions**

272 The seasonal N₂O fluxes of both orchards were highly variable throughout the experimental

273 period. Similar patterns were observed within the fertilization treatments of each orchard (Fig.
274 2b and d). During the observation period, the flux peak of the COF treatment was significantly
275 higher than that of the CF treatment. The average N₂O emission of the N-fertilized treatments
276 was relatively similar and high, ranging from 136.41-190.92 g N ha⁻¹ d⁻¹. N₂O emissions were
277 primarily concentrated in the spring and summer seasons during fertilizer application (Fig. 2b
278 and d). Additionally, the N input increased annual cumulative N₂O emissions in pear orchards
279 and citrus orchards by 1.99-2.41 and 2.54-3.29 kg N ha⁻¹, respectively (Table 2). The COF
280 treatment led to a decrease in N₂O emissions by 15% and 16% and the EF_{N₂O} by 21.3% and
281 20.4% in pear and citrus orchards, respectively. It is worth noting that the annual cumulative
282 N₂O emission from the citrus orchard was much lower than that from the pear orchard. The
283 correlation analysis conducted revealed that N₂O emissions from the two orchards are
284 positively and significantly correlated with soil temperature, WFPS, NH₄⁺-N and NO₃⁻-N
285 content ($p < 0.05$), while negatively and obviously correlated with the AOA/AOB value ($p <$
286 0.01) (Fig.4). Furthermore, in the pear orchard, N₂O emissions show a significant negative
287 correlation to both the abundance of the AOA ($p < 0.001$) and *nosZ*-II ($p < 0.05$).

288 NO fluxes from both orchards demonstrate a consistent pattern of higher levels during the
289 spring and summer seasons (Fig.2a and c). The CF treatment demonstrated a higher flux pulse
290 than the COF treatment. The COF treatment reduced annual cumulative NO emissions by 9.4%
291 and 10.5% in the pear and citrus orchards when compared to the CF treatment (Table 2).
292 Consequently, the COF treatment reduced the mean of EF_{NO} by 21.1% in comparison with the
293 CF treatment. Additionally, the annual cumulative emissions of NO from the pear orchard are
294 higher than those from the citrus orchard. Correlation analysis indicated that NO flux was
295 positively related to soil temperature ($p < 0.001$), pH ($p < 0.05$), NH₄⁺-N, and NO₃⁻-N ($p < 0.01$)
296 while negatively related to the abundance of AOA genes ($p < 0.01$) and the AOA/AOB value (p
297 < 0.001) in both orchards (Fig.4). In addition, the abundance of the *nosZ*-II gene in the soil
298 significantly influenced NO emissions in the citrus orchard ($p < 0.05$).

299 **3.3 Abundances of N-cycling functional genes**

300 Throughout the observation period, various fertilization treatments impacted the abundance

301 fluctuations of functional genes involved in nitrogen cycling (Fig. 3). Nitrogen fertilizer
302 application enhanced the abundance of ammonia-oxidizing bacteria genes in the two orchards
303 (Fig. 3b and h). The COF treatment generally decreased the abundance of ammonia oxidizers,
304 nitrite reductants and N₂O reducers (Fig.3a-d and g-j). When compared to the CF treatment, the
305 COF treatment increased AOA/AOB and (*nirK+nirS*)/*nosZ* values. In addition, AOA gene
306 abundances in both orchards showed a downward trend at different time points (Fig. 3a and g).
307 AOA, AOB, *nirK*, and *nirS* abundance in the soil of the pear orchard were higher than those in
308 the citrus orchard (Fig. 3a-d and g-j), while the abundance of *nosZ*-I and *nosZ*-II was lower in
309 pear orchard (Fig. 3e-f and k-l).

310 **3.4 N₂O isotope signatures and production pathways**

311 This study analyzed the N₂O production and reduction processes in the N application treatment
312 using a $\delta^{18}\text{O}(\text{N}_2\text{O}/\text{H}_2\text{O})$ versus $\delta^{15}\text{N}^{\text{SP}}$ model, which distinguishes between Ni/fD and bD/nD.
313 The dual isotope plots reveal that N₂O production in both orchards is a complex process where
314 the isotope δ originates from a mixture of nitrification and denitrification regions (Fig. 5a). The
315 isotopic signature in the pear orchard was close to bD/nD. In contrast, in the citrus orchard, the
316 isotopic signature was closer to the other end. On the other hand, the N₂O isotopic signatures
317 of the CF treatment were located closer to bD/nD, while those of the COF treatment were closer
318 to bD/nD. Therefore, Partial substitution for mineral fertilizer with manure modify the
319 contribution of various microbial processes to N₂O production. The outcomes of the source
320 partitioning using a two-source mixture model showed that N₂O emissions from the orchard
321 soils were primarily caused by bD/nD pathway (Fig. 5b). Furthermore, it was found that the
322 contribution of bD/nD pathway was higher in the COF treatment as compared to the CF
323 treatment. Likewise, partial substitution for mineral fertilizer with manure led to an increase in
324 N₂O reduction (*Fr*) and a decrease in residual (rN₂O) proportion in comparison with the CF
325 treatment (Fig.5b).

326 The results from aerobic sludge indicated that orchard soils reacted differently to two N
327 treatments (Fig. 6). The partial substitution for mineral fertilizer with organic fertilizers
328 increases the contribution of AOA to the autotrophic nitrification processes relative to the CF

329 treatment (Fig.6c, d). Besides, the COF treatment increased the contribution of heterotrophic
330 nitrification to N_2O production from nitrification in the citrus orchard (Fig. 6d). The
331 enhancement of AOA in the pear orchard soil is rapid, while it requires more time in the citrus
332 (Fig. 6c and d). AOB dominates the process of ammonia oxidation in both orchard soils.
333 Autotrophic nitrification (AOA + AOB) has a higher contribution compared to heterotrophic
334 nitrification (HN). In addition, the denitrification potential was found to be higher in the CF
335 treatment plots than those treated with COF (Fig.6a-b). The product ratios of the COF treatment
336 in both orchards were lower than those of the CF treatment. Furthermore, 87.5% of the N_2O to
337 total products for the CF treatment was greater than 0.73, indicating that most N potential
338 emissions occurred in the form of N_2O rather than N_2 (Fig. 6a-b). Conversely, the COF
339 treatment exhibited a higher N_2O reduction and a final product ratio of denitrification ranging
340 from 0.42 to 0.79, as compared to the CF treatment.

341 **4 Discussion**

342 **4.1 Replacing mineral fertilizer with manure suppressed N-oxide emissions**

343 Replacing mineral fertilizer with manure was found to increase N_2O flux peaks in both orchards.
344 However, it effectively reduced the annual cumulative emissions of N_2O and NO by 20% and
345 17%, respectively. Two potential reasons could account for this phenomenon. Firstly, the NO_3^-
346 -N content was higher in the COF treatment than in the CF treatment after fertilization (Fig.1e
347 and j). Consequently, applying manure under suitable soil moisture conditions leads the
348 elevated carbon-nitrogen substrates, thereby triggering N_2O pulse emissions when compared to
349 the CF treatment (Fig. 2). It is consistent with previous research, which shows that manure has
350 a greater impact on triggering N_2O pulse emissions (Escanhoela et al., 2019). However, manure
351 enhances the availability of soil organic carbon and N, stimulates the growth and proliferation
352 of heterotrophic microorganisms, promotes soil microbial fixation of NO_3^- -N and reduces N
353 losses from denitrification, consequently leading to a reduction in N_2O cumulative emissions
354 (Bradley, 2001; Burger and Jackson, 2003; Cheng et al., 2017). Secondly, the main factor
355 leading to the decrease in N_2O emissions is the decomposition properties of organic matter.
356 Organic matter with a higher C/N ratio is associated with a lower likelihood of N_2O emissions

357 (Akiyama and Tsuruta, 2003). In Mediterranean vineyards, composts led to a reduction in N₂O
358 emissions of about 20% when compared to a single mineral fertilizer application. This is
359 attributed to the high C/N value of organic materials (about 20), which results in intense
360 competition for the N matrix during N matrix decomposition, followed by the inhibition of
361 nitrification and denitrification (Fentabil et al., 2016). A meta-analysis also demonstrated that
362 organic fertilizers can stimulate and inhibit soil N₂O emissions, depending on their C/N value,
363 with N₂O emissions can be mitigated when the C/N value exceeds 8.6 (He et al., 2019).
364 Therefore, the C/N ratio of manure was 13 in our study, which has led to a reduction in
365 cumulative N₂O emissions.

366 The alters of nitrification and denitrification processes under the COF treatment could be
367 the key factor to mitigate N-oxide emissions in orchard soils. On the one hand, AOB dominates
368 the ammonia-oxidizing microbial community in environments in the acidic orchard soil (Fig.
369 6c). The nitrification process dominated by AOB genes produces more N₂O during nitrification
370 than AOA (Stein, 2019). The result indicated that AOB contributed more to autotrophic
371 nitrification in the CF than the COF treatment and the value of AOB/AOA also supports this
372 finding (Fig. 3, Fig. 6c). Observed variations in the impact of organic fertilizers on the
373 abundance of AOA and AOB genes are due to different ecological niches (Hink et al., 2018).
374 Additionally, Bi et al. (2023) found that an adequate percentage of organic substitutes can
375 reduce N₂O and NO emissions influenced by the AOB community structure. On the other hand,
376 denitrification is more significant than nitrification in the soil after manure application, which
377 coincides with research findings that adding organic fertilizers has a stronger denitrification
378 ability compared to mineral fertilizers (Lin et al., 2019; Yamamoto et al., 2017). The
379 $\delta^{18}\text{O}(\text{N}_2\text{O}/\text{H}_2\text{O})$ versus $\delta^{15}\text{N}^{\text{SP}}$ model showed that bD/nD is the main process responsible for
380 N₂O production in fertilization treatments, with a contribution rate of over 60% and a higher
381 proportion of organic fertilizers (Fig.5b). Previous studies have demonstrated that organic
382 fertilizers increase soil-denitrifying enzyme activity, resulting in more gaseous N₂ produced
383 through soil denitrification catalyzed from N₂O by nitric oxide reductase (NOR) enzymes
384 (Bowles et al., 2014; Chen et al., 2010). Although there is no significant increase in the
385 abundance of *nosZ* genes that encode NOR enzymes, a lower value of (*nirK+nirS*)/*nosZ*

386 denitrifying bacterial communities supported the finding that the higher Fr and the lower rN_2O
387 in COF treatments than in CF treatments based on N_2O isotope analysis (Figs. 3 and 5b). Hence,
388 more N undergoes a complete reduction to N_2 than is released as N_2O under the COF treatment.
389 Overall, these findings regarding functional genes and N_2O sources demonstrate that partial
390 substitution for mineral fertilizer with manure can effectively decrease N_2O and NO emissions.

391 **4.2 Higher N-oxide emissions in deciduous orchard than evergreen orchard**

392 There were significant differences in the pulse peaks and annual cumulative emissions of N-
393 oxide between two orchards (Fig. 2, Table 2). This difference could be attributed to the soil
394 physicochemical properties of different orchard soils. First, higher WFPS in the citrus orchard
395 stimulated the in-situ reduction of N_2O , resulting in differences in peak pulse time (Fig. 1b and
396 g, Fig. 2). Although the pulse peaks occurred at different times, they appeared after the second
397 topdressing fertilization (Fig. 2). Second, soil C/N value was lower in pear orchards than in
398 citrus orchards (9.2 vs 9.6), indicating higher available N pools in pear orchards (Table 1). If
399 the same exogenous carbon was introduced to both orchards, the difference might have
400 provided more substrate for the N-oxide production of pear orchards. Third, compared to other
401 soil properties, the BD and soil texture were identified as more critical factors affecting N_2O
402 emissions (Gu et al., 2019; Qin et al., 2021). The BD of the citrus orchard (1.36 g cm^{-3}) is higher
403 than the pear orchard (1.33 g cm^{-3}) (Table 2). The higher BD and fine texture of the citrus
404 orchard lead to lower N_2O emissions, which is consistent with the concept that poorly aerated
405 soils have lower N_2O emissions (Gu et al., 2013). Consequently, the variations in WFPS, C/N
406 value, and BD are intimately associated with the differences observed in N-oxides emissions
407 across diverse orchards.

408 The difference of growth habit can also be contributed to the variation of N-oxide
409 emissions between deciduous (pear) and evergreen (citrus) orchards (Medda et al., 2022).
410 Although there was no significant variance in N_2O emissions between evergreen and deciduous
411 orchards, deciduous orchards ($9.53 \text{ kg N ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$) exhibited higher N_2O emissions than
412 evergreen orchards ($6.20 \text{ kg N ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$) (Zhao et al., 2022). It is consistent with our results,
413 which indicate that the average cumulative emissions of N-oxides in the pear orchard were 67%

414 higher than in the citrus orchard (Table 2). Simultaneously, EF_{N_2O} and EF_{NO} were higher in pear
415 orchards than in citrus orchards, with EF_{N_2O} (2.36% vs. 1.85%) showing a similar to previous
416 estimates of 2.29% and 1.74% (Zhao et al., 2022). This difference is mainly caused by the
417 disparity in leaf litter between deciduous and evergreen orchards. Research has shown that the
418 addition of leaf litter stimulates nitrogen mineralization in the soil and increases microbial
419 nitrogen presence (Khalsa et al., 2016). Moreover, the synergistic effect of leaf litter and
420 nitrogen fertilizer enhances microbial activity by providing energy stimulation, thus promoting
421 the emission of N_2O (Pandeya et al., 2020). Hence, the type of orchard plays a crucial role in
422 determining substantial variations in N-oxide emissions.

423 **4.3 Environmental implications and study limitations**

424 This study had significant implications for climate-smart orchard plantings in China. First,
425 partial substitution for mineral fertilizer with manure was a feasible reduction option for
426 decreasing N_2O and NO emissions. Several researches have shown that orchard soil is a
427 potential hotspot of N-oxide emissions in the agricultural sector (Gu et al., 2019; Qin et al.,
428 2021; Xu et al., 2022; Zhao et al., 2022). The irrational field management in Chinese orchards
429 led to substantial greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions, with remarkable regional variation.
430 Therefore, this study is of great significance for designing N-oxide emissions reduction
431 countermeasures. Second, our study for the first time utilized the dual isotopic tracing method
432 to identify microbial sources of N_2O in orchard soil. The result indicated that partial substitution
433 for mineral fertilizer with manure can enhance the bD/nD process in denitrification, thereby
434 leading to more reduction of N_2O (Fig. 5b). It provides theoretical support and a basis for the
435 feasibility of manure application in agricultural practices. Third, our results indicated that the
436 partial substitution for mineral fertilizer with manure can reduce the average of 0.76% EF_{N_2O}
437 and 0.04% EF_{NO} , respectively (Table 2). Calculated based on the planting area of 12.81Mha for
438 orchards in China in 2022, it has the potential to reduce emissions by approximately 30.16 Gg
439 N_2O -N and 1.54 Gg NO -N. Therefore, partial substitution for mineral fertilizer with manure
440 can facilitate the target of carbon neutral in 2030. Finally, orchard soil is a hotspot of N-oxide
441 emissions in agricultural sector. Policy and practice in China should prioritize the orchard
442 management, considering the enormous planting area and potential N_2O and NO emissions.

443 There are three limitations in the study. Firstly, our study solely focused on one
444 substitution rate and did not consider different levels of substitution. Hence, it lays the
445 groundwork for future research. Secondly, our study is limited in scope to data collected from
446 only two orchards in a single year. This may not provide a comprehensive representation of the
447 long-term behavior of the experimental sites. Therefore, future investigations should prioritize
448 conducting extensive, prolonged, and multisite experiments to provide a more precise
449 assessment of GHG emissions within orchard ecosystems. Lastly, the research did not assess
450 the impact of partial substitution for mineral fertilizer with manure on crop yields, as well as
451 conducting a comprehensive evaluation of the environmental benefits.

452 **5 Conclusions**

453 In summary, we investigated the impact of partial substitution for mineral fertilizer with manure
454 on N-oxide emissions in both evergreen and deciduous orchards, concurrently examining the
455 associated microbial mechanisms for their production pathway. Our results showed that the
456 partial substitution for mineral fertilizer with manure decreased cumulative N₂O and NO
457 emissions from orchard soils. This was mainly due to the manure application, which reduced
458 the contribution of AOB to nitrification, stimulating denitrification processes and leading to
459 less N₂O and NO accumulation. In addition, there were significant variations in N-oxide
460 emissions between orchards due to differences in soil physicochemical properties and orchard
461 types. In particular, deciduous orchards exhibited higher background emissions of N-oxide.
462 These findings underlined the necessity of partial substitution for mineral fertilizer with manure
463 in orchards as a critical strategy to mitigate emissions in the agricultural sector.

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467 **Authors' contribution** Pinshang Xu: Conceptualization, Formal analysis, Investigation, Data
468 Curation, Writing - Original Draft. Zhutao Li: Investigation, Data Curation. Shumin Guo:
469 Writing - Review & Editing. Jinyang Wang: Project administration, Writing - Review & Editing.
470 Davey L. Jones: Writing - Review & Editing. Zhaoqiang Han: Formal analysis, Writing -

471 Review & Editing. Jianwen Zou: Writing - Review & Editing, Supervision, Project
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474 **Declarations**

475 **Code availability** The code generated during this study is accessible through the corresponding
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477 **Data availability** The dataset utilized in this study is not publicly accessible; however, it can
478 be obtained from the corresponding author upon request.

479 **Reference:**

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631 **Figure Captions**

632 **Fig. 1** Dynamics of soil physicochemical factors under different fertilization treatments from
633 the orchard plantations. Soil temperature (a), WFPS (b), pH (c), NH_4^+ (d), NO_3^- (e) from the
634 pear orchard. Soil temperature (f), WFPS (g), pH (h), NH_4^+ (i), NO_3^- (j) from the citrus orchard.
635 Values are means \pm SEM (n = 3). CK, no fertilization; CF, compound fertilizer; COF, cow
636 manure plus compound fertilizer. The arrows indicate the date of fertilization events.

637 **Fig. 2** Seasonal fluxes of N_2O and NO under different fertilization treatments from orchard
638 plantations. NO (a), N_2O (b), and NO (c), N_2O (d) respectively represent the pear orchard and
639 citrus orchard. Values are means \pm SEM (n = 3). CK, no fertilization; CF, compound fertilizer;
640 COF, cow manure plus compound fertilizer. The black arrows represent three fertilization
641 events and the grey bars are due to the COVID-19 control not sampled.

642 **Fig. 3** Abundance of functional genes associated with the nitrogen cycle in different fertilizer
643 treatments from the Pear (left panel) and Citrus (right panel) orchard plantations (AOA, AOB,
644 *nirK*, *nirS*, *nosZ-I*, *nosZ-II*). CK, no fertilization; CF, compound fertilizer; COF, cow manure
645 plus compound fertilizer.

646 **Fig. 4** Correlation of N_2O , NO and $\text{N}_2\text{O}+\text{NO}$ fluxes with soil physicochemical properties and
647 functional genes associated with the nitrogen cycle in peach orchards; *, ** and *** indicate
648 statistical significance at $P < 0.05$, 0.01 and 0.001. Soil T, soil temperature; (A/B), (AOA/AOB);
649 $(K+S)/Z$, $(nirK+nirS)/(nosZ-I+nosZ-II)$.

650 **Fig. 5** Graphical representation of net isotope effect value of ^{18}O ($\delta^{18}\text{O}$) vs. $\delta^{15}\text{N}^{\text{SP}}$ plot method
651 presented to analyze soil-emitted N_2O isotope data (a). The relative contribution of N_2O
652 production from two endmembers nitrification/fungal denitrification and nitrifier
653 denitrification/bacterial denitrification (b). CF, compound fertilizer; COF, cow manure plus
654 compound fertilizer.

655 **Fig. 6** Product ratio of N_2O to $(\text{N}_2\text{O}+\text{N}_2)$ for each treatment at different periods (a, b). Relative
656 contribution of heterotrophic nitrification (HN) versus AOA and AOB dominated autotrophic
657 nitrification in N_2O production by nitrification process for each treatment at different periods
658 (c, d). The left panel is pear orchard, and the right is citrus.

659 **Table 1** The initial properties of the two orchards soil.

Soil	Texture	Clay	Silt	Sand	NH ₄ ⁺	NO ₃ ⁻	TN	TC	Bulk density	pH
		(%)	(%)	(%)	(mg N kg ⁻¹)	(mg N kg ⁻¹)	(g N kg ⁻¹)	(g C kg ⁻¹)	(g cm ⁻³)	
Pear	Loam	16	40	44	0.76	1.86	1.01	9.25	1.33	6.18
Citrus	Clay Loam	30	38	32	0.82	1.95	1.27	12.22	1.36	6.14

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661 **Table 2** Annual cumulative emissions and emission factors (EF) for N₂O, NO and (N₂O+NO)

662 under different fertilization treatments in pear and citrus orchards

Orchard	Treatment	N ₂ O flux	NO flux	N ₂ O + NO	Direct emission factor (%)		
		(kg N ha ⁻¹)	(kg N ha ⁻¹)	(kg N ha ⁻¹)	EF _{N₂O}	EF _{NO}	EF _{N₂O+NO}
Pear	CK	5.92 ± 0.46 b	0.32 ± 0.07 b	6.24 ± 0.39 b			
	CF	14.25 ± 1.29 a	0.76 ± 0.03 a	15.00 ± 1.32 a	2.78	0.15	2.92
	COF	11.77 ± 2.04 a	0.66 ± 0.08 ab	12.42 ± 2.11 a	1.93	0.11	2.04
Citrus	CK	2.89 ± 1.55 a	0.33 ± 0.12 a	3.22 ± 1.45 a			
	CF	9.51 ± 3.75 a	0.64 ± 0.10 a	10.15 ± 3.83 a	2.21	0.10	2.31
	COF	7.35 ± 2.11 a	0.51 ± 0.05 a	7.86 ± 2.07 a	1.49	0.06	1.55

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