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4 **A comparison of methods to quantify greenhouse gas emissions of**
5 **cropping systems in LCA**
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10 Goglio P^a, Smith WN^b, Grant BB^b, Desjardins RL^b, Gao X^c, Hanis K^c, Tenuta M^c,
11 Campbell CA^b, McConkey BG^d, Nemecek T^e, Burgess PJ^a, Williams AG^a
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14
15
16 ^aSchool of Water, Energy and Environment, Cranfield University, Cranfield, Bedford,
17 MK43 0AL, UK
18

19
20 ^bOttawa Research and Development Centre, Agriculture and Agri-Food Canada, K.W.
21 Neatby Building, Ottawa, Ontario, Canada K1A 0C6
22

23
24 ^cCanada Research Chair in Applied Soil Ecology, Department of Soil Science,
25 University of Manitoba, 309 Ellis Building, 13 Freedman Crescent, Winnipeg,
26 Manitoba, Canada R3T 2N2;
27

28
29 ^dSwift Current Research Station, Swift Current Research Station, Semiarid Prairie
30 Agricultural Research Centre, Agriculture and Agri-Food Canada, Swift Current,
31 Saskatchewan, Canada S0E 1A0
32
33

34
35 ^eAgroscope, Institute for Sustainability Sciences, Reckenholzstrasse 191, CH-8046
36 Zürich, Switzerland
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45
46 *Corresponding author:

47 Pietro Goglio PhD

48 School of Water, Energy and Environment, Cranfield University, Cranfield, Bedford,
49 MK43 0AL, UK

50 Phone: 0044 (0) 1234 750111 ext 3221

51 Fax: 001 613 759 1432

52 E-mail: pietro.goglio@cranfield.ac.uk, pietro.goglio@gmail.com
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Abstract

Carbon dioxide and nitrous oxide are two important greenhouse gases (GHG) released from cropping systems. Their emissions can vary substantially with climate, soil, and crop management. While different methods are available to account for GHG emissions in life cycle assessments (LCA) of crop production, there are no standard procedures. In this study, the objectives were: (i) to compare several methods of estimating CO₂ and N₂O emissions for a LCA of cropping systems and (ii) to estimate the relative contribution of soil GHG emissions to the overall global warming potential (GWP) using results from a field experiment located in Manitoba, Canada. The methods were: (A) measurements; (B) Tier I and (C) Tier II IPCC (Intergovernmental panel on Climate Change) methodology, (D) a simple carbon model combined with Intergovernmental Panel for Climate Change (IPCC) Tier II methodology for soil N₂O emissions, and (E) the DNDC (DeNitrification DeComposition) agroecosystem model. The estimated GWPs (-7.2 to 17 Mg CO₂eq ha⁻¹ y⁻¹; -80 to 600 kg CO₂eq GJ⁻¹ y⁻¹) were similar to previous results in North America and no statistical difference was found between GWP based on methods D and E and GWP based on observations. The five methods gave estimates of soil CO₂ emissions that were not statistically different from each other, whereas for N₂O emissions only DNDC estimates were similar to observations. Across crop types, all methods gave comparable CO₂ and N₂O emission estimates for perennial and legume crops, but only DNDC gave similar results with respect to observations for both annual and cereal crops. Whilst the results should be confirmed for other locations, the agroecosystem model and method D can be used, at certainly one selected site, in place of observations for estimating GHGs in agricultural LCA.

Keywords: LCA, cropping systems, GHG, methods, model, measurements

1. Introduction

1 There is an increasing awareness that society needs to reduce greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions
2 (Philp, 2015). The global atmospheric concentrations of CO₂, and other greenhouse gases such
3 as N₂O and CH₄, are increasing and contributing to climate change (Hartmann et al., 2013;
4 Petersen et al., 2013). In contrast to industrial systems, GHG emissions from agriculture are
5 from non-point sources and have a high degree of variability due to climatic conditions, soil
6 type, and agricultural practices (Miller et al., 2006).

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12 There is potential for the agricultural sector to reduce GHG emissions, through soil carbon
13 sequestration (Lal, 2004; Paustian et al., 2016). Instead, soil CO₂ emissions arise from
14 decomposing plant residues, the mineralization of soil organic matter, and urea hydrolysis and
15 this is affected by soil temperature and water content, and the type of residue and tillage (Brady
16 and Weil, 2002; Paustian et al., 2016). Soil CO₂ emissions can be measured using
17 micrometeorological and chamber methods or estimated by measuring soil carbon change
18 (Chirinda et al., 2010; Dendooven et al., 2012; Fortin et al., 1996; Fuentes et al., 2012; Pattey et
19 al., 1993). Several agroecosystem models and simple C models have been developed to account
20 for soil C dynamics affecting soil CO₂ emissions, together with emission factor methods such as
21 the IPCC (Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change) Tier I and II methodologies (Aalde et
22 al., 2006, 2006; Goglio et al., 2015; Paustian et al., 2006).

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31 Soil N₂O emissions are primarily derived from denitrification and nitrification processes which
32 vary with nitrogen fertiliser and animal manure application, soil tillage and crop residue
33 management, and weather conditions (Saggar, 2010) and by secondary emissions related to
34 nitrate leaching and ammonia volatilisation (De Klein et al., 2006). Soil N₂O emissions, like
35 soil CO₂ emissions, show large spatial and temporal variability (Goglio et al., 2013;
36 Kariyapperuma et al., 2011; Uzoma et al., 2015). Methods used to measure N₂O emissions
37 include micrometeorological techniques, closed and open-chamber techniques (Laville et al.,
38 1999; Rochette and Eriksen-Hamel, 2008). IPCC Tier I and Tier II methodologies (De Klein et
39 al., 2006), and agroecosystem models such as DNDC (DeNitrification and DeComposition),
40 DayCent (the daily-time-step version of CENTURY), CERES-EGC (Crop Environment
41 REsource Synthesis- Environnement et grandes cultures), CropSyst (Cropping Systems
42 Simulation Model) and the DAISY model (soil-plant-atmosphere system model focusing on
43 agro-ecosystems) (Del Grosso et al., 2005; Gabrielle et al., 1998; Hansen et al., 2012; Jones and
44 Kiniry, 1986; Li et al., 1992, 1994; Parton et al., 1988; Zaher et al., 2013) can also be used to
45 estimate these emissions.

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1 production systems. A LCA seeks to identify the environmental impacts of all stages in the
2 production cycle and enables the evaluation of environmental impacts for comparative and
3 improvement purposes (Biswas et al., 2008). A full LCA of different agricultural land
4 management practices should consider changes in soil organic carbon (SOC), net CO₂
5 emissions, and N₂O emissions. Currently, there are no standard procedures to account for GHG
6 emissions in agricultural LCAs with some using IPCC methodologies and others using
7 agroecosystem models (Goglio et al., 2012, 2015; Kimming et al., 2011a; Smeets et al., 2009).
8 However, some research studies have demonstrated that IPCC methodologies poorly consider
9 crop management effects, climate and soil variability (Gabrielle and Gagnaire, 2008; Goglio et
10 al., 2014).

11 Several LCA studies have highlighted the compromise between accuracy and feasibility when
12 selecting methods to account for soil C and the need to consider local conditions to estimate
13 GHG emissions (Camargo et al., 2013; Garrigues et al., 2012; Goglio et al., 2015; MacWilliam
14 et al., 2014; Miller et al., 2006; Nemecek et al., 2014). In this study, the objectives were: (i) to
15 compare several methods of estimating CO₂ and N₂O emissions for a LCA of cropping systems
16 and (ii) to estimate the relative contribution of soil GHG emissions to the overall global
17 warming potential (GWP) using results from a field experiment located in Manitoba, Canada.
18 The methods to account for soil GHG emissions in agricultural LCA, compared in this study
19 were: (A) measurements; (B) Tier I and (C) Tier II IPCC methodologies, (D) a simple carbon
20 model combined with IPCC Tier II methodology for soil N₂O emissions, and (E) an
21 agroecosystem model (DNDC).

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Field experiment

22 A field experiment, described by Glenn et al. (2010, 2011, 2012) and Maas et al. (2013), at
23 Glenlea (49.64°N, 97.16°W), Manitoba, Canada employed micrometeorological techniques to
24 measure soil CO₂ and N₂O emissions over seven years. The soil particle size distribution was
25 60% clay, 35% silt and 5% sand and the mean soil organic carbon content was 3.2%. Two
26 cropping systems were established in two 200 m by 200 m plots (4 plots in total) between 2006
27 and 2012. An annual cropping system, referred to as cropping system “A”, and comprising
28 intensive cultivation, high levels of fertiliser use and a seven year rotation of annual crops was
29 established in two plots numbered 2 and 3 (Table 1). The rotation was: maize (*Zea mays* L.),
30 faba bean (*Vicia faba* var. *minor* L.), spring wheat (*Triticum aestivum* L.), canola (*Brassica*
31 *napus* L.), spring barley (*Hordeum vulgare* L.), spring wheat and then maize. A perennial
32 cropping system, referred to as cropping system “P”, and comprising a rotation of maize, faba
33 bean, four years of perennial cropping with alfalfa (*Medicago sativa* L.) and then maize was
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1 established in two plots numbered 1 and 4. The second treatment received only low mineral
2 fertiliser rates and the cultivation comprised reduced tillage except in 2012 (Table 1).
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4 **2.2. GHG flux measurements**

5 Method A used soil CO₂ and N₂O emissions measured with a micrometeorological technique
6 described by Glenn et al. (2010, 2011, 2012) and Maas et al. (2013). A micrometeorological
7 flux-gradient system was used for near continuous determination of N₂O emissions, net
8 ecosystem exchange and ecosystem respiration. Together with a sonic anemometer mounted in
9 plot 1 and 3, a tunable-diode-laser trace gas analyser was set inside a trailer located at the
10 junction of four plots, measuring mean CO₂ and N₂O concentration every 30 minutes with two
11 intakes mounted at the centre of each plot at different heights. Data gaps were normally shorter
12 than two consecutive days. The flux-gradient system revisited each plot every two hours and it
13 was assumed that the 30-min flux sample represents the full two hour period.
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21 Respiration was estimated using CO₂ flux measurements and a modified version of the standard
22 Fluxnet-Canada protocol (Glenn et al., 2010, 2011; Maas et al., 2013). The ecosystem exchange
23 was calculated in two steps. First, measurements of net ecosystem exchange during periods
24 when photosynthesis is known to be zero were used to calculate respiration. Next, respiration
25 during daytime or when there were gaps in the carbon dioxide flux were calculated through the
26 Fluxnet Canada Research Network algorithm (Barr et al., 2004). This method was used
27 previously for respiration and net ecosystem carbon dioxide exchange measurements at this site
28 (Glenn et al. 2010). In the case of soil N₂O emissions, missing data were gap filled through
29 linear interpolation of the N₂O fluxes. Missing data usually occurred when fluxes were
30 negligible thus they had little effect on the cumulative flux. Missing data were either caused by
31 instrument malfunction or calibration, quality-control issues, or when wind conditions were too
32 low for flux determination (Glenn et al., 2010). For the full study period, more than 50% of the
33 data were retained. The soil CO₂ emissions were then calculated by deducting the carbon
34 associated with yield from net ecosystem exchange, considering 42% of C content in the
35 harvested biomass (Brady and Weil, 2002). For both N₂O and CO₂ emissions, daily data was
36 summed over 1 year to estimate cumulative yearly values.
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48 **2.3. IPCC Tier I and Tier II methodologies**

49 Method B employs simple IPCC Tier I equations, incorporating default N₂O emission estimates
50 and soil carbon change factors. Globally available emission factors for agricultural systems are
51 coarsely differentiated between climate, soil characteristics, and crop management (Aalde et al.,
52 2006; Lasco et al., 2006; Paustian et al., 2006). Emission factors were selected on the basis of
53 the crop management and soil conditions for the field experiment. Tier II uses the same
54 approach as Tier I but applies emission estimates and stock change factors that are based on
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1 country- or region-specific data for the most important land-use and livestock categories. Higher
2 temporal and spatial resolution and more disaggregated activity data are typically used in Tier II
3 to correspond with country-specific coefficients for different regions (Lasco et al., 2006;
4 McConkey et al., 2007; Paustian et al., 2006; Rochette and Eriksen-Hamel, 2008). The
5 emissions factors for the Tier II methodology were selected on the basis of the region and the
6 land management adopted. Tier II emission factors were employed to account for N₂O and CO₂
7 emissions in method C and for soil N₂O emissions in method D (McConkey et al., 2007;
8 Rochette and Eriksen-Hamel, 2008; VandenBygaart et al., 2008). For Tier III, higher order
9 methods are used including models and inventory measurement systems tailored to address
10 national circumstances, repeated over time, and driven by high-resolution activity data and
11 disaggregated at sub-national level (Paustian et al., 2006). The inputs for Tier I and II
12 methodology for the cropping systems assessed included measured yield, soil carbon, urea
13 application, and crop management data.
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22 **2.4. Simple carbon model and agroecosystem model**

23 Method D used a simple carbon model, ICBM (Introductory Carbon Balance Model), which
24 was developed in Northern Europe by Andr n and K tterer (1997) and has been used in several
25 agricultural LCAs (Kimming et al., 2011a, 2011b). The model is a two-compartment first-order
26 kinetic model developed to quantify temporal soil C dynamics using annual time steps
27 (Congreves et al., 2015). For Canadian conditions, country-based parameters have been
28 developed for soil carbon dynamics (Bolinder et al., 2006, 2007). Similar data employed for the
29 IPCC Tier I and Tier II methodologies were used to run the ICBM model for the assessed crop
30 systems. Soil CO₂ emission estimates from ICBM were then combined with estimates of soil
31 N₂O emissions using the IPCC Tier II methodology for method D.
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39 Method E used an agroecosystem model (DNDC). DNDC was selected because it can
40 reasonably simulate soil temperature, soil water content, soil N and N₂O emissions for annual
41 crops (Uzoma et al., 2015). DNDC was originally developed to estimate N₂O emissions (Li et
42 al., 1992) and was later expanded to simulate soil C & N dynamics and CO₂ emissions (Li et al.,
43 1994). The model has been widely tested and developed for many soil types, climate conditions
44 and crop systems. Several regional versions are available on the Global Research Alliance
45 Modelling Platform (<http://gramp.org.uk/models/family/2>). In this study, the Canadian version
46 of the model was used (DNDCv.CAN) to represent crop production, soil C and N₂O emissions
47 for the cool Canadian climate (Grant et al., 2016; Kr bel et al., 2011; Smith et al., 2013). This
48 model version is based on DNDC version 9.5 and includes new empirical growth curves which
49 regulate water and N demand, the effects of temperature stress on growth, improvements in the
50 estimation of evapotranspiration, and a revised ammonia volatilization sub-model. DNDC was
51 first run for 10 years to stabilize C&N pools and then simulations were continued for a further 7
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1 years from 2006 until 2012 to estimate soil GHG emissions for each experimental cropping
2 system. The climate, crop and soil inputs for the simulations were obtained from Uzoma et al.
3 (2015).
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5 **2.5. LCA description and data treatment**

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7 The LCA of the cropping systems at the Glenlea site was carried out with the objectives of
8 assessing the GHG emissions of cropping systems per 1 ha of land and per 1 GJ of gross energy
9 output. The LCA was performed using the Crop.LCA tool
10 (<https://bitbucket.org/croplcateam/crop.lca>). For this study, the impact category considered was
11 the 100 year time horizon global warming potential (GWP) based on the IPCC 5th Assessment
12 report impact factors (Myhre et al., 2013).
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17 The system boundary included the agricultural phase and all the upstream processes (e.g.
18 machinery production, transport, maintenance and repairs; fertiliser manufacture and transport;
19 pesticide and seed production and transport; fuel production, distribution and consumption) of
20 the agricultural phase in agreement with Goglio et al. (2012, 2014). The only downstream
21 process considered was farm transport up to the farm centre (i.e. location of the main farm
22 facilities).
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28 Data for crop management for the field experiment was integrated with statistical data and
29 expert opinion interviews. Fuel consumption for field cultivation and farm transport was
30 calculated on the basis of power and weight of tractors, self-propelled and operating machinery
31 (Dyer and Desjardins, 2003, 2005). Data for upstream processes were taken from different
32 database sources (Ecoinvent, 2015; (S&T)2, 2014) and from a survey of machinery
33 manufacture, agricultural products suppliers and statistical data in agreement with Audsley et al.
34 (1997), Brentrup et al. (2004), Goglio et al. (2014), ISO (2006a, 2006b, 2013), carrying out a
35 site-specific assessment considering local data (Potting and Hauschild, 2006). Soil GHG
36 emissions obtained as outputs from the different methods were fed as input in the Crop.LCA
37 tool to carry out the agricultural LCA.
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45 Using the Crop.LCA results, a contribution analysis was carried out in order to assess the
46 contribution of soil CO₂ emissions and N₂O emissions on the overall GWP per ha of the
47 agricultural phase in agreement with Goglio et al. (2014), ISO, (2006a, 2006b).
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51 **2.6. Statistical analysis**

52 A statistical analysis was carried out, using the R software (R Development Core Team, 2005),
53 with three aims: (i) to assess whether there were significant differences among the estimated
54 GWP derived from the methods to account for soil CO₂ and N₂O emissions, however only
55 comparisons with observations (method A) were reported (ii) to test the correlation between
56 measurements and model/emission factor results, and iii) to assess the performance of the
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1 different methods for different types of crops (e.g. cereals such as maize, barley, spring wheat;
2 legumes such as faba bean and alfalfa; annual crops such as cereals, canola and faba beans; and
3 perennial crops such as alfalfa).
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5 After testing each dataset for normality, we used a Friedman test followed by pair-wise non-
6 parametric comparisons, considering each year-plot combination separately (Siegel and
7 Castellan, 1988). The correlation among different methods results for GWP was tested using the
8 Kendall correlation test (Rosner, 2011) due to the large number of ties.
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13 **3. Results**

14 **3.1. Whole cropping system**

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18 There was substantial inter-annual variation in the estimated GWP of the cropping systems on a
19 per hectare (Figure 1a) and on a per GJ output basis (Figure 1b). GWP obtained with
20 measurements (method A) ranged from -7.2 to 17 Mg of CO₂eq ha⁻¹ y⁻¹ and -80 to 600 kg of
21 CO₂eq GJ⁻¹ y⁻¹. The GWP values obtained with other estimation methods (B, C, D, E) varied
22 from -5.9 to 9.3 Mg of CO₂eq ha⁻¹ y⁻¹ and from -67 to 440 kg of CO₂eq GJ⁻¹ y⁻¹. For GWP per
23 hectare, there were significant (p<0.05) differences (Table 2) considering the whole cropping
24 system between the observations (method A) and the results using emission factor methods (B,
25 C). By contrast the results from Method D and the DNDC model (method E) were similar to
26 field observations (method A) (Table 2). A pattern similar to GWP per ha was observed for
27 GWP per GJ for the whole cropping system (Table 2); however the overall results were affected
28 by the variability of both soil GHG emissions and yields (Fig. 1b). None of the methods based
29 on either emission factors (method B, C) or models (method D, E) tested showed significant
30 correlation with observations (with p<0.05) with both functional units. The relative
31 contribution of soil CO₂ and N₂O emissions to the overall GWP was larger than 21% for both
32 gases.
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43 The soil CO₂ emissions estimated using the five different methods were not significantly
44 different (Fig. 2a, Table 2), and there was no statistical (p<0.05) correlation between the results
45 from observation and the other four methods. The soil N₂O emissions estimated using Method
46 B, C and D (Table 2) were significantly different from the measured values (Method A)(Fig.
47 2b). By contrast the results from the DNDC model were similar to those observed. There was a
48 significant (p<0.05) positive correlation between observations and IPCC Tier I, and between the
49 observations and DNDC results.
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56 **3.2. Crop effects**

57 When the results were considered for individual crop types, the estimated GWP per hectare
58 indicated that Method C, D, and E gave similar results to the observations (Table 2). The IPCC
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1 Tier 1 method also gave similar GWP per hectare results as the field observations for the
2 perennial and legume crops. However method B resulted in different estimates of GWP per
3 hectare, compared to the field observations, for annual and cereal crops (Table 2).
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5 There were no significant ($p < 0.05$) differences in GWP per GJ of energy output between
6 emission factor/model methods (method B, C, D, E) and field observations for the perennial
7 crop (Table 2). There was also no difference ($p < 0.05$) in the GWP per GJ estimated with
8 observations and model based methods (D, E) for annual crops. However for the same crops,
9 the GWP per GJ estimates using emission factor method (B, C) varied from the observed
10 estimates (Table 2); while for cereals only GWP estimates using method B resulted in different
11 ($p < 0.05$) from GWP with observations. Method B and D also resulted in different ($p < 0.05$)
12 estimates of GWP per GJ, compared to those obtained from field observations, for legume crops
13 (Table 2).
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21 In contrast to GWP, the soil CO₂ emissions for the methods tested did not indicate any
22 significant ($p < 0.05$) differences even when considering different crop types (Table 2). The
23 emission factor (method B, C) and model methods (method D, E) for estimating soil N₂O
24 emissions for the perennial crop and legumes gave similar results to those derived from field
25 observations. However for annual crops and cereals, only DNDC gave similar results to
26 observations; while there were significant differences between the field observations and the
27 N₂O emissions estimated from Method B, C and D.
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37 **4. Discussion**

38 **4.1. Assessment of methods, soil CO₂ and N₂O emissions**

39 This assessment of methods highlights both the difficulty of estimating GHG emissions from
40 agroecosystems and of choosing the appropriate estimation method. Most often the choice of
41 method is determined by the data availability and the familiarity of the user with a given tool or
42 method, and the availability of experimental measurements (Goglio et al., 2015). The two most
43 complex methods used here were Method D (comprising the ICBM model in combination with
44 IPCC Tier II methodology for N₂O) and Method E using the DNDC agroecosystem model.
45 Methods D-E produced similar results to observations for the cropping systems assessed. Hence
46 these results support their use in place of observations, as practised in existing studies (Gabrielle
47 and Gagnaire, 2008; Goglio et al., 2014; Kim et al., 2009a, 2009b; Zaher et al., 2013). However
48 these more complex methods require model calibration using local datasets, which are often
49 unavailable, and considerable expertise and time (Del Grosso et al., 2008; Goglio et al., 2015;
50 Wallach et al., 2006). Between method D and E, as previously discussed for soil C in
51 agricultural LCA by Goglio et al., (2015), the use of the agroecosystem model (method E) is
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1 more challenging than the simple carbon model (method D) due to a larger data and expertise
2 requirements. Instead, for simpler methods such as IPCC Tier I (method B) method, GWP of
3 cereals and annual crops was statistically different from GWP estimated using observations
4 (method A) with both functional units. This can be attributed to the inability of global emission
5 factors to capture local conditions, as previously highlighted by Gabrielle and Gagnaire (2008)
6 for soil N₂O emissions. However, the large interannual variability of GWP with regards to
7 legumes and perennials highly affected the outcomes of the statistical test on ha basis and made
8 the comparison among methods particularly challenging.
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13 In our study GWP results were accompanied by large variability due to crop management and
14 climate conditions in agreement with Kim et al. (2009), who assessed maize cultivation in
15 different locations in the corn belt and Camargo et al. (2013), who estimated the environmental
16 impact of 13 crops which could be grown in US conditions, including wheat, maize, alfalfa and
17 rapeseed. For both functional units and considering similar crops, GWP estimates (-7.2 to 17
18 Mg CO₂eq ha⁻¹ y⁻¹; -80 to 600 kg CO₂eq GJ⁻¹ y⁻¹) occurred over a larger range in comparison to
19 several studies carried out in North America (-6.3 to 5.2 Mg CO₂eq ha⁻¹ y⁻¹; 16 to 70.2 kg
20 CO₂eq GJ⁻¹ y⁻¹) (Dendooven et al., 2012; Dyer et al., 2010; Goglio et al., 2014; Kim et al.,
21 2009b; MacWilliam et al., 2014; Shrestha et al., 2013; Zaher et al., 2013).
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29 Variability in GWP was primarily a result of the large variability in soil CO₂ measurements
30 from the flux gradient study, which was previously highlighted for this site (Glenn et al., 2010).
31 In fact it is known that techniques for measuring CO₂ flux and soil carbon can produce highly
32 variable results and there can be inaccuracies in quantifying net CO₂ emissions on a site specific
33 basis (Goglio et al., 2015; Smith et al., 2012). In particular for 2007, soil CO₂ emissions
34 resulted particularly high, this was previously discussed in Glenn et al., (2010) and was
35 associated to poor establishment of the faba bean. The results show that there was no
36 statistically significant difference between the four emission factor/model methods of estimating
37 soil CO₂ emissions and the site measurements. This is particularly important, considering that
38 the soil CO₂ emissions contribution were very large, as it has been highlighted in other
39 research (Goglio et al., 2014), and these emissions offset soil N₂O emissions.
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48 For the N₂O emissions, the outputs from the DNDC agroecosystem model were closer to the
49 observed emissions than the estimates from other methods. This indicates that DNDC (and
50 potentially other agroecosystem models) could be used to estimate soil N₂O emissions for LCA,
51 as previously carried out in other agricultural LCAs (Gabrielle and Gagnaire, 2008; Goglio et
52 al., 2014; Kim et al., 2009a, 2009b; Zaher et al., 2013). The results also show high soil N₂O
53 emissions in 2012 which were associated to microtopography and poor drainage as reported by
54 Uzoma et al., (2015). For these site-specific conditions, using regional estimation methods,
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1 such as IPCC Tier I and Tier II, can be challenging when estimating N₂O emissions (Aalde et
2 al., 2006; De Klein et al., 2006; Lasco et al., 2006; McConkey et al., 2007; Paustian et al., 2006;
3 Rochette et al., 2008; VandenBygaart et al., 2008).

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5 N₂O emissions also contributed significantly to the GWP. The average contribution of N₂O was
6 33% higher than the N₂O contribution reported by Zaher et al. (2013) for cropping systems in
7 Eastern Washington state with winter wheat, spring wheat and spring barley. However, in our
8 study, more complex cropping systems in continental climate with a longer period of snow
9 cover were assessed and these differences in climate and crops may have affected soil GHG
10 emissions (Goglio et al., 2014; Paustian et al., 2016; Saggar, 2010; Wagner-Riddle et al., 2007)
11 and the relative contribution of N₂O towards GWP.
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17 **4.2. Performance of methods for estimating soil GHG emissions by crop type**

18 The emission factor/model methods were also tested against observations to investigate their
19 performance by crop type. Model based methods (D, E) produced GWP estimates similar to
20 observations for cereals, perennial and annual crops. For the estimation of GWP per ha in LCA,
21 all the methods were found to produce insignificant differences for legumes and perennial crops
22 (Table 2). Thus, it would be reasonably appropriate to employ the most applicable method for
23 these crops, as suggested by previous research (Garrigues et al., 2012; Goglio et al., 2015) for
24 soil C accounting in agricultural LCA. The similar statistical performance may be due to the
25 large variability in observations which can make it difficult to distinguish a real pattern for both
26 soil CO₂ and N₂O emissions (Wallach et al., 2006). The high variability of observations could be
27 related to the chosen measurement techniques (Glenn et al., 2010; Pattey et al., 1993, 2007) and
28 the potential deficiencies associated with the chosen methods. Future studies should be
29 conducted towards assessing the uncertainty of the monitoring techniques (Paustian et al.,
30 2016), alongside model validation studies to investigate accounting procedures which better
31 distinguish measurement variability from lack of accuracy. Assessing the uncertainty of the
32 monitoring was outside the scope of the present study.
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45 As indicated in Table 2, the methods tested here were equivalent to each other in predicting soil
46 CO₂ emissions despite differences in complexity and applicability, as highlighted by Goglio et
47 al. (2015). In contrast, the agroecosystem model performed better than did the other methods for
48 estimating soil N₂O emissions for cereals and annuals; while all the methods tested here were
49 equivalent to each other for legumes and perennials.
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54 **4.3. Future perspectives**

55 Whilst the above conclusions may be appropriate for systems with similar soil-climate
56 conditions to the present study, there is still a need to test the accuracy of the methods
57 considered here for areas with differing climate and soil conditions. In some cases, the use of a
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1 model may be supported by previous LCA studies and literature in similar field conditions. As
2 discussed by Goglio et al., (2015); certain methods or models whilst potentially being accurate,
3 are not applicable in certain geographical areas due to lack of data or user expertise.
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5 This research highlights the need to test GHG accounting methods for different soil-climate
6 conditions in order to gain an improved understanding of the present findings because soil borne
7 GHG emissions are highly dependent on local soil-crop-climate conditions (Hillier et al., 2012;
8 Paustian et al., 2016; Saggart, 2010). As suggested by Goglio et al. (2015), a higher availability
9 of datasets for different cropping systems contributes in developing the LCA methodology and
10 allows a better benchmarking among cropping systems and crop managements. Indeed, a larger
11 number of datasets improves the life cycle inventory of crops and cropping systems available in
12 LCA databases and national GHG accounting systems. Further work is also necessary to
13 understand the appropriate compromise between the feasibility and accuracy of methods to
14 account for soil GHG emissions in agricultural LCA.
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25 **5. Conclusions**

26 This research compared and discussed methods to account for GHG emissions in the assessment
27 of the sustainability of cropping systems within the LCA framework. It demonstrated that
28 estimates from a properly calibrated agroecosystem model or a simple C model combined with
29 IPCC Tier II methodology can be substituted for observations to account for GWP in LCA of
30 cropping systems and should be preferred to other methods. It also showed that estimates of
31 CO₂ and N₂O emissions using the DNDC model were similar to field observations. For
32 leguminous and perennial crops, each of the four GHG accounting methods tested, based on
33 emission factors and models, gave similar GWP results to field observations which suggest that
34 simple methods could be used in place of more complex methods. By contrast for annual crops,
35 there was a benefit from model based methods.
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44 It is anticipated that the present LCA results are generally applicable for similar geographical
45 soil-climate conditions and crops, but further investigations are needed to validate these findings
46 in other geographical areas.
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Figure captions

Figure 1 GWP per ha (a) and (b) per GJ of energy output for the annual (A, plot 2 and 3) and perennial (P, plot 1 and 4) cropping systems

Figure 2 Soil CO₂ (a) and N₂O (b) emissions per ha per year estimated with the 5 different methods tested output for the annual (A, plot 2 and 3) and perennial (P, plot 1 and 4) cropping systems

Figure 1

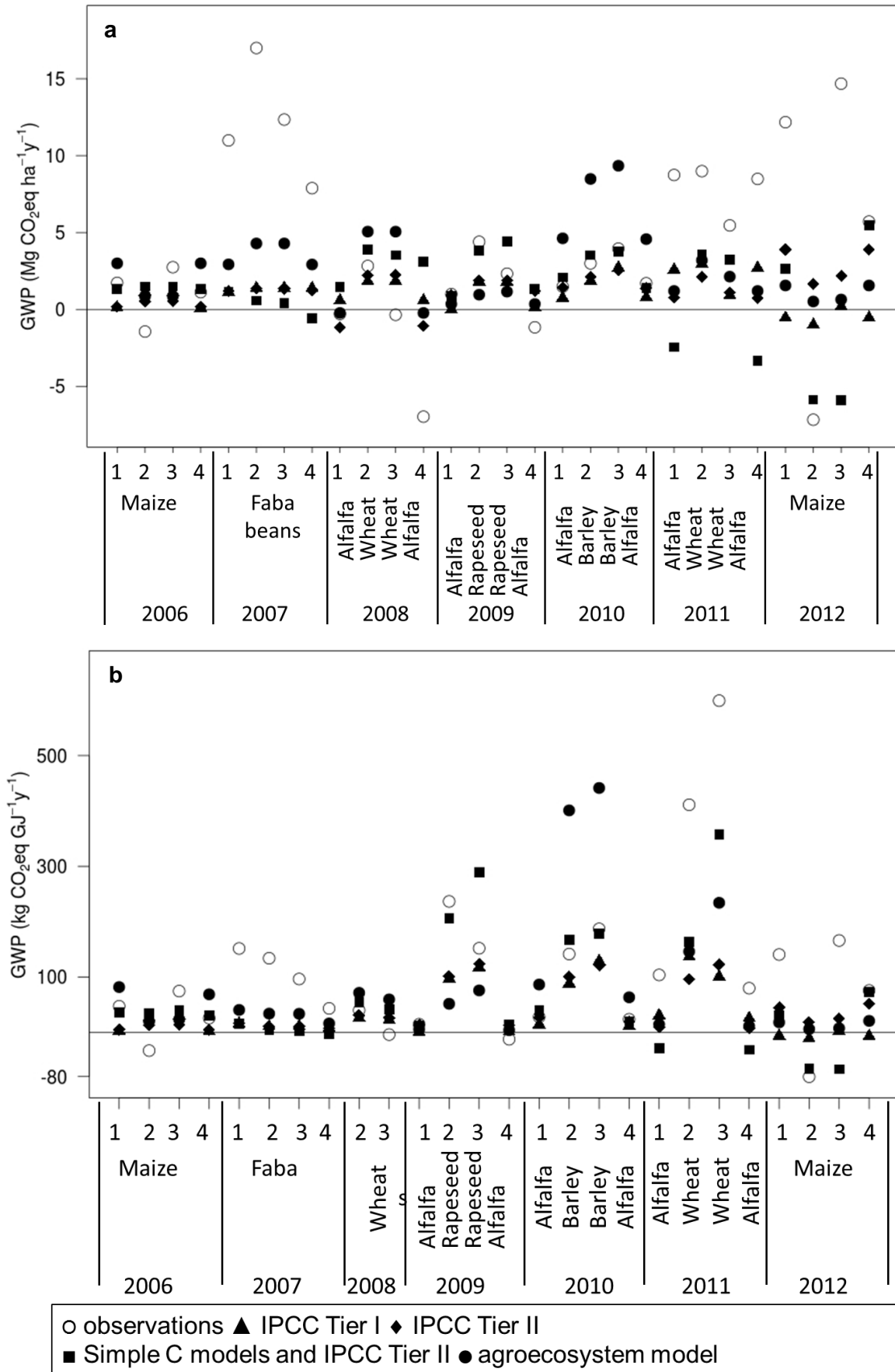
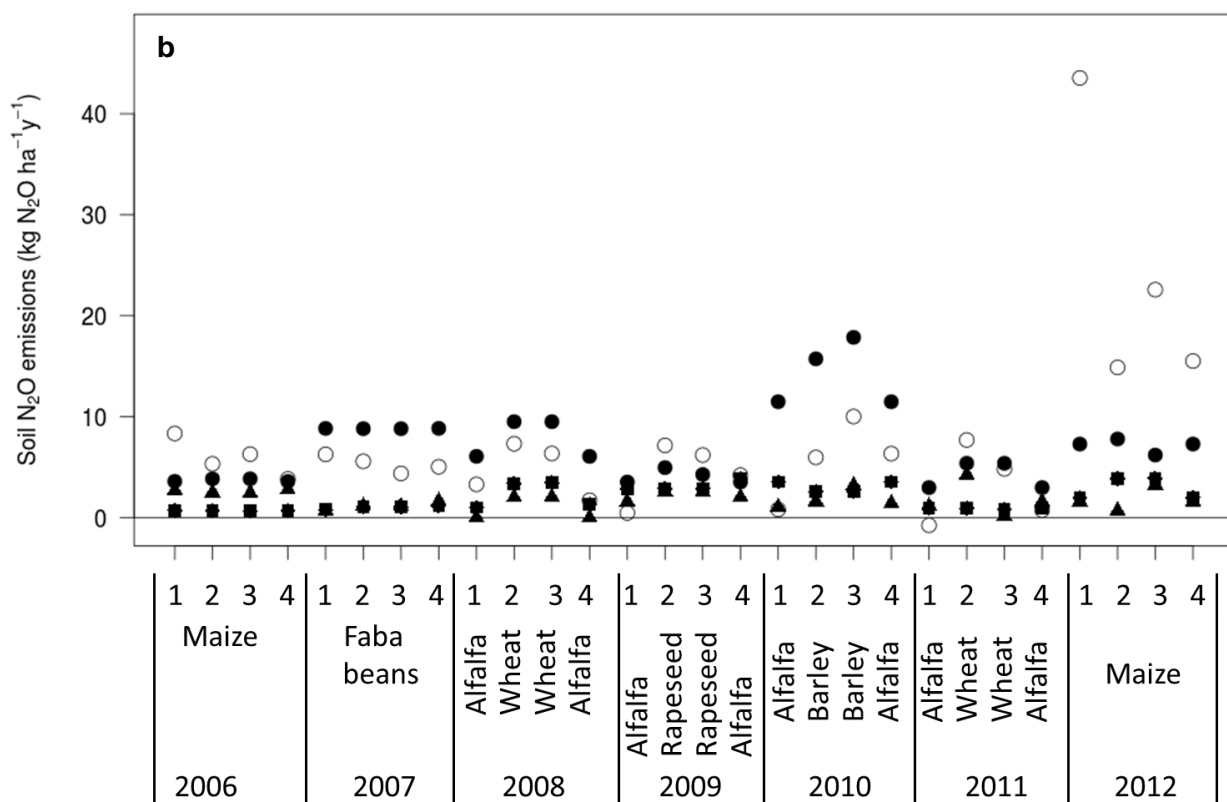
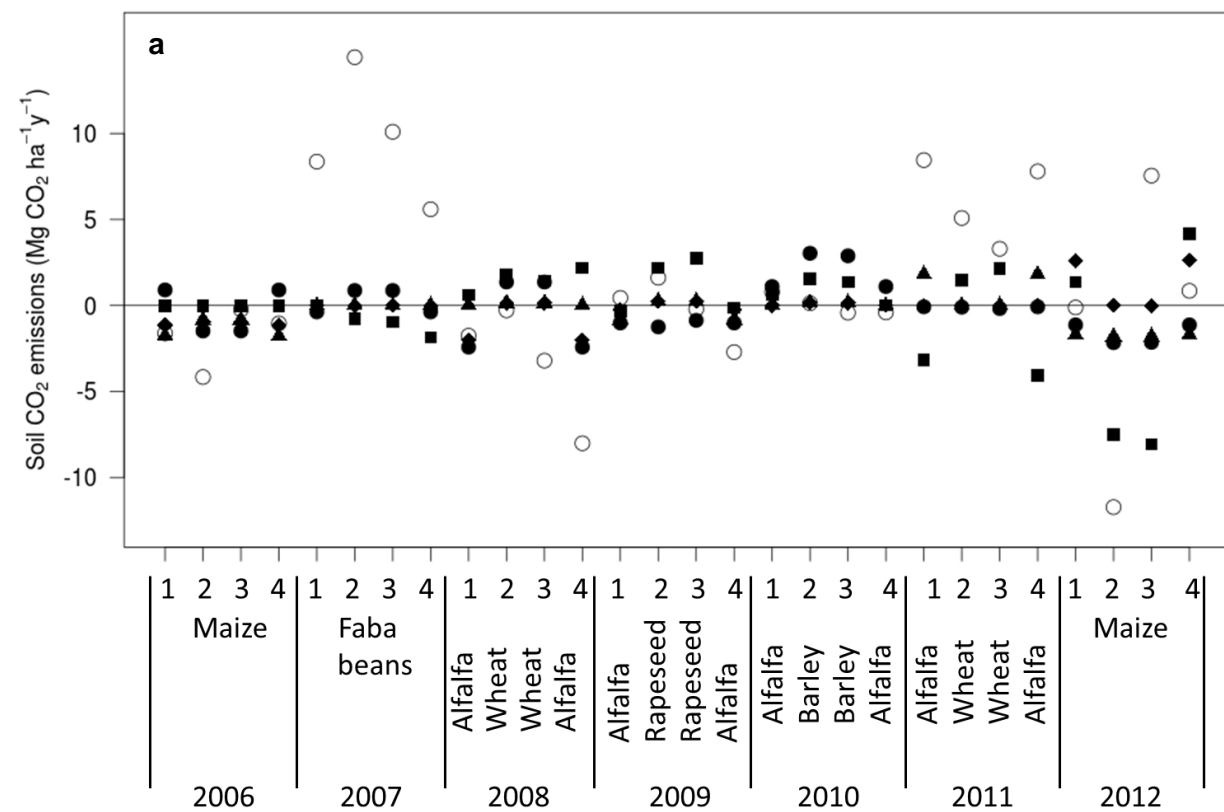


Figure 2



○ observations ▲ IPCC Tier I ◆ IPCC Tier II
 ■ Simple C models and IPCC Tier II ● agroecosystem model

Table 1 Summary of the characteristics of the cropping systems assessed (Note: The fertilizer cells contain the amount of fertiliser spread and nutrient concentration)

Year	Cropping system	Crops ^a	Tillage			Fertilizer (kg ha ⁻¹)	Total N applied as mineral fertiliser (kg ha ⁻¹)
			Number of disk harrowing per year	Number of spring tine harrowing	Number of heavy harrow passes		
2006	A	maize	2	1	3	180 NPKS 32-25-10-10; 112 Urea 46-0-0-0	109
	P	maize	1	2	1	180 NPKS 32-25-10-10; 112 Urea 46-0-0-0	109
2007	A	faba bean	0	1	1		
	P	faba bean	0	1	0		
2008	A	spring wheat	1	1	3	213 NP 43-10-0-0	92
	P	alfalfa	0	0	0		
2009	A	canola		1	1	317 Urea 46-0-0-0	146
2009	P	alfalfa	0	0	0		
2010	A	spring barley		0	2	212 Urea 46; 121 Anhydrous ammonia 82-0-0-0 (just plot 3)	98 + 100 (just plot 3)
	P	alfalfa	0	0	0		
2011	A	spring wheat		1	1	121+194 Anhydrous ammonia 82-0-0-0 ^b	100 + 160 ^b
	P	alfalfa	1	1	1		
2012	A	maize		0	1	64 ammonium polyphosphate 10-34-0-0; 194 Anhydrous ammonia 82-0-0-0 (just plot 3)	6+160 (just plot 3)
	P	maize	0	0	1	64 ammonium polyphosphate 10-34-0-0; 123 Urea 46-0-0-0	63

^a maize (*Zea mays* L.); spring wheat (*Triticum aestivum* L.); canola (*Brassica napus* L.); spring barley (*Hordeum vulgare* L.); faba bean (*Vicia Faba* var. *minor* L.)

^b two separate applications on plot 2

Table 2 Significance table for the post-hoc non parametric paired comparisons indicating if results from emission factor/model methods (methods B, C, D, E) and observations (obs, method A) are significantly different for the whole cropping system and by crop type for GWP per ha, GWP per GJ, soil CO₂ emissions and soil N₂O emissions (ns, not significant; *: significant at 0.05 level; ** significant at 0.01 level, * significant at 0.001 level. Perennial refers to alfalfa; annuals refers to maize, spring wheat, barley, canola and faba beans; cereals refers to maize, barley, and spring wheat; legumes refers to faba beans and alfalfa)**

Parameter	Crop groups	Obs (A) vs IPCC Tier I (B) ^a	Obs (A) vs IPCC Tier II (C) ^a	Obs (A) vs ICBM-IPCC Tier II (D) ^a	Obs (A) vs DNDC (E) ^a
GWP per ha	Perennial ^b	ns	ns	ns	ns
	Annuals	0.007**	ns	ns	ns
	Cereals	0.023*	ns	ns	ns
	Legumes ^b	ns	ns	ns	ns
	Whole cropping system	0.001**	0.015*	ns	ns
GWP per GJ	Perennial ^b	ns	ns	ns	ns
	Annuals	<0.001***	0.023*	ns	ns
	Cereals	0.024*	ns	ns	ns
	Legumes	0.038*	ns	0.025*	ns
	Whole cropping system	<0.001***	0.01*	ns	ns
Soil CO ₂ emissions per ha	Perennial ^b	ns	ns	ns	ns
	Annuals ^b	ns	ns	ns	ns
	Cereals ^b	ns	ns	ns	ns
	Legumes ^b	ns	ns	ns	ns
	Whole cropping system	ns	ns	ns	ns
Soil N ₂ O emissions per ha	Perennial ^c	ns	ns	ns	ns
	Annuals	<0.001***	<0.001***	<0.001***	ns
	Cereals	<0.001***	<0.001***	<0.001***	ns
	Legumes	ns	ns	ns	ns
	Whole cropping system	<0.001***	<0.001***	<0.001***	ns

^aThe letters in brackets indicate the method as described in the objectives of the paper

^bThe Friedman test resulted not significant, therefore no significant difference were found among methods

^cThe Friedman test resulted significant, but specific comparisons against observations were not significant, while other comparison were significant (for instance: IPCC Tier I vs DNDC)

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Goglio, Pietro

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