

**Original Research Article****Soil Carbon and Nitrogen Mineralization and Crop Parameters in Typical Maize-Bean****Intercropping in Western Kenya****ABSTRACT**

Smallholder farmers in Sub-Saharan Africa face many challenges associated with nutrient-poor soils and frequent weather-related crop failures. Little is known about the impact of current tillage intensive crop management on seasonal changes in soil organic matter (SOM) mineralization and renewal. Farmers in western Kenya intercrop maize (*Zea mays L.*) and common beans (*Phaseolus vulgaris L.*) using inversion-type tillage and low fertilizer inputs. At high elevation crops are grown during one long growing season and twice per year during long and short rains at low elevation. Growing crops twice necessitates frequent land preparation and soil disturbance. The aim of this study was to assess SOM mineralization and crop performance in typical maize-bean production under double cropping (Bungoma) and single cropping (Trans-Nzoia) systems during long rains (LR), short rains (SR) and fallow period (FP). Sites in Bungoma and Trans-Nzoia were sampled three times per year for three years. Soils were analyzed for potentially mineralizable nitrogen (PMN), ammonium (NH<sub>4</sub>), nitrate (NO<sub>3</sub>), water filled pore space (WFPS), nitrous oxide (N<sub>2</sub>O), methane (CH<sub>4</sub>) and carbon dioxide (CO<sub>2</sub>). Results demonstrated significant increases in PMN, NH<sub>4</sub> N<sub>2</sub>O and CO<sub>2</sub> during SR in Bungoma suggesting that additional tillage in support of the second crop facilitated SOM mineralization and potential losses. Soils in Trans-Nzoia also showed increases in NH<sub>4</sub>, NO<sub>3</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>O during SR but the magnitude of these changes were lower compared with Bungoma. High carbon (C) and nitrogen (N) mineralization likely did not support annual SOM renewal and crop productivity further

25 demonstrated by low soil total C and N and low cumulative crop yields in Bungoma. Typical  
26 crop production may become unsustainable in the long-term, thus considering alternatives such  
27 as edible cover crops and reducing tillage should become a necessity. Particular attention should  
28 concentrate on designing appropriate management strategies for growing crops during SR in  
29 Bungoma.

30

31 **Keywords:** long rain season; nutrient cycling; short rain season; soil disturbance; Sub-Saharan  
32 Africa; Sustainability of crop production; tillage disturbance

## 33 1. INTRODUCTION

34

35 Smallholder farmers in Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA) face numerous challenges associated  
36 with nutrient-poor soils and high climatic variability [1]. These challenges can  
37 impact agroecosystem capacity to maintain and restore soil fertility in support of annual maize  
38 (*Zea mays L.*) and common bean (*Phaseolus vulgaris L.*) production. Better understanding of  
39 how typical, widespread farming practices drive seasonal changes to soil organic matter (SOM)  
40 mineralization is needed to support the development of alternative cropping strategies for better  
41 soil resource protection [2].

42 In much of SSA, maize and common beans are intercropped and managed with intensive  
43 deep tillage using hand hoes and animal drawn moldboard plows. Farmers intercrop maize with  
44 beans to intensify production and benefit from diverse plant life strategies of the two crops [3].  
45 For example, beans fix atmospheric nitrogen (N) that ultimately contributes to soil N and  
46 benefits maize [4] while maize provides shading and protection of bean plants from occasional  
47 hailstorms. Majority of the area has bimodal rainfall that delivers on average 1000 to 1600 mm of

48 rain annually. Low elevation areas (below 1500 meters) experience warm temperatures which  
49 allow maize and beans complete their growing cycles much faster than at high elevation [5]. This  
50 in combination with bimodal rainfall, permit farmers to plant crops twice per year, during two  
51 rainy seasons known as the “long” and “short” rains. Planting during short rains occurs despite  
52 high variability of a rainfall that often results in frequent crop loss [6]. However, growing crops  
53 twice a year necessitates more frequent land cultivation for planting and weeding, which may  
54 ultimately result in limited land rest and annual SOM recovery [7]. Research in SSA has shown  
55 that deep tillage contributes to low nutrient retention of already nutrient depleted acidic soils [8].  
56 For example, Smalling and Fresco [9] reported loss of  $30\text{kg ha}^{-1}\text{ N}$  in form of  $\text{NO}_3$  annual from  
57 cultivated fields in SSA. Many factors may affect high soil nutrient variability in these regions  
58 and factors such as topography and management are one of the leading causes [10].

59 Soil inorganic and labile organic N in conjunction with greenhouse gas (GHG) fluxes are  
60 robust indices of soil nutrient status and soil response to disturbance [11]. When coupled with soil  
61 inorganic N concentrations, the measurements of potentially mineralizable N (PMN), carbon  
62 dioxide ( $\text{CO}_2$ ), methane ( $\text{CH}_4$ ) and nitrous oxide ( $\text{N}_2\text{O}$ ) fluxes are of particular value because all  
63 these compounds are biogenically produced by soil microorganisms that use SOM as their  
64 substrate during decomposition and mineralization [12].

65 The aim of this study was to assess SOM mineralization and crop performance in typical  
66 maize-bean production under double cropping and single cropping systems during long rains  
67 (LR), short rains (SR) and fallow period (FP). Our overall hypothesis was that double cropping  
68 drives much greater SOM mineralization compared with single cropping and the C and N losses  
69 are much higher during the short rains. Better understanding of the consequences of typical crop

70 growing on soil will facilitate development of alternatives aiming to improve soil quality, crop  
71 productivity and ultimately agroecosystem health.

72

## 73 **2. MATERIALS AND METHODS**

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### 75 **2.1 Site Description**

76 The experiment was carried out for three years starting in May 2011 at two research  
77 stations in western Kenya: the lowland Mabanga Farmers Training Centre in Bungoma  
78 County and highland Manor House Agricultural Centre in Trans-Nzoia County. The Bungoma  
79 study site (00°35'N, 34°34'E; 1200 mm MAP; 27°C MAT; referred to here as Bungoma) is  
80 located at 1433 meters elevation in the lower midland agro-ecological zone suitable for two crop  
81 growing seasons annually [13]. The Trans-Nzoia study site (01°01' N, 35° 00' E; 1300 mm MAP;  
82 20°C MAT; referred to here as Trans-Nzoia) is located at 1890 meters elevation in the upper  
83 midland agro-ecological zone suitable for one crop growing season annually [13]. Soils in both  
84 locations are clay loams or sandy clay loams classified as ferralsols dominated by kaolinite clays  
85 with high iron and aluminum oxides contents [14-15]. Soil physical and chemical properties are  
86 presented in Table 1.

87 Long rains occur between late March through July, and short rains occur from August  
88 through November. Approximately 60 to 70% of annual precipitation occurs during the LR [16].  
89 December through March is referred to as the fallow period (FP) and receives very little rainfall.  
90 More information on seasonal climate and associated farming practices are shown in Fig. 1. Daily  
91 precipitation, maximum and minimum air temperatures were monitored during the experiment  
92 using weather stations equipped with data loggers (Hobo® Weather Station, Onset Computer

93 Corp, Cape Cod, Massachusetts) at each location. Cumulative monthly precipitation and monthly  
 94 average air temperatures for the study periods are shown in Fig. 2.

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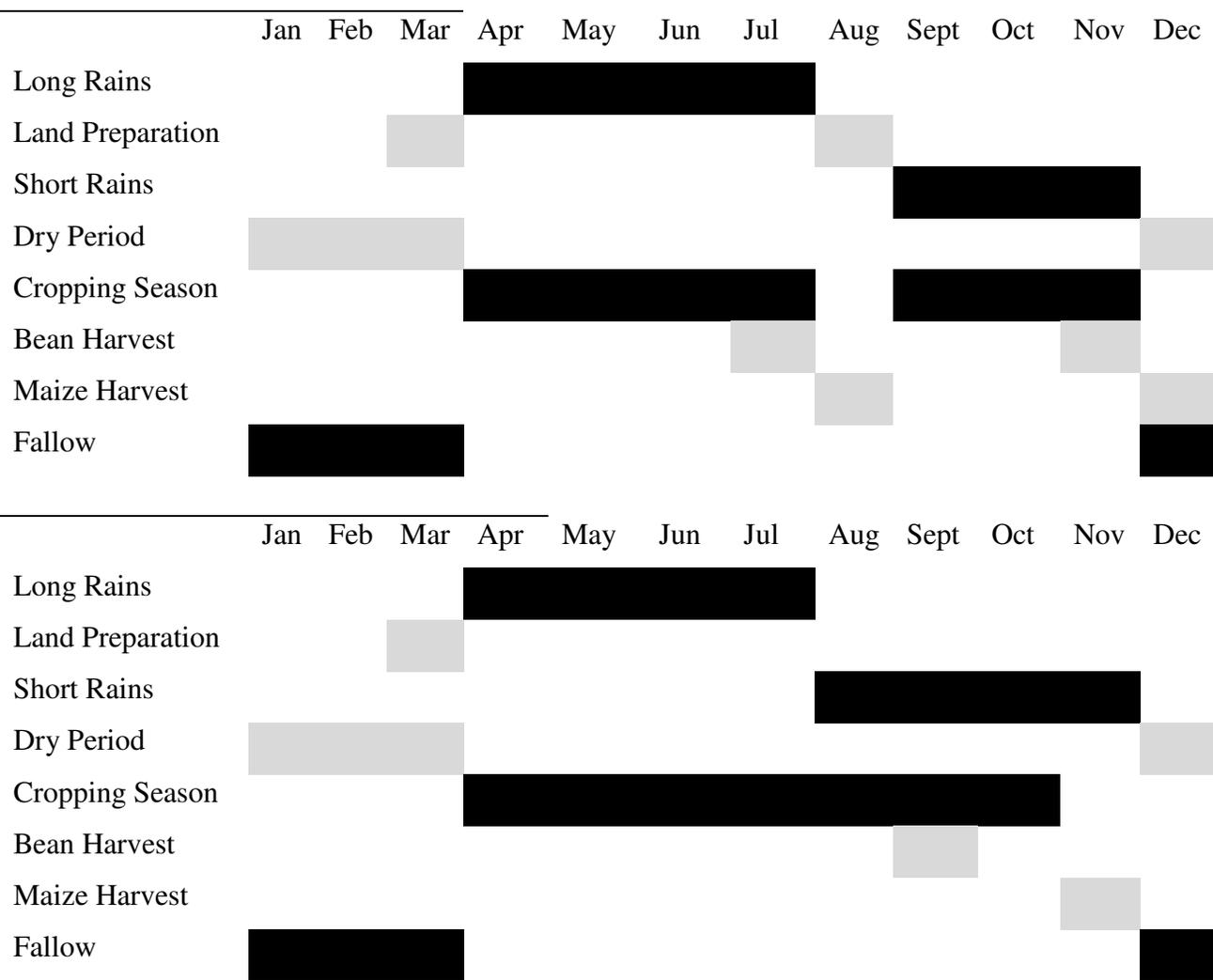
97 **Table 1** Soil (0-15 cm) physical characteristics for Bungoma and Trans-Nzoia sites.

Soil Properties	Bungoma	Trans-Nzoia
Bulk density (g m <sup>-3</sup> )	1.7	1.6
Clay (%)	36	28
Silt (%)	16	20
Sand (%)	48	52
Soil texture	Clay loam	Sandy clay loam

98

99 At each study site a series of experimental plots (0.36 hectares in size) were managed in  
 100 accordance with typical farmer practices. Land preparation involved inversion-type tillage  
 101 using an animal drawn moldboard plow and a hand hoe (Trans-Nzoia) or a hand hoe only  
 102 (Bungoma). These two tillage implements exert comparable soil disturbance by inverting soil to  
 103 20 to 25 cm depth. All fields were planted with recommended maize and common bean varieties  
 104 sourced from Kenya Seed Company Ltd. Maize hybrid H513 suitable for low elevation was  
 105 intercropped with Rosecoco-GLP2 bean (locally known as ‘Nyayo’) in Bungoma during LR and  
 106 SR seasons. Maize hybrid 614D suitable for high elevation was intercropped with Rosecoco-  
 107 GLP2 bean in Trans-Nzoia.

**Bungoma (two growing seasons)**



108

109 **Fig. 1** Diagram representing timeframe of cropping seasons and associated management practices for Bungoma and Trans-Nzoia sites

110 Planting for LR season in Bungoma and for the entire year in Trans-Nzoiawas done in mid-April  
111 and for SR season in Bungoma in mid-September. Maize was planted at 53,500 plants per  
112 hectare and spaced 75cm x30 cm. Beans were planted at 89,000 plants per hectare in between  
113 maize rows and spaced at 15 cm within rows. More information on plant parameters is provided  
114 in Table 2. Weeding was done three times during each growing season by deep tillage with a  
115 hand hoe. Phosphorous (P) at a rate of 60kg  $\text{Pha}^{-1}$  as dia-ammonium phosphate (DAP, 18 % N and  
116 46%  $\text{P}_2\text{O}_5$ ) was applied at planting and N at a rate of 60kg  $\text{N ha}^{-1}$  as calcium ammonium nitrate  
117 (CAN, 27%N) was applied as top dress to maize when maize had six leaves and was 30-45 cm  
118 tall.

119

## 120 **2.2 Field Sampling**

121 Soil and gas sampling was done for three years, three times per year during periods that  
122 corresponded with LR, SR and FP seasons in both Bungoma and Trans-Nzoia. Four randomly  
123 established ten x five meter plots were laid out within fields under typical farmers cropping  
124 practices. In each plot, two sub-plots within the vicinity of maize plants and two sub-plots within  
125 the vicinity of bean plants were established. Within each sub-plot, polyvinyl chloride (PVC)  
126 rings (10 cm high and 25 cm diameter) were installed at each point (four per plot, 16 per study  
127 site). These rings served as bases for chamber tops installed periodically for GHG sampling.  
128 Chamber tops were 10 cm high and 25 cm in diameter and were made of PVC coated with thin-  
129 walled aluminum material following [17-18]. Tops were fitted with silicone septa that served as  
130 a port for gas sampling.

131

132 Soil (0-10 cm) samples were collected 20 cm from each chamber. Soil was homogenized  
133 and a sub-sample oven dried at 105°C for 48 hours to calculate gravimetric water content at the

134 time of sampling [19]. The remainder of each soil sample was air-dried, sieved through a 2-mm  
135 sieve, packed and shipped to USA for further analyses. Upon arrival at the laboratory, soil was  
136 pre-incubated for 14 days in dark aerobic conditions, at 23% soil moisture content and  
137 temperature maintained at 30°C [20]. At the end of the 14-day period, 5 g of moist soil was oven  
138 dried at 102°C for 48 hours to calculate gravimetric water content as described above.

139 Ammonium-N ( $\text{NH}_4$ ) and nitrate-N ( $\text{NO}_3$ ) concentrations were determined by extracting 10 g of  
140 soil with 50 ml of a 2.0 M potassium chloride (KCl) using colorimetric methods of  
141 Weatherburn[21] and Doane and Howarth [22] on a microplate spectrophotometer (BioTek, Inc.,  
142 Winooski, VT). Potentially mineralizable nitrogen (PMN) was determined using 14-day  
143 anaerobic incubation [23-24]. Specifically, 5-g samples of pre-incubated soil were placed in 50  
144 ml plastic centrifuge tubes with 12.5 ml of deionized water. Tube headspaces were filled with  
145 dinitrogen ( $\text{N}_2$ ) gas to replace atmospheric air, and tubes were sealed with plastic caps. All  
146 samples were incubated in the dark at room temperature for 14 days [25]. At the end of the 14-  
147 day period samples were extracted using 12.5 ml of a 4.0 mol L<sup>-1</sup>KCl and extracts analyzed for  
148  $\text{NH}_4$  following the method described earlier. PMN was calculated as the difference between  
149 initial and post anaerobic incubation concentrations.

150 Additional 0-15 cm soil samples were collected at the beginning and end of each  
151 experimental year for determination of soil pH, total P, total C, total N and available P at the  
152 Department of Soil Science, University of Eldoret in Kenya using methods described by Okalebo  
153 et al. [26]. Soil bulk density was determined using the volumetric core method [27]. Bulk density  
154 estimates were used to convert gravimetric soil water content to water filled pore space (WFPS).

155 Gas measurements were initiated by deploying chambertops on the previously installed  
156 PVC base rings and immediately sealed with rubber gaskets. Gas samples were drawn from

157 chamber headspace using 60-ml plastic syringes. Samples were drawn immediately after each  
158 chamber was sealed and then at 15 and 30 minutes. For each sample, a 30-ml aliquot of gas was  
159 injected into a previously evacuated 12-ml Labco® glass vial sealed with butyl rubber septa.  
160 Samples were shipped to USA within two weeks of sampling. Pressurized gas in vials was  
161 analyzed for CO<sub>2</sub>, CH<sub>4</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>O concentrations using gas chromatography (Varian 38001  
162 equipped with automatic injector, thermal conductivity, flame ionization and electron capture  
163 detectors to measure CO<sub>2</sub>, CH<sub>4</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>O, respectively). Ten samples containing internal lab  
164 standards that travelled to research sites were also analyzed. Gas fluxes were estimated from the  
165 rate of change of gas concentrations in chamber headspaces over the 30-minute time periods  
166 using Fick's Gas Law [28-29]. Air and soil temperature were recorded at the beginning and end  
167 of each sampling and used to calculate GHG fluxes.

168         Maize height was assessed on five randomly selected plants using a measuring tape  
169 stretched between the plant base at soil surface and the arch of the uppermost fully developed  
170 leaf. Maize and bean yields were determined at crop maturity by hand harvesting grain from a  
171 three-meter distance in the middle row. Grain was air dried to approximately 12% moisture  
172 content.

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### 174 2.3 Data Analysis

175         Data was analyzed using split plot in time and completely randomized design using R  
176 [30]. Effects of site, season and site x season interaction were assessed using site as a fixed term,  
177 time of sampling as a repeated measurement and replicated plots as random terms in the PROC  
178 MIXED statistical model. For site and season comparisons, data were based on weighted values  
179 derived from individual crop planting densities. The effect of individual crops was assessed

180 using site as a fixed term, time of sampling as a repeated measurement and crop and replicated  
181 plots as random terms in the PROC MIXED statistical model. Data was tested for normality  
182 using the Shapiro-Wilktest and log-transformed to assure normal distribution of data for further  
183 statistical analyses. Mean separations were conducted using the Fisher's protected Least  
184 Significance Difference (LSD) procedures. Treatment effects were considered significant when  
185 probability of a greater F values were equal to or lower than 0.05, unless otherwise stated.  
186 Pearson correlations and linear regressions analyses were developed to test the relationships  
187 among WFPS, PMN, NH<sub>4</sub>, NO<sub>3</sub> and GHG fluxes.

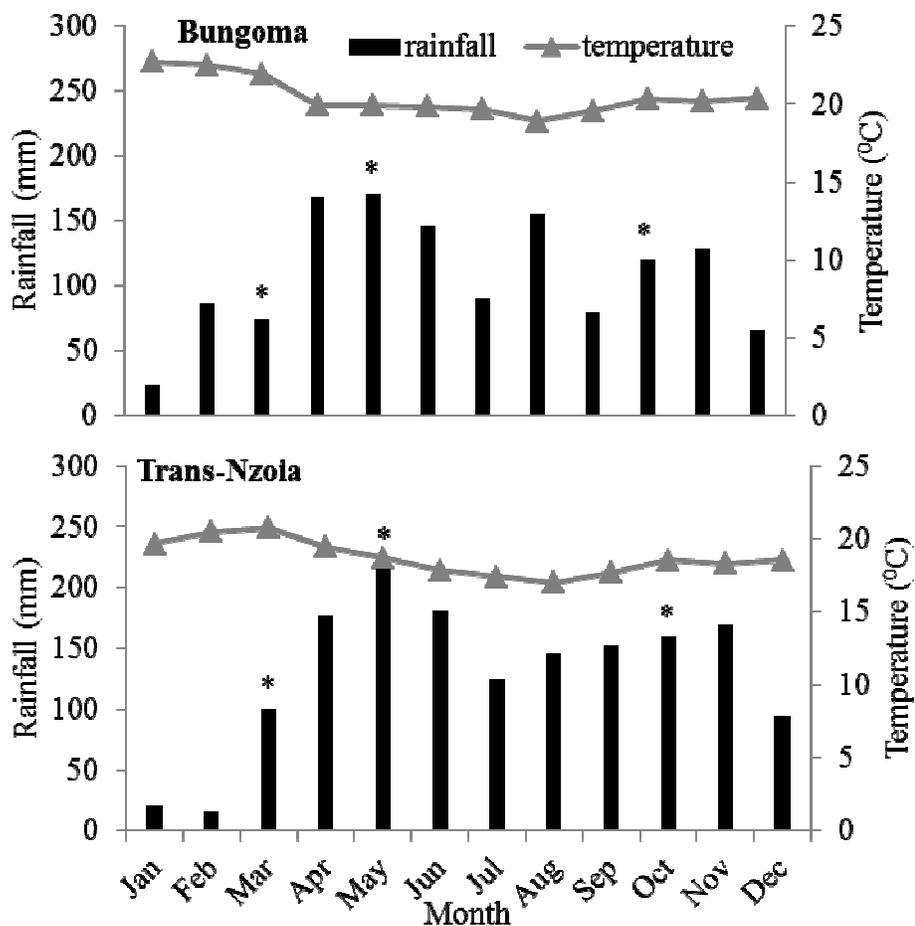
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### 189 **3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

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#### 191 **3.1 Weather, Crop Performance and Soil Parameters**

192 Air temperatures in Bungoma during the study period averaged 21°C and were two  
193 degrees higher than those in Trans-Nzoia (Fig. 2). Bungoma also received a cumulative annual  
194 rainfall of 1305 mm, which was 250 mm less than Trans-Nzoia. Seasonal distribution of rainfall  
195 showed more intense rainfall events during LR and more prolonged periods of no rainfall during  
196 SR in Bungoma.



197

198 **Fig.2** Three-year average monthly cumulative rainfall (mm) and air temperatures (°C) during  
 199 Long Rains (LR), Short Rains (SR) and Fallow Period (FP). Asterisks indicate sampling periods.

200

201 Soils in Bungoma had 2.04 g kg<sup>-1</sup> of total C and 0.2 g kg<sup>-1</sup> of total N which amounted to  
 202 30% less than soils in Trans-Nzoia (Table 2). Both sites had low but comparable total P contents,  
 203 but soils in Bungoma had 7.7 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> of available P which amounted to 50% less than soils in  
 204 Trans-Nzoia. Soil pH was comparable between the locations and averaged 5.3.

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207 **Table 2** Soil (0-15 cm) chemical properties averaged across two years. Values that follow “±”  
 208 are standard errors of a mean. Lower case letters indicate significant differences between sites at  
 209  $P \leq 0.05$ .

210

Soil Properties	Bungoma	Trans-Nzoia
pH	5.2 ± 0.1 <i>ns</i>	5.3 ± 0.1 <i>ns</i>
Total C (g kg <sup>-1</sup> )	2.04 ± 0.5 <i>b</i>	3.04 ± 0.1 <i>a</i>
Total N (g kg <sup>-1</sup> )	0.20 ± 0.05 <i>b</i>	0.30 ± 0.03 <i>a</i>
Total P (mg kg <sup>-1</sup> )	30.0 ± 10 <i>ns</i>	50.0 ± 10 <i>ns</i>
Available P (mg kg <sup>-1</sup> )	7.1 ± 1.5 <i>b</i>	13.3 ± 2.0 <i>a</i>

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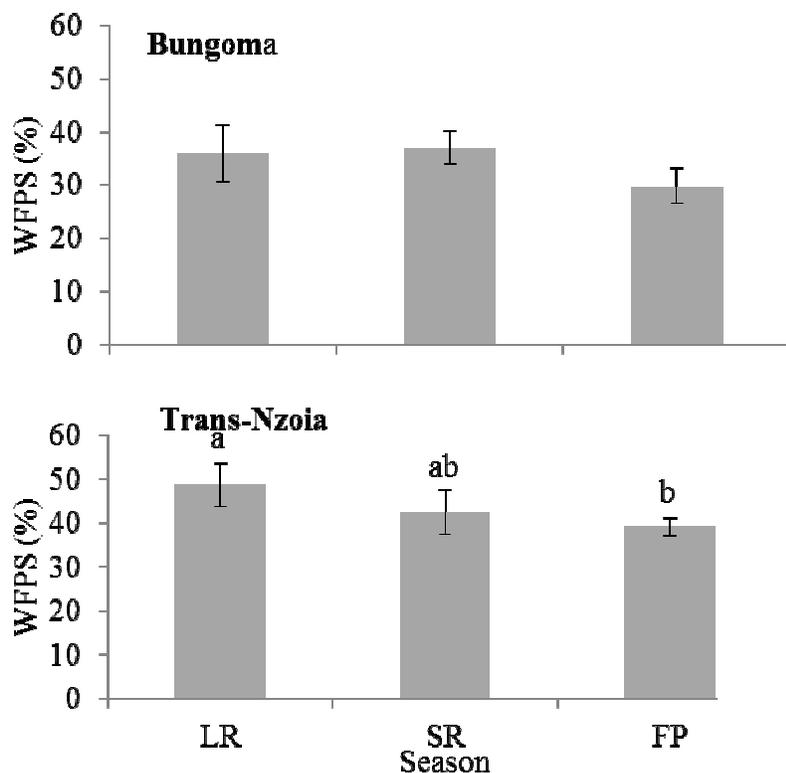
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217 Soil WFPS was significantly greater across all sampling periods in Trans-Nzoia  
 218 compared with Bungoma (Fig.3). Interestingly, there were no differences in WFPS between  
 219 sampling events in Bungoma and the values ranged between 30.0% during FP and 37.0% during  
 220 SR. In Trans-Nzoia, the highest soil WFPS of 49% was reported during LR and the lowest  
 221 WFPS of 39% was observed in FP with intermediate values reported for SR.



222  
 223 **Fig. 3** Water filled pore space (WFPS %) during Long rains (LR), Short Rains (SR) and Fallow  
 224 Period (FP) averaged across the three years. Bars with same letters within a location are not  
 225 significantly different at  $P \leq 0.05$ .

226  
 227 Maize plants at V-6 were between 40% to 50% shorter in Bungoma compared with Trans-  
 228 Nzoia (Table 3). Maize yields in Bungoma totaled  $1.4 \text{ Mg ha}^{-1}$  per year from both seasons, which  
 229 amounted to 40% lower overall yields reported for Trans-Nzoia from one long growing season.  
 230 Bean yields in Bungoma totaled  $0.23 \text{ Mg ha}^{-1}$  during LR and, no bean yields were poor crop  
 231 establishment during SR in all years of the experiment. This amounted to 66% lower annual  
 232 yields in Bungoma compared to Trans-Nzoia.

233  
 234

235 **Table 3** Maize and bean growth parameters averaged for two seasons. Values that follow “±” are  
 236 standard errors of a mean. Lower case letters indicate significant differences between sites at  $P \leq$   
 237  $0.05$ .

	<b>Bungoma</b>	<b>Trans-Nzoia</b>
<b>Long Rains</b>		
240	Maize height at V-6 (cm)	70.5 ±10.7b      126.1 ± 20.6a
241	Maize spacing (m <sup>-2</sup> )	0.23                      0.23
242	Maize yield (Mg ha <sup>-1</sup> )	1.10±0.4b              2.00 ± 0.1a
243	Bean spacing (m <sup>-2</sup> )	0.11                      0.11
244	Bean yield (Mg ha <sup>-1</sup> )	0.20 ± 0.1b              0.70 ± 0.1a
<b>Short Rains</b>		
247	Maize height at V-6 (cm)	68.8 ± 17.1              -
248	Maize spacing (m <sup>-2</sup> )	0.23                      -
249	Maize yield (Mg ha <sup>-1</sup> )	0.30 ± 0.1              -
250	Bean spacing (m <sup>-2</sup> )	0.11                      -
251	Bean yield (Mg ha <sup>-1</sup> )	-                              -

253 **3.2.Soil Nitrogen**

254 Overall, soil PMN concentrations were up to four times greater in Bungoma than in  
 255 Trans-Nzoia (Fig. 4a).In Bungoma, PMN values during SR and FP amounted to 9.1 and 6.9 mg  
 256 kg<sup>-1</sup>, respectively and were almost three times greater compared with values reported for LR. No  
 257 differences in PMN between seasons were observed in Trans-Nzoia with greater but non-  
 258 significant soil total N mineralization during SR and FP compared with LR.Crop species effect

259 had a significant seasonal impact on soil PMN in Trans-Nzoia only (Fig. 5a). Up to four times  
 260 more PMN was observed in soil associated with maize plants during LR compared with 1.0 mg  
 261  $\text{kg}^{-1}$  of PMN in soils associated with bean plants (Fig. 5a).

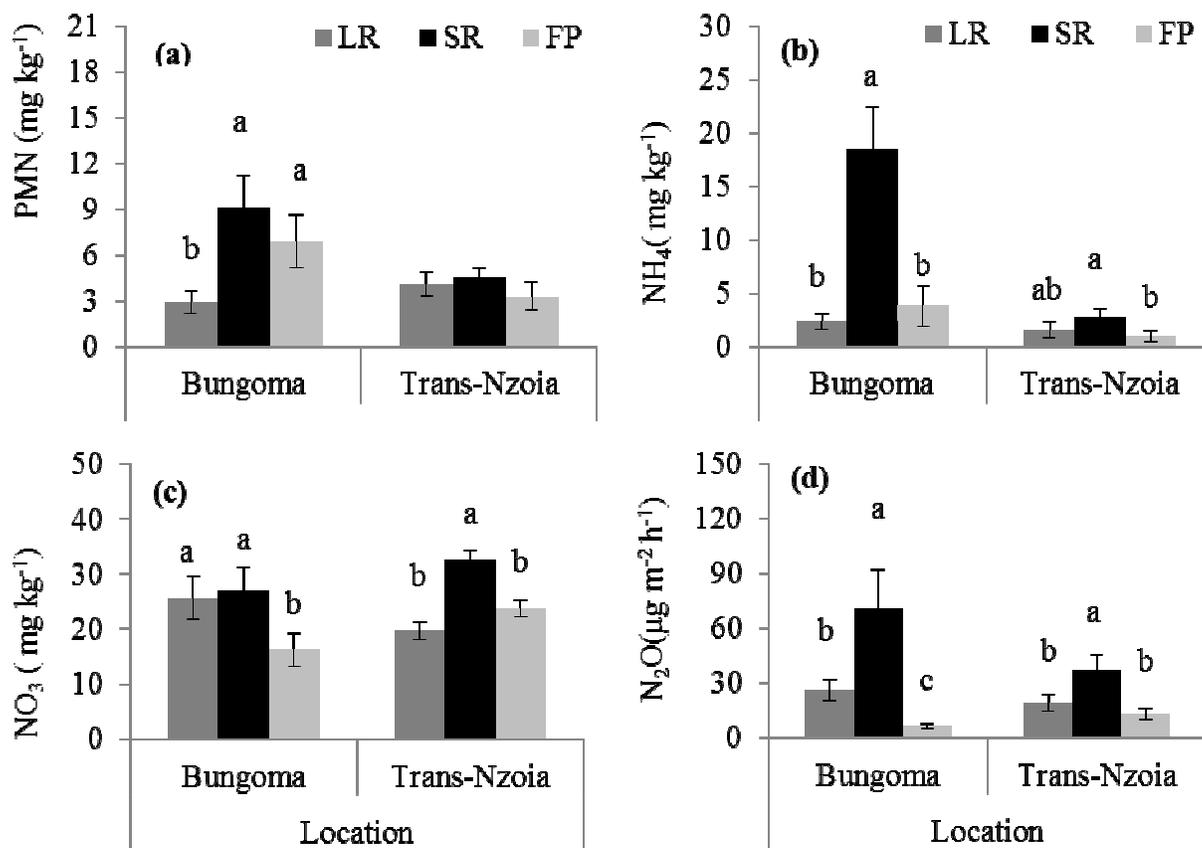
262 Soil  $\text{NH}_4$  concentrations were also up to four times greater in Bungoma than in Trans-  
 263 Nzoia (Fig. 4b). The highest  $\text{NH}_4$  in Bungoma of  $18.5 \text{ g kg}^{-1}$  was observed in SR which amounted  
 264 to anywhere between nine to five times the levels reported for LR and FP, respectively. In Trans-  
 265 Nzoia,  $\text{NH}_4$  of only  $2.8 \text{ g kg}^{-1}$  was also significantly higher in SR and the values were only two  
 266 times greater compared with FP and LR (Fig. 4b).

267 In comparison, soil  $\text{NO}_3$  was higher in Trans-Nzoia compared with Bungoma (Fig. 4c). In  
 268 Trans-Nzoia, the highest  $\text{NO}_3$  of  $32.5 \text{ g kg}^{-1}$  was observed in SR and the values in LR and FP  
 269 were significantly lower and ranged between  $19.7 \text{ g kg}^{-1}$  and  $23.7 \text{ g kg}^{-1}$ . In Bungoma,  $\text{NO}_3$  were  
 270 comparable between LR and SR and ranged between  $25.6 \text{ g kg}^{-1}$  and  $26.9 \text{ g kg}^{-1}$  which was about  
 271 40% more compared with FP.

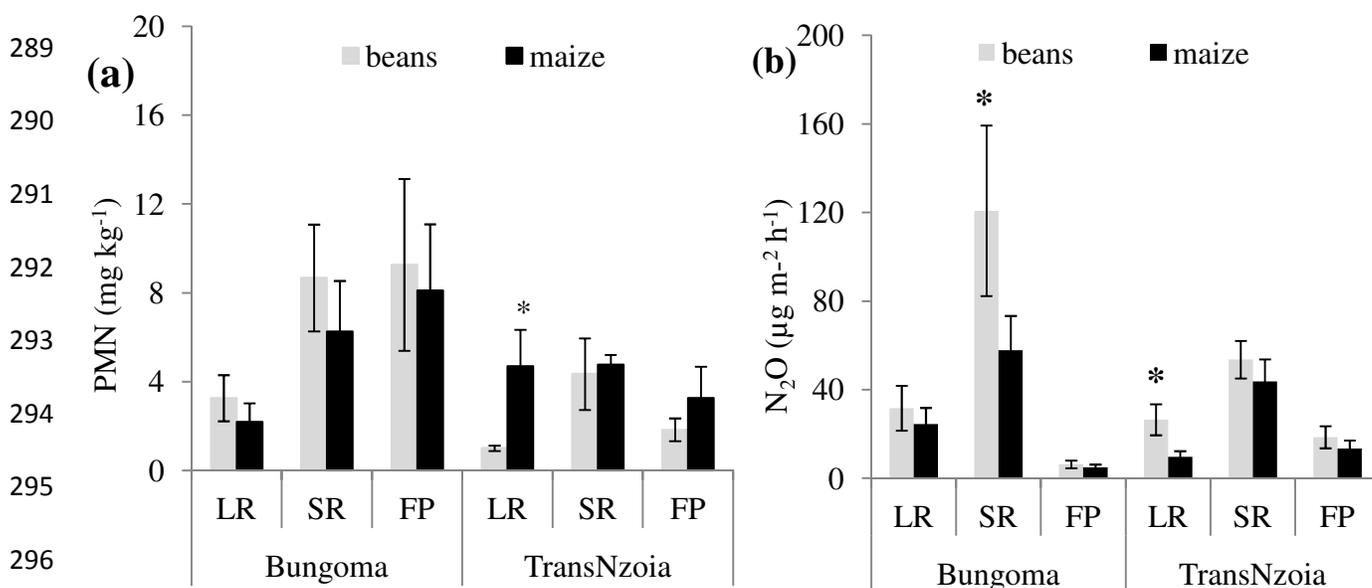
272 Both locations demonstrated the highest  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  fluxes during SR and the lowest fluxes  
 273 during FP with much greater  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  fluxes in Bungoma (Fig. 4d). In Bungoma, the highest flux of  
 274  $70.6 \mu\text{g m}^{-2} \text{ h}^{-1}$  was almost twice as high compared with  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  flux during SR in Trans-Nzoia.  
 275 Fluxes during LR ranged between  $25.8 \mu\text{g m}^{-2} \text{ h}^{-1}$  in Bungoma and  $19.0 \mu\text{g m}^{-2} \text{ h}^{-1}$  in Trans-Nzoia  
 276 and between  $6.2 \mu\text{g m}^{-2} \text{ h}^{-1}$  and  $12.0 \mu\text{g m}^{-2} \text{ h}^{-1}$  during FP. The magnitude of  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  fluxes depended  
 277 on soil associations with specific crops as demonstrated by a significant season x crop  
 278 interactions at both Bungoma and Trans-Nzoia. Maximum  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  of  $120.8 \mu\text{g m}^{-2} \text{ h}^{-1}$  was reported  
 279 in soils associated with beans during SR in Bungoma, which was twice as much compared with  
 280 soils associated with maize plants (Fig 5b). In comparison, maximum  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  of  $26.5 \mu\text{g m}^{-2} \text{ h}^{-1}$  was

281 reported for soils associated with bean plants during LR in Trans-Nzoia which was almost three  
 282 times as high compared with soils associated with maize.

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284  
 285 **Fig. 4** (a) Soil potentially mineralizable nitrogen (PMN, (b) ammonium (NH<sub>4</sub>), (c) nitrate (NO<sub>3</sub>)  
 286 concentrations and (d) nitrous oxide (N<sub>2</sub>O) fluxes for Long Rains (LR), Short Rains (SR) and  
 287 Fallow Period (FP) for Bungoma and Trans-Nzoia locations. Lower case letters indicate least  
 288 significant differences at  $P \leq 0.05$ .



298 **Fig.5** (a) Soil Potentially Mineralizable Nitrogen (PMN) and (b) nitrous oxide fluxes from soils  
 299 associated with different crops (beans and maize) during Long Rains (LR), Short Rains (SR) and  
 300 Fallow Period (FP) at Bungoma and high Trans-Nzoia locations averaged across the three years.  
 301 Asterisks indicate a significant difference between crops at  $P \leq 0.05$  within each location.

### 3033.3 Soil Carbon

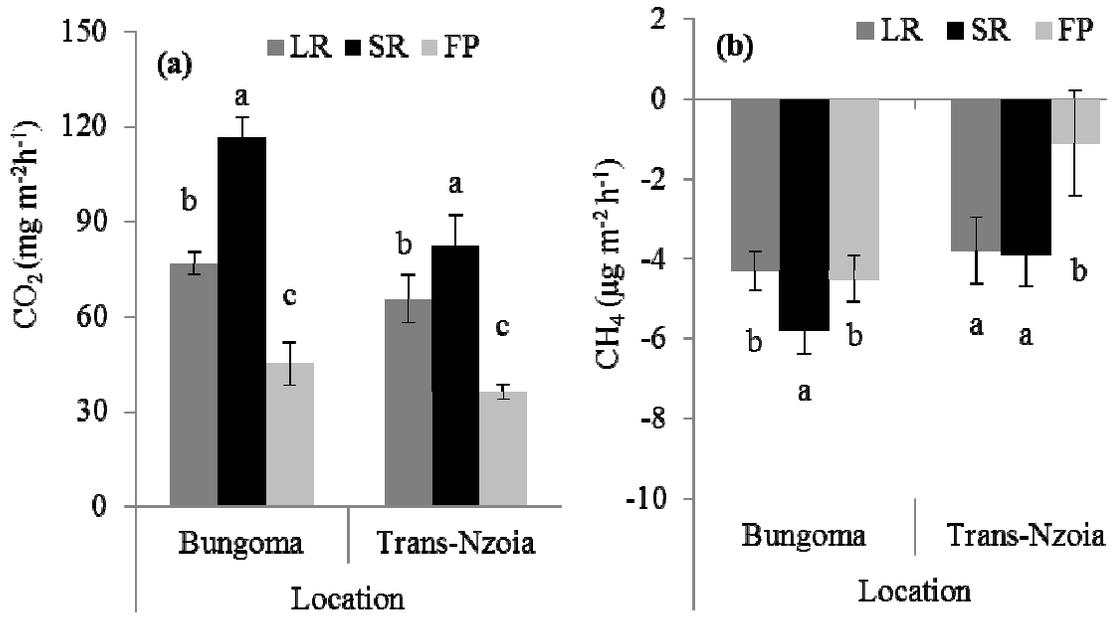
304 Soil CO<sub>2</sub> fluxes were the highest during SR and the lowest during FP in both locations  
 305 with values in Bungoma much higher compared with Trans-Nzoia(Fig. 6a). The highest CO<sub>2</sub>  
 306 fluxes of 116.3 mg m<sup>-2</sup> h<sup>-1</sup> during SR in Bungoma and the highest flux of 82.3 mg m<sup>-2</sup> h<sup>-1</sup> during  
 307 SR in Trans-Nzoia were approximately 1.5 times higher that during LR. During FP, CO<sub>2</sub> fluxes  
 308 declined to significantly lowest levels at both locations. CO<sub>2</sub> fluxes also depended on soil  
 309 associations with specific crops as demonstrated by a significant season x crop interactions (Fig.  
 310 7a). In Bungoma, CO<sub>2</sub> fluxes from soils associated with maize plants were 45% greater  
 311 compared with soils associated with beans in general and specifically, 24%, 75% and 34%

312 greater during SR, LR and FP, respectively. In Trans-Nzoia, CO<sub>2</sub> fluxes from soils associated  
313 with beans were comparable to those associated with maize except for FP, when they were 19%  
314 greater from soils associated with beans than from those associated with maize (Fig. 7a).

315 Soil CH<sub>4</sub> fluxes were the least negative during FP, intermediate during LR and the most  
316 negative during SR at both sites and the values were much lower in Bungoma than Trans-Nzoia  
317 (Fig. 6b). CH<sub>4</sub> fluxes depended on soil associations with specific crops as demonstrated by a  
318 significant season x crop interaction. Soils associated with beans demonstrated over 50% more  
319 negative fluxes than soils associated with maize except for CH<sub>4</sub> fluxes during FP in Trans-Nzoia,  
320 where the reverse pattern was observed (Figure 7b). In Bungoma, CH<sub>4</sub> fluxes associated with  
321 beans amounted to 211%, 38% and 62% greater CH<sub>4</sub> assimilation compared with soils associated  
322 with maize during FP, LR and SR, respectively. In Trans-Nzoia, CH<sub>4</sub> fluxes from soils associated  
323 with beans and maize plants were comparable during FP (Figure 7b). During LR and SR, CH<sub>4</sub>  
324 fluxes from soils associated with beans were on average, 100% and 156% more negative than  
325 from soils associated with maize, respectively.

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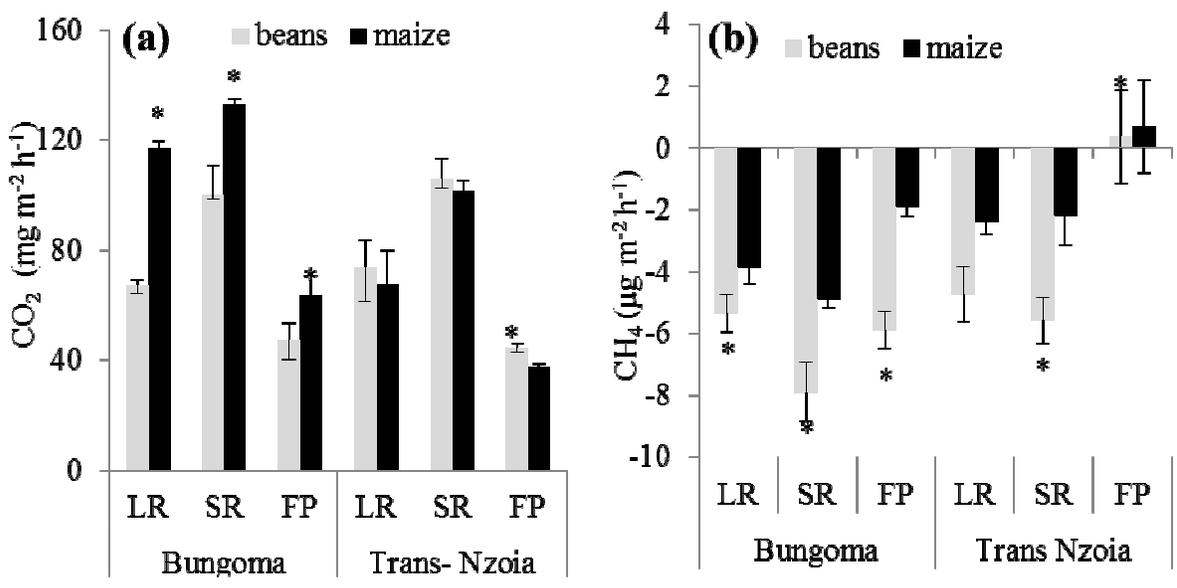
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**Fig. 6** (a) carbon dioxide (CO<sub>2</sub>) and (b) methane (CH<sub>4</sub>) fluxes during Short Rains (SR), Fallow Period (FP) and Long Rains (LR) averaged across the three years Bungoma and Trans-Nzoia locations. Lower case letters indicate least significant differences at  $P \leq 0.05$ .

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343 **Fig.7** (a) Carbon dioxide (CO<sub>2</sub>) and (b) methane (CH<sub>4</sub>) from soils associated with different crops  
344 (beans and maize) during Long Rains (LR), Short Rains (SR) and Fallow Period (FP) at  
345 Bungoma and high Trans-Nzoia locations averaged across the three years. Asterisks indicate a  
346 significant difference between crops at  $P \leq 0.05$  within each location.

347

### 348 **3.4 Relationship Between C and N Mineralization**

349 Pearson correlations showed positive relationship between N<sub>2</sub>O and WFPS during LR  
350 and SR at both locations (Table 4). N<sub>2</sub>O was positively correlated with CO<sub>2</sub> in Trans-Nzoia but  
351 negatively correlated with CO<sub>2</sub> in Bungoma during SR only. CO<sub>2</sub> was also positively correlated  
352 with WFPS during SR in Bungoma only. PMN was positively correlated with N<sub>2</sub>O during SR in  
353 Bungoma only and negatively correlated with N<sub>2</sub>O during LR in Trans-Nzoia. NH<sub>4</sub> was  
354 negatively correlated with NO<sub>3</sub> in both locations during LR only.

355 Regression analyses demonstrated that 77% to 80% of N<sub>2</sub>O fluxes can be predicted based  
356 on CO<sub>2</sub> fluxes during SR only in both locations and 43% during LR in Trans-Nzoia (Table 5).  
357 The slope values however, demonstrated differential patterns as the regression slope for Bungoma  
358 had a negative value while for Trans-Nzoia had a positive value. Furthermore, regression  
359 analyses demonstrated that between 61% and 65% of N<sub>2</sub>O flux can be predicted based on soil  
360 WFPS for both cropping seasons in Bungoma and for SR in Trans-Nzoia (Table 5). Only 30% of  
361 N<sub>2</sub>O flux during LR in Trans-Nzoia can be predicted based on soil WFPS. The regression slope  
362 for the N<sub>2</sub>O fluxes per unit WFPS for LR was comparable between both locations and ranged  
363 between 1.74 and 1.46. The slope of regression during SR however, was 5.68 for Bungoma,  
364 which was approximately 3.5 times greater compared with the slope calculated for Trans-Nzoia.  
365 Between 35% and 38% of N<sub>2</sub>O flux in Bungoma during SR can be predicted based on incubated

366 soil  $\text{NH}_4$  and PMN concentrations and 41% of  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  flux in Trans-Nzoia during SR can be  
367 predicted based on incubated soil  $\text{NO}_3$  concentrations (Table 5).

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#### 369 **4. DISCUSSION**

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371 Soil incubation assays to determine potentially mineralizable N are robust in assessing  
372 the magnitude of N mineralization under controlled enclosed conditions. Therefore, direct field  
373  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  flux measurements and laboratory N incubation assays suggest that soil water content  
374 played an important role in support of microbial processes contributing to N mineralization  
375 across all seasons and all sites. Our results indicate that growing crops during two growing  
376 seasons resulted in very high rates of soil N mineralization as demonstrated by high PMN and  
377  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  fluxes. Since the  $\text{NH}_4$  and  $\text{NO}_3$  concentrations appeared to be high compared with studies  
378 performed in field-conditions of fertilized maize tillage treatments [31], a significant portion of  
379 inorganic N was likely lost to  $\text{NO}_3$  leaching,  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  production and not plant uptake as  
380 demonstrated by low overall yields. In general, the magnitude of soil N mineralization indicated  
381 by  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  fluxes were comparable to those reported from maize production using comparable rates  
382 of inorganic N fertilizer in SSA [32] and in South America [33]. The magnitude of  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  fluxes in  
383 our study however, was much greater when compared with fluxes from loamy soils with high  
384 SOM [34-35].

385 **Table 4** Pearson's correlations between percent water filled pore space (WFPS), greenhouse gas fluxes (CO<sub>2</sub>, CH<sub>4</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>O) and soil  
 386 nitrogen mineralization (PMN, NO<sub>3</sub> and NH<sub>4</sub>) measured during long rains (LR) and short rains (SR) seasons at low elevation  
 387 (Bungoma) and high elevation (Trans-Nzoia) sites.

		LR						SR					
		WFPS	CO <sub>2</sub>	CH <sub>4</sub>	N <sub>2</sub> O	PMN	NO <sub>3</sub>	WFPS	CO <sub>2</sub>	CH <sub>4</sub>	N <sub>2</sub> O	PMN	NO <sub>3</sub>
<b>Bungoma</b>	<b>WFPS</b>	1						1					
	<b>CO<sub>2</sub></b>	0.32	1					-0.49	1				
	<b>CH<sub>4</sub></b>	-0.23	-0.44	1				-0.27	<b>-0.53</b> †	1			
	<b>N<sub>2</sub>O</b>	<b>0.75</b> **	0.11	0.03	1			<b>0.81</b> **	<b>-0.87</b> **	0.14	1		
	<b>PMN</b>	-0.46	0.22	0.16	0.37	1		0.46	-0.33	-0.1	<b>0.53</b> †	1	
	<b>NO<sub>3</sub></b>	-0.19	0.14	0.3	0.35	0.19	1	-0.33	0.27	0.1	-0.39	-0.45	1
	<b>NH<sub>4</sub></b>	0.02	-0.03	-0.07	-0.11	-0.1	<b>-0.89</b> **	<b>0.58</b>	-0.41	-0.1	<b>0.63</b> *	0.38	-0.08
<b>Trans-Nzoia</b>	<b>WFPS</b>	1						1					
	<b>CO<sub>2</sub></b>	-0.13	1					<b>0.73</b> **	1				
	<b>CH<sub>4</sub></b>	0.21	-0.47	1				-0.1	-0.33	1			
	<b>N<sub>2</sub>O</b>	<b>0.63</b> *	<b>0.66</b> **	0.04	1			<b>0.79</b> **	<b>0.89</b> **	-0.41	1		
	<b>PMN</b>	0.09	<b>-0.57</b> †	0.35	<b>-0.58</b> †	1		0.1	-0.33	0.03	-0.11	1	
	<b>NO<sub>3</sub></b>	0.26	-0.33	0.49	-0.22	-0.11	1	<b>-0.66</b> **	<b>-0.83</b> **	0.27	0.21	0.47	1
	<b>NH<sub>4</sub></b>	<b>-0.51</b> †	-0.1	-0.1	-0.23	0.18	<b>-0.51</b> †	-0.30	-0.44	0.13	-0.17	-0.16	0.21

388 **Table 5** Regression equations, regression R square value (Rsq) and P values of the relationship between nitrous oxide (N<sub>2</sub>O) fluxes and  
 389 percent soil water-filled pore space (WFPS), carbon dioxide (CO<sub>2</sub>), soil potentially mineralizable nitrogen (PMN), ammonium (NH<sub>4</sub>)  
 390 and nitrate (NO<sub>3</sub>) concentrations for long rains (LR) and short rains (SR) seasons at low elevation (Bungoma) and high elevation  
 391 (Trans-Nzoia) sites.

Location	LR			SR		
	Equation	Rsq	P value	Equation	Rsq	P value
<b>Bungoma</b>						
WFPS	$y = 1.74x - 53.71$	0.61**	$\leq 0.01$	$y = 5.68x - 98.93$	0.65**	$\leq 0.01$
CO <sub>2</sub>			<i>ns</i>	$y = -3.1x + 451.50$	0.77**	$\leq 0.01$
PMN			<i>ns</i>	$y = 9.59x + 18.57$	0.35*	$\leq 0.05$
NO <sub>3</sub>			<i>ns</i>			<i>ns</i>
NH <sub>4</sub>			<i>ns</i>	$y = 4.90x + 28.45$	0.38*	$\leq 0.01$
<b>Trans-Nzoia</b>						
WFPS	$y = 1.46x + 105.00$	0.30*	$\leq 0.05$	$y = 1.65x - 38.39$	0.61**	$\leq 0.01$
CO <sub>2</sub>	$y = 0.36x + 43.80$	0.43*	$\leq 0.05$	$y = 1.48x - 105.30$	0.80**	$\leq 0.01$
PMN			<i>ns</i>			<i>ns</i>
NO <sub>3</sub>			<i>ns</i>	$y = 0.66x + 6.05$	0.41**	$\leq 0.01$
NH <sub>4</sub>			<i>ns</i>			<i>ns</i>

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402 Soil disturbance associated with planting the second crop played an important role in  
403 accelerating soil N mineralization during SR in Bungoma as demonstrated by the highest rates of  
404 PMN,  $\text{NH}_4$  and  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  fluxes. Significant relationships between  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  fluxes and soil PMN and  $\text{NH}_4$   
405 concentrations supported the notion of high rates of seasonal nitrification. Not only were the  
406 overall soil N mineralization and  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  fluxes greatest during SR in Bungoma, but also, contrary  
407 to our expectations,  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  fluxes were the greatest from soils associated with bean plants, further  
408 demonstrating limited N retention and high N turnover of N-rich bean residues also proposed by  
409 Jeuffroy et al. [36]. However, elevated  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  fluxes from soils associated with beans could also be  
410 attributed to seasonal weeding tillage performed in maize inter-rows that can sever bean plant  
411 roots and root nodules [37].

412 Typical farming practices also resulted in a greater overall C mineralization compared  
413 with values reported for similar but unmanaged soils in SSA [38-40]. Periodic  $\text{CO}_2$  fluxes during  
414 LR and SR were greater than fluxes from similarly managed soils with higher total C content  
415 under maize-soybean production [34-35; 41-42]. Though, sporadic rainfall events are known to  
416 trigger C mineralization and immediate  $\text{CO}_2$  pulses [11], our data collection was always  
417 completed before the afternoon rain showers and the  $\text{CO}_2$  fluxes did not correlate with WFPS  
418 except for during SR in Trans-Nzoia. The highest  $\text{CO}_2$  flux was observed during SR in Bungoma  
419 when soil WFPS was comparable to FP and the location experienced below average cumulative  
420 rainfall during the study period. Therefore the highest  $\text{CO}_2$  flux during SR in Bungoma was  
421 likely caused by additional tillage disturbance for land preparation and weeding of the second  
422 maize bean crop, which likely accelerated decomposition of fresh plant residues left behind after  
423 LR crop harvest. This was also observed by Ellert and Janzen [43]. Additional tillage operations  
424 and new crop production during the second growing season limited soil ability to sequester

425 newly deposited plant-derived organic material and could contribute to SOM depletion of  
426 already much lower C and N soils when compared with Trans-Nzoia. Employing soil  
427 conservation practices such as reduced tillage for both locations and, in case of Bungoma, letting  
428 the land rest during SR can help regain some of the SOM over time. Mapanda et al.[32]  
429 demonstrated that fallowing for at least 10 years and amending maize with adequate amounts of  
430 N fertilizer lowered CO<sub>2</sub> fluxes and improved SOM and maize yields in Zimbabwe.

431 Most agricultural soils worldwide are effective CH<sub>4</sub> sinks except for submerged  
432 agricultural soils where the anaerobic environment stimulates CH<sub>4</sub> production [44]. Soils in this  
433 study appeared to be weak sinks or even mild sources of CH<sub>4</sub> fluxes. The flux values obtained in  
434 this study were, however, less negative compared with the previous study by Mapanda et al.[32]  
435 from typical maize production under different levels of N fertilizer application in Zimbabwe.  
436 Low soil ability to act as a CH<sub>4</sub> sink in our study could be due to the negative effects of tillage  
437 disturbance on SOM and possible destruction of microsites reducing the populations of  
438 methanotrophic bacteria [45].

439

## 440 5. CONCLUSIONS

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442 Results from this study supported the overall hypothesis of greater SOM mineralization  
443 and lower yields in regions where crops were grown during two seasons per year compared with  
444 one long growing season. High SOM mineralization with low plant residue returns and low  
445 overall yields in this region suggest declining soil fertility and limited annual SOM  
446 replenishment. Continuing typical crop production in this region may ultimately become more  
447 challenging and unsustainable in the long-term. Smallholder farmers in Bungoma are however,

448 in economic need to grow crops during two growing seasons. Therefore, the alternative of  
449 fallowing the land during SR may face limited success of adoption. Other alternatives may  
450 include government supported incentives. These may include abstaining from staple crop  
451 production and instead, establishment of N fixing edible cover crops that can be introduced as a  
452 relay after LR bean harvest. Moreover, since the incidence of crop failure during SR in Bungoma  
453 is likely to become more frequent, focusing efforts toward one-season crop production during  
454 LR may also be of a value to farmers. In general, both locations could greatly benefit from crop  
455 residue retention and transitioning to soil management systems that rely on less deep and less  
456 frequent tillage operations such as no-till.

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