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14 Influence of wet-dry cycles on the temporal
15 infiltration dynamic in temperate rice paddies

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29 ABSTRACT

30

31 Rice paddy water infiltration is key for evaluating agrochemical groundwater migration. To this
32 end, we designed and conducted an experiment with two aims: (1) to describe the water infiltration
33 dynamic that occurs throughout the growing season and wet-dry cycling in rice paddies, and (2)
34 to quantify the infiltration that takes place under two different water managements (continuous
35 flooding (CF) and delayed submersion (DS)). The two-year field-scale study took place in Vercelli
36 (Italy) during which the water balance in six rice paddies was monitored hourly and the infiltration
37 rate dynamic was calculated for each wet-dry cycle.

38 The average daily infiltration rate decreased between the first and second cycles, increased after
39 the third cycle, and reached its maximum value at the growing season end. Water infiltrated during
40 the first 40 hours of each wet-dry cycle and particularly at the first and fourth wetting induced the
41 highest groundwater pollution risk, with a larger potential in DS. Also, DS did not save water, as
42 the total water used in the two treatments was identical.

43

44

45 KEYWORDS: infiltration rate; rice paddy; wet-dry cycle

46

47 **1. Introduction**

48 Rice paddies not only typify the landscape of Northwest Italy, but also utilize significant
49 amounts of applied irrigation water (Bouman, et al., 2007). Rice field water flows result in great
50 surface runoff and deep percolation that may be a vector of nutrients and chemical pollutants that
51 can cause serious environmental problems. Preferential flow paths found often in rice paddy soils
52 (Garg et al., 2009; Patil and Das, 2013; Sander and Gerke, 2007; Sander and Gerke, 2009; Zhang
53 et al., 2014) can increase chemical contaminant leaching from surface water to groundwater
54 (Boivin, et al., 2002), which makes it important to develop and maintain an efficient monitoring
55 network to evaluate regional agrochemical migration and transformation (Vu, et al., 2005).

56 Rice paddy surface water flow is simple for a farmer to manage, as water outlet fluxes can
57 usually be regulated—even suspended if necessary—to prevent nutrients and pesticides from
58 exiting the field. However, water infiltration is the factor that most affects surface and groundwater
59 quality. Its rate in rice paddies can be significantly influenced by soil texture and structure (Boivin,
60 et al., 2001), flooded water depth (Liu, et al., 2003), hard pan hydraulic conductivity and puddling
61 intensity (Aggarwal, et al., 1995), depth to groundwater table (Chen and Liu, 2002), cultivation
62 history (Janssen and Lennartz, 2007), topography (Tsubo, et al., 2007), and different water
63 managements (Sacco et al., 2012).

64 The two most common water managements in North Italy are continuous flooding and dry
65 seeding with delay flooding. Dry seeding techniques are chosen by farmers as an alternative to
66 more traditional continuous submersion as a means by which to reduce the labor required as more
67 agricultural practices are performed in dry soil, to more efficiently develop rooting systems, and
68 to reduce the risk of environmental impact from the absence of water at first fertilisation and

69 herbicide application. In 2012 this techniques was applied on 66,099 ha out of 235,052 ha,
70 representing about 28% of the paddy area (Ente Nazionale Risi, 2014).

71 Numerous experiments have demonstrated that cracks and/or macropores are fundamental to
72 preferential flow creation and increased water infiltration (Janssen and Lennartz, 2009). They are
73 usually created during the growing period (Kramers, et al., 2005; Sacco, et al., 2012; Tournebize,
74 et al., 2006) and affected by different tillage practices (Cameira, et al., 2003), earthworm burrows
75 (Sander and Gerke, 2007), water submersion, and alternated dry and wet flooding (Tournebize, et
76 al., 2006). Typically, they are affected by great spatial and temporal variability in the macropore
77 system.

78 Paddy soils present temporal changes in soil bulk density, soil shrinkage, and cracks with wet-
79 dry cycles. The crack area density also depends on the clay and soil organic matter content (Zhang
80 et al., 2013). In fine-textured soil, drying causes crack formation and disintegration of large clods
81 into smaller aggregates (Alaoui et al., 2011). Further study of Zhang (2014) shows that cracks are
82 generated during the wet-dry cycle, but not under continuous flooding conditions.

83 Another reason for creation of preferential flow is from the teeth on the iron tractor wheels that
84 facilitate traction in the muddy soils during the submersion period. As made evident by soil profile
85 analysis, the wheels lean on the ploughing pan as the teeth penetrate the layer, creating preferential
86 pathways for water infiltration.

87 Until now, several models have been developed to simulate water infiltration in rice paddies.
88 ARCSWAT 2005 has been used to compare agricultural water intervention with no-intervention
89 in a basin-scale simulation (Garg, et al., 2012). RZWQM (Cameira, et al., 2005) is a one-
90 dimensional dual porosity model that has been employed at the field scale to assess particular
91 Mediterranean conditions that allow macropore in-flows, while the one-dimensional SAWAH

92 model focuses on water management and percolation losses (Wopereis, et al., 1994). However,
93 each of these models has applicability limitations (Kohne, et al., 2009), as most describe specific
94 water systems and require detailed pedological and hydrological information.

95 Water balance is the primary water movement-based method for effective quantification of water
96 infiltration, and consequently of the potential for environmental pollution. It relies on large
97 amounts of monitoring data and an efficient monitoring and measuring system. The water balance
98 equation has several variables: input water quantities (irrigation, precipitation), output water
99 quantities (evapotranspiration, outlet, lateral seepage, deep percolation), and changes in soil water
100 storage per time period. Most current rice paddy water balance studies use daily (Garg, et al., 2009;
101 Liu, et al., 2001; Xie and Cui, 2011) or weekly data (Yang, et al., 2012). Short-term dynamic
102 calculations—needed for the crack filling process—demand hourly data (Liu, et al., 2003;
103 Mitchell and Van Genuchten, 1993).

104 A previous study by Sacco et al. (2012), describing the seasonal variation of soil physical
105 properties under different water managements in the same experimental field, determined the two
106 goals of this study: 1) to describe the infiltration dynamic over the growing season and during the
107 different wet-dry cycles; 2) to quantify the amount of water infiltration in rice paddies under two
108 different water managements. Infiltration rate was calculated based on direct measurements of
109 field water balance.

110

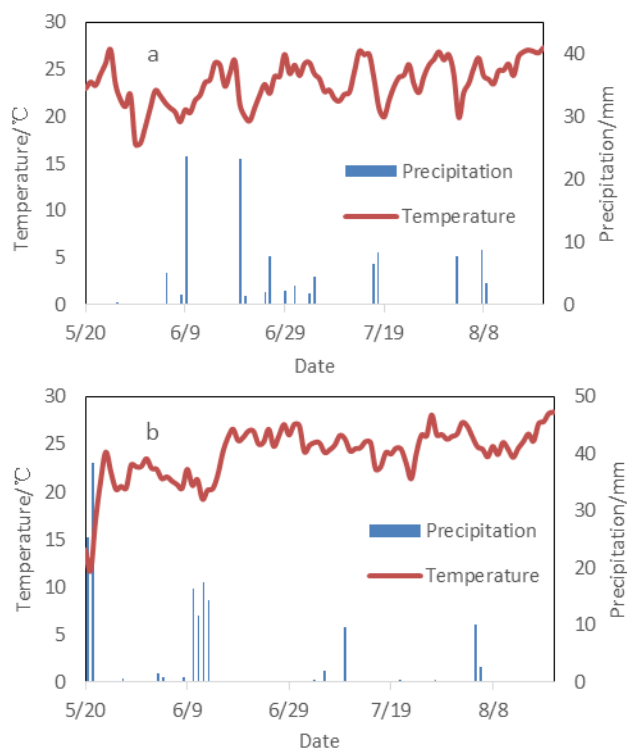
111 **2. Materials and methods**

112 2.1. Site and climate

113 The experiment was carried out on the Vercelli plain (Northern Italy) at a study area located at
114 45°17' (lat.) and 8°25' (long.) in the western Po River basin (132 m a.s.l.). The area is characterized

115 by a temperate, sub-continental climate that included rainy periods in spring (April and May) and
116 autumn (September-November). The annual data during the last five years averaged a precipitation
117 of 851 mm and a mean temperature of 13.2 °C. The average monthly minimum relative humidity
118 was the lowest (41%) during April and highest (75%) during January. The average monthly
119 incoming solar radiation was highest (about 760 MJ/m²/month) during July, and ranged from 624
120 to 650 MJ/m² during the months of May, June, and August. Groundwater levels ranged from 0.5
121 m to 2 m in different seasons.

122 Figure 1 reports the specific experimental period weather conditions (daily temperature and
123 precipitation amounts) during 2009 and 2012. More stable temperatures and intense precipitation
124 characterized June 2009, while 2012 was mainly characterized by low temperatures and rainfall
125 amounts at sowing time that delayed rice growing season.



126

127 **Figure 1.** Daily temperatures and precipitation amounts in 2009 and 2012.

128

129 2.2. Soil characteristics

130 The soil was classified as Typic Endoaquept, coarse-silty, mixed, non-acidic, mesic (USDA,
131 1999). The soil profile, described at the beginning of the experiment, was based on a digging on
132 one side of the field. The upper part of the soil profile revealed a ploughed first Ap horizon of 20
133 cm, a second Ap₂ horizon of 10 cm, and a third Bwg horizon of 40 cm (IPLA, 2004). Soil texture
134 of the second horizon was very similar to that of the first horizon, but bulk densities measured
135 before ploughing revealed an abrupt transition in the first and second horizon increasing from 1.49
136 to 1.64 Mg m⁻³. Additionally, the colour changed from 2,5Y 4/2 to GLEY 1 4/1. Based on these
137 measurements, we concluded that the second horizon represented the plough pan.

138 Further characterisations of the experimental field were carried out in the different plots without
139 distinguishing the Ap and AP₂ horizons due to the shallow second layer. Main characteristics are
140 reported in Table 1. The horizon explored by roots (0–25 cm) was typed as sandy loam texture
141 according to the USDA texture classification. The mean bulk density of the first horizon at sowing
142 was about 1.18 Mg m⁻³; it varied during the growing season (Sacco, et al., 2012). The average soil
143 organic carbon content was 9.8 g kg⁻¹ dry soil.

144

145

146 **Table 1.** Soil texture, pH, and organic carbon content in CF (average values \pm 95% confidence
 147 intervals) and DS treatments.

		CF		DS	
Depth	cm	0-25	25-50	0-25	25-50
Sand	%	40.3 \pm 7.5	36.4 \pm 17.2	34.83	21.30
Silt	%	48.5 \pm 6.94	48.82 \pm 13.47	54.70	59.67
Clay	%	11.2 \pm 1.79	14.81 \pm 4.21	10.47	19.03
pH		6.5 \pm 0.18	7.11 \pm 0.20	6.40	7.37
C. org.	%	0.93 \pm 0.16	0.34 \pm 0.10	1.08	0.30

148 Note: CF: continuous flooding, DS: dry seeding and delayed flooding technique. No variability is
 149 reported for DS as only one plot was analysed.
 150

151 2.3. Experimental design

152 In this study, water balance was analysed in six contiguous fields, each with an area of about
 153 1840 m², hydraulically separated by 80 cm-wide embankments and supplied with water from the
 154 same canal. The plots and treatments were established in 2003 and are still on going.

155 The original set-up was created to compare different crop residue managements. Due to this,
 156 five of the six plots underwent the traditional and most used rice management in the Piemonte
 157 Region, which is continuous rice (*Oryza sativa* L.) cultivated with burnt or buried straw in the
 158 autumn/spring, ploughed and laser levelled, and submerged from pre-seeding to as long as one
 159 month before harvest, interrupted by drainages for fertilisation and weeding. As the five plots
 160 differed only in crop residue management technique, they underwent the same water management
 161 and were considered replicates named CF-1, CF-2, CF-3, CF-4, and CF-5. In the sixth plot (DS),
 162 dry seeding and delayed flooding management (submersion begun about one month later) was
 163 applied. Table 2 reports the different agricultural practices over the two years.

164

165 **Table 2.** Growing period and water management applied during 2009 and 2012.

Practice	2009		2012	
	CF	DS	CF	DS
Beginning first submersion	22/05	-	20/05	-
Sowing	22/05	8/05	20/05	6/05
Beginning first drainage	25/05	-	24/05	-
Beginning second submersion	6/06	-	5/06	-
Beginning second drainage	16/06	-	15/06	-
Beginning third submersion	20/06	20/06	20/06	20/06
Beginning third drainage	14/07	14/07	8/07	8/07
Beginning fourth submersion	16/07	16/07	14/07	14/07
Beginning fourth drainage	25/08	25/08	23/08	23/08
Harvest	28/09	28/09	27/09	27/09

166 Note: CF: continuous flooding, DS: dry seeding and delayed flooding technique. Submersion and drainage
 167 refer to the start of water management practice and not to water flooding status.
 168

169 In the six plots, water balance components were determined to calculate water infiltration as a
 170 difference between water inputs and the other water outputs.

171 From 2009 forward, the different plot inflows, outflows, water levels, and meteorological
 172 parameters were all measured. During 2010 and 2011, data were not recorded for the entire
 173 growing season period because of inoperable instruments resulting from lightning strikes;
 174 consequently, this work utilizes 2009 and 2012 data only.

175 Inflows from the canal and outflows from the field were measured by Endress+Hauser Promag
 176 10W instruments placed at the inlet and outlet of each field. Water level was measured using an
 177 Endress+Hauser Liquicap T FMI21 instrument with sensors attached to a TER AC420 data logger
 178 and powered by a 12-v lead-acid battery. Inflow and outflow measurements were recorded
 179 automatically every 10 min and water levels were registered every 30 min, which were sufficient

180 frequencies to describe fully the situation during agricultural practice. Data were stored in the data
181 logger and downloaded weekly.

182 A weather station was established in the experimental field to collect weather data for calculating
183 evapotranspiration. The station included a thermometer, anemometer, humidity sensor, net
184 radiometer, tipping bucket rain gauge, and wind intensity sensor. The weather sensors were
185 attached to a data logger and data were collected hourly. The wet-dry cycle is defined as the time
186 interval between the start of each submersion period and when the field water level is zero.
187 Infiltration rates have been calculated only during saturation periods, when fluxes are more
188 important. Water infiltration was not calculated during the dry periods between two submersions.

189 During the growing season, four wet-dry cycles were identified and named C1, C2, C3, and C4,
190 respectively. In DS, only C3 and C4 occurred. As water takes time to submerge or to leave soil,
191 each wet-dry cycle actually differs more than that reported by the mere date difference in Table 2;
192 Table 3 displays the dates when soil started/ended submersion and the actual length of each of
193 these cycles during the two years.

194 **Table 3.** Length of each wet-dry cycle.

	2009	2012
First cycle (C1)	10 days (22/05-31/05)	12 days (20/05-31/05)
Second cycle (C2)	10 days (06/06-15/06)	14 days (05/06-18/06)
Third cycle (C3)	25 days (20/06-14/07)	19 days (20/06-08/07)
Fourth cycle (C4)	47 days (16/07-31/08)	45 days (14/07-29/08)

195

196

197 **2.4 Water balance model**

198 Water balance in a flooded rice paddy can be described by a general mass conservation equation,
199 in which the sum of inflow and rainfall equals the sum of outflow, evapotranspiration, change in
200 in-field stored water, and infiltration during an interval of time. This allows infiltration—including

201 deep percolation and lateral seepage from the rice paddy—to be estimated by the following water
202 balance equation:

$$203 \quad P + S = I + R - (Et_c + O + dW) \quad \text{Eq. 1}$$

204 where P is deep percolation, S is lateral seepage, I is inflow from the irrigation network, R is
205 rainfall, Et_c is crop evapotranspiration, O is outflow, and dW is water storage change during a
206 certain period. Each variable is expressed in mm.

207 Lateral seepage was considered to be negligible as embankments were checked and properly
208 maintained; fields were large enough for vertical flow to prevail.

209 Water balance was calculated both hourly and for the total period to correspond to the time from
210 sowing to the end of the last wet-dry cycle (about one month before harvest). In the calculation of
211 water balance over the total period, water storage differences were not considered, as water storage
212 began the growing season and ended the last wet-dry cycle at zero. Soil water content variations
213 were considered negligible when compared to total annual water infiltrated.

214 Crop reference evapotranspiration was estimated using the Penman–Monteith method (Allen,
215 1998). It was calculated by multiplying the reference crop evapotranspiration (ET_0) by a crop
216 coefficient (K_c):

$$217 \quad ET_c = K_c ET_0 \quad \text{Eq. 2}$$

218 where, ET_c is crop evapotranspiration (mm/d); K_c is crop coefficient; ET_0 is reference crop
219 evapotranspiration (mm/d)

220 Studies carried out by Smith et al. (1992) showed that the FAO Penman-Monteith method
221 performs better and provides more consistent results than do other calculation methods. In this
222 study, the FAO Penman-Monteith equation with average daily data was employed to calculate

223 daily evapotranspiration. As infiltration rate changes during the crack filling process occur over a
224 time scale smaller than day, hourly data were also calculated.

225 The crop coefficient (K_c) varies over the growing period with plant growth characteristics,
226 cultivation, and local climatic conditions (Vu et al., 2005). In this study, standard condition
227 K_c values were used as the rice fields were properly managed. In particular, as suggested by Allen
228 et al. (1998), we considered three typical K_c values: initial stage crop coefficient (K_{c-ini}), mid-
229 season stage (K_{c-mid}), and end-of-late season stage (K_{c-end}). The values of K_c during crop
230 development and the late-season stage were calculated by linear interpolation. According to
231 recommendations in the FAO-56 method (FAO. 2002), under standard climatic condition, the
232 study area can be defined as a sub-humid climate. As the average daytime minimum relative
233 humidity (RH_{min}) was 55% and having light to moderate wind speeds averaging 1.55 m/s, the
234 adopted values of K_{c-ini} , K_{c-mid} , and K_{c-end} were 1.05, 1.2, and 0.9, respectively.

235

236 **2.5 Data analysis**

237 To investigate the effects that submerging water and wet-dry cycling have on the infiltration
238 dynamic, two different analyses were performed.

239 A three-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was applied to compare the average infiltration rate
240 of each wet-dry cycle in each year. The analysis considered cycle effect, year effect, their
241 interaction, and plot effect as block.

242 A repeated measure model was used to compare average infiltration rate during the first two
243 days (time 1) with the rate during the second three days (time 2) for each cycle. The model included
244 cycle, year, and plot as the main effects and time as a repeated measure.

245 Comparisons were made between the CF and DS water managements using confidence intervals;
246 however, no ANOVA was performed in DS due to the lack of data during C1 and C2.

247 CF and DS water balance components were compared using confidence intervals once plot and
248 year effect were extracted from the residual error used to calculate the confidence interval.

249

250 **3. Results and discussion**

251 **3.1 Effects influencing the infiltration dynamic**

252 ***3.1.1 Infiltration dynamic over the growing season***

253 In this section, we describe the general dynamic of the average infiltration rate during the
254 growing season, as calculated from daily measures of the different wet-dry cycles. Soil tillage and
255 water management directly affect the hydraulic soil properties of rice paddies. In fact, the
256 continuous presence of submerging water destroys porosity and reduces water percolation, even
257 where puddling was not applied (Sander and Gerke, 2007). The results, shown in Table 4, indicate
258 that the cycle and the year are the main factors that influence the average daily infiltration rate of
259 each wet-dry cycle.

260 **Table 4.** Significance analysis of the average daily infiltration of the total wet-dry cycle

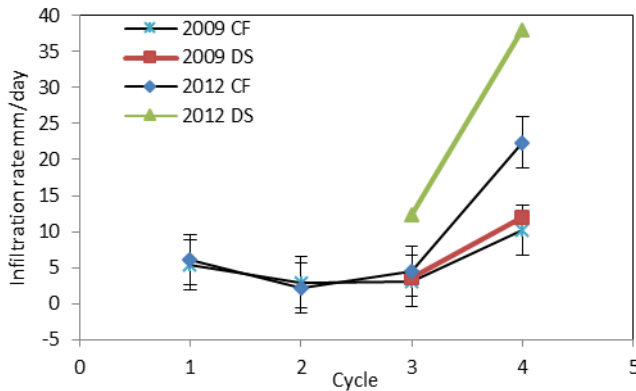
Source	Sig.
Cycle	0.000
Year	0.010
Year * Cycle	0.003
Plot	n.s.

261

262 However, even after acknowledging that a significant interaction exists between Year and Cycle,
263 our study results showed that in CF, the average daily infiltration rate of each cycle decreased
264 between C1 and C2 (Figure 2), remained constant between the C2 and C3, and then increased after

265 C3 to its maximum value attained the end of the growing season. Between-year differences are
266 probably attributable to different meteorological occurrences and soil behaviour. Either way, both
267 years demonstrate the general dynamic described above.

268 Data calculated in DS for C3 and C4 also confirm the same trend during the two years, although
269 the magnitude of the trend is amplified in 2012 with respect to 2009.



270

271 **Figure 2.** The trend of average daily infiltration rates for each wet-dry cycle in CF (with 95%
272 confidence interval) and in DS. CF: continuous flooding, DS: dry seeding and delayed flooding
273 technique.

274 The study of Sacco et al. (2012), conducted at this same experimental site, showed that macro
275 porosity and near-saturated hydraulic conductivity decreased during the beginning of the growing
276 season, and then increased later. The bulk density showed the opposite trend. As expected, soil
277 properties influenced water infiltration to a great extent. The results reported here confirmed that
278 the general infiltration rate dynamic trended like macro porosity and near-saturated hydraulic
279 conductivity.

280 The daily infiltration rate increase observed in the last cycle may be caused by preferential flow,
281 which occurs through the interconnected cracks, inter-aggregate pores, earthworm burrows, and
282 crop root development canals (Cameira, et al., 2003; Lennartz, et al., 2009; Sidle, 1998; Zehe and
283 Fluhler, 2001). Cracks are evident at the soil surface during the period between two successive
284 floods, but during submersion water creates mud and it is not possible to verify the presence of

285 cracks. Moreover, during submersion the hydraulic property of cracks may change as the
286 surrounding soil matrix swells due to its clay content and mineral composition (Zhang, et al.,
287 2013). Indeed, cracks may not fully disappear, even under wet conditions (Gerke, 2006). In the
288 study area considered, the soil is not typically puddled. Indeed, studies have found repeated
289 puddling increases sealing and decreases mechanical top soil-swelling (Lennartz, et al., 2009), and
290 that macropore and crack network persistence can lead to preferential flow, even under flooding
291 conditions (Sander and Gerke, 2007).

292 A similar phenomenon can occur in the crack networks below the ploughing pan in paddy rice
293 fields, which may persist during ponding to form preferential flow paths. The ploughing pan is the
294 most efficient layer to stop or reduce the rate of rice paddy infiltration by controlling vertical water
295 loss to the subsoil (Zhang, et al., 2013). Experiments have demonstrated that the infiltration rate
296 can increase by as much as 3.7 times if the ploughing pan is removed through digging (Chen and
297 Liu, 2002). The ploughing pan is quite effective at reducing water infiltration after soil ploughing
298 and laser levelling, but during the growing season it faces the effects of mineral shrinking and
299 swelling, interconnected crack formation, earthworm burrowing, and crop root canaling that can
300 all impact its hydraulic characteristics greatly.

301

302 **3.1.2 Infiltration dynamic in each wet-dry cycle**

303 The variation in the infiltration rate during the first five days of each cycle was studied by
304 comparing the average daily infiltration rate during first two days (time 1) with the average daily
305 infiltration rate of the second three days (time 2) of each wet-dry cycle in both years. Data were
306 averaged over a two- or three-day period to remove short-term variability. The length of the two

307 periods was chosen based on the infiltration rate variation that is greater during the first period and
308 smaller during the second period.

309 Table 5 reports the results of ANOVA. In the between subject analysis, Cycle, Year, and their
310 interaction (Cycle x Year) all resulted as significant. Moreover, in the within subject analysis,
311 Time alone was significant in the interaction with all other sources, which included the three way
312 interaction of Time*Cycle*Year.

313 **Table 5.** Significance analysis of the infiltration rate variation in each cycle.

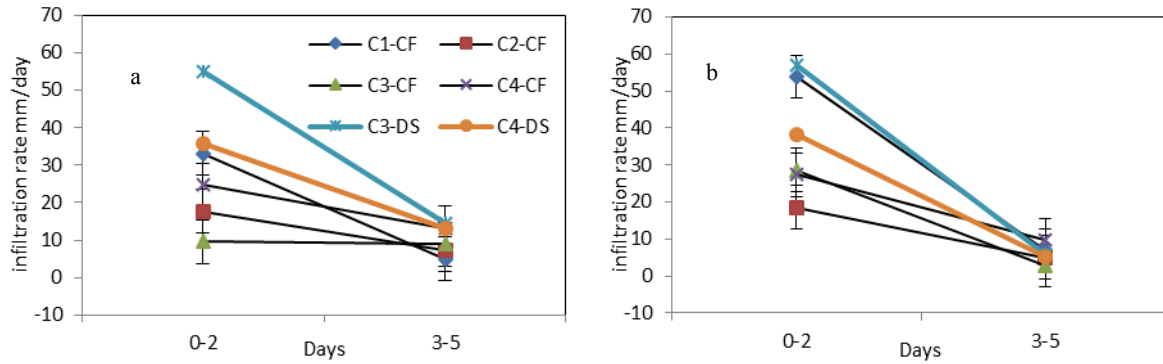
Source	Sig.
Between subject analysis	
Cycle	0.00
Year	0.00
Cycle * Year	0.01
Plot	n.s.
Within subject analysis	
Time	0.00
Time * Cycle	0.00
Time * Year	0.00
Time * Cycle * Year	0.00

314
315 Although the significance of the three-way interaction denotes a different behaviour for Time
316 effects in Cycle, in Year, and in their interaction, some information can be derived from the result.
317 As reported in Figure 3, the average daily infiltration rate of the first two days decreased from the
318 first cycle (C1) to the second cycle (C2), and then increased during the last cycle in both years.
319 This trend is similar to the average daily infiltration rate trend for the total wet-dry cycle as
320 discussed in sub-section 4.1.1. However, in C1, the average daily infiltration rate in time 2
321 decreased dramatically relative to time 1. During the three cycles that followed, the amplitude of
322 this reduction fell to lower levels, or in some cases, to a constant average infiltration rate during

323 times 1 and 2. In DS, C1 and C2 did not occur. In this water management, the soil was not
324 submerged before C3, which allows comparison of C3 in DS with C1 in CF. Figure 3 reported
325 data referring to DS water management confirm this expectation in both years. The general trend
326 of the infiltration rate reduction between times 1 and 2 in CF between C1 and C2 was also noted
327 in DS between C3 and C4.

328 In general, after a dry period, soil water content is less than saturated and some cracks and
329 macropores are dry. As re-wetting begins, a lot of water goes to filling them. Tan et al. (2013)
330 found that cumulative percolation during the first five days after submersion began in non-constant
331 flooding is significantly greater than that in continuous flooding. In the first cycle of our study, the
332 daily infiltration rate decreased dramatically after two days in both 2009 and 2012. Prior to C1 the
333 soil was tilled, but never submerged, making it as mainly built of juxtaposed aggregates. Then, at
334 the beginning of C1 when the soil was wetted, its structure was destroyed by the submerging water;
335 consequently, the infiltration rate was reduced. It has been observed that in paddy soil macropores
336 and fractures formed by tillage before the first submersion maintain a high infiltration rate only
337 temporarily, which then decreases to even lower levels than that measured on non-cracked soil
338 derived from swelling that closes the fractures (Liu, et al., 2003). The same process can be found
339 in DS at C3 as this treatment was not previously submerged and then the soil was dried.

340



341
 342 **Figure 3.** Dynamic of average daily infiltration rate in CF (with 95% confidence interval) and DS
 343 during days 0-2 and 3-5. CF: continuous flooding, DS: dry seeding and delayed flooding technique.
 344 C1, C2, C3, C4 are respectively Cycle 1, 2, 3, and 4. a) 2009; b) 2012.

345 To improve our understanding of the development of the infiltration rate at the start of re-
 346 wetting, the cumulative infiltration depth was calculated during the first 40 hours as shown in
 347 Figure 4. This data represents the cumulated infiltration quantity obtained by summing hourly
 348 water balance calculations. It is known from the literature that the initial soil intake of water in the
 349 first five hours is about two-thirds of the total intake (Mitchell and Van Genuchten, 1993).

350 Figure 4 highlights a general trend describing a logarithmic function reaching different
 351 cumulative depths, which are dependent on the infiltration rate. When year-specific differences
 352 are ignored, water infiltration in CF during the first 40 hours amounted to, on average, 79 mm, 35
 353 mm, 42 mm, and 59 in C1, C2, C3, and C4, respectively. In DS the amount of water infiltrating
 354 during the first 40 hours averaged 112 mm and 74 mm for C3 and C4, respectively.

355 The higher infiltration depths seen in C1 (CF) and in C3 (DS) demonstrated the short but high
 356 infiltration rate previously described in Figure 3 resulting from the first submersion in these
 357 treatments.

358 During the last cycle in CF, the cumulated infiltration depth is relatively higher than in C2 for
 359 the same treatment. The comparison with C3 is year-specific as 2009 and 2012 showed different
 360 behaviours. This increase is mainly affected by soil structure change during the lengthy flooding

361 time, alternated wetting and drying, and root growth. It also confirms that cracks formed during
362 drying periods and root canals fail to disappear under flooding conditions. Cracks developed
363 during the soil drying period did not completely close upon rewetting, resulting in high loss of
364 water to percolation (Zhang et al. 2014; Cabangon and Tuong, 2000).

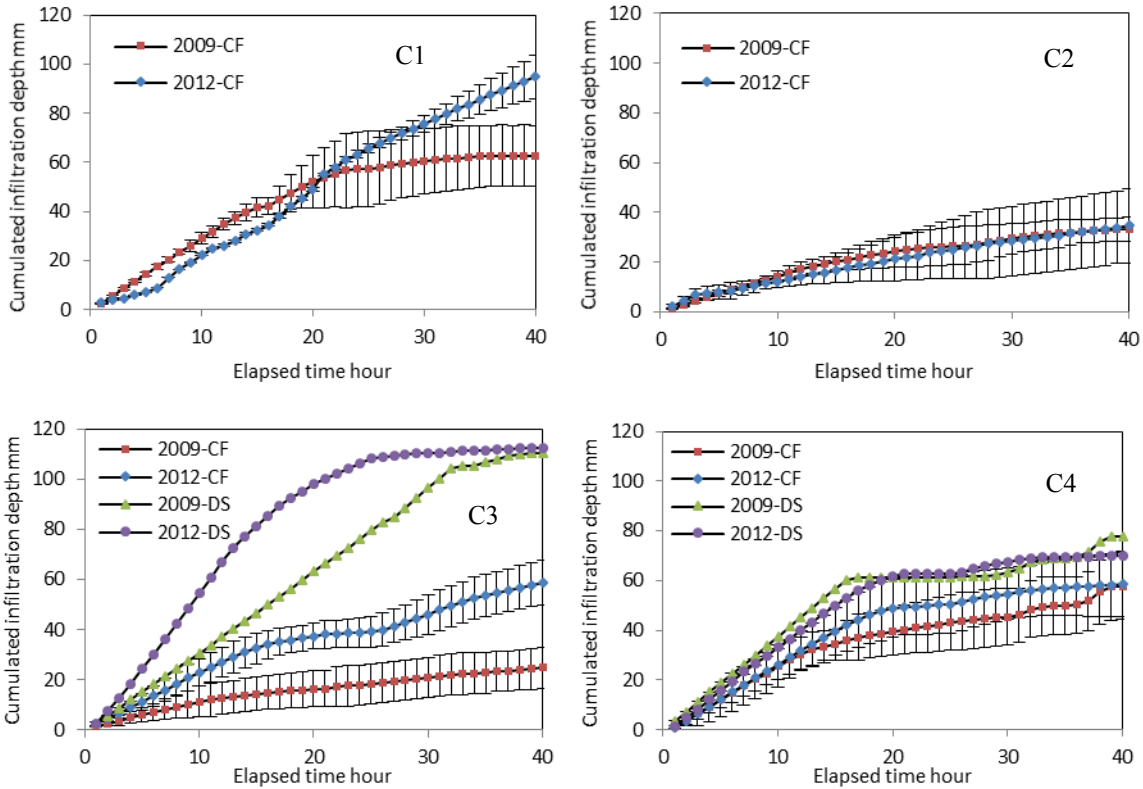
365 Crack filling usually occurs within the first 20 hours, during which the infiltration rate is
366 extremely high and might allow large quantities of nutrients and pesticides to leach into the local
367 groundwater.

368 Considering the amount of water that infiltrated during the first 40 hours of the different wet-
369 dry cycles in CF and DS, the highest potential risk of groundwater pollution was during C1 and
370 C4 (CF) and during C3 and C4 (DS). Also worthy of note is that the infiltration depth measured in
371 C4 (DS) was greater than that measured from C2 to C4 (CF). As fertilisers and herbicides are
372 typically distributed before C1 and C4, and fertiliser alone is distributed before C3, fertiliser and
373 pesticide applications should be carefully timed, so that the soil is re-wetted prior to chemical
374 spreading and maintain a closed outlet closed for some days.

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381 **Figure 4.** Infiltration rate trends in first 40 hours after irrigation in four wet-dry cycles

382 **3.2 Water infiltration quantification**

383 Table 6 reports the total water infiltrated in 2009 and 2012 from the six plots, five under CF and
384 one under DS water management, as well as the components of balance (irrigation, rainfall, outlet,
385 evapotranspiration, and infiltration difference). The CF plot water levels averaged 68 ± 3.7 mm
386 (95% confidence interval (CI)) with a 6% coefficient of variation (CV), which is a low value given
387 that the variable is fully controllable.

388 Total cumulative inlet water (irrigation) ranged between 2197 mm and 2700 mm in 2009, and
389 between 2481mm and 3130 mm in 2012; the overall total averaged 2596 mm. In DS, despite an
390 irrigation start one month later than in CF plots, the irrigation water total was within the 95% CI

391 of the CF water management total. The reason for this probably relates to the large amount of
392 water needed to completely fill the paddy field from the water table to the soil surface that
393 represents the main water consumption, while the following water use, applied to maintain an
394 appropriate water level is much lower than this amount. The relatively low CV indicated that the
395 irrigation supply was quite stable among the different plots, which is not surprising given it can be
396 well controlled by the farmer. Rainfall during these two years contributed only 5% of the input
397 water total.

398 After taking output into account, 47% of the water flowing into the field leaves via the outlet
399 although this measure is less precise and less controllable than the inlet. Therefore, the CV of this
400 measurement is higher (20%).

401 The hourly infiltration rate across all CF plots and irrigation periods averaged 0.36 ± 0.14 mm/h
402 (95% CI) had the highest CV (37%), as it cumulated all the uncertainty of the other balance
403 components. The average DS infiltration rate was within the 95% CI of CF measures.

404

405 **Table 6.** Water balance components.

Year	Treatment	Average water level(mm)	Inlet(mm)	Rainfall (mm)	Total input (mm)	Outlet(mm)	ET(mm)	Total output(mm)	Calculated infiltration (mm)	Calculated infiltration rate(mm/h)
2009	CF-1	67	2275	114	2389	1343	516	1859	529	0.21
	CF-2	74	2453	114	2567	1614	516	2130	437	0.17
	CF-3	71	2197	114	2311	1392	516	1908	389	0.15
	CF-4	60	2700	114	2815	904	516	1420	1395	0.56
	CF-5	75	2484	114	2598	1077	516	1593	971	0.39
2012	CF-1	61	3130	155	3285	1951	565	2516	680	0.29
	CF-2	79	2736	155	2892	737	565	1302	1456	0.63
	CF-3	68	2481	155	2636	1165	565	1730	802	0.34
	CF-4	56	2553	155	2709	1196	565	1761	948	0.41
	CF-5	63	2954	155	3109	1335	565	1901	1070	0.46
	Average	68	2596	135	2731	1271	541	1812	868	0.36
	LL	64	2371		2506	912		1452	537	0.23
	UL	71	2821		2956	1631		2172	1199	0.5
	CV	6%	9%		8%	28%		20%	38%	37%
2009	DS	55	2334	114	2448	1297	516	1813	618	0.25
2012	DS	24	2723	155	2878	556	565	1079	1728	0.74
	Average	40	2528		2663	926	541	1446	1173	0.49

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407

408 Analysis of the CF and DS water managements suggests that it is inefficient to delay irrigation
 409 one month to reduce rice paddy irrigation. In this study, no water savings was realized by
 410 employing the dry seeding and delayed flooding (DS) water management technique. While this
 411 rice paddy management presents many agronomical advantages mainly related to soil
 412 trafficability, crop health and reduced risk of lodging during the first part of the growing cycle, it
 413 does not represent a potential solution for future water saving in rice paddy areas.

414

415 CONCLUSION

416 A field-scale study was carried out to study the infiltration rate dynamic throughout the growing
 417 season and during each wet-dry cycle in rice paddies and quantify the infiltration that takes place
 418 under different water managements (continuous flooding (CF) and delayed submersion (DS)).

419 The average daily infiltration rate decreased between the first and second cycles, increased after
 420 the third cycle, and reached its maximum value at the end of growing season. Water infiltrated

421 dramatically during the first 40 hours of each wet-dry cycle and particularly at the first and fourth
422 wetting in DS, which were the highest potential groundwater pollution risk periods. As fertilisers
423 and herbicides are typically distributed before C1 and C4, and fertiliser alone is distributed before
424 C3, fertiliser and pesticide applications should be carefully timed, so that reduce the chemical
425 spreading.

426 Also, compared the total amount of irrigation in DS and in CF, no water savings was realized by
427 DS water management technique, as the total water used in the two treatments was identical.

428 From the results we can see that in rice paddies, infiltration rate dynamic study is essential to
429 water resource management and water quality management.

430

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