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1 **Ammonia volatilisation from pig slurry and ANS with DMPP applied to**
2 **Westerwold ryegrass (*Lolium multiflorum* Lam., cv. Trinova) under**
3 **Mediterranean conditions**

4

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12

13 **Abstract**

14

15 Ammonia volatilisation from agriculture represents an important nitrogen (N) loss with
16 both environmental and economic impacts. In regions with large amounts of manures
17 available, there is a need to find appropriate management strategies that help to reuse
18 them without increasing ammonia volatilisation. A study was made of the effect on
19 ammonia volatilisation and yield of fertilising ryegrass with pig slurry (PS) and
20 ammonium nitrosulphate (ANS-26) alone and with the 3,4-dimethylpyrazol phosphate
21 (DMPP) nitrification inhibitor added to them. The study was conducted under
22 Mediterranean conditions at two different sites. The treatments (control, PS, PS+DMPP,
23 ANS-26 and ENTEC[®]) were established in a randomised block design with three
24 replicates. Ammonia was sampled daily after each fertilisation using semi-static
25 volatilisation chambers. We hypothesised that PS could replace mineral fertiliser
26 without substantially increasing ammonia volatilisation in the studied systems.

27 Temperature positively correlated with ammonia emissions. On the whole, during the
28 two years of the study, the PS treatments presented higher average cumulative ammonia
29 volatilisation (25% of total ammonium nitrogen (TAN) applied at Site 1; 21% of TAN
30 applied at Site 2) than the mineral ones (11% of TAN applied at Site 1; 10% of TAN
31 applied at Site 2). At pre-sowing, ammonia volatilisation was significantly ($p < 0.05$)
32 lower (51% at Site 1; 55% at Site 2) than after ryegrass cuts due to burying PS
33 immediately after application. Overall, applying DMPP had no effect on ammonia
34 volatilisation. There were no significant differences in average yield (from 13.7 to 15.8
35 kg ha^{-1} at Site 1; from 11.6 to 13.5 kg ha^{-1} at Site 2) between the fertilised treatments,
36 though ENTEC[®] tended to increase it. Applying PS (pre-sowing fertilisation) in
37 combination with mineral N or processed PS fractions after ryegrass cuts could be an
38 interesting option for the recycling of this livestock by-product without increasing
39 ammonia volatilisation while maintaining yields.

40

41 **Keywords:** NH_3 , Pig slurry, Nitrification inhibitor, Slurry incorporation, ENTEC[®]

42

43 **HIGHLIGHTS**

44

- 45 - Applying pig slurry at pre-sowing did not increase ammonia volatilisation
- 46 - Burying pig slurry after application reduced ammonia emissions
- 47 - Applying mineral fertilisers when the crop is absorbing N minimises nitrate leaching
- 48 - DMPP application had no effect on ammonia volatilisation

49

50 **1. Introduction**

51

52 Global livestock production has rapidly grown as world population has risen and
53 become steadily wealthier (ten Hove et al., 2016). In 2018, Catalonia (NE Spain) had a
54 total herd of almost 8 million pigs (including breeding mothers, males, fattening pigs
55 and piglets; Institut d'Estadística de Catalunya, n.d.). Within the European Union, Spain
56 is the second highest slaughterer of pigs (19%) after Germany (23%) (EUROSTAT,
57 n.d.). Spain is also the world's fourth largest pig producer (MAPA, n.d.). It is necessary
58 to find sustainable ways of applying the large amount of pig slurry (PS) produced in
59 Spain to high nitrogen demanding crops for which this is not yet common practice.

60

61 There are several benefits associated with applying farm by-products as fertilisers
62 (compared with mineral ones) including energy saving and avoiding emissions
63 associated with the industrial process of N fixation (Sanz-Cobena et al., 2017). Such
64 applications allow meeting the organic matter and nutrient requirements of agricultural
65 soils (Aguilera et al., 2013). In particular, PS is widely recognised as a valuable source
66 of N and P for crops (Guillaumes and Villar, 2004). It is also interesting to apply PS as
67 a fertiliser within the framework of the Nitrates Directive, as long as it is applied in
68 appropriate agronomic doses in order to avoid NO_3^- -N leaching (Teira-Esmatges and
69 Flotats, 2003; ten Hove et al., 2016). Due to mechanical constraints (it is hard to apply
70 a dose of PS below a certain threshold), PS should be administered to crops with
71 relatively high nutrient needs (not to extensive Mediterranean crops such as olives,
72 almonds, vineyards or fruit trees) such as wheat, barley, rice, maize and ryegrass,
73 among others. To our knowledge, there is little information available on the effects of
74 PS applied to ryegrass under Mediterranean conditions. As PS has low dry matter (2-

75 6%; AHDB, 2017) and contains nitrogen (N) which is mainly in the form of NH_4^+
76 (~70%) (Martínez et al., 2017a), it constitutes a source of readily available N. If not
77 managed appropriately, applying PS may have some negative impacts on the
78 environment (Guillaumes et al., 2006; Martínez et al., 2017b). Although ammonia is not
79 a direct greenhouse gas (GHG), its emission into the atmosphere affects air quality: it is
80 a precursor of low diameter particulate matter ($\text{PM}_{2.5}$) and has been linked to the loss of
81 nutrients (Tian et al., 2015). Furthermore, ammonia volatilisation has a negative impact
82 on biodiversity: it is associated with eutrophication, soil acidification and has direct
83 toxic effects on aquatic animals (Guthrie et al., 2018). The loss of N in the form of
84 ammonia therefore represents a substantial financial cost for farmers (Pan et al., 2016).

85

86 Ammonia is lost via volatilisation, which is one of the foremost pathways of N loss in
87 agricultural systems (Pan et al., 2016). In fact, agriculture accounts for about 50% of all
88 ammonia emissions worldwide (Sommer et al., 2004). Previous studies have reported
89 ammonia losses of up to 56% associated with applying N fertiliser; individual rates may
90 depend on such factors as soil moisture, temperature, soil pH, wind speed, fertiliser
91 type, etc. (Singh et al., 2013). An average of 10-14% of the N applied with mineral
92 fertilisers is lost via volatilisation (Zhang et al., 2018a), while livestock manure is
93 responsible for roughly 40% of global ammonia emissions and 70% of the ammonia
94 emissions in Europe (ten Hoeve et al., 2016).

95

96 It has been reported that temperature, wind speed, rainfall and the dry matter content of
97 cattle and pig manure and slurry influence ammonia emissions after their surface
98 application in the field (Huijsmans et al., 2001; Misselbrook et al., 2005). This means
99 that the moment of fertiliser application can be critical if significant losses of N from

100 the soil are to be avoided (Bell et al., 2016). As for ryegrass, pig slurry is usually
101 applied at pre-sowing. Although it makes sense to apply it at other moments according
102 to crop needs and the availability of this fertiliser resource, there is a gap in the
103 knowledge about its effect on volatilisation after ryegrass cuts. It has been observed that
104 the immediate incorporation of animal slurry and manure applied at pre-sowing can
105 effectively reduce ammonia volatilisation from arable land (Sommer and Hutchings,
106 2001; Webb et al., 2014). This, in turn, helps to minimise its exposure to the air. This
107 practice has become generalised in Catalonia following the introduction of Decree
108 153/2019 (DARP, 2019). According to Pan et al. (2016), adjusting irrigation inputs
109 (which could be applied after PS application after ryegrass cuts) may, for example,
110 mitigate ammonia volatilisation by between 47 and 90%.

111

112 Nitrification inhibitors (NIs) slow down the conversion of ammonium (NH_4^+) into
113 nitrate (NO_3^-) (Zhang et al., 2018b). Kim et al. (2012) reported that NIs could increase,
114 reduce or leave ammonia emissions unchanged. The 3,4-dimethylpyrazole phosphate
115 (DMPP) is generally more effective and longer lasting than other NIs and requires lower
116 application doses ($0.5\text{-}1.5 \text{ kg DMPP ha}^{-1}$; Rowlings et al., 2016). DMPP has a similar
117 level of mobility to NH_4^+ ; this limits the likelihood of leaching (Subbarao et al., 2006).
118 However, as the use of NIs may also prolong the retention of NH_4^+ in the soil, they
119 could cause increased ammonia volatilisation (Lam et al., 2016). NIs are widely used to
120 control ammonia emissions resulting from organic and mineral fertilisation (Soares et
121 al., 2012; Recio et al., 2018; Mariano et al., 2019). However, little is known about the
122 effect of those inhibitors on PS applied to ryegrass (*Lolium multiflorum* Lam.).

123

124 Many publications have studied ammonia volatilisation from other crops: wheat (Meade
125 et al., 2011; Nyord et al., 2012); wheat and barley (Bosch-Serra et al., 2014); barley
126 (Yagüe et al., 2019); maize-oat rotation (Aita et al., 2019); maize (Recio et al., 2018),
127 and grasslands (Misselbrook et al., 1996; Rodhe et al., 2006). Nevertheless, there is
128 little available information about the effects of PS fertilisation on ammonia losses from
129 ryegrass (Park et al., 2018).

130

131 The objective of the current study was therefore to compare the effects of applying pig
132 slurry and mineral fertilisers, both with and without the addition of NI, on ammonia
133 volatilisation and yield of a Westerwold ryegrass crop grown under Mediterranean
134 irrigated and rainfed conditions.

135

136 The hypotheses formulated for this study were: i) PS may offer an alternative to mineral
137 fertilisers when seeking to fertilise ryegrass without substantially increasing ammonia
138 volatilisation; ii) DMPP addition could stimulate ammonia volatilisation.

139

140 **2. Material and methods**

141

142 2.1. Site description

143

144 *2.1.1. Location, climate, soil type and crops*

145

146 The study was conducted at two different sites in order to cover the thermal range of the
147 plain cropping area in Catalonia (Meteorological Service of Catalonia, n.d.a) during two
148 cropping years (2005 to 2007). One site was located on a commercial farm at Torreneral

149 (Catalonia, NE Spain). This field had an area of 0.9 ha. The other site was established at
150 the experimental site of a research institute: IRTA Mas Badia (Catalonia, NE Spain).
151 The location of both sites and the land use can be seen in Fig. 1.

152

153 The climate of the study area at Torreneral (hereinafter Site 1) is Mediterranean
154 semiarid continental, with warm, dry summers and cold winters (Fig. 2a). The average
155 annual rainfall is about 390 mm and the annual average temperature is 13.5 °C.

156

157 The soil is very deep and is coarse loamy, mixed, calcareous and mesic; it is classified
158 as a Typic Calcixerept (SSS, 2003). The main soil properties are presented in Table 1.

159

160 Meteorological data were obtained from the closest meteorological stations, located at
161 El Poal and Tornabous (Meteorological Service of Catalonia, n.d.b). Average daily air
162 temperature and relative humidity during fertilisations are shown in Fig. 3 (see
163 Supplementary material).

164

165 At Mas Badia (hereinafter Site 2), the climate is typical of the Mediterranean coast:
166 mild and generally warm (Fig. 2b). The average annual rainfall is about 600 mm while
167 the annual average temperature is 15.9 °C. The soil is very deep, coarse loamy, mixed,
168 calcareous, thermic; it is classified as a Typic Xerofluvent (SSS, 2003). The main soil
169 properties can be found in Table 1. Meteorological data were obtained from an
170 automated meteorological station set up at the experimental site (Fig. 4, see
171 Supplementary material).

172

173 The usual crops in the areas of study can be seen in Fig. 1. Prior to the present study, at
174 Site 1 the regular crop rotation was maize-fodder (alfalfa or ryegrass)-wheat. In
175 addition, the plots were fallow the year prior to the study. At Site 2, the usual crop
176 rotation was rainfed winter cereals and, in some years, maize irrigated by furrows. At
177 both sites, previous fertilisation was mainly mineral.

178

179 *2.1.2. Hydrologic characterisation*

180

181 Site 1 is on the modern Holocene alluvial fan of the Ondara river (distal part). There is a
182 good hydraulic connection between the aquifer and the surface water. The unit has high
183 hydraulic permeability (IGCC, 2017). The area belongs to the irrigation system of
184 Canals d'Urgell.

185

186 At the end of July 2005 (year 1), the soil profile was excavated down to 165 cm at Site
187 1. No water table was found nor any signs of soil hydromorphism. Prior to the start of
188 the study, passive Gee capillary lysimeters (Decagon Devices, Inc.) were installed at
189 each plot (15 at each site) in order to monitor NO_3^- leaching. However, at Site 1 there
190 was a flash-flood of the Ondara river at the end of 2005. The water table rose and
191 impeded lysimeter functioning as the water entered through the lower end of the
192 divergence control tube leading to a false leachate registry. Water also entered through
193 the leachate evacuation port, mixing with the actual leachate. As a result, no nitrate
194 leaching data could be analysed. A few drainage water samples from two of the
195 elementary plots were available, suggesting that nitrate leaching was not relevant (data
196 not shown). The use of these lysimeters in this study proved to be important for the firm
197 that manufactured them, and they were subsequently modified after this episode.

198 Site 2 is on the alluvial plain of the Ter river, exactly on the "Pla de Canet", 1 to 2 km
199 from the Ter river. It is a well drained unit with high hydraulic permeability and a very
200 good connection between the groundwater and surface waters. There is an oscillating
201 water table at 5 to 10 m depth and other deeper ones (IGC, ACA and ICC, 2011).

202

203 One year later than in Site 1, Gee capillary lysimeters also were installed at each plot in
204 Site 2, where they worked as expected. Fig. 5 (see Supplementary material) shows the
205 average drainage volume recorded per treatment from September 2006 till the end of the
206 ammonia sampling and a few months more. The leachate nitrate concentrations were
207 low for all the treatments (Table 2). No statistical analysis of these data was done
208 because the data matrix was not complete.

209

210 2.2. Experimental set up

211

212 Westerwold ryegrass (*Lolium multiflorum* Lam., cv. Trinova) was sown each year in
213 September (Table 3). The seeding rates were 20 kg ha⁻¹ at Site 1, and 30 kg ha⁻¹ at Site
214 2. The individual plots were 10 m wide x 24 m long at Site 1, and 5 m wide x 8 m long
215 at Site 2.

216

217 At both sites, the experimental set-up had a completely randomised block design, with
218 three replicates. There were five fertiliser treatments: i) Control (C), without any N
219 application, ii) ammonium nitrosulphate (ANS-26); iii) ENTEC[®] (ANS-26+DMPP); iv)
220 pig slurry (PS), and v) PS+DMPP (4 L ha⁻¹ of a 2% DMPP solution). At both Site 1 and
221 Site 2, the objective was to apply about 250 kg N ha⁻¹ (except during the year 1 at Site

222 1). The exact doses of PS and mineral fertiliser applied before sowing (pre-sowing) and
223 after the first and second cuts are shown in Table 4.

224

225 Due to the high initial soil P and K contents at Site 1, no P or K fertilisation was applied
226 to the mineral fertiliser treatments throughout the study. In contrast, mineral P and K
227 were applied at Site 2 in order to obtain equal amounts of both macronutrients on both
228 the plots to which PS was applied and those to which it was not.

229

230 The PS was analysed (Table 5) before application and mechanically incorporated into
231 the soil on the same day of its application. At Site 1, the amount of PS applied was
232 measured on site for each plot and application time; this was done using trays laid on
233 the soil. At Site 2, pig slurry was applied manually and the amount administered was
234 carefully prepared beforehand.

235

236 At Site 1, as ryegrass cultivation is not possible without irrigation, about 150 mm
237 irrigation was applied immediately after sowing. A second dose of irrigation (60 mm)
238 was then applied a couple of days later, using a mobile rain gun sprinkler. The crop was
239 then irrigated according to the farmer's criterion. The irrigation water was of good
240 quality, with low NO_3^- and low electrical conductivity ($\text{EC} < 0.5 \text{ dS m}^{-1}$). Nitrogen
241 deposition via precipitation was negligible (data not shown).

242

243 2.3. Ammonia sampling and quantification

244

245 Before fertilisation, ammonia was sampled to know the background volatilisation.
246 Following fertilisation, ammonia from the fertilised treatments was quantified following

247 the methodology described in Bosch-Serra et al. (2014), with some minor
248 modifications. In this study, one sponge (trap) per chamber was used; the chambers
249 mainly consisted of 23.4 cm diameter, 15 cm high, low-density polyethylene
250 terephthalate (LD PET) cylinders; at Site 2, some of them were 27 cm in diameter and
251 12.5 cm in height.

252

253 Unlike the methodology reported by Bosch-Serra et al. (2014), in our study, once in the
254 laboratory, each sponge was soaked in distilled water (four times with 100 mL) and then
255 made up to 500 mL in a volumetric flask. Within this total volume, a 100 mL aliquot
256 was then mixed with 10 mL of NaOH (40% w/v); this allowed the release of ammonia
257 in the form of gas. This process was repeated twice per sponge. The ammonia
258 quantification was carried out using ammonia selective electrodes (Crison, micropH
259 2002 at Site 1, and Mettler-Toledo™ S230 at Site 2).

260

261 During rainfall events, the chambers were covered with plastic bags. Given these
262 modifications, it is not possible to speak about open chambers here, but rather of closed
263 chambers.

264

265 On the first day of sampling (after fertilisation application), the traps were changed
266 twice. During the following 10 to 13 days of sampling, the traps were changed once
267 every 24 h. Thereafter, given the lower ammonia volatilisation rate, the traps were
268 changed two to three times per week. All the results were calculated and reported as
269 daily (24 h) volatilisation.

270

271 Cumulative volatilisation is expressed as the mass of NH₃-N per hectare, and as the
272 percentage of the total N applied and of the total ammonium nitrogen (TAN) applied,
273 lost over the sampling periods.

274

275 2.4. Soil sampling and analysis

276

277 Soil samples were taken at four different moments: before sowing and after each cut.
278 They were taken using an Edelman auger. At Site 1, some extra samples were taken
279 before and after the 1st cut. These samples were composite: at both sites, they were
280 obtained from three different subsamples and taken from the same plot at a depth of 0-
281 30 cm (the results down to 120 cm are not shown). The samples were then placed in a
282 sealed and labelled plastic bag and kept in a cold store at 4 °C until analysis. Soil
283 moisture (%) was determined by drying at 105 °C to constant weight. Soil NO₃⁻-N was
284 quantified from a soil water extract (1:2.5) by spectrophotometry performed with a
285 continuous flow autoanalyser (λ = 520 nm). Quantification was based on the modified
286 Griess-Ilosvay method (method of Barnes and Folkard, 1951, and Bremner, 1965, in
287 Page et al., 1982). Ammonium nitrogen was extracted with KCl and quantified by
288 visible UV spectrophotometry (λ = 660 nm), based on the Berthelot reaction (Berthelot
289 1859 in Page et al., 1982).

290

291 The nitric nitrogen in the drainage water collected from the lysimeters was analysed.
292 Two readings were taken of each water sample. The determination of nitric nitrogen
293 was made by means of a nitrate test with Merckoquant[®] indicator strips, providing a
294 semi-quantitative determination of nitrate ions. The determinations were performed
295 using a Nitracheck[®] reflectometer. Readings of a known nitrate concentration pattern

296 (100 ppm) were taken with the aim of establishing a correction factor for the
297 temperature and the batch of indicator strips.

298

299 The correction factor for the readings was calculated using the following formula:

300
$$f = \frac{100}{\bar{X}},$$

301 where, f = correction factor and \bar{X} = average of the pattern measurements.

302

303 To correct the readings, it is necessary to apply the correction factor to the group of
304 determined samples. We applied the following formula:

305
$$Cr = f \times R$$

306 where, Cr = corrected reading of nitric nitrogen (ppm); f = correction factor; and

307 R = uncorrected reading

308

309 To change the nitrogen value in ppm obtained with the Nitracheck[®] reflectometer to kg
310 of nitric nitrogen leached per hectare, the following formula was used:

311
$$LN = Cr \times Dv \times 0.00226$$

312 where, LN = leached or washed nitrogen ($\text{kg NO}_3^- \text{-N ha}^{-1}$); Cr = corrected reading of
313 nitric nitrogen (ppm); Dv = drainage volume collected by the lysimeters ($\text{m}^2 \text{ L}^{-1}$).

314 0.00226 is the factor to obtain the result in kg of nitrogen per hectare and was obtained
315 from the following calculation:

316

317
$$\frac{Cr \text{ mg NO}_3^-}{L} \times \frac{Dv \text{ L}}{\text{m}^2} \times \frac{10^4 \text{ m}^2}{1 \text{ ha}} \times \frac{1 \text{ g}}{10^3 \text{ mg}} \times \frac{1 \text{ mol NO}_3^-}{62 \text{ g}} \times \frac{14 \text{ g N}}{1 \text{ mol NO}_3^-} \times \frac{1 \text{ kg N}}{10^3 \text{ g}} = Cr \times Dv \times 0.00226 \frac{\text{kg N}}{\text{ha}}$$

318

319 The sampled drainage water had the nitrate concentrations reported in Table 2. Only the
320 averages and the cumulative leachate were calculated.

321

322 2.5. Harvesting and plant analysis

323

324 Each year three cuts were made, with a total of six cuts at each site. The controlled
325 ryegrass was hand-harvested at Site 1 and cut with a motor harvester (TRIUNFO TK
326 600 D - Motor KUBOTA) at Site 2, on the dates shown in Table 3.

327

328 At Site 1, the sampled area was 0.50 m² in the first year and 1.00 m² in the second year.

329 At Site 2, the central part of the plot (9.6 m²) was sampled in both years. The ryegrass
330 dry matter produced in each cut was determined.

331

332 2.6. Calculations and statistical analysis

333

334 Data normality was assessed using the Shapiro-Wilk test. Data were studied by analysis
335 of variance, and separation of means was carried out using the Student's *t*-test (effect of
336 PS vs. mineral fertiliser and effect of applying or not DMPP) and Tukey's multiple
337 range test (cumulative ammonia volatilisation; percentage of total N and of total
338 ammonium nitrogen (TAN) applied; yield and fertilisation application moment) at a 5%
339 level of significance. In order to compare between years and fertilisation regimes, the
340 statistical analysis of volatilisation was only carried out until the 22nd day of sampling.

341 The non-parametric Spearman's rank coefficient test and an ANOVA (at a $p < 0.05$ level
342 of significance) were carried out to analyse the correlation and the effect between
343 ammonia volatilisation and the driving factors (daily air temperature (average and

344 maximum), daily rainfall and daily rainfall plus irrigation (Site 1), wind speed, soil
345 organic matter content, and slurry dry matter).

346

347 The statistical analyses were performed using the JMP statistical package (JMP[®] version
348 13; SAS Institute Inc., Cary, NC, 2015).

349

350 **3. Results and discussion**

351

352 Ammonia volatilisation sharply increased shortly after fertilisation (Figs. 6 and 7),
353 especially for the treatments with pig slurry (PS). At Site 1, cumulative volatilisation
354 ranged between 5 and 49 kg NH₃-N ha⁻¹ in year 1, and between 3 and 56 kg NH₃-N
355 ha⁻¹ in year 2. At Site 2, the cumulative volatilisation ranged between 4 and 39 kg NH₃-
356 N ha⁻¹ in year 1, and between 2 and 31 kg NH₃-N ha⁻¹ in year 2. Rochette et al. (2008)
357 reported similar cumulative ammonia losses (6-53 kg NH₃-N ha⁻¹) to those reported in
358 this study when applying PS to a crop of timothy (*Phleum pratense* L.), although the PS
359 dose applied was lower than in the present study.

360

361 At Site 1, the average ammonia volatilisation from both pig slurry treatments and all
362 applications was 13% of total N applied in year 1, and 27% in year 2, while all the
363 mineral treatments averaged a volatilisation rate of 8% of N applied in year 1, and 10%
364 in year 2. At Site 2, the average ammonia volatilisation from both pig slurry treatments
365 and all applications of the two studied years together was 15% of total N applied, while
366 all the mineral treatments averaged a volatilisation rate of 7% for both years together. A
367 higher percentage (close to 30% of total N applied) than those reported here was found
368 by Nicholson et al. (2017) for a livestock (cattle and pig) slurry, and an even higher one

369 (42% of total N applied) was reported by Yagié and Bosch-Serra (2013) for a treatment
370 with PS (without incorporation) applied on a bare soil.

371

372 Recio et al. (2018) found similar cumulative volatilisation to those of the present study
373 for PS (14.56% of the total N applied) and PS+DMPP (9.96% of the total N applied)
374 applied at pre-sowing. Bourdin et al. (2014) reported higher ammonia volatilisation
375 (30.3-70.8%) from total N applied after PS application in comparison with the present
376 study. Likewise, Misselbrook et al. (2000) reported that 1.5% of total N applied
377 volatilised after applying ammonium nitrate, compared to 59% after applying cattle
378 slurry.

379

380 The average ammonia volatilisation (both study years) from TAN applied at pre-sowing
381 and after cuts was 11% and 10% from the mineral treatments vs. 25% and 21% from the
382 PS treatments at Site 1 and Site 2, respectively.

383

384 3.1. Effect of the type of fertiliser on volatilisation; incorporation and moment of
385 fertilisation

386

387 The type of fertiliser used had a significant effect on volatilisation (Table 6). In half of
388 the sampled periods, the percentage of ammonia volatilisation from total N and TAN
389 applied was significantly higher in the pig slurry (PS) treatments than the mineral ones,
390 in both years of the study and sites (Figs. 6 and 7). This could be related with the low
391 dry matter (2-6%) and total organic matter content (< 40%) of PS (AHDB, 2017; Danés
392 and Boixadera, 2001), which facilitate rapid volatilisation following PS application. As
393 PS can be assimilated to an ammonium liquid fertiliser, it can be ready for ammonia

394 volatilisation once in contact with air. Bosch-Serra et al. (2014) also observed a higher
395 cumulative volatilisation from PS than from mineral fertiliser (ammonium nitrate)
396 applied to rainfed winter cereals. In a ryegrass (*Lolium perenne*) crop, Bourdin et al.
397 (2014) also observed significantly higher volatilisation from cattle slurry (with 2.06-
398 7.42% dry matter) than from a mineral fertiliser (calcium ammonium nitrate).

399

400 The moment of application had a significant effect on ammonia volatilisation (Table 7).
401 The percentage of cumulative ammonia volatilised with regard to the quantity of TAN
402 applied was significantly lower at pre-sowing than at the 1st cut fertilisation. At pre-
403 sowing in year 1 at Site 1, and also in year 1 at Site 2, there was no difference between
404 PS treatments and mineral treatments in terms of the percentage of applied TAN that
405 volatilised. The lower volatilisation from the present study was possibly due to burying
406 PS as soon as possible after its application. This was in agreement with the ammonia
407 abating measures recommended by Bittman et al. (2014). Likewise, probably, higher
408 volatilisation in the 1st cut can be associated with exposure to the atmosphere of the PS
409 in this fertilisation, when burying was not possible without damaging the crop. Relating
410 with the moment of application, Bell et al. (2016) observed different ammonia losses in
411 spring (15.71% of the total N applied) than in autumn (11.44%) from treatments of
412 cattle and broiler manure.

413

414 At both sites of the present study, ammonia volatilisation significantly differed
415 according to the moment of fertilisation; fertilisation after ryegrass cuts was associated
416 with significantly higher cumulative ammonia losses (almost the double in some
417 occasions) than at pre-sowing (Figs. 6 and 7).

418

419 For a perennial forage grass, Rochette et al. (2008) obtained an average volatilisation of
420 32% (of TAN applied) from PS treatments applied by splash-plate; this was higher than
421 the results of the present study. Sanz et al. (2010) reported a case of 20% of ammonia
422 volatilisation (of TAN applied) for PS applied to the soil surface of a bare soil.

423

424 Burying PS after applying pre-sowing fertilisation helped to reduce ammonia
425 volatilisation until 2 and 3 days after pre-sowing fertilisation (Figs. 6a and 7c).
426 According to Webb et al. (2010), the incorporation of manures into the soil immediately
427 after application also influences the extent of ammonia emissions. In contrast, after the
428 1st and 2nd cuts, the fertiliser could not be buried and the recorded volatilisation was
429 higher than at pre-sowing fertilisation. At Site 1, immediately burying the fertiliser after
430 the pre-sowing application even counteracted the effects of higher ETo during that
431 sampling period (autumn) than after the 1st cut (winter).

432

433 At 1st cut, the PS+DMPP treatment showed significantly higher cumulative ammonia
434 volatilisation (35% of TAN applied) than the rest of the treatments (Fig. 7). This was
435 probably due to DMPP application, which inhibits $\text{NH}_4^+\text{-N}$ oxidation to $\text{NO}_3^-\text{-N}$
436 favouring ammonia volatilisation. Thus, it would be an interesting management strategy
437 to replace ANS-26 with PS (without DMPP) especially at pre-sowing (PS can be
438 incorporated).

439

440 It should be noted that it rained shortly after the pre-sowing fertilisation (on day five at
441 Site 1 and on day three at Site 2); this together with burying PS diminished
442 volatilisation (Figs. 6a and 7c). It is known that rainfall can reduce ammonia
443 volatilisation. Sanz-Cobena et al. (2019) reported greater reductions in ammonia

444 volatilisation after heavy rainfall in the Mediterranean area with a barley crop. In such
445 cases, a useful management strategy to reduce ammonia losses would involve irrigating
446 after fertilisation (Viero et al., 2015). Applying a small amount of water (e.g. 10 mm) is
447 enough to mitigate these losses (Misselbrook, 2019). This management strategy was
448 also successfully used at Site 1 after pre-sowing fertilisation (Fig. 6a).

449

450 After the 1st cut, in both years, the PS treatments (PS and PS+DMPP) registered higher
451 volatilisation: on average 50% (Site 1) and 55% (Site 2), respectively, within the first 48
452 h after fertilising. These findings are in line with those reported by Soares et al. (2012).
453 Park et al. (2018) observed that >50% of the total ammonia emissions occurred within
454 the first 14 days after applying PS in the case of a perennial ryegrass sward. In contrast,
455 Sanz et al. (2010) reported that 63-75% of total NH₃-N volatilisation occurred in the
456 first 24 h after PS application to a bare soil. Yagüe and Bosch-Serra (2013) found that
457 50% of the total ammonia losses happened within 17 h (spring) and 8 h (summer)
458 following PS application on a bare soil under Mediterranean conditions.

459

460 3.2. Effect of DMPP

461

462 Applying DMPP did not have a consistent effect on ammonia volatilisation either at Site
463 1 or at Site 2 in either of the study years (Table 6). For the two study years,
464 volatilisation as a percentage of TAN applied from the treatments with DMPP ranged
465 from 7% to 50% at Site 1 and from 6% to 35% at Site 2. Lower ammonia losses (0.4 to
466 0.6% of TAN applied) associated with another nitrification inhibitor (DCD) were
467 reported by Mkhabela et al. (2006) from pig manure fertilisation in a laboratory study.

468

469 In year 1, after the 2nd cut at Site 1, DMPP (PS+DMPP treatment) significantly
470 increased volatilisation (as a percentage of TAN applied), as well as after the 1st cut at
471 Site 2. In year 2 at Site 2, the ENTEC[®] treatment significantly volatilised less (as a
472 percentage of total N and TAN applied) than the PS treatments. Zhou et al. (2016) and
473 Pan et al. (2016) reported that applying nitrification inhibitors often resulted in
474 increased ammonia volatilisation. Menéndez et al. (2006) reported the same finding in
475 perennial ryegrass fertilised with cattle slurry. They did not, however, observe any
476 significant increase in ammonia associated with applying DMPP. The application of
477 DMPP to PS probably delayed the transformation of NH_4^+ to NO_3^- , which would have
478 facilitated ammonia volatilisation.

479

480 No satisfactory explanation could be found for the inconsistent effect of DMPP
481 application on volatilisation through the study.

482

483 The amount of leached N should be taken into account in agricultural practice due to the
484 vulnerability of agricultural land to nitrogen and water losses (Aschonitis et al., 2012).

485 In this study, it was seen that nitrate leaching from mineral fertilisers could be
486 minimised by applying the fertiliser when the crop starts growing and absorbing
487 nitrogen, rather than at pre-sowing, provided the soil nitrogen content is sufficient for
488 germination and initial growth.

489

490 3.3. Other factors affecting ammonia volatilisation

491

492 Sommer et al. (2003) reported that environmental factors such as temperature, moisture
493 and wind speed, and also soil pH, have an influence on ammonia volatilisation. In the

494 present study, a weak but mainly positive correlation was observed between air
495 temperature and ammonia volatilisation at both Site 1 and Site 2 (Table 8, see
496 Supplementary material). Moreover, an effect of the study location and an interaction
497 between average daily temperature and rainfall plus irrigation were also observed at pre-
498 sowing (year 1) at Site 1 (Table 9, see Supplementary material). This could be due to a
499 higher soil water content at Site 1 due to irrigation. Wind speed did not significantly
500 affect ammonia volatilisation in none year nor site.

501

502 Explanations for the differences in volatilisation between the sites (at Site 1, the pooled
503 average of the cumulative volatilisation was significantly higher (18.16a) than at Site 2
504 (12.78b)) could be related to the higher dry matter (DM) content of the slurry of Site 1
505 than that of Site 2 (Table 5). The DM content of the PS tended to slow down infiltration,
506 which would have permitted a longer PS exposure to the air. A low DM and a reduction
507 in the viscosity of liquid manure are known to reduce ammonia emissions because they
508 facilitate soil infiltration (Sommer et al., 2006). At Site 2, the DM content in the
509 PS+DMPP treatment (5.9%) applied after 1st cut (year 1) was higher than that applied in
510 year 2 after the 1st cut (2.6%), and lower level of ammonia volatilisation was observed
511 from the slurry with lower DM. Häni et al. (2016) reported that applying slurry with a
512 lower DM content could reduce ammonia losses. Bosch-Serra et al. (2014) observed
513 reduced ammonia emissions from both low and high slurry DM. In the former case, this
514 was because infiltration was facilitated; in the latter, it was due to the favouring of crust
515 formation.

516

517 It is known that slurries with a low DM content are generally associated with lower
518 ammonia emissions as they rapidly infiltrate into the soil (Sommer and Hutchings,

519 2001). According to Hafner et al. (2018), ammonia volatilisation was positively
520 correlated with DM of PS for broadcast applications. In the present study, however, no
521 correlation with DM was found (data not shown).

522

523 The difference between cumulative volatilisation per sites could also be associated with
524 NH_4^+ and NO_3^- contents, which were higher at Site 1 than at Site 2 (Figs. 8 and 9, see
525 Supplementary material). On the other hand, it could also be related to soil properties,
526 though only a slightly positive correlation (0.17, $p < 0.05$) was found between
527 cumulative volatilisation and soil organic matter content.

528

529 3.4. Yield

530

531 At Site 1, average yield ranged from 9133 to 15,759 kg DM ha⁻¹ crop⁻¹; and at Site 2
532 from 7824 to 13,483 kg DM ha⁻¹ crop⁻¹ (Table 10). Walsh et al. (2018) reported similar
533 levels of production in a mixed pasture ley (ryegrass and clover) (~5000-12,000 kg DM
534 ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹). The average yield (two years) significantly differed between the control
535 treatment and the fertilised ones, but no significant differences were found among the
536 latter. The ENTEC[®] treatment tended to be the highest producer, though the yields were
537 not significantly different from those of the rest of the fertilised treatments (Table 10).
538 Only in year 2, at Site 2, was the yield from the ENTEC[®] treatment significantly higher
539 than that from the PS+DMPP treatment. It seems that, at Site 1, the DMPP treatments
540 (PS+DMPP and ENTEC[®]) tended to produce more than their counterparts without
541 DMPP, although there were no significant differences between yields. This trend was
542 not as clear at Site 2, where the PS treatment produced higher yields than the PS+DMPP
543 treatment. Dougherty et al. (2016) also found no significant differences in yield between

544 treatments for a mixed ryegrass and kikuyu system both with and without the
545 application of DMPP.

546

547 **4. Conclusions**

548

549 The ammonia losses (as a percentage of total N and TAN applied) in the tested
550 Mediterranean conditions were similar to those cited in the literature for other climates.

551

552 The hypothesis that PS could offer an alternative to mineral fertilisers for fertilising
553 ryegrass without substantially increasing ammonia volatilisation can be partially
554 accepted. It would be feasible to apply PS at pre-sowing combined with mineral N or
555 processed PS fractions after ryegrass cuts. This could be a valid option to reuse this
556 livestock by-product and replace mineral fertiliser.

557

558 DMPP application did not increase ammonia volatilisation at either of the studied sites.

559 The effect of DMPP on ammonia volatilisation from fertilised ryegrass needs further
560 study. ENTEC[®] tended to increase yield.

561

562 Mineral fertilisers should be supplied when there are N extractions (not at pre-sowing)
563 to avoid nitrate leaching, provided there is enough N in the soil at germination and early
564 growth.

565

566 It would be interesting to study the effect of treated PS or some fractions of it applied
567 after the ryegrass cuts on ammonia volatilisation, and to study nitrate leaching at the
568 irrigated site (where the lysimeters had not worked properly) in the future. If possible, it

569 would also be interesting to repeat the experiment in a growth chamber (less
570 dependence on meteorological conditions).

571

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573

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580

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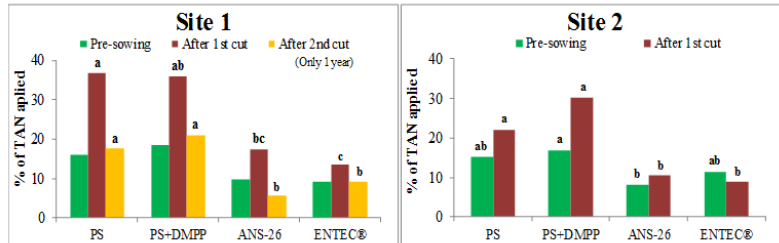
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846

847 **Graphical abstract**

Can pig slurry (PS) with or without DMPP fertilise Westerwold ryegrass in Mediterranean conditions without increasing NH₃ volatilisation instead of ammonium nitrosulphate (ANS-26) or ENTEC®?



- ✓ PS (without DMPP) could substitute ANS-26, specially at pre-sowing (PS can be incorporated)
- ✓ ENTEC® significantly decreased volatilisation after ryegrass cuts and tended to increase yield

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850

851 **Tables**

852

853 Table 1. Mean values of chemical soil properties at the beginning of the study, granulometric analysis and
854 textural class in the upper soil layer at Site 1 and Site 2.

	Site 1*	Site 2
	Depth 0-30 cm	
Chemical properties		
CaCO ₃ equivalent (%)	11	14 ± 2
Organic matter (Walkley-Black; %)	2.44	1.80 ± 0.11
pH (1:2.5 water extract)	8.1	8.2 ± 0.1
EC (1:5 water extract; dS m ⁻¹)	0.6	0.2 ± 0.0
NO ₃ ⁻ -N (colorimetry; mg kg ⁻¹)	19	13 ± 2
P (Olsen; ppm)	23	25 ± 5
K (Ammonium acetate extract; ppm)	156	102 ± 24
Na (Ammonium acetate extract; ppm)	103	-
Mg (Ammonium acetate extract; ppm)	310	-
Ca (Ammonium acetate extract; ppm)	6424	-
Granulometric analysis		
Clay (%)	14.8	11.1 ± 0.5
Silt (%)	32.1	40.4 ± 1.7
Sand (%)	53.1	48.5 ± 2.1
USDA textural class	Sandy loam	Loam

855

856 *At Site 1, the soil analysis was done with one soil sample composite of nine subsamples, thus there is no
857 standard deviation.

858

859 Table 2. Nitrogen (N) leached per ryegrass cut and total N leached during the three cuts of the cropping
 860 year 2006-07 quantified in the drainage water sampled from the lysimeters.

Treatment	N leached (kg N ha ⁻¹)			
	1 st cut	2 nd cut	3 rd cut	Cumulative
C	1.01	0.00	0.01	1.02
PS	0.02	0.00	0.00	0.02
PS+DMPP	0.04	0.01	0.06	0.11
ANS-26	12.08	0.00	0.00	12.08
ENTE [®]	34.75	0.00	0.00	34.75

861

862

863

864 Table 3. Timing of sowing, ammonia sampling period after each fertilisation, and harvest per study site.

Study site	(dd/mm/yy)						
	Sowing	Ammonia sampling starting on the day of fertilisation			Cuts		
		After pre-sowing	After 1 st cut	After 2 nd cut	1 st	2 nd	3 rd
Site 1	27/09/2005	26/09 to 17/10/2005 (22 days)	12/03 to 25/04/2006 (45 days)	02/05 to 02/06/2006 (32 days)	28/02/2006	26/04/2006	01/06/2006
	03/10/2006	29/09 to 29/11/2006 (62 days)	23/12 to 30/01/2007 (39 days)	-	18/12/2006	27/04/2007	15/06/2007
Site 2	30/09/2005	29/09 to 20/10/2005 (22 days)	13/01 to 10/02/2006 (29 days)	-	04/01/2006	27/03/2006	11/05/2006
	07/09/2006	06/09 to 11/10/2006 (36 days)	05/12 to 02/01/2007 (29 days)	-	01/12/2006	30/03/2007	14/05/2007

865

866

Table 4. Doses of pig slurry (PS) and mineral fertiliser supplied in each application at Site 1 and at Site 2.

Treatment	Site 1										Site 2								
	Year 1				Year 2						Year 1				Year 2				
	At pre-sowing		After 1 st cut		After 2 nd cut		At pre-sowing		After 1 st cut				At pre-sowing		After 1 st cut		At pre-sowing		After 1 st cut
	kg NH ₄ ⁺ -N ha ⁻¹	kg total N ha ⁻¹	kg NH ₄ ⁺ -N ha ⁻¹	kg total N ha ⁻¹	kg NH ₄ ⁺ -N ha ⁻¹	kg total N ha ⁻¹	kg NH ₄ ⁺ -N ha ⁻¹	kg total N ha ⁻¹	kg NH ₄ ⁺ -N ha ⁻¹	kg total N ha ⁻¹	kg NH ₄ ⁺ -N ha ⁻¹	kg total N ha ⁻¹	kg NH ₄ ⁺ -N ha ⁻¹	kg total N ha ⁻¹	kg NH ₄ ⁺ -N ha ⁻¹	kg total N ha ⁻¹	kg NH ₄ ⁺ -N ha ⁻¹	kg total N ha ⁻¹	
PS	151.0	219.4	223.8	264.6	209.1	285.6	82.6	99.1	97.9	147.2	86.8	98.0	110.2	173.9	69.0	123.2	120.6	155.7	
PS+DMPP	194.5	246.6	127.9	151.6	160.8	232.0	73.4	97.4	112.2	170.8	86.8	98.0	110.2	173.9	69.0	123.2	120.6	155.7	
ANS-26	93.8	125.0	93.8	125.0	93.8	125.0	93.8	125.0	93.8	125.0	75.0	100.0	112.5	150.0	75.0	100.0	112.5	150.0	
ENTEC [®]	88.9	125.0	88.9	125.0	88.9	125.0	88.9	125.0	88.9	125.0	71.1	100.0	106.7	150.0	71.1	100.0	106.7	150.0	

867

868

869 Table 5. Analysis of each pig slurry (PS) applied at Site 1 and Site 2 in both years.

	Site 1										Site 2							
	Year 1					Year 2					Year 1				Year 2			
	At pre-sowing		After 1 st cut		After 2 nd cut	At pre-sowing		After 1 st cut		At pre-sowing		After 1 st cut		At pre-sowing		After 1 st cut		
	PS	PS+DMPP	PS	PS+DMPP	PS	PS+DMPP	PS	PS+DMPP	PS	PS+DMPP	PS	PS+DMPP	PS	PS+DMPP	PS	PS+DMPP	PS	PS+DMPP
Dose (m ³ ha ⁻¹)	42.9	57.1	40.6	46.3	49.7	38.2	25.0	25.0	28.8	32.9	50.0	50.0	40.0	40.0	32.5	32.5	50.0	50.0
pH	9.0	8.9	-	-	8.0	7.9	8.6	8.5	8.6	8.5	8.5	8.5	9.2	9.3	8.7	8.7	8.4	8.4
EC (25°C, dS m ⁻¹)	20.39	19.57	-	-	6.13	6.76	5.30	5.52	5.29	5.82	16.09	16.10	14.44	12.33	2.92	2.92	2.8	2.8
Dry matter (% , f.m.)	5.7	6.2	6.2	2.4	4.5	5.3	2.4	3.4	6.4	6.2	0.8	0.8	6.2	5.9	7.5	7.5	2.6	2.6
Organic matter (% , d.m.)	74.0	73.6	-	-	72.2	71.7	57.2	61.3	67.6	66.3	42.4	43.6	58.5	60.0	55.9	55.9	57.6	57.6
N Kjeldahl (% , d.m.)	2.80	1.47	10.51	13.64	3.42	3.52	2.75	2.82	2.68	2.87	2.66	2.95	2.51	2.57	2.47	2.47	2.75	2.75
NH ₄ ⁺ -N (% , d.m.)	6.18	5.49	8.89	11.51	9.35	7.94	13.76	8.64	5.32	5.50	21.01	22.41	4.37	4.54	2.6	2.6	9.46	9.46
C/N	13.2	25.0	-	-	10.6	10.2	10.4	10.9	12.6	11.6	8.0	7.4	11.7	11.7	11.3	11.3	10.5	10.5
P (% , d.m.)	1.73	1.73	1.81	1.61	2.21	2.53	0.68	1.28	3.18	3.23	1.15	1.25	2.48	2.42	3.13	3.13	2.03	2.03
K (% , d.m.)	4.72	4.40	6.73	9.29	5.75	5.25	13.41	9.93	5.12	5.57	19.60	18.89	3.46	3.77	2.32	2.32	7.98	7.98
Cu (ppm, d.m.)	417	411	-	-	608	742	392	549	1804	1876	168	181	507	527	332	332	308	308
Zn (ppm, d.m.)	2872	2807	-	-	3411	4206	1347	2013	1484	1464	571	564	3031	3133	1798	1798	1486	1486
Ca (% , d.m.)	2.25	2.31	-	-	2.91	2.72	1.61	2.71	4.74	4.26	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Mg (% , d.m.)	0.97	1.01	-	-	1.10	1.33	0.42	0.99	1.87	1.90	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

870

871 EC: electrical conductivity; f.m.: fresh matter basis; d.m.: dry matter basis.

872 Table 6. Cumulative ammonia volatilisation expressed as a percentage of the total ammonium nitrogen (TAN) applied, per factor studied (N type and DMPP addition), and
 873 the effect of both factors and its interaction in years 1 and 2, at Site 1 and Site 2.

Factors studied	% TAN applied								
	Site 1				Site 2				
	Year 1		Year 2		Year 1		Year 2		
	Pre-sowing	After 1 st cut	After 2 nd cut	Pre-sowing	After 1 st cut	Pre-sowing	After 1 st cut	Pre-sowing	After 1 st cut
Pig slurry	9.11 ± 2.16	21.99 ± 4.04	19.39 ± 2.06a	25.46 ± 5.71a	50.73 ± 21.04a	17.51 ± 4.21	29.88 ± 11.65a	14.46 ± 2.26a	25.25 ± 4.26a
Mineral N	7.09 ± 2.16	16.55 ± 5.42	7.48 ± 3.11b	12.01 ± 7.65b	14.36 ± 6.20b	14.05 ± 5.09	7.45 ± 1.63b	5.29 ± 0.36b	12.04 ± 7.21b
+DMPP	7.53 ± 2.12	19.80 ± 2.88	15.17 ± 6.90a	20.25 ± 10.77	29.63 ± 22.87	18.50 ± 4.80a	21.80 ± 16.10a	9.71 ± 4.69	17.04 ± 9.22
-DMPP	8.67 ± 2.55	18.74 ± 7.38	11.70 ± 6.65b	17.21 ± 8.84	34.46 ± 27.05	13.06 ± 3.16b	12.53 ± 7.37b	10.04 ± 5.79	20.25 ± 9.14
N type	ns	ns	*	*	*	ns	*	*	*
+DMPP/-DMPP	ns	ns	*	ns	ns	*	*	ns	ns
N type x +DMPP/-DMPP	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns

874
 875 Different letters per column indicate significant differences between treatments ($p < 0.05$, Student's t-test). The statistical analysis was only carried out until the 22nd day of
 876 sampling in order to make comparisons between years and fertilisations.

877 *: Significant ($p < 0.05$); ns: not significant.

878 Table 7. Cumulative ammonia volatilisation, and expressed as a percentage of total N and of total
 879 ammonium nitrogen (TAN) applied per fertilisation and the effects of different factors at Site 1 and Site 2
 880 over both years of the study (except for the fertilisation after the 2nd cut, for which only one year was
 881 available).

Fertilisation	Site 1			Site 2		
	kg NH ₃ -N ha ⁻¹	% of total N	% of TAN applied	kg NH ₃ -N ha ⁻¹	% of total N	% of TAN applied
Pre-sowing	11.61 ± 6.96b	10.52 ± 6.84b	13.88 ± 8.69b	8.35 ± 4.99b	9.13 ± 4.94b	12.54 ± 5.68b
After 1 st cut	27.15 ± 21.25a	17.82 ± 11.82a	27.85 ± 18.36a	18.68 ± 13.13a	13.79 ± 7.47a	19.42 ± 10.86a
After 2 nd cut	20.28 ± 14.98a	14.78 ± 4.66ab	19.72 ± 6.71ab	-	-	-
Factors studied						
N type	*	*	*	*	*	*
+DMPP/-DMPP	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns
Year	ns	*	*	ns	ns	ns
Fertilisation period	*	*	*	*	*	*
Site				*		

882
 883 Different letters per column indicate significant differences between treatments ($p < 0.05$, Tukey's test and
 884 Student's t-test). The statistical analysis was only carried out until the 22nd day of sampling in order to
 885 make comparisons between years and fertilisations.

886 *: Significant ($p < 0.05$); ns: not significant.

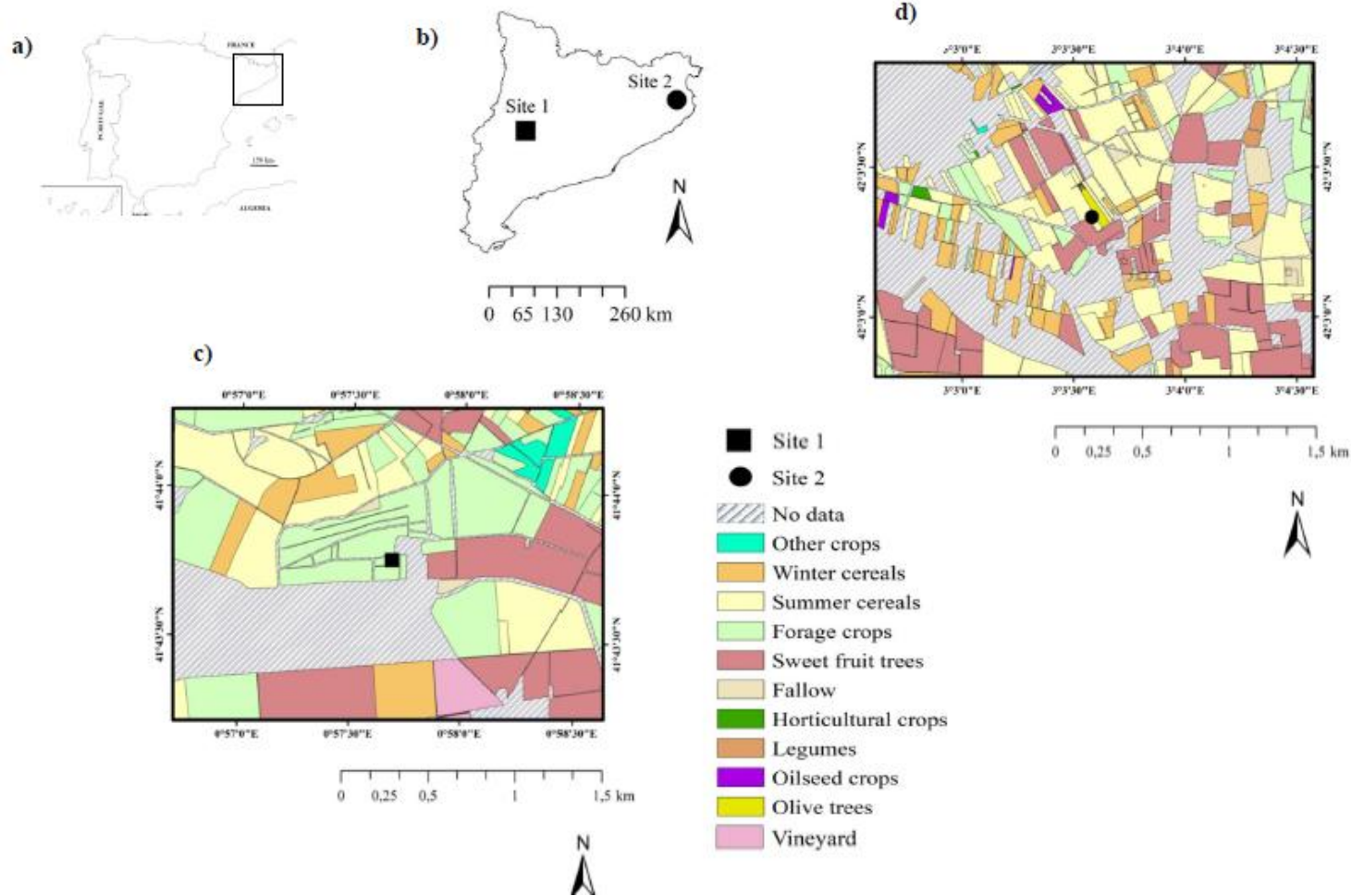
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889 Table 10. Yield (expressed as dry matter) per treatment and year at Site 1 and Site 2.

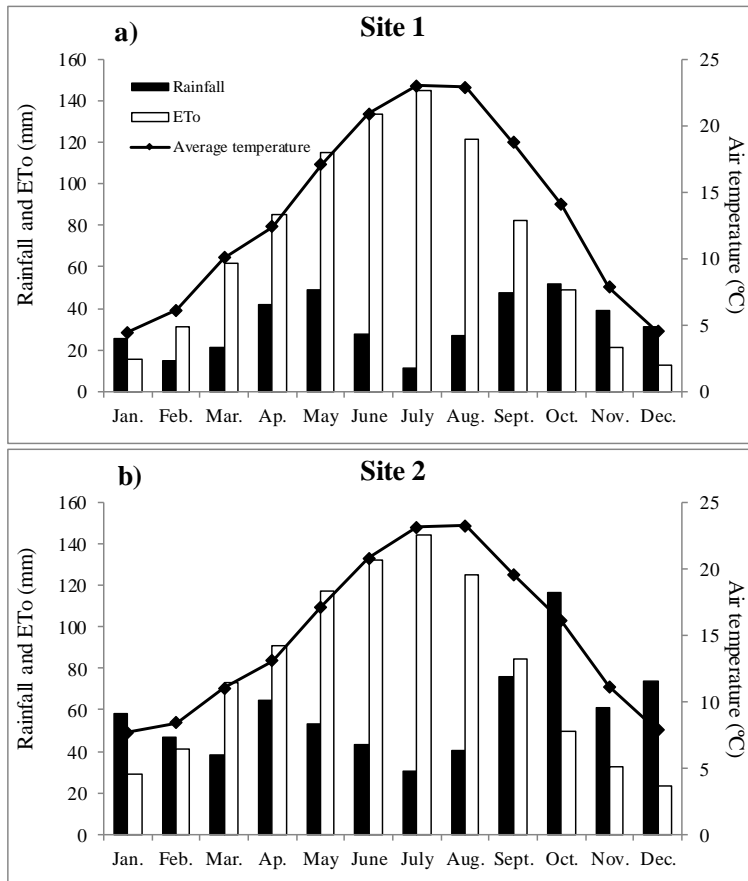
Treatment	Yield (kg ha ⁻¹)					
	Site 1			Site 2		
	Year 1	Year 2	Average of both years	Year 1	Year 2	Average of both years
C	10,115 ± 1942b	8151 ± 1642	9133 ± 1777b	8551 ± 1623b	7098 ± 688c	7824 ± 1235b
PS	15,087 ± 1167a	13,356 ± 2726	14,222 ± 2056a	12,424 ± 1645a	13,043 ± 1167ab	12,734 ± 1387a
PS+DMPP	16,868 ± 1034a	13,323 ± 1645	15,096 ± 1465a	11,935 ± 1555ab	11,306 ± 1149b	11,620 ± 1331a
ANS-26	15,696 ± 1403a	11,790 ± 1720	13,743 ± 1664a	12,049 ± 1849ab	14,076 ± 1202ab	13,062 ± 1552a
ENTEC®	17,580 ± 1243a	13,939 ± 1778	15,759 ± 1614a	12,164 ± 1959ab	14,801 ± 1260a	13,483 ± 1661a

890
 891 Different letters within columns indicate significant differences between treatments ($p < 0.05$, Tukey's
 892 test).

893 **Figures**



894
 895 Figure 1. Location maps (a and b), and land uses (DARP, n.d.) at Site 1 (c) and at Site 2 (d). Cartographic projection UTM 31 N.



896

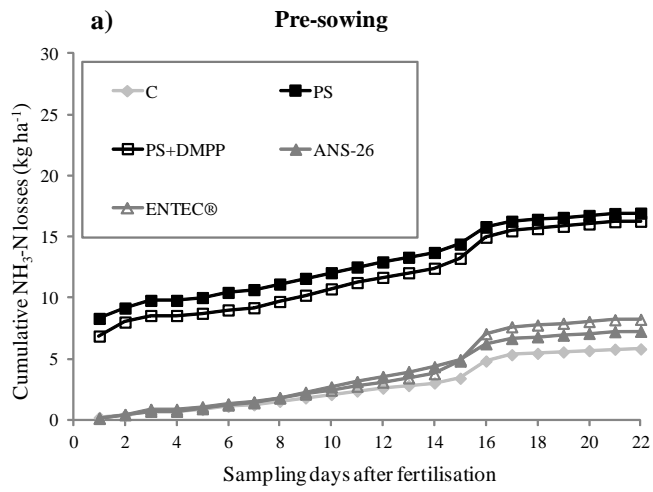
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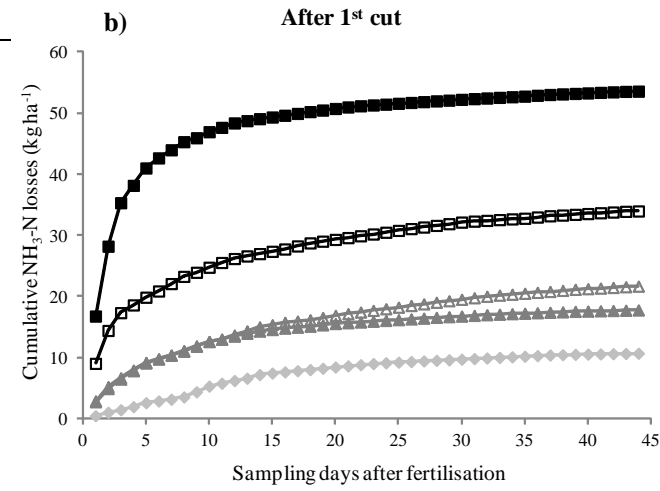
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Figure 2. Average monthly rainfall, air temperature and reference crop evapotranspiration (ETo, FAO Penman-Monteith equation) (a) from the El Poal and Tornabous meteorological stations (period 2000-2010), and (b) from an automatic meteorological station located at the experimental Site 2 (period 1990-2007).



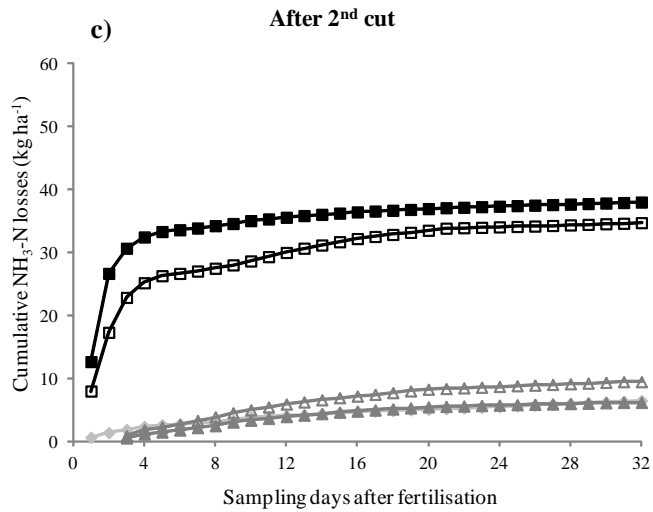
$\text{NH}_3\text{-N}$ kg ha^{-1}	% of total N	% of TAN applied
--	--------------	------------------

15.97a	7.28	10.58
14.86a	6.02	7.64
6.60b	5.28	7.42
6.34b	5.07	6.76
4.56b		



$\text{NH}_3\text{-N}$ kg ha^{-1}	% of total N	% of TAN applied
--	--------------	------------------

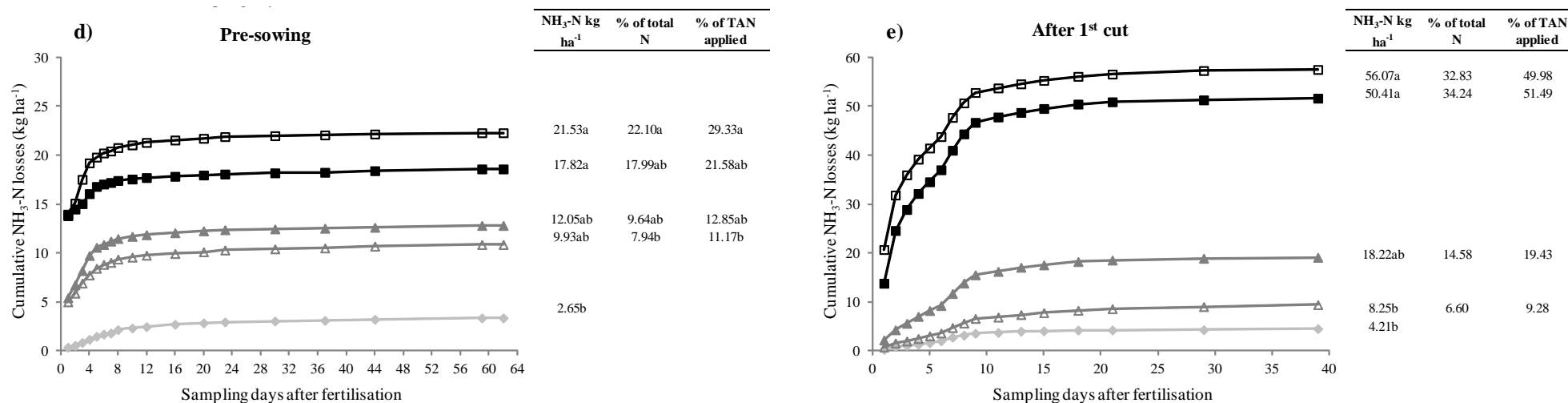
49.16a	18.58	21.97
28.16b	18.57	22.02
15.64bc	12.51	17.59
14.54bc	11.64	15.51
7.42c		



$\text{NH}_3\text{-N}$ kg ha^{-1}	% of total N	% of TAN applied
--	--------------	------------------

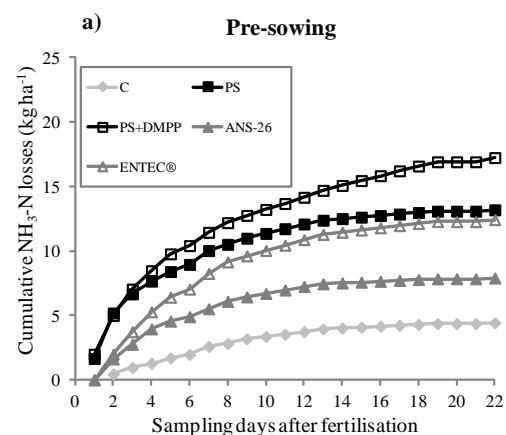
37.08a	12.98a	17.73a
33.84a	14.59a	21.05a
8.26b	6.61b	9.30b
5.32b	4.25b	5.67b
5.18b		

902

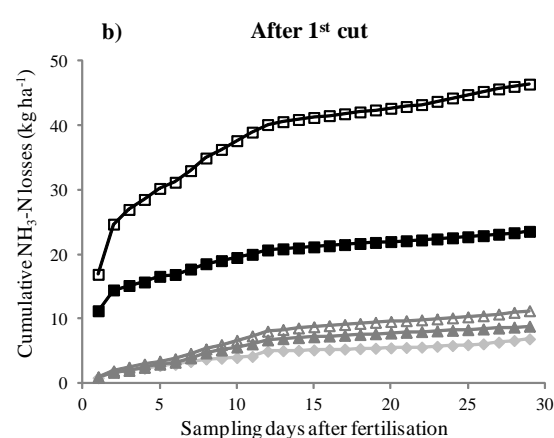


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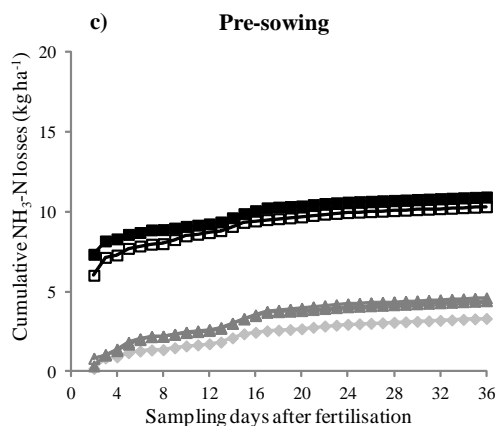
904 Figure 6. Cumulative ammonia volatilisation, and expressed as a percentage of the total N and of the total ammonium nitrogen (TAN) applied per fertilisation in year 1 (a, b,
 905 c) and year 2 (d, e) at Site 1. C: control; PS: pig slurry; PS+DMPP: pig slurry with DMPP; ANS-26: ammonium nitrosulphate; ENTEC[®]: ANS-26 with DMPP. The statistical
 906 analysis was only carried out until the 22nd day of the sampling period in order to compare the years and fertilisations. Different letters within columns indicate significant
 907 differences between treatments ($p < 0.05$, Tukey's test).



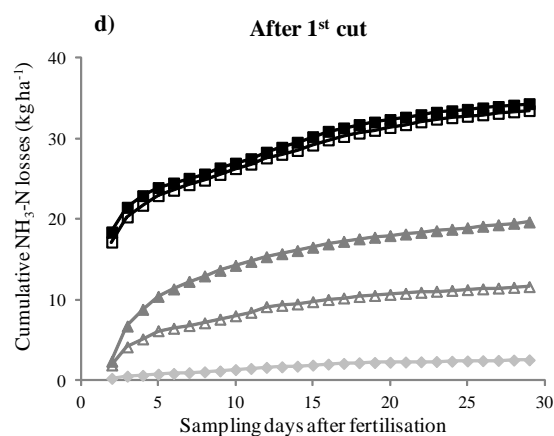
NH ₃ -N kg ha ⁻¹	% of total N	% of TAN applied
17.27a	17.62a	19.89
13.14ab	13.40ab	15.13
12.17ab	12.17ab	17.11
8.25bc	8.25b	11.00
4.41c		



NH ₃ -N kg ha ⁻¹	% of total N	% of TAN applied
38.84a	22.34a	35.25a
20.41b	11.74b	18.52b
8.91bc	5.94b	8.35b
7.35bc	4.90b	6.54b
5.03c		



NH ₃ -N kg ha ⁻¹	% of total N	% of TAN applied
10.37a	8.42a	15.03a
9.58a	7.78a	13.88a
3.94b	3.94b	5.53b
3.79b	3.79b	5.05b
2.69b		



NH ₃ -N kg ha ⁻¹	% of total N	% of TAN applied
31.02a	19.92a	25.72a
29.88a	19.19a	24.77ab
16.62ab	11.08ab	14.77ab
9.87b	6.58b	9.31b
2.04b		

908

909 Figure 7. Cumulative ammonia volatilisation, and expressed as a percentage of the total N and of the total ammonium nitrogen (TAN) applied per fertilisation in year 1 (a, b)
 910 and year 2 (c, d) at Site 2. C: control; PS: pig slurry; PS+DMPP: pig slurry with DMPP addition; ANS-26: ammonium nitrosulphate; ENTEC[®]: ANS-26 with DMPP addition.
 911 The statistical analysis was only carried out until the 22nd day of sampling in order to make comparisons between years and fertilisations. Different letters within columns
 912 indicate significant differences between treatments ($p < 0.05$, Tukey's test).

913 **Supplementary material**

914

915 **Tables**

916

917 Table 8. Relationship between daily ammonia volatilisation and driving factors (average daily
918 temperature and daily rainfall).

Fertilisation	NH ₃ -N (kg ha ⁻¹)							
	Site 1				Site 2			
	Year 1		Year 2		Year 1		Year 2	
	T (°C)	Rainfall (mm)	T (°C)	Rainfall (mm)	T (°C)	Rainfall (mm)	T (°C)	Rainfall (mm)
Pre-sowing	-0.06 (11)	0.26 (11)*	0.54 (17)*	0.02 (17)	0.33 (12)*	-0.07 (12)	0.40 (16)*	-0.31 (16)*
After 1 st cut	-0.37 (20)*	-0.12 (20)*	-0.26 (15)*	-0.13 (15)*	0.09 (16)	-0.09 (16)	0.14 (15)*	-0.00 (15)
After 2 nd cut	0.18 (11)*	-0.11 (11)	-	-	-	-	-	-

919

920 Numbers in brackets indicate the total data used in each correlation and per each treatment.

921 *: Significant (p< 0.05); ns: not significant.

922

923

924 Table 9. ANOVA of the effect of different variables (average daily temperature and average maximum
925 daily temperature, rainfall plus irrigation and wind speed) and their interactions with statistical
926 significance (p< 0.05) on ammonia volatilisation.

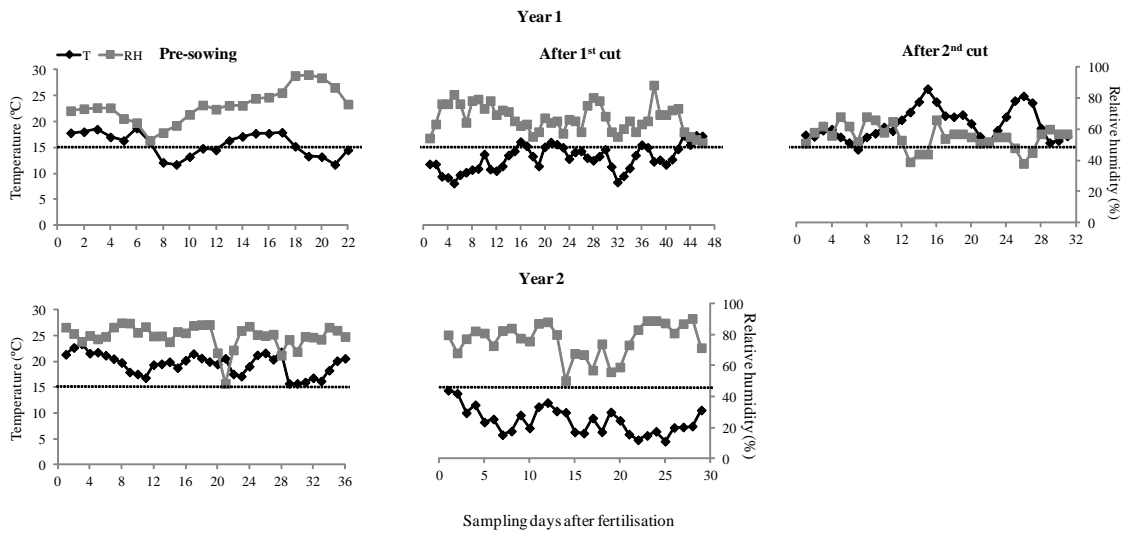
Driving factor	NH ₃ -N (kg ha ⁻¹)									
	Site 1					Site 2				
	Year 1			Year 2		Year 1		Year 2		
	Pre-sowing	After 1 st	After 2 nd	Pre-sowing	After 1 st	Pre-sowing	After 1 st	Pre-sowing	After 1 st	After 1 st
Average T (°C)	*	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns
Average maximum T (°C)	*	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns
Rainfall+Irrigation (mm)	*	ns	ns	ns	ns	-	-	-	-	-
Wind speed (m s ⁻¹)	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns
Aver. T x Rainfall+Irrigation	*	ns	ns	ns	ns	-	-	-	-	-
Average max. T x Rainfall+Irrigation	*	ns	ns	ns	ns	-	-	-	-	-

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929 **Figures**

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931

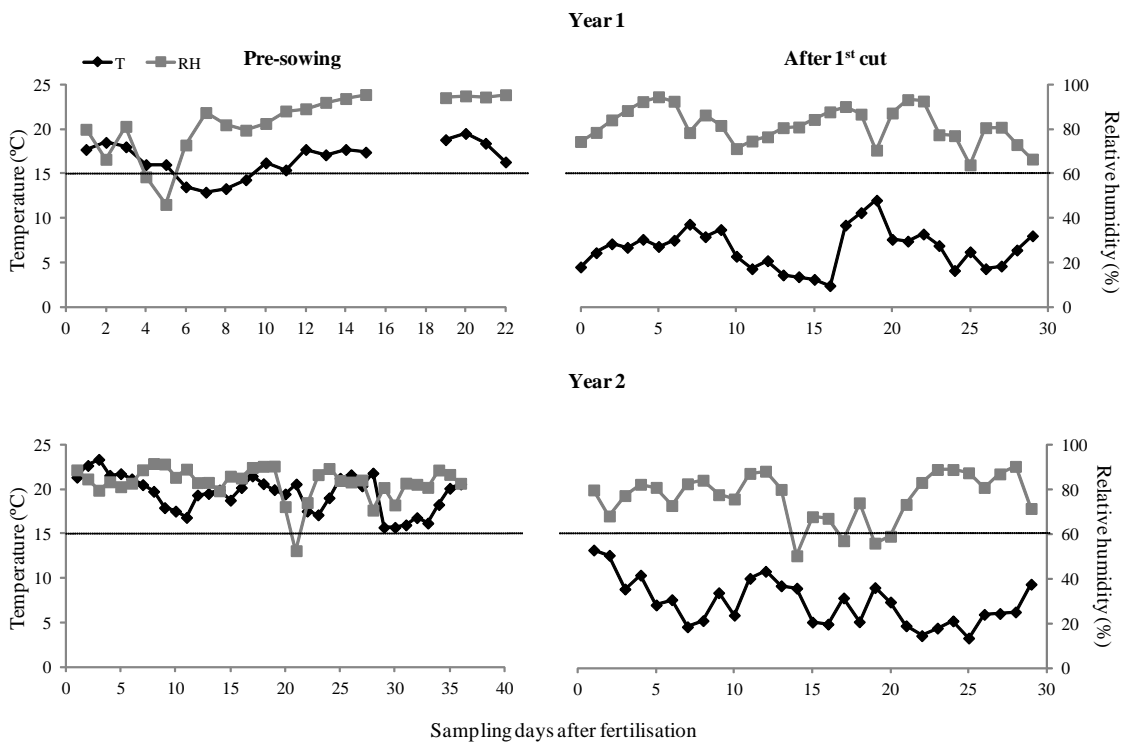
932 Figure 3. Daily temperature and relative humidity during sampling in years 1 and 2 at Site 1.

933 T: temperature; RH: relative humidity. The dotted line is the average air temperature during the period

934 represented.

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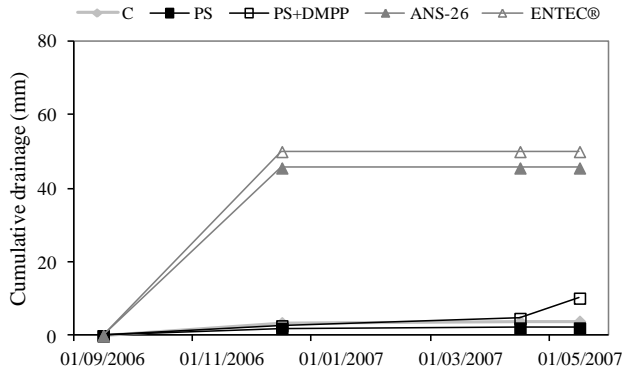


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938 Figure 4. Daily temperature and relative humidity during sampling in years 1 and 2 at Site 2.

939 T: temperature; RH: relative humidity. The dotted line is the average air temperature during the period

940 represented.



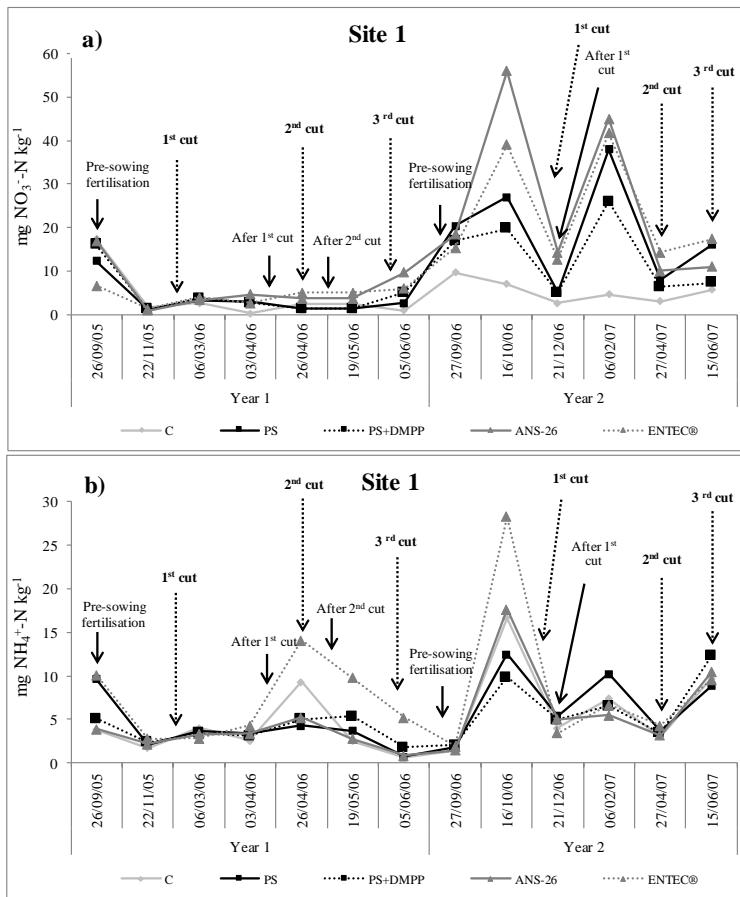
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Figure 5. Cumulative drainage collected by the lysimeters below 90 cm depth.

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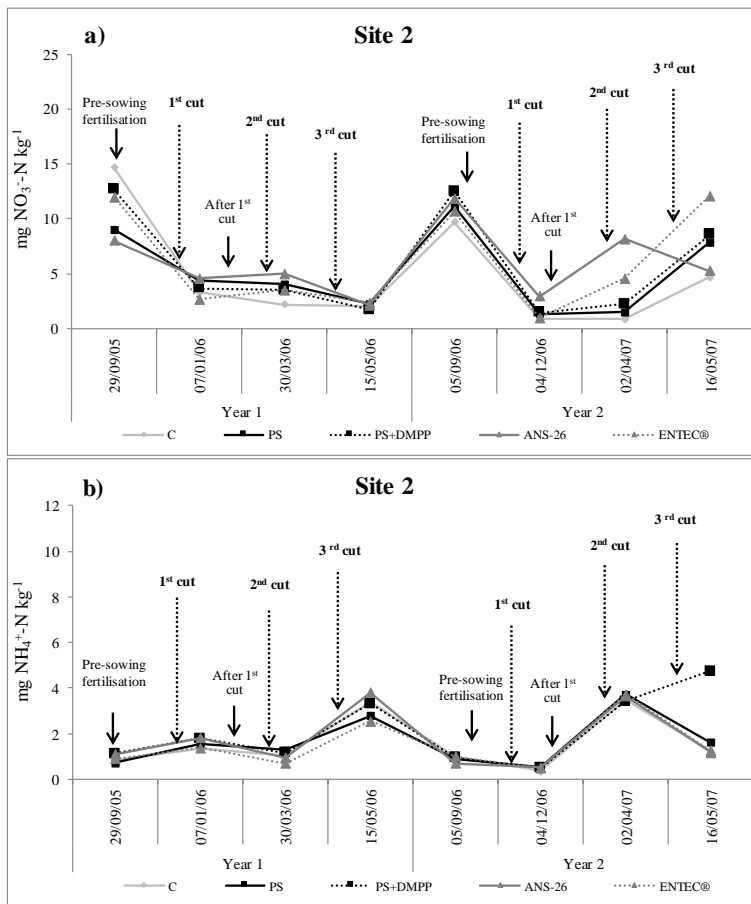
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Figure 8. Soil nitrate (a) and ammonium (b) nitrogen contents per treatment before the pre-sowing

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fertilisation and before the 1st cut and after each cut, in year 1 and year 2, at Site 1.



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950

Figure 9. Soil nitrate (a) and ammonium (b) nitrogen contents per treatment before pre-sowing fertilisation and after each cut in year 1 and year 2, at Site 2.