

Diet management to effectively abate N2O emissions from surface applied pig slurry

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1	Diet management to effectively abate N_2O emissions from surface applied pig
2	slurry
3	Sanchez-Martín, L., Beccaccia, A., De Blas, C., Sanz-Cobena, A., García-Rebollar, P.,
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5	
6	
7	Abstract
8	
9	Application of manure (urine and/or feces) to agricultural soils enhances emissions of
10	gases such as nitrous oxide (N_2O) and carbon dioxide (CO_2). Some minor N compounds
11	such as hippuric acid and benzoic acid present in urine can be controlled through diet
12	manipulation to mitigate these emissions. The aim of this study was to evaluate how the
13	inclusion of fibrous by-products in the diet of pigs affects hippuric and benzoic acid
14	concentrations in the excreted urine/slurry, and their possible effect on N_2O emissions
15	following application of these manures to soil. Slurries were obtained from growing-
16	finishing pigs fed five contrasting diets: a conventional diet (pig slurry control, PSC);
17	and orange pulp and carob meal at a dietary fiber level of 75 or 150 g kg-1 (OP-75; OP-
18	150; CM-75; CM-150) and were then applied to mesocosms containing young ryegrass
19	plants. A control treatment without slurry was also included. The N_2O and CO_2
20	emissions were measured using static chambers following slurry application, alongside
21	measurements of soil ammonium (NH_4^+) , nitrate (NO_3^-) , and dissolved organic carbon
22	(DOC). Soils amended with slurries obtained from fibre by-products, OP and CM,
23	decreased N_2O emissions by 65 and 47%, respectively, compared with slurries obtained
24	through a conventional pig diet.

Benzoic acid was negatively correlated with N₂O emission for slurries from OP diets, 25 which had over double the hippuric acid content, and more than 1.8 times the benzoic 26 acid content than the CM. However, this effect only occurred during the first week due 27 to rapid degradation of this compound within soil. The possible toxic effect of benzoic 28 acid did not appear to affect soil respiration, since a positive correlation was found. 29 Results of a benzoic acid balance (considering both intake through feed and release 30 through urine) indicated that the source of both acids were phenolic compounds 31 (polyphenolic or lignin) present in the fibrous fraction. These results show that N₂O 32 emissions are more affected than CO_2 by to compounds within urine/faeces that can be 33 34 manipulated indirectly through the diet.

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Keywords: nitrous oxide emissions, carbon dioxide emissions, diet manipulation, dietfibre content

38

39 1. Introduction

40 Manures from intensive pig production systems are generally inefficiently recycled and can potentially lead to atmospheric pollution, from the entire manure management 41 chain, including housing (IPCC, 2007). Nitrous oxide (N₂O) is one of the main 42 pollutants emitted after application of pig slurries to agricultural soils (Aguilera et al., 43 2013). This gas is a by-product of soil biochemical processes, mainly nitrification and 44 denitrification (Firestone and Davidson, 1989). These processes are directly controlled 45 by soil moisture, with low values of water-filled pore space (WFPS) favoring 46 nitrification (WFPS<60%) and high values (WFPS>60%) being suitable for 47 48 denitrification (Sanchez-Martin et al., 2010a). Emissions of N₂O contribute considerably to the radiative forcing of the atmosphere, having a global warming 49

potential 298 times higher than that of CO₂ expressed on a weight basis (i.e. per kg)
over a 100 year timescale (IPCC, 2007).

Ammonium and other labile N compounds of slurry (e.g. urea, creatinine) can influence the total N₂O emissions when applied to agricultural soils (Whitehead et al., 1989). When slurries are applied to aerated soils, NH_4^+ is rapidly nitrified, producing large fluxes of N₂O (Sanchez-Martin et al., 2010b). Additionally, the nitrate (NO₃⁻) obtained from nitrification in soils, together with degradable organic C compounds added with manures, often accelerates denitrification, especially under conditions of high soil WFPS (> 60%) (Cardenas et al., 2007).

Diet manipulation has been identified as a promising technique to modify urine 59 60 and feacal composition (Hansen et al., 2014) and consequently this is proposed as an acceptable strategy to reduce environmental N pollution. Available information 61 indicates that reducing crude protein (CP) in the diet of growing-finishing pigs can lead 62 63 to an 8% reduction in N excretion for each percentage decrease in CP of the feed, without reduction of animal performance (Galassi et al., 2010). Moreover, the addition 64 of fibrous feedstuffs to the diet has been related to a reduction of urea-N excretion 65 (Jarret et al., 2011). At present, information regarding the influence of pig diet on slurry 66 composition and its effect on N₂O emission is scarce. Velthof et al. (2004) found that 67 pig diet modified pig manure composition, but its effect on N₂O was dependent on soil 68 properties, especially soil organic matter content. 69

In laboratory experiments, it has been shown that minor constituents of ruminant urine, such as hippuric acid (HA) and benzoic acid (BA), can contribute to decreased N_2O emissions (Kool et al., 2006a-b). van Groenigen et al. (2006) observed an effect of these aromatic compounds on denitrification, whereas, Bertram et al. (2009) found nitrification was also partially inhibited by these organic compounds. These findings suggest an increase of hippuric and benzoic acid within ruminant urine could potentially be a N_2O mitigation strategy, however, contradictory results have been obtained in the few field experiments conducted to date, with no inhibitory effects detected (Clough et al., 2009; Krol et al., 2015). Further research is required to determine whether manipulation of pig diet to enhance the production of these minor urinary compounds can reduce subsequent N_2O emissions.

81 Within this context, two combined experiments were conducted, investigating the manipulation of pig diet, to assess the consequent effects on slurry composition, and 82 the application of these slurries as N fertilizer to grassland mesocosms. The aims of the 83 84 study were to: 1) evaluate the effect of the inclusion of fibrous by-products in pig's diet on hippuric and benzoic acid concentrations in the excreted urine/slurry, and 2) 85 determine the possible effect of both acids on N₂O emissions following application of 86 87 the slurries to grassland soil. We predict that diets resulting in slurries with higher organic acids (hippuric and benzoic) concentration would result in lower soil N₂O 88 89 emissions following their application.

90

91 **2. Material and Methods**

92 2.1 Selection of pig slurries.

93 Thirty growing-finishing pigs, progeny of Danish Duroc × (Landrace × Large 94 White), were fed five different diets, under controlled conditions, in an experimental 95 farm in Castellón (Spain). The experimental conditions to obtain urine and faeces from 96 each animal, and the collection period, are explained in detail in Beccaccia et al. (2015). 97 The experimental feeds included a conventional diet, formulated to contain the most 98 common ingredients used in commercial diets for growing-finishing pigs (wheat, barley

and soybean meal), and either orange pulp (OP) or carob meal (CM), at two dietary 99 concentrations (75 or 150 g kg⁻¹), in replacement of barley grain as a fibrous by-product. 100 The diets were as follows: 1) pig slurry control (PSC), 2) 75 g kg⁻¹ of carob meal (CM-101 75), 3) 150 g kg⁻¹ of carob meal (CM-150), 4) 75 g kg⁻¹ orange pulp (OP-75), and 5) 102 150 g kg⁻¹ of orange pulp (OP-150). These diets were designed to modify slurry 103 composition by changing dietary fibre sources, but without an influence on pig 104 performance or health (Beccaccia et al., 2015). In order to maintain constant neutral 105 106 detergent fibre (NDF) dietary level, net energy, protein and essential amino acid levels between diets, lard, soybean meal and synthetic amino acids were added to the feeds 107 including fibrous by-products. Essential nutrients were formulated according to the 108 recommendations of FEDNA (2006). 109

Urine and faeces were collected and stored (covered) separately at -20°C in 110 closed plastic bottles. Following the usual pig slurry's management, urine and faeces 111 112 from each animal were mixed in the same proportions as they were excreted. Subsequently, slurries of four different animals fed the same diet were immediately 113 mixed, in order to obtain the manure used in the mesocosms experiment. In order to 114 consider the possible side effects of freeze-thaw on the constituents, pH, NH_4^+ and total 115 N (Nt) were determined before application of the reconstituted slurry to soil. Standard 116 117 electrodes were used to determine pH and titration of the liquid fraction and the Kjeldahl method to NH₄⁺ and Nt, respectively. Total N content was used to calculate the 118 amount of slurry to apply in the mesocosms experiment, in order to achieve equal N 119 120 application rates.

Purine derivatives (allantoin, creatinine, uric acid, hippuric acid and benzoic acid) were analyzed directly in urine samples from the different pigs (n = 46) used for each diet via high performance liquid chromatography (HPLC) on a Varian Pro Star 310 HPLC system (Varian Inc., Palo Alto, CA), using a Phenomenex Luna® 5 μ m SCX 100Å column (250 × 4.6 mm) a variable wavelength detection set at 218 nm and a flow rate of 0.7 ml min⁻¹. The method consisted of two mobile phases: mobile phase A (KH₂PO₄; 17 g L⁻¹; adjusted to pH=4) and mobile phase B (40% methanol: 60% mobile phase A). The samples were centrifuged, and prepared for analysis in HPLC vials (1:10, urine: mobile phase A) and mixed with a vortex mixer before analysis.

Additionally, benzoic acid and total polyphenolic compounds were also determined in OP. Benzoic acid was extracted and determined by micellar electrophoresis as indicated in Ding et al. (2015), and polyphenolic compounds were determined using the Folin–Ciocalteu method (Obanda and Owuor, 1997).

134 2.2 Mesocosms experiment

In an experimental greenhouse of the Technical University of Madrid farm, 36 135 PVC cylindrical containers (26 cm diameter, 15 cm height) were used for the 136 mesocosms experiment. Each container was filled with 6 kg of dry soil (7cm height). 137 The soil was previously collected randomly from a 700 m^2 area, at the experimental 138 field station 'El Encín' (40° 32'N, longitude 3° 17'W) from 0 - 25 cm soil depth. In the 139 laboratory, soil was air-dried at 20 °C, sieved through a 2 mm mesh and repeatedly 140 mixed to ensure homogeneity. Some physico-chemical properties of the top 0-25 cm of 141 the soil layer, measured by standard methods of soil analysis (Burt, 2004) were: total 142 organic C, 8.2 ± 0.4 g kg⁻¹; pH_{H2O}, 7.8 and CaCO₃, 13.1 ± 0.3 g kg⁻¹. According to Soil 143 Survey Staff, 1992, the soil used was a Calcic Haploxerept with a clay loam texture 144 (clay, 28%; silt, 17%; sand, 55%). At the beginning of the experiment, the soil mineral 145 N content was 1.1 and 10.2 mg N kg soil⁻¹ for NH_4^+ and NO_3^- , respectively. The 146

temperature was maintained between 10 and 15°C. Ryegrass was sown and the soil moisture content was brought to 60% water-holding capacity (WHC) during 15 days before applying treatments. The containers were maintained at this WHC level throughout the experiment, by replacing the weight loss with distilled water, on a daily basis.

152 Perennial ryegrass (Lolium perenne L.) seed was sown at a density of 6 g of seed per container. Two weeks after sowing, the seedlings were clipped to 3 cm above the 153 soil surface, following which the pig slurries were applied (i.e., day 0) to the soil 154 surface. The slurry was applied at an equal N application rate of 100 kg N ha⁻¹ (0.531 g 155 N container⁻¹). Due to the different N content of the slurries, different total amounts of 156 slurry were applied to the containers, as follows: 55.2, 61.2, 67.9, 66.8 and 54.7 g of 157 slurry per pot for PSC, OP-75, OP-150, CM-75 and CM-150, respectively. Additionally, 158 water was added to the slurry application, in order to apply an equal total volume of 75 159 mL container⁻¹ across all treatments. The amount of NH₄⁺ added to different treatments 160 were: 0.293, 0.274, 0.235, 0.250 and 0.238 g N container⁻¹ for the same treatments, 161 respectively. The control treatment received the same water and seed density as the rest 162 163 of the treatments but it did not receive any N application.

The experiment was arranged in a factorial randomized complete block design, with six containers for each treatment. Half of the pots were used for GHG emission measurements (non-destructive; n = 3), and the other half were used in order to sample the soil (destructive; n = 3).

168

169 2.3 Soil sampling and analysis

In the pots designed for soil sampling, two soil cores per container were taken 170 for each sample date, using a 1 cm diameter soil auger (10 cm long). The hole produced 171 by the auger was filled with sand in order to maintain the stability of the soil structure. 172 173 Soil samples were analyzed for dissolved organic C (DOC), extractable mineral N $(NH_4^+ \text{ and } NO_3^-)$ and soil moisture. Soil DOC was determined by extracting 8 g soil 174 with 50 mL of deionized water. Afterward, DOC was analyzed with a total organic 175 carbon analyser (multi N/C 3100 Analityk Jena, Jena, Germany). From another 8 g of 176 177 homogeneously mixed soil, NH₄⁺-N and NO₃⁻-N were extracted with 50 mL of KCl (1 M) over a 1 hour period, filtered and measured by automated colorimetric determination 178 179 using a flow injection analyzer (FIAS 400 Perkin Elmer, USA) provided with a UV-V spectrophotometer detector. 180

Water-filled pore space (WFPS) was estimated by dividing the volumetric water content by total soil porosity. Total soil porosity was calculated by measuring the bulk density of the soil according to the relationship: soil porosity = 1 - (soil bulk density/2.65), assuming a particle density of 2.65 g cm⁻³ (Danielson and Sutherland, 1986). The bulk density, which was calculated from the volume of soil in the cores, was $1.29 \pm 0.1 \text{ Mg m}^{-3}$. Soil samples were taken three days during the first two weeks after fertilizers applications. After the first week, samples were taken twice or once a week.

188

189 2.4 GHG sampling and analysis

Emissions of GHG were measured using a closed dark static chamber approach, following the same sampling schedule as described in section 2.3. Each container was used as a chamber, closing it with a perfectly fitting lid for 40 minutes, resulting in a headspace of approx8 L. The closure period was selected after testing, before the experiment, the linearity of the increasing gas concentrations of N₂O and CO₂ inside the chamber (Ábalos et al., 2014). Gas samples were taken at 0, 20 and 40 min through a
three way valve, which was installed in the lid. Gas samples were taken using a 100 ml
syringe and stored in 20 ml chromatography vials prior to analysis.

Concentrations of N₂O, and CO₂ were quantified by gas chromatography, using 198 a HP-6890 gas chromatograph (GC; Agilent Technologies, Barcelona, Spain) equipped 199 with a Turbomatrix autoanalyzer (Perkin Elmer, Madrid, Spain). Gas samples were 200 injected through HP Plot-Q capillary columns to a ⁶³Ni electron-capture detector (ECD) 201 202 to analyze N₂O concentrations and to a flame-ionization detector (FID) fitted with a methanizer for CO₂ concentrations. Helium was used as carrier gas and the oven was 203 operated at a constant temperature of 35 °C. Greenhouse gas flux rates were calculated 204 205 from the change in gas concentration in the headspace air during the sampling period, 206 where total N₂O-N and CO₂-C fluxes per container were estimated by successive linear 207 interpolations of the flux measurements.

208

209 2.5 Biomass sampling and analysis

Grass was cut (to a height of 3 cm) two weeks after the beginning of the experiment and at the end of the experimental period. The biomass obtained from these two cuts were weighed in order to obtain the yield, and total foliar C and N content were determined with an elemental analyzer (TruMac CN Leco, USA).

214

215 *2.6 Calculations and statistical analysis*

For the effect of diet on minor chemical constituents of pig urine, individual animals (n=6 per treatment) were the experimental unit for all the diet treatments studied. Data were analyzed as a completely randomized design with type of diet as main factor, by using PROC GLM of SAS (2008). The effects of type of diet on urine

composition were analyzed as a factorial arrangement by using orthogonal contrasts 220 with source and level of inclusion of fibrous by products as main factors. Contrasts of 221 222 each of the experimental treatments against the control diet were done by using a Dunnet test. For the effect of different slurries on soil N₂O and CO₂ emission, each 223 224 container (n=3 per treatment) was the experimental unit. Differences between treatments at each sampling event and between the mean and cumulative emissions 225 were evaluated using analysis of variance (ANOVA, P < 0.05). The least significant 226 227 difference (LSD) test was used for multiple comparisons between means. Prior to the statistical tests the data were analyzed to determine whether the assumptions of 228 normality (Kolmogorov-Smirnov test) and equality of variance (Levene's test) were 229 satisfied. Where needed to fulfill these assumptions, the data were log-transformed 230 before analysis. Cumulative N₂O and CO₂ fluxes were estimated by successive linear 231 232 interpolation between weekly sampling dates to study the possible effect of benzoic acid 233 on the emissions due to the rapid degradation of this compound. Correlations between 234 total N₂O and slurry chemical constituents, such as hippuric and benzoic acid or NH₄⁺ 235 content, were also performed at these periods during the experiment. Other correlation between N₂O and CO₂ fluxes with soil parameters such as NH₄⁺–N, NO₃⁻–N, DOC were 236 performed, with a 95% significant level. 237

238

239 **3. Results**

240 *3.1 Composition and effect of diet on some urine chemical constituents*

The chemical composition of the experimental diets can be seen in Table 1, and are further described in detail in Beccaccia et al. (2015). Feeds containing CM generally had a higher concentration of acid detergent lignin (ADL) compared to PSC, OP-75 and OP-150, and feeds containing OP had a greater soluble fibre content compared to PSC,CM-75 and CM-150.

The composition of the slurries from the contrasting dietary treatments can be seen in Table 2. The PSC diet resulted in the slurry with the highest pH and NH_4^+ content, whereas, the OP-150 diet resulted in a slurry with the lowest NH_4^+ content (3.5 mg N L⁻¹).

250 Some minor N-containing urine compounds, such as creatinine or allantoin, were not affected by the source and level of dietary fibre by-product, however, the 251 amount of hippuric and benzoic acid was related to the type of fibre included in diets 252 (Table 3). In fact, the OP urines (OP-75 and OP-150) contained the highest amount (P 253 <0.001) of hippuric acid and tended (P = 0.072) to contain a high content of benzoic 254 acid than those obtained from CM diets. Urine from OP diets had more than double the 255 hippuric acid, and more than 1.8 times the benzoic acid content than with CM-75 and 256 CM-150. Hippuric acid concentration increased with the amount of OP (75 g kg⁻¹ or 150 257 $g kg^{-1}$), but the same trend was not observed for benzoic acid. The concentration of uric 258 acid ranged from 40 to 69 mg L^{-1} for CM-150 and PSC respectively. 259

The OP contained 30 mg benzoic acid kg⁻¹ and 20 g galic acid kg⁻¹ (total polyphenol). Taken into account the percentage of this ingredient in feeds, the dietary treatment OP-75 contained 2.25 mg benzoic acid kg⁻¹ and 1.5 g galic acid kg⁻¹, and the dietary treatment OP-150 contained 4.5 mg benzoic acid kg⁻¹ and 3.0 g galic acid kg⁻¹.

264

265 *3.2 Nitrous oxide emissions*

Nitrous oxide emissions began to increase in the slurry treatments 3 days 266 following application (Fig. 1). At 7 to 17 days following treatment application, 267 emissions were higher than 1 mg N₂O-N m⁻² d⁻¹ for all slurry treatments (Fig. 1). 268 Although during some of the sampling days there were no significant differences 269 270 between treatments, a clear and significant (P < 0.05) effect was observed during the highest period of N₂O flux. The highest fluxes were always measured from the PSC 271 treatment, with a maximum peak on day 15 (4.3 mg N₂O-N m⁻² d⁻¹). In contrast, 272 application of slurries obtained from pigs fed with OP diets (OP-75 and OP-150) 273 resulted in lower fluxes than CM diets (CM-75 and CM-150) (Fig. 1). Significant 274 differences (P < 0.05) between the two levels of fibre (75 or 150 g kg⁻¹) in each pig's 275 diet were only found on day 15. 276

At the end of the experimental period, the N₂O emissions from the soils amended with slurries obtained from fibrous by-products diets, OP and CM, were 65 and 47% (respectively) lower than from soil amended with the slurry obtained through a conventional pig diet. Considering cumulative N₂O emission by periods of a week, significant differences at P < 0.05 between OP and CM were found for the first two weeks (Fig. 2a). However, for the 3rd and 4th weeks, both treatments produced similar cumulative N₂O fluxes.

A strong positive correlation was found between daily N₂O fluxes and soil mineral N content, where r = 0.52, P < 0.01, n = 39 for NO₃⁻ and r = 0.33, P = 0.04, n =36 for NH₄⁺. Daily mean flux of N₂O was also positive correlated with DOC (P < 0.01, r=0.63, n=54). During the first week, mean N₂O cumulative fluxes were negatively correlated (P < 0.05) with the amount of benzoic acid applied in slurries (r = -0.92, n =5). 290

291 *4.3 Carbon dioxide emissions*

Carbon dioxide emissions were measured under dark conditions to provide an
 indication of plant and soil processes (plant respiration + plant root respiration + soil
 microbial respiration).

Different pig's diets did not influence daily CO_2 emissions, which only showed significant differences (P < 0.05) between the control and the slurry treatments on days 9, 11, and 15 (Fig. 3). Overall, CO_2 fluxes from the different treatments showed a similar emissions pattern to that found for N₂O, with the highest fluxes (>1000 mg CO₂-C m⁻² d⁻¹) were found between 7 and 20 days following slurry application.

At the end of the experimental period, cumulative CO_2 fluxes from all slurry treatments were not significantly different (P > 0.05) from the control. During the first week, however, significantly (P < 0.05) higher CO_2 losses were found from OP-75, OP-150 and CM-150 treatments than from CM-75 or PSC (Fig. 2b). In the second week, treatments produced by fibrous by-products shown similar emissions than from conventional diet, PSC.

Mean daily CO₂ fluxes during the first week were positive correlated with benzoic acid (r = 0.95; P < 0.05; n = 5) and hippuric acid (r = 0.93; P < 0.01; n=5) added with slurry. The cumulative CO₂ fluxes during the first week were also positively correlated with mean soil DOC (r = 0.88; P < 0.05; n = 5).

310 *4.5 Soil mineral N and DOC*

311 Soil NH₄⁺-N concentration increased significantly with the addition of slurry
312 (Fig. 4a). Generally, treatments from diets rich in fibrous by-products decreased the

mineral N within in the slurry, and consequently that extracted from the soil, but neither 313 OP nor CM showed lower soil NH_4^+ concentrations than PSC (Fig. 4a). Soil NH_4^+ 314 content was higher than 20 mg N kg⁻¹ during the first two weeks of the meso-cosm 315 incubation, after which it returned to that of the control soil. The mean NH₄⁺ 316 concentration in soil was positively correlated with hippuric acid (r = 0.90, P < 0.05, n317 = 5), but not with benzoic acid. The maximum soil NO_3^- content (106.3 mg N kg⁻¹) 318 appeared 20 days after slurry application (Fig. 4b), due to nitrification of soil NH_4^+ . 319 320 During the last two weeks of the experiment, the amount of soil NO_3^- was also higher than 20 mg N kg⁻¹ but no significant (P < 0.05) differences between dietary's treatments 321 were found. 322

Soil DOC concentration ranged from 73 to 194 mg C kg⁻¹ (Fig. 5a). The 323 maximum concentration (358 mg C kg⁻¹) was found in OP-150 at the beginning of the 324 325 experiment. Although there were no significant differences between treatments in the 326 daily measurements, the trend was that the OP treatments (OP-75 and OP-150), showed the highest soil DOC content during the first 15 days (Fig. 5a). This is consistent with 327 the average of the soil DOC during the experiment, where the highest concentration 328 were from treatments rich in soluble fibre, 122 y 149 mg C kg⁻¹ for OP-75 and OP-150, 329 respectively (Fig. 5b). 330

331 *4.6 Harvest yield*

In general, there was no significant effect of diet on the grass yield (Table 4). The grass biomass obtained in two cuts was higher in conventional than in the fibrous by-products-diets. The control showed a 27% less biomass compared with the diets treatments which indicated that the addition of a labile N source through pig slurry application had a clear effect on the yield, although independent of the type of diet. The total N analysed in the grass biomass was significantly lower (P < 0.05) in the control than in the rest of the slurries treatments (Table 4). The total N obtained in the grass from different pig's diet treatments ranged from 2.7 to 3.2 %, but there were no significant differences (P > 0.05) between them.

341

342

343 5. Discussion

344 5.1 Slurry composition and gas emissions

Manipulation of pig diet has modified the composition of urine and faeces 345 346 (Philippe et al., 2011), which can directly affect the emissions of N₂O from agricultural soils after manure is applied to soil as fertilizer. In this experiment, we demonstrated 347 348 that slurries from pig fed with diets based on OP and CM produced lower emission of N₂O than slurry produced from a conventional diet. Although the amount of total N 349 added with slurries was the same in all containers, the emission factor over the 350 351 experimental period (37 days) ranged from 0.32% CM-75 to 0.19% for OP-150, compared with 0.56% for the conventional slurry. 352

Slurry contains multiple compounds that could individually affect production or 353 354 consumption of N₂O in soil after its application. One of the most important components is NH_4^+ within the slurry, as it is the substrate for the process of nitrification, which is 355 one of most important process involved in N₂O emission in Mediterranean cropping 356 systems (Sahrawat and Keeny, 1986). The positive correlation found between the NH₄⁺ 357 content in the upper part of soil and N₂O fluxes are in consistent with that. However the 358 359 NH₄⁺ added with slurry was not enough to explain the important differences in fluxes, because the OP-150 and OP-75, which received 20% and 7% less NH₄⁺ than PSC, 360

361 respectively, resulted in <50% of total N₂O in comparison to that of PSC. Probably others minor slurry compounds could have an important effect on N₂O emission. In fact, 362 an interesting finding of this experiment was that only benzoic acid added with slurries 363 364 explained differences in N₂O fluxes. So, a negative correlation between benzoic acid added with pig slurry and total N₂O emission was detected during the first 15 days after 365 slurry application. Some laboratory studies reported that N₂O losses can be mitigated by 366 367 >50% by increasing hippuric acid concentration in cattle slurries (van Groenigen et al., 368 2006), but this effect has only been observed when in the presence of benzoic acid (Kool et al, 2006b), since this compound is a recognized antimicrobial agent (Marwan 369 and Nagel, 1986) and it is the sub-product of the hippuric acid degradation. Our results 370 partly corroborate the results from these studies, as the treatments which had the highest 371 amounts of both acids (OP-75 and OP-150) produced the lowest N₂O emissions. 372 373 However, the higher concentration of hippuric acid of OP-150 in comparison to that of 374 OP-75 produced a similar total N₂O emission in both treatments. Neither, concentration 375 of hippuric acid in slurries explained differences in fluxes between CM and PSC 376 treatments, because N₂O emission were lower in the CM treatments (CM-75 and CM-150) than in PSC, despite the higher urine hippuric acid concentration from the PSC 377 378 diet.

There are contradictory results in the literature regarding the effect of hippuric and benzoic acid on N₂O emissions, as studies carried out under field conditions did not find significant differences in N₂O emission from cattle urine with different concentrations of both acids (Clough et al., 2009; Krol et al., 2015). The first study argued that the low WFPS (< 35%) and the high pH (> 6.4) of the soil during the experimental period were not appropriate conditions to promote the inhibitory effect of hippuric and benzoic acid on N₂O emissions. In the case of Krol et al. (2015), the 386 authors suggest that both organic acids loose their power to mitigate N₂O emissions as a consequence of other effects such as leaching, and plant root activity, which are not 387 realistically represented in laboratory incubations that do not contain plants, or have 388 389 sufficient soil depth. Therefore, this study is the first to show a mitigation effect, likely to be associated with benzoic acid concentration within slurry, where both soil 390 microorganism and plants can compete for the available N. However, the possible 391 inhibitory effect on processes producing N₂O emission was only maintained for a short 392 393 period of time in this soil, as deduced from the negative correlation during the first two weeks between cumulative N₂O emission and benzoic acid. According to Clough et al. 394 (2009), high soil pH could promote a rapid degradation of benzoic acid into its 395 396 conjugated base (benzoate) diminishing its inhibitory effect. In our experimental 397 conditions, with high pH both in slurries and soil, the conditions for degradation were 398 very favourable. Benzoic acid could be metabolized in agricultural soils by some 399 microorganisms (Pseudomonas and Burkholderia species), as demonstrated Pumphrey 400 and Madsen (2008), reducing its concentration after addition. In this study, slurry was 401 applied on the soil surface following the most common practices in the field. Therefore, 402 C and N compounds added with slurry were concentrated on the upper part of the soil where the WFPS ranged from 60-70% on most of the sampling dates. This situation 403 404 may have favoured N₂O production via denitrification, although, the rapid decrease in soil NH₄⁺ concentration during the first two weeks of the study indicates that 405 406 nitrification was also taking place (Bateman and Baggs, 2005). The inhibitory effect of 407 benzoic acid seems to affect the denitrification process (van Groenigen et al. 2006, Bertram et al. 2009), although nitrification could also be affected (Bertram et al. 2009). 408 409 Taking into account that both nitrification and denitrification processes contributed to 410 the overall N₂O emissions from the mesocosms. We speculate that in this small soil

volume, the amount of benzoic acid (and hippuric acid) added with treatments, such as
OP-75 and OP-150, could have been enough to partially inhibit N₂O production.
However, this needs to be checked with additional experiments.

414 An interesting result was the significant correlation between added hippuric acid with slurries and mean NH_4^+ concentration in soil, which could indicate that 415 nitrification rate was retarded by hippuric acid, and therefore the amount of N₂O 416 emission from this process. Also Bertram et al. (2009) suggested that hippuric acid 417 418 reduced the activity of nitrifiers, however additional experiments are needed to confirm this. Additionally, the higher DOC concentrations and the higher CO₂ soil respiration 419 observed for OP treatments after slurry application could have contributed to increased 420 electron demand for denitrifiers, favouring the consumption of N₂O and consequently 421 the reduction of N_2O/N_2 ratio. This effect, which has been observed when a source of 422 423 labile C was added to soil (Cardenas et al., 2007), also contributes to a reduction in total N₂O emissions. 424

Hippuric acid as well as benzoic acid could have been used by soil microorganisms, enhancing soil respiration rate as indicated by the positive correlation found between cumulative CO_2 and added hippuric acid during the first two weeks after slurry application. Based on this finding, it is possible to indicate that both acids did not have a general inhibitory effect of microbial activity, at least at these concentrations, although as discussed before, benzoic acid added with slurry or derived from hippuric acid degradation in soil could have affected denitrification and nitrification activity.

432

433 5.2 Diets and N_2O emission in soil

434 Our results demonstrated that by manipulating pig diet, it is possible to modify
435 urine and faeces composition and subsequently reduce N₂O emissions following soil

436 application of the slurry. As slurries with the highest amount of benzoic acid produced 437 the lowest N_2O emission, strategies based on increasing concentration of this compound 438 in slurry (as well hippuric acid) could be considered as a potential option to mitigate 439 N_2O emissions from slurry applications.

Organic acids and their salts, such as benzoic acid, are used in monogastric 440 animal nutrition as alternatives to antibiotic growth promoters (Hansen et al., 2007). 441 benzoic acid is absorbed in the small intestine, and metabolized in liver producing 442 443 hippuric acid, which is subsequently excreted in the urine (Bridges et al., 1970). Murphy et al. (2011) observed a linear increase of N retained/intake when pig diet was 444 supplemented with benzoic acid in the range 0 to 30 g kg⁻¹. This was attributed to a 445 reduction in the total aerobic bacteria in the ileum, thus increasing digestibility. Also the 446 lowering of pH in the gastrointestinal microbiota improves N absorption (Sauer et al., 447 2009). This effect could have contributed to lower NH_4^+ in the OP-150 treatment. 448

Another possible cause of the reduction of the amount of NH_4^+ in slurry, and its 449 450 subsequent effect on fluxes, was through the effect of increasing soluble fibre in the 451 diets (Beccaccia et al., 2015). These authors found that increasing soluble fibre, through incorporating OP within feeds, reduced the total N excreted via urine and the 452 urine: faeces N ratio was reduced. This effect was caused as consequence of a 453 454 consumption of N by microorganisms, which transformed soluble N, such as urea of urine, into organic N. This last fraction (organic N) which is mainly included in faeces, 455 is normally mineralized more slowly in soil than soluble N, reducing the risk of 456 457 volatilization in the following days after application. In fact, Beccaccia et al. (2015) found an important reduction of NH₃ emissions from diets with high percentage on fibre 458 459 and lignin such as OP.

Analyzing the component of diets, and considering a mean of 2.4 L urine pig^{-1} 460 day⁻¹ excreted (in this experiment), benzoic or hippuric acid excreted in urine for OP-461 150 diet was 0.35 g BA and 3.96 g HA pig⁻¹ day⁻¹, respectively. As the mean 462 consumption of feed per pig per day was 2.5 kg in this experiment, only 11.25 mg 463 benzoic acid was included in the feed for the OP-150 treatment. Therefore, other 464 compounds (e.g. polyphenolic compounds) are necessary as a source of excreted 465 benzoic acid. So, polyphenolic compounds included in OP, and ingested by the pig was 466 5.5 g galic acid $pig^{-1} day^{-1}$ (OP-150), which was enough to generate the additional 467 benzoic acid excreted in the urine. 468

469 However, more studies are needed to understand how degradation of470 polyphenolic compounds in the intestine generates benzoic acid in pig excreta.

To date, there is scarce literature (Petersen et al., 2013; Eriksen et al., 2014) 471 472 regarding the use of slurries/urines with manipulated hippuric or benzoic acid content, 473 and most of these have been conducted by increasing their concentration through direct 474 addition of these compounds into the slurry (Fangueiro et al., 2015). However, this 475 practice could be difficult to achieve due to the low solubility of both compounds (Krol et al., 2015). The manipulation of diet, as demonstrated in this experiment, provides an 476 available strategy for increasing these compounds within the excreta (Dijkstra et al., 477 2013). 478

479 Meat producing countries, such as Spain, which is the 4th largest producer of 480 pork in the world, need to develop strategies for sustainable pig meat production in 481 order to decrease the release of N pollutants to the environment. Modifying pig diet 482 using sub-products rich in fibre, such as OP or CM, is a potentially economically viable 483 strategy to reduce N₂O since fibre rich feed ingredients are often cheaper than usual

484 ones and can reduce the competition with food (cereals) for human nutrition. However,485 these products are many times locally produced and seasonally available and the

 N_2O emissions, only represents 1-5% of the total N applied from the slurries which will not result in increased the nitrogen used efficiency (NUE). If this effect were combined with a reduction in nitrate leaching, then it could become important as an increase the N use efficiency of the meat sector butore studies should be necessary to achieve these challenges.

491

492 6. Conclusion

493 Changes in dietary fibre composition, as a consequence of including fibrous by-494 products, had an important effect on the concentration of urine and faeces compounds. Bezoic and hippuric acid concentrations in urine were related to the type of fibrous by-495 496 product in the diet, being higher for OP than for CM or barley grain. Results of a 497 benzoic acid balance considering both intake through feed and release through urine indicated that the source of this acid and its precursor (i.e. hippuric acid) should be 498 499 phenolic compounds (other than benzoic acid), probably associated with the 500 polyphenolic or lignin content in the fibrous fraction.

The composition of slurry also had an important effect on N_2O . Emission of this gas was correlated with the benzoic acid added with urine, but not directly with hippuric acid concentrations. Under denitrification favoring condition (WFPS close to 70%), the inhibitory effect was only observed for 15 days following slurry application, probably because of the degradation of this compound in soil within that period.

506 In contrast, microorganisms increased soil CO_2 emissions in these first two 507 weeks from OP or CM treatments. This could indicate that there were not toxic effects 508 of benzoic acid at this relatively low concentration on soil respiration.

509 Further knowledge is required on which compounds within urine and faeces 510 have a natural inhibitory effect on denitrification or nitrification. Improving knowledge 511 within this area will contribute to the range of approaches that can be used to mitigate 512 greenhouse gas emission from livestock systems. These results show the potential of 513 alternative feeding strategies for the reduction of environmental problems associated 514 with agriculture, including the external dependency of raw material imports for feeding 515 animals in Spain

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Table 1. Chemical composition of experimental diets (g kg⁻¹, as fed basis) (Beccaccia et

670 al., 2015). Cont	trol pig slurry (PSC), 7	75 g kg ⁻¹ orange pulp	o (OP-75), 150 g kg ⁻¹	orange

671	pulp (OP-150), 75 g kg	¹ carob meal (CM-75) and 150 g kg ⁻	¹ carob meal (CM-150).
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-	PSC	OP-75	OP-150	CM-75	CM-150
Dry matter	912	902	903	895	899
Crude protein	158	156	154	153	157
NDICP ^a	21.4	26.7	21.2	23.8	20.8
Total dietary fibre	194	214	234	200	212
NDF ^b	154	165	158	164	161
ADF ^c	45.6	52.3	56.3	61.0	75.4
ADL ^d	8.0	9.0	10.7	18.9	33.9
Soluble fibre	61.2	75.9	97.3	60.1	71.4

^aNeutral detergent insoluble crude protein.

- 673 ^b Neutral detergent fibre
- ^c Acid detergent fibre without residual ash;

675 ^d Acid detergent lignin

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Table 2. Chemical characteristics of pig slurries (faeces+urine) from different dietary
treatments^a. Control pig slurry (PSC), 75 g kg⁻¹ orange pulp (OP-75), 150 g kg⁻¹ orange pulp
(OP-150), 75 g kg⁻¹ carob meal (CM-75) and 150 g kg⁻¹ carob meal (CM-150).

	PSC	OP-75	OP-150	CM-75	CM-150
			Slurry ^a		
Total N (g kg ⁻¹)	9.64	8.68	7.82	7.95	9.7
NH_4^+ (g kg ⁻¹)	5.32	4.48	3.46	3.75	4.35
рН	8.89	7.93	8.08	8.38	8.20

^a Slurry samples were obtained mixing individual excretas (faeces+urine) of 6 pigs by dietary

684 treatment.

685

Table 3. Effect of source (S) and level of inclusion (L) of fibrous by products on the
concentration of minor components in pig urines. Control pig slurry (PSC), 75 g kg⁻¹ orange
pulp (OP-75), 150 g kg⁻¹ orange pulp (OP-150), 75 g kg⁻¹ carob meal (CM-75) and 150 g kg⁻¹
carob meal (CM-150).

	PSC	OP-75	OP-150	CM-75	CM-150	SEM ¹	S	L	SxL
Allantoin (mg L ⁻¹ urine)	679	575	653	552	505	141	0.551	0.912	0.661
Creatinine $(mg L^{-1} urine)$	1888	1821	1744	1636	1690	342	0.730	0.973	0.851
Uric acid (mg L ⁻¹ urine)	69.2	52.1	64.8	54.4	40.5	439	0.422	0.967	0.331
Hippuric acid ² (mg L ⁻¹ urine)	848	1231	1651	552	699	189	<0.001	0.146	0.479
Benzoic acid (mg L ⁻¹ urine)	61.4	147	149	81.1	73.8	37.3	0.072	0.939	0.906

691 ¹Standard error of means (n=6)

692 ²Contrast PSC vs OP-150 (P < 0.05)

- **Table 4.** Harvest yield and total N in the ryegrass. Control
- pig slurry (PSC), 75 g kg⁻¹ orange pulp (OP-75), 150 g kg⁻¹
- orange pulp (OP-150), 75 g kg⁻¹ carob meal (CM-75) and 150
- $g kg^{-1}$ carob meal (CM-150).

		71
	Harvest Yield	
	2	N 71
	$(g DM m^{-2})$	(%)
C a set se a 1	1422 + 0.0	<u> </u>
Control	14.33 ± 0.9	$1./1 \pm 0.0$
PSC CM 75	19.37 ± 1.0	3.16 ± 0.2 /1
CM-75	19.77 ± 0.5	2.95 ± 0.1
CM-150	19.57 ± 0.4	2.80 ± 0.2 / 1
OP-/5	20.45 ± 0.5	2.92 ± 0.1
OP-150	20.54 ± 0.9	2.78 ± 0.1
01 100		
Values are the n	nean of three replicates \pm sta	indard deviation.
	•	

738 Figures

Fig. 1 Daily soil N₂O emissions (mg N₂O-N m⁻² d⁻¹) from different slurry treatments following application (DAA). Control pig slurry (PSC), 75 g kg⁻¹ orange pulp (OP-75), 150 g kg⁻¹ orange pulp (OP-150), 75 g kg⁻¹ carob meal (CM-75) and 150 g kg⁻¹ carob meal (CM-150). Vertical bars indicate standard errors for each sampling date.



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Fig. 2 Cumulative (a) N₂O and (b) CO₂ emissions per week from soil amended with different pig slurries. Control pig slurry (PSC), 75 g kg⁻¹ orange pulp (OP-75), 150 g kg⁻¹ ¹ orange pulp (OP-150), 75 g kg⁻¹ carob meal (CM-75) and 150 g kg⁻¹ carob meal (CM-150). Vertical bars indicate standard errors for each sampling date. Values are the mean of three replicates \pm standard deviation. Different letters indicate significant differences at (P < 0.05) between treatments in the same week.



Fig. 3 Daily soil CO₂ emissions (mg CO₂-C m⁻² d⁻¹) from different slurry treatments
following application (DAA). Control pig slurry (PSC), 75 g kg⁻¹ orange pulp (OP-75),
150 g kg⁻¹ orange pulp (OP-150), 75 g kg⁻¹ carob meal (CM-75) and 150 g kg⁻¹ carob
meal (CM-150). Vertical bars indicate standard errors for each sampling date.



Fig. 4 (a) Soil NH_4^+ -N (mg NH_4^+ -N kg⁻¹) and (b) NO_3^- -N (mg NO_3^- -N kg⁻¹) for different slurry treatments following application (DAA). Vertical bars indicate standard errors for each sampling date.



DAA



DAA

Fig. 5 (a) Soil C (mg C kg⁻¹) for different slurry treatments following application
(DAA) during the experimental period and (b) mean soil C (mg C kg⁻¹) during the
experimental period for each treatment. Vertical bars indicate standard errors.





Treatments