Soil Physics & Hydrology

# Soil Gas Diffusivity Controls $N_2$ O and $N_2$ Emissions and their Ratio

### Nimlesh Balaine Tim J. Clough\*

Dep. of Soil and Physical Sciences PO Box 85084 Lincoln Univ. Lincoln 7647 Canterbury New Zealand

### Mike H. Beare Steve M Thomas Esther D. Meenken

New Zealand Institute for Plant and Food Research Canterbury Agriculture & Science Centre Gerald St. Lincoln 7608 Canterbury New Zealand Knowledge of soil biological and physical interactions with respect to N<sub>2</sub>O and N<sub>2</sub> fluxes is essential to ensure that agricultural land management is environmentally and economically sustainable. This study determined how varying soil relative gas diffusivity  $(D_p/D_0)$  affected cumulative  $N_2O$  and  $N_2$  fluxes under simulated ruminant urinary-N deposition. Using repacked soil cores, the effects of varying soil bulk density ( $\rho_b$ ; from 1.1 to 1.5 Mg m<sup>-3</sup>) and soil matric potential ( $\psi$ ; -10 to -0.2 kPa) on  $D_{\rm p}/D_{\rm o}$  were examined in a Templeton silt loam soil (Udic Haplustept) following the application of simulated ruminant urine (700 kg N ha<sup>-1</sup>). Fluxes of  $N_2O$  and  $N_2$ , soil inorganic N, pH, and dissolved organic C (DOC) dynamics were monitored over 35 d. Soil  $D_{\rm p}/D_{\rm o}$ declined as soil bulk density and soil moisture increased. Soil N2O emissions increased exponentially as  $D_{\rm p}/D_{\rm o}$  decreased until  $D_{\rm p}/D_{\rm o}$  equaled 0.005, where upon N2O fluxes decreased rapidly due to complete denitrification, such that  $N_2$  fluxes reached a maximum of 60% of N applied at a  $D_n/D_0$  of <0.005. Regression analysis showed that  $D_p/D_0$  was better able to explain the variation in  $N_2O$  and  $N_2$  fluxes than water-filled pore space (WFPS) because it accounted for the interaction of soil  $\rho_b$  and  $\psi$ . This study demonstrates that soil  $D_p/D_0$ can explain cumulative N2O and N2 emissions from agricultural soils. Under grazed pasture systems, potential exists to reduce the emissions of the greenhouse gas N<sub>2</sub>O and significant economic losses of N as N<sub>2</sub> if soil management and irrigation can be maintained to maximize  $D_{\rm p}/D_{\rm o}$ .

**Abbreviations:**  $\varepsilon$ , air-filled porosity;  $\theta_g$ , gravimetric water content;  $\theta_{v'}$  volumetric water content;  $\rho_b$ , bulk density;  $\phi$ , total porosity;  $\psi$ , matric potential; DOC, dissolved organic C;  $D_p/D_{o'}$  relative gas diffusivity; WFPS, water-filled pore space.

osses of N<sub>2</sub>O from agricultural soils represent a minor economic loss at a farm scale, with 1 to 2% of N applied in fertilizer or animal excreta typically ✓ emitted as N<sub>2</sub>O, but such losses are a major economic loss on a global basis (Delgado, 2002). Agricultural anthropogenic N<sub>2</sub>O emissions have a substantial environmental impact due to the role that N2O plays, both as a greenhouse gas and as a significant contributor to ozone depletion processes in the stratosphere (Ravishankara et al., 2009). Ruminant excreta and fertilizer are primarily responsible for the increased concentration of N<sub>2</sub>O in the troposphere (Davidson, 2009), with ruminant urine deposition within intensively managed pasture systems a significant contributor (de Klein et al., 2001). Conversely, emissions of N<sub>2</sub> from agricultural soils to the atmosphere are environmentally benign, but they represent a greater economic loss of N, with more than 20% of N often assumed to be lost as  $N_2$ , with such losses reducing the N use efficiency of crops and pastures (Clough et al., 1996, 2001; Delgado, 2002; Mosier et al., 2004; Buckthought et al., 2015). However, a detailed understanding of soil physical conditions that promote N<sub>2</sub> emissions is limited.

#### **Core Ideas**

- Relative gas diffusivity controls both N<sub>2</sub>O and N<sub>2</sub> emissions.
- Relative gas diffusivity integrates the effects of soil bulk density and matric potential.
- Nitrogen use efficiency is likely to be driven by soil physics.

Soil Sci. Soc. Am. J. Open Access article. doi:10.2136/sssaj2015.09.0350 Received 27 Sept. 2015. Accepted 1 Feb. 2016

 $*Corresponding\ author\ (Timothy. Clough@lincoln.ac.nz).$ 

 $\@$  Soil Science Society of America. This is an open access article distributed under the CC BY-NC-ND license (http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/4.0/)

Biological pathways for the formation of  $N_2O$  and  $N_2$  in soils include nitrification, nitrifier-denitrification, and denitrification (Wrage et al., 2001). Nitrification occurs under aerobic conditions and does not form  $N_2$ , but as  $O_2$  levels in the soil decline (<5%), nitrifier-denitrification commences, followed by denitrification if the soil becomes anoxic (Zhu et al., 2013). However, aerobic denitrification can also occur if the microbial community has had prior exposure to short periods of anoxia (Morley et al., 2008). The reduction of  $N_2O$  to  $N_2$  is facilitated by the  $N_2O$  reductase enzyme, which is sensitive to  $O_2$  and can be inhibited by the presence of  $O_2$  more so than the other enzymes involved in the denitrification cascade, with the degree of sensitivity potentially organism specific (Morley et al. [2008] and references therein).

The ability for a gas to diffuse into, or out of, a soil depends on the  $D_{\rm p}/D_{\rm o}$ . This is a function of the soil's total porosity  $(\varphi)$ , which under extreme conditions may be completely filled with water or air. Generally, a soil's porosity is only partially filled with water, with the remaining porosity air-filled, and thus the soil may be described as having WFPS or air-filled porosity ( $\epsilon$ ) with units of cubic meters water per cubic meters pores or cubic meters air per cubic meters pores, respectively. The WFPS parameter has been commonly used as a predictor for soil N<sub>2</sub>O emissions (Dobbie et al., 1999; Dobbie and Smith, 2001). However, the use of WFPS as a predictor for soil N<sub>2</sub>O emissions has generally been derived at a single soil  $\rho_b$ , and the relationship between these factors becomes distorted when soil  $\rho_b$  varies (Farquharson and Baldock, 2008; Balaine et al., 2013; Ball, 2013; Cook et al., 2013). Soil  $\psi$  has also been used to try and predict N<sub>2</sub>O emissions (Castellano et al., 2010; Van der Weerden et al., 2012), but this does not allow for varying soil  $\rho_b$  effects (Balaine et al., 2013). A better predictor of soil N<sub>2</sub>O emissions that overcomes both varying soil moisture contents and soil  $\rho_b$  effects is  $D_p/D_o$ . Demonstration of the relationship between soil  $D_p/D_o$  and  $N_2O$ emissions has been shown by taking direct measurements of both  $\rm N_2O$  emissions and  $D_{\rm p}\!/\!D_{\rm o}$  (McTaggart et al., 2002; Balaine et al., 2013; Petersen et al., 2013) and by comparing calculated  $D_{\rm p}/D_{\rm o}$  values with measured N<sub>2</sub>O emissions (Andersen and Petersen, 2009; Klefoth et al., 2014; Harrison-Kirk et al., 2015). Despite a call for more emphasis to be placed on the interaction of biological and physical soil processes on greenhouse gas emissions, there appears to be only one detailed study to date that has specifically examined the interaction between soil  $\rho_b$  and soil  $\psi$  on soil  $D_p/D_0$  and the effects of this interaction on  $N_2O$ emissions (Balaine et al., 2013). Emissions of N<sub>2</sub>O were observed to increase exponentially as the value of  $D_p/D_0$  declined; however, N2O emissions declined dramatically if the value of  $D_{\rm p}/D_{\rm o}$  declined further below a threshold value, presumably as a consequence of N<sub>2</sub> formation (Balaine et al., 2013). However, specifically designed studies aimed at examining the relationship between the relative production of N<sub>2</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>O from soil, under varying soil  $\rho_b$  and  $\psi$  conditions with respect to  $D_p/D_o$ , have not been reported. Thus, the objective of the current study was to determine the relative production of N<sub>2</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>O from a soil while manipulating  $\rho_{\rm b}$  and  $\psi$  to vary  $D_{\rm p}/D_{\rm o}$ , following a simulated ruminant urine deposition event.

### MATERIALS AND METHODS Experimental Treatments and Setup

Silt loam soil (Templeton silt loam, classified as Typic Immature Pallic according to New Zealand soil classification [Hewitt, 1998]) was collected (0- to 15-cm depth) from the Duncan Block, Lincoln (43°38′0.7" S lat; 172°29′40" E long) and was air-dried before sieving ( $\leq 2$  mm). The soil texture consisted of 23% sand, 52% silt, and 25% clay. Soil C, N, and organic matter contents were 29.5, 2.6, and 50 g kg<sup>-1</sup>, respectively, and the soil pH was 6.0. After determining the soil gravimetric water content  $(\theta_{\sigma})$ , stainless steel cylinders (7.3-cm i.d., 4.1 cm deep) were packed to a constant volume, and a 4.1-cm depth, with soil that had been previously wetted with deionized water to a predetermined moisture content that still allowed for the subsequent addition of a urea solution. This was so the soil moisture contents of the packed soil cores equated with the predetermined WFPS for each of the three experiments, performed at varying levels of  $\psi$  with either -10.0, -6.0, or -0.2 kPa (Exp. 1, 2, and 3, respectively). Soil was packed to a constant volume at soil  $\rho_h$  values of 1.1, 1.2, 1.3, and 1.4 Mg m<sup>-3</sup>, and in the -6.0- and -0.2-kPa experiments, an additional soil  $\rho_b$  of 1.5 Mg m<sup>-3</sup> was also included. To obtain a uniform soil  $\rho_b$ , the soil cores were compressed uniaxially 1-cm depth at a time. The bottom of each soil core was covered with a fine nylon mesh to prevent soil egress.

For each experiment, a urea solution (A1 or A2) with an N content of 10 g N  $L^{-1}$  was used to simulate urine application. The urea in the A1 solution had a  $^{15}$ N enrichment of 50 atom % excess relative to ambient air in Exp. 1 and 40 atom% in Exp. 2 and 3. The A2 urea solution was not  $^{15}$ N enriched. Urea solutions were applied at a rate of N that corresponded to a bovine urine deposition event (700 kg N ha $^{-1}$ ; Haynes and Williams, 1993) by pipetting them slowly on to the soil surface (30 mL per soil core). The A1 solution was applied to soil cores that were used to measure the  $^{15}$ N enrichment of the N $_2$ O flux and to determine the N $_2$  fluxes throughout the 35-d experimental period. The A2 solution was applied to soil cores that were destructively analyzed on Day 1, 7, 14, and 24.

It is recognized that artificial urine does not generate the same  $N_2O$  fluxes as ruminant urine (Kool et al., 2006). However, over 70% of the N in urine is present as urea (Bathurst, 1952; Haynes and Williams, 1993), and it is this major component that undergoes hydrolysis and subsequent N transformation. The aim of this study was not to derive  $N_2O$  emission factor data but to examine the effects of soil  $\rho_b, \psi,$  and  $D_p/D_o$  on  $N_2O$  and  $N_2$  fluxes under controlled conditions; thus, urea was chosen over ruminant urine so that the N input was both controlled and highly enriched in  $^{15}N$  to facilitate  $N_2$  flux measurements.

A dye penetration test was also performed in the -10-kPa experiment on a separate set of soil cores and was replicated three times for soils at  $\rho_b$  of 1.1 to 1.4 Mg m $^{-3}$  to determine the penetration depth of the urea solutions applied under the various lev-

els of soil compaction. Soils were compacted as described above, and then 30 mL of the tracer dye Brilliant Blue FCF (6 g  $\rm L^{-1}$  of deionized water) was applied (Flury and Fluhler, 1994). After 24 h, the cores were extruded and sliced into 0.5-cm increments, and the presence or absence of dye at the dorsal surface of each increment was noted.

A soil water retention curve (WRC) was also constructed to determine the soil pore size distribution under the varying levels of compaction. Compacted soils, replicated 4 times, were sequentially drained to varying levels of  $\psi$  using tension tables set at -0.5, -1.0, -1.5, -2.0, -3.0, -4.0, -5.0, -6.0, -7.0, -8.0, -9.0, and <math display="inline">-10.0 kPa (Romano et al., 2002), while pressure plate apparatus was used at -100, -500, and -1500 kPa. Soil  $\theta_g$  contents were determined at each value of  $\psi$ , and the diameter of the pore sizes filled with water at a given level of  $\psi$  were calculated according to Schjønning et al. (2003). Macro-, meso-, and microporosities were defined as being >30  $\mu$ m, 30 to 0.2  $\mu$ m, and <0.2  $\mu$ m, respectively (Walczak et al., 2002). Measurements of soil  $D_p/D_o$  were made on Day 1 and 35 as previously described (Balaine et al., 2013).

### Gas Sampling, Analyses, and Flux Determinations

To measure the N2O and N2 fluxes, the soil cores were taken off the tension tables and were placed into 1-L stainless steel tins equipped with gas-tight lids prefitted with rubber septa. Ambient air samples were taken at time zero, and headspace N<sub>2</sub>O samples were taken at 0, 15, and 30 min after sealing the headspace using a 20-mL glass syringe fitted with a 3-way tap and a 25-gauge 0.5- by 16-mm needle (Precision Glide; Becton-Dickinson, Franklin Lakes, NJ). Samples for N<sub>2</sub>O and N<sub>2</sub> analyses were transferred into pre-evacuated (-0.1013 MPa) 6- and 12-mL vials (Exetainer; Labco Ltd., Lampeter, UK), respectively. At -10 kPa,  $N_2$ O flux sampling was performed on Day 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 10, 12, 14, 18, 20, 24, 28, 31, and 35 with  $N_2$  sampling performed on Day 4, 7, 20, 24, 31, and 35. For soil cores run at -6.0 and -0.2 kPa, N2O flux sampling was performed on Day 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 10, 12, 14, 16, 20, 24, 28, 31, and 35 with N<sub>2</sub> sampling performed on Day 1, 3, 7, 10, 12, 14, 24, 28, and 35. Analyses of N<sub>2</sub>O concentrations were performed using an automated gas chromatograph (8610; SRI Instruments, Torrance, CA) interfaced to an autosampler (Gilson 222XL; Gilson, Middleton, WI) as described by Clough et al. (2006). Fluxes of N<sub>2</sub>O were calculated as described by Hutchinson and Mosier (1981). An isotope ratio mass spectrometer (Sercon 20/20; Sercon, Cheshire, UK) was used to determine the <sup>15</sup>N enrichment of the N<sub>2</sub>O and N<sub>2</sub> gases (Stevens et al., 1993) with N<sub>2</sub> fluxes determined according to the equations of Mulvaney and Boast (1986).

### Soil Inorganic N, pH, and Dissolved Organic C

Soil cores were destructively analyzed for inorganic N on Day 7, 14, 21, 28, and 35 at -10 kPa and on Day 1, 7, 14, 24, and 35 at both -6.0 and -0.2 kPa. Soil cores were extruded, and the total wet mass of soil was weighed. Soil subsamples were taken

to determine  $\theta_g$ , inorganic N, and DOC. Soil  $\theta_g$  was determined using 10 g of wet soil and by drying the soil for 24 h at 105°C. Values of  $\theta_g$  were subsequently used to determine soil  $\rho_b$ ,  $\phi$ , volumetric water content ( $\theta_v$ ), and  $\epsilon$ , while assuming a particle density of 2.65 Mg m<sup>-3</sup>. Soil inorganic N was determined by extracting a soil subsample with KCl (equivalent to 10 g dry soil: 100 mL of 2 M KCl) by shaking for 1 h. The extract was filtered (Whatman 42) and analyzed for NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>–N, NO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup>–N, and NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>–N using flow injection analysis as described by Blakemore et al. (1987). Soil surface pH was measured with a flat surface pH electrode before destructive soil core analysis (Broadley James Corp., Irvine CA.). Soil DOC concentrations were determined by extracting soil subsamples using the methods of Ghani et al. (2003) with DOC analyzed on a Shimadzu TOC analyzer (Shimadzu Oceania Ltd., Sydney, Australia).

#### **Statistical Analysis**

All statistical analyses were performed using Minitab version 15 (Minitab Inc., State College, PA). Data sets from each experiment were tested for normality (Anderson and Darling, 1952) with residuals plotted versus fits to verify the assumption that the residuals had constant variance. Fluxes of N<sub>2</sub>O and N<sub>2</sub> were log transformed (In[value + 1]) according to Tiedje et al. (1989). One-way ANOVA was used to determine differences among treatments on individual days with soil  $\rho_b$  as a factor, and where differences occurred, Tukey's test was used to determine which means were significantly different from one another. A repeated measures ANOVA (general linear model in Minitab) was used to determine the interaction of time and soil  $\rho_{\mathsf{b}}$  on N2O and N2 data. Regression analyses were performed using Sigmaplot (Systat Software, Inc., San Jose, CA) to assess the relationship between cumulative  $\mathrm{N_2}$  and  $\mathrm{N_2O}$  fluxes with  $D_{\mathrm{p}}/D_{\mathrm{o}}$ . Pearson correlation was used to determine the strength and direction of the relationships between soil variables. Figures were prepared using Sigmaplot. Mean and SEM values from multiple experiments were presented in each figure.

### **RESULTS**Soil Physical and Chemical Properties

As soil  $\rho_b$  increased, values of  $\varphi$  declined (p < 0.05) from 0.58 to 0.47 m³ m³. Increasing soil  $\rho_b$  also altered the pore size distribution: soil macroporosity (pores with a diameter of >30  $\mu$ m) as a percentage of total porosity decreased (p < 0.01) from 62% at 1.1 Mg m³ to 30% at 1.5 Mg m³, while both mesoporosity (pores with a diameter of 30–0.2 mm) and microporosity (pores with a diameter of <0.2 mm) increased (p < 0.01) by 27 and 6%, respectively (Fig. 1). Progressively increasing soil  $\rho_b$  led to a decline (p < 0.01) in macroporosity as a percentage of the total soil volume, with the decline equaling 23% at 1.5 Mg m³, while mesoporosity and microporosity increased by 6 and 2%, respectively, at 1.5 Mg m³.

In the -10-kPa experiment, values of  $\theta_v$  increased (p < 0.05) from 0.26 m<sup>3</sup> m<sup>-3</sup> at 1.1 Mg m<sup>-3</sup> to 0.33 m<sup>3</sup> m<sup>-3</sup> at 1.4 Mg m<sup>-3</sup>, and in the -6.0-kPa experiment, values of  $\theta_v$  also

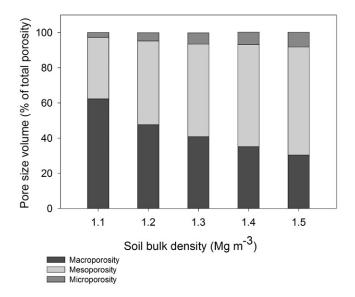


Fig. 1. Soil bulk density-induced changes in soil pore class as a percentage of total soil porosity: macroporosity (diameter of >30  $\mu m$ ), mesoporosity (diameter of 30–0.2  $\mu m$ ), and microporosity (diameter of <0.02  $\mu m$ ).

increased (p<0.05) as soil  $\rho_b$  increased from 0.32  $m^3~m^{-3}$  at 1.1 Mg m $^{-3}$  to 0.38  $m^3~m^{-3}$  at 1.5 Mg m $^{-3}$  (Table 1). Conversely, in the -0.2-kPa experiment, values of  $\theta_v$  declined (p<0.05) with increasing soil  $\rho_b$  from 0.57  $m^3~m^{-3}$  at 1.1 Mg m $^{-3}$  to 0.46  $m^3~m^{-3}$  at 1.5 Mg m $^{-3}$  (Table 1).

Values of  $\epsilon$  declined (p < 0.05) as soil  $\rho_b$  increased in both the -10- and -6.0-kPa experiments from 0.32 m³ m $^{-3}$  at 1.1 Mg m $^{-3}$  to 0.14 m³ m $^{-3}$  at 1.4 Mg m $^{-3}$  and from 0.27 m³ m $^{-3}$  at 1.1 Mg m $^{-3}$  to 0.06 m³ m $^{-3}$  at 1.5 Mg m $^{-3}$ , respectively (Table 1). However, in the

-0.2-kPa experiment, values of  $\epsilon$  remained static at  $\leq$ 0.01 m<sup>3</sup> m<sup>-3</sup> regardless of the soil  $\rho_b$  treatment (Table 1).

Increasing soil  $\rho_b$  from 1.1 to 1.4 Mg m<sup>-3</sup> increased WFPS (p < 0.05) in experiments at -10 and -6.0 kPa from 44 to 70% and 54 to 85%, respectively; however, at -0.2 kPa, WFPS remained constant at  $\geq 98\%$  regardless of the soil  $\rho_b$  (Table 1).

Measures of  $D_{\rm p}/D_{\rm o}$  in all experiments showed the day of measurement had no impact on values attained (p > 0.05). Under near saturated conditions at a soil  $\psi$  of -0.2 kPa,  $D_{\rm p}/D_{\rm o}$  values equaled zero regardless of soil  $\rho_{\rm b}$  treatment (Table 1). Under soil  $\psi$  values of -10 kPa and -0.6 kPa, Exp. 1 and 2, respectively,  $D_{\rm p}/D_{\rm o}$  values declined (p < 0.05) with increasing soil  $\rho_{\rm b}$  treatment from 0.063 to 0.008 at -10 kPa and from 0.014 to 0.0014 at -6.0 kPa (Table 1). The average dye penetration depth decreased from 4 to 3 cm as soil  $\rho_{\rm b}$  increased from 1.1 to 1.4 Mg m $^{-3}$ , respectively (Table 1).

Within a day of urea application, soil surface pH became elevated (8–9) at -6.0 and -0.2 kPa. By Day 7, soil pH remained between 8 and 9 in Exp. 1 at -10 kPa and also in the lowest soil  $\rho_b$  treatments (1.1 and 1.2 Mg m $^{-3}$ ) at -6.0 kPa and at the lowest soil  $\rho_b$  treatment (1.1 Mg m $^{-3}$ ) within the -0.2-kPa experiment. In all other treatments, regardless of experimental kPa level, soil pH continued to decline. There were no differences in soil pH due to soil  $\rho_b$  treatment in the urea-treated cores at -10 kPa. Exceptions to this steady decline in soil surface pH were treatments that were compacted to 1.4 and 1.5 Mg m $^{-3}$  at -0.2 kPa, where soil pH increased between Day 24 and 35, and the 1.1 and 1.5 Mg m $^{-3}$  treatments at -6.0 kPa, where the soil pH declined at a slower rate (Fig. 2).

Table 1. Total soil porosity  $(\phi)$ , dye penetration depth, soil volumetric water content  $(\theta_v)$ , soil water-filled pore space (WFPS), soil air-filled pore space  $(\epsilon)$ , and soil relative gas diffusivity  $(D_p/D_o)$ .

Variable	Matric potential	Soil bulk density level‡					Significance
		1.1	1.2	1.3	1.4	1.5	
	kPa			Mg m <sup>-3</sup> -			
Soil $\phi$ , $m^3$ air $m^{-3}$ soil	All kPa levels	0.58 (0)	0.55 (0)	0.51 (0)	0.47 (0)	0.43 (0)	**
Dye penetration depth, cm	-10 kPa (Exp. 1)	4 a (0)	3.6 ab (0.25)	3.3 b (0.29)	3.1 b (0.48)	ND§	**
Soil $\theta_{v'}$ m <sup>3</sup> water m <sup>-3</sup> soil	-10 kPa (Exp. 1)	0.26 c (0.006)	0.28 b (0.006)	0.31 a (0.015)	0.33 a (0.004)	ND	**
WFPS, %		44 d (0.96)	51 c (1.16)	61 b (2.95)	70 a (0.91)	ND	**
Soil $\epsilon$ , $m^3$ air $m^{-3}$ soil		0.32 a (0.006)	0.27 b (0.006)	0.20 c (0.015)	0.14 d (0.004)	ND	**
$D_p/D_o$ Day 1		0.063 a (0.008	0.037 b (0.012)	0.026bc (0.007)	0.008 c (0.005)	ND	**
$D_p/D_o$ Day 35		0.061 a (0.007	0.039 b (0.004)	$0.026\ c\ (0.003)$	0.013 d (0.003)	ND	**
Soil $\theta_v$ (m <sup>3</sup> water m <sup>-3</sup> soil)	-6.0 kPa (Exp. 2)	0.32 d (0.006)	0.35 c (0.009)	0.37 b (0.006)	0.39 a (0.008)	0.38 ab (0.005)	**
WFPS (%)		54 a (0.98)	64 b (1.66)	73 c (1.21)	85 d (1.77)	89 e (1.24)	**
Soil $\epsilon$ (m <sup>3</sup> air m <sup>-3</sup> soil)		0.27 a (0.005)	0.19 b (0.009)	0.14 c (0.006)	0.07 d (0.008)	0.06 e (0.005)	**
$D_p/D_o$ Day 7		0.014 a (0.002	)0.01 b (0.001)	0.007 c (0.0004	)0.004 d (0.0002)	0.002 e (0.0002)	**
$D_p/D_o$ Day 35		0.01 a (0.001)	0.007 b (0.0002)	0.005 c (0.0001	)0.004 d (0.0002)	0.0014 e (0.0002)	**
Soil $\theta_v$ (m <sup>3</sup> water m <sup>-3</sup> soil)	-0.2 kPa (Exp. 3)	0.57 a (0.008)	0.54 b (0.002)	0.50 c (0.006)	0.46 d (0.009)	0.43 e (0.006)	**
WFPS (%)		98 a (1.37)	99 a (0.44)	98 a (1.32)	98 a (1.9)	99 a (1.38)	NS†
Soil $\epsilon$ (m <sup>3</sup> air m <sup>-3</sup> soil)		0.01 a (0.008)	0.006 a (0.002)	0.01 a (0.007)	0.008 a (0.009)	0.005 a (0.006)	NS
$D_p/D_o$ Day 7		0	0	0	0	0	NS
** p < 0.01.							

<sup>†</sup> NS, not significant.

<sup>‡</sup> Values in a row that do not share a common letter are significantly different (p < 0.01, Tukey's test); n = 4 for all tests with the exception of blue dye tests where n = 3. The SD appears in parentheses.

<sup>§</sup> ND, not determined.

Soil DOC peaked at 703  $\mu$ g g<sup>-1</sup> soil on Day 7 at -10 kPa, exceeding values found in the control soils (21 to  $44 \mu g g^{-1}$  soil), and declined with time with lower values (p < 0.05) in the highest soil  $\rho_h$  treatments until Day 21 (Fig. 2). At -6.0 kPa, soil DOC increased under urea application to peak at  $566 \,\mu g \, g^{-1}$  soil on Day 1, again in excess of control soil concentrations of  $\leq 27 \,\mu\mathrm{g}\,\mathrm{g}^{-1}$ soil. The DOC concentrations under urea at -6.0 kPa were highest under the lowest soil  $\boldsymbol{\rho}_b$  treatment, where the rate of decline in DOC was also slower (p < 0.01). With soil  $\psi$  set at -0.2 kPa, the soil DOC concentrations also peaked within a day of urea application at 710  $\mu$ g g<sup>-1</sup> soil, with values higher (p <0.01) under the lowest soil  $\rho_b$  treatments until Day 15; thereafter, values remained relatively stable (Fig. 2). In all experiments, soil DOC concentrations were strongly correlated to soil pH (r = 0.85-0.96) on Day 1 or 7. Soil DOC concentrations correlated with dye penetration depth on Day 7 (r = 0.84; p < 0.01) and 21 (r = 0.61; p < 0.01) at -10 kPa.

At -10 kPa, the soil NH $_4^+-N$  concentrations were highest on Day 7,  $1178-979~\mu g~g^{-1}$  soil, before declining over time with no effect of soil  $\rho_b$  treatment (Fig. 3). Concentrations of NH $_4^{+}-N$  became elevated by Day 1 at -6.0 kPa,  $1400-1055~\mu g~g^{-1}$  soil, before declining over time but with higher (p<0.05) concentrations at a soil  $\rho_b$  of 1.1 Mg m $^{-3}$  on all days (Fig. 3). In the -0.2-kPa experiment, soil NH $_4^{+}-N$  concentrations under urea were also at their peak on Day 1 (1490–994  $\mu g~g^{-1}$  soil) again with higher (p<0.01) concentrations in the lowest soil  $\rho_b$  treatments of 1.1 and 1.2 Mg m $^{-3}$  on all days (Fig. 3).

At  $-10 \text{ kPa NO}_2$  -N concentrations were  $< 0.4 \,\mu\text{g g}^{-1}$  soil in the control but became elevated (p < 0.05) following urea application with peak concentrations in the 1.1 and 1.2 Mg m<sup>-3</sup> treatments of  $54 \,\mu g \, g^{-1}$  soil on Day 21 (Fig. 3). In the  $-6.0 \, kPa$ experiment, NO2-N concentrations in the control treatments were  $\leq$  0.1  $\mu$ g g<sup>-1</sup> soil. However, under urea at -6.0 kPa, an interaction between time with soil  $\rho_b$  resulted in  $NO_2^-$ -N concentrations increasing by Day 7 in all treatments but with the rate of increase reducing as soil  $\rho_b$  increased. After Day 7, NO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup>-N concentrations continued to increase in the 1.1 Mg m<sup>-3</sup> treatment until Day 15 (11 μg g<sup>-1</sup> soil) at which point they declined, decreased in the 1.2 to 1.4 Mg m<sup>-3</sup> treatments, but continued to increase in the 1.5 Mg m<sup>-3</sup> treatment until Day 24  $(14 \,\mu g \, g^{-1} \, soil)$  before then declining (Fig. 3). In the experiment at -0.2 kPa, control treatments again had low NO<sub>2</sub> -N concentrations (<0.1  $\mu$ g g<sup>-1</sup> soil), and an interaction between time and soil  $\rho_b$  also occurred following urea application:  $NO_2^--N$  concentrations peaked on Day 7 in treatments of 1.1 to 1.4 Mg m<sup>-3</sup>, thereafter NO2-N concentrations declined in treatments of 1.1 to 1.3 Mg m<sup>-3</sup> until Day 14 before increasing again to be 13 to 21  $\mu$ g g<sup>-1</sup> soil by Day 35, while at 1.4 Mg m<sup>-3</sup> NO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup>–N concentrations continued to decline equaling those in the controls by Day 24 (Fig. 3). In the 1.5 Mg m $^{-3}$  treatment, NO $_2$  $^-$ -N concentrations peaked at Day  $14 (23 \,\mu g \, g^{-1} \, soil)$  before declining to values seen in the controls at Day 35 (Fig. 3).

Soil  $NO_3^-$ –N concentrations within the -10-kPa experiment gradually increased to reach 295 to 329  $\mu g$   $g^{-1}$  soil fol-

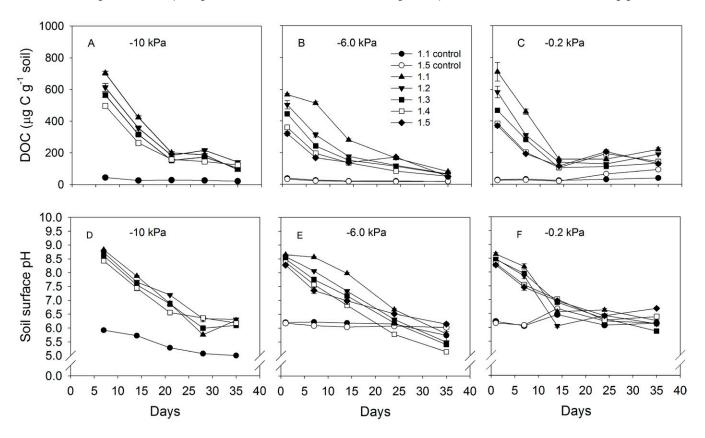


Fig. 2. Mean soil dissolved organic C (DOC) concentrations (a, b, c) and surface soil pH (d, e, f) over time following soil compaction and urea solution application for the three experiments performed at -10, -6.0, and -0.2 kPa. Numerals in the legend indicate soil bulk density ( $\rho_b$ ) treatments applied (Mg m<sup>-3</sup>). Error bars = SEM; n = 4.

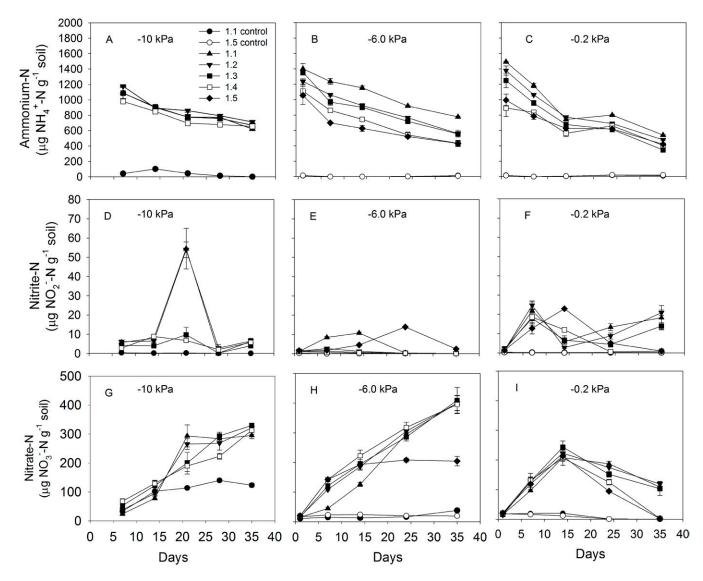


Fig. 3. Mean soil  $NH_4^+-N$  (a, b, c),  $NO_2^--N$  (d, e, f), and  $NO_3^--N$  (g, h, i) following soil compaction and urea solution application for the three experiments performed at -10, -6.0, and -0.2 kPa. Numerals in the legend indicate soil bulk density ( $\rho_b$ ) treatments applied (Mg m<sup>-3</sup>). Error bars = SEM; n = 4.

lowing urea application with no consistent effects of the soil  $\rho_b$ treatments, while in the control treatments, soil NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>-N concentrations were lower ( $\leq 123 \,\mu g \, g^{-1}$  soil) from Day 14 (Fig. 3). At -6.0 kPa, soil NO<sub>3</sub> -N concentrations in the control treatment remained relatively low and stable ( $\leq 25 \mu g g^{-1}$  soil), but urea-treated soil cores produced an interaction between time and soil  $\rho_b$  (p < 0.01) with NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>-N concentrations steadily increasing to approximately 400  $\mu g g^{-1}$  soil but with a slower rate of increase on Day 7 and 14 at 1.1 Mg m<sup>-3</sup> compared to the 1.2 to 1.4 Mg  $m^{-3}$  treatments and with no increase in the 1.5 Mg m<sup>-3</sup> treatment after Day 15 where concentrations remained constant at approximately 200 µg g<sup>-1</sup> soil (Fig. 3). In Exp. 3, set at -0.2 kPa, soil NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>-N concentrations at Day 35 were relatively low when compared with Exp. 1 and 2 (Fig. 3). Again,  $NO_3$  –N concentrations were low in the controls,  $\leq 12 \mu g g^{-1}$ soil (Fig. 3), but they increased in all soil  $\rho_b$  treatments following urea application until Day 14 ( $\leq$ 243 µg g<sup>-1</sup> soil), after which a soil  $\rho_b \times$  time interaction (p < 0.01) produced a faster decline in soil  $NO_3^-$ -N concentrations in the 1.4 and 1.5 Mg m<sup>-3</sup> treatments, which reached 0  $\mu$ g g<sup>-1</sup> soil by Day 35, than in the 1.1 to 1.3 Mg m<sup>-3</sup> treatments, which were approximately 100 to 120  $\mu$ g g<sup>-1</sup> soil at Day 35.

### Soil Nitrous Oxide and Dinitrogen Fluxes and their Ratios and Relationships with Soil Physical Parameters

Daily fluxes of  $N_2O$ -N were low in the controls at -10 kPa (<0.13 mg  $N_2O$ -N m<sup>-2</sup> h<sup>-1</sup>) but increased following urea application ranging from 0.01 to 10.3 mg  $N_2O$ -N m<sup>-2</sup> h<sup>-1</sup>, with higher fluxes after Day 8 (Fig. 4) and with cumulative  $N_2O$  emissions increasing (p < 0.01) from 0.05 to 2.14% of N applied as soil  $\rho_b$  increased (Fig. 4). At -6.0 kPa, fluxes of  $N_2O$ -N were again relatively low in the controls (<0.3 mg  $N_2O$ -N m<sup>-2</sup> h<sup>-1</sup>) but there was an interaction between time and soil  $\rho_b$  in the urea-treated cores: fluxes increased sharply at Day 7 and 8 in the 1.1 to 1.3 Mg m<sup>-3</sup> treatments, after which these fluxes

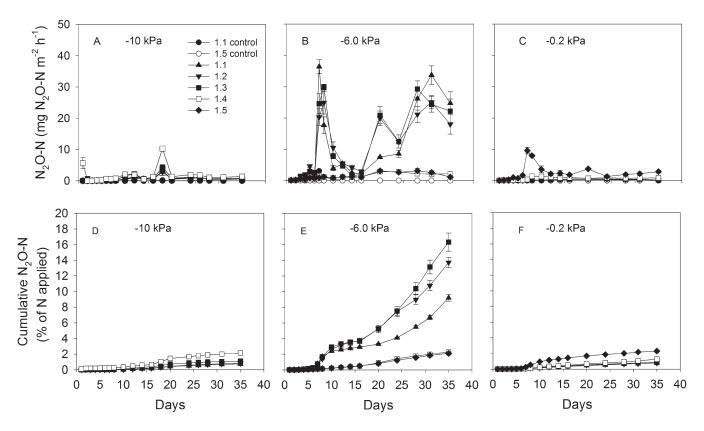


Fig. 4. Mean daily  $N_2O-N$  fluxes (a, b, c) and cumulative  $N_2O-N$  fluxes (d, e, f) from soil cores over time following soil compaction and urea solution application for the three experiments performed at -10, -6.0, and -0.2 kPa. Numerals in the legend indicate soil bulk density ( $\rho_b$ ) treatments applied (Mg m<sup>-3</sup>). Error bars = SEM; n = 4.

declined until Day 16 when they increased through to Day 35; fluxes of N<sub>2</sub>O-N from the 1.4 and 1.5 Mg m<sup>-3</sup> remained relatively low throughout the 35 d (Fig. 4). The cumulative N<sub>2</sub>O-N fluxes at −6.0 kPa, as a percentage of N applied, reflected these trends with  $\leq$ 2.2% at 1.4 and 1.5 Mg m<sup>-3</sup> and 9 to 16.3% recovered in the 1.1 to 1.3 Mg m<sup>-3</sup> treatments (Fig. 4). In the -0.2-kPa experiment, N2O-N fluxes were higher at 1.4 and 1.5 Mg m<sup>-3</sup> with a maximum of 9.5 mg  $N_2$ O-N m<sup>-2</sup> h<sup>-1</sup> on Day 7, while fluxes in the 1.1 to 1.3 Mg m<sup>-3</sup> treatments remained at  $<1 \text{ mg N}_2\text{O-N m}^{-2}\text{ h}^{-1}$  (Fig. 4). Reflecting these trends, cumulative N2O-N fluxes at -0.2 kPa increased after Day 7 and ranged from 0.8 to 2.3% of N applied in the 1.1 and 1.5 Mg  $\mathrm{m}^{-3}$ soil  $\rho_h$  treatments, respectively (Fig. 4). Changes in atom %  $^{15}N$ enrichment of the N<sub>2</sub>O-N over time generally followed the same trend in each experiment, increasing for 15 d before stabilizing at approximately 45, 36, and 36 atom % at -10, -6.0, and −0.2 kPa, respectively.

In the -10 kPa experiment, the average  $N_2$ –N fluxes ranged from 0.55 to 4.9 mg m $^{-2}$  h $^{-1}$  and were generally higher at  $\geq 1.3$  Mg m $^{-3}$  (Fig. 5), and thus cumulative  $N_2$ –N fluxes equated to 0.06 to 4.97% of N applied after 35 d (Fig. 5). Under wetter soil conditions at -6.0 kPa, increasing soil  $\rho_b$  resulted in higher daily  $N_2$ –N fluxes, with these  $N_2$ –N fluxes driven by a time  $\times$  soil  $\rho_b$  interaction (p < 0.01) in the 1.5 Mg m $^{-3}$  treatment between Day 14 and 28 (Fig. 4). Cumulative  $N_2$ –N fluxes at -6.0 kPa increased with increasing soil  $\rho_b$  to range from 8.3 to 50.0% of N applied in the 1.1 to 1.5 Mg m $^{-3}$  treatments, respectively (Fig. 5). In the experiment performed at -0.2 kPa,

soil  $\rm N_2$ –N fluxes were again influenced by a time  $\times$  soil  $\rho_b$  interaction (p<0.01), where more rapid increases and prolonged fluxes occurred in the 1.4 to 1.5 Mg m $^{-3}$  treatments (Fig. 5). After 35 d, mean cumulative  $\rm N_2$ –N emissions as a percentage of N applied increased with soil  $\rho_b$  ranging from 16 to 60% at 1.1 and 1.5 Mg m $^{-3}$  treatments, respectively (Fig. 5). Mean values of  $^{15}\rm X_N$  (the mole fraction of  $^{15}\rm N$  in the N pool from which  $\rm N_2$  was derived) were 0.43, 0.29, and 0.32 in the –10-, –6.0-, and –0.2-kPa experiments, respectively.

Pooling data from the three experiments and plotting cumulative N2O-N fluxes as a percentage of N applied vs. WFPS showed no clear relationship (Fig. 6). However, when plotted against  $D_{\rm p}/D_{\rm o}$  the N<sub>2</sub>O-N flux as a percentage of N applied increased sequentially with increasing soil  $\rho_b$  within the -10-kPa treatment, and then when the soil moisture was increased to -6.0 kPa, the N2O-N flux as a percentage of N applied lifted dramatically, but sequentially, until a soil  $\rho_b$  of 1.3 was reached; thereafter, the N<sub>2</sub>O-N flux declined and remained low for all remaining soil moisture by soil  $\rho_b$  treatment combinations (Fig. 6). This point of rapid decline in the  $N_2$ O-N flux equated to a  $D_{\rm p}/D_{\rm o}$  value of 0.005 (Fig. 6). When N<sub>2</sub>-N fluxes as a percentage of N applied were plotted against WFPS, no clear relationship emerged (Fig. 6). But when plotted against  $D_{\rm p}/D_{\rm o}$ , there was a sequential increase in the  $N_2$ –N flux as a percentage of N applied that was dependent on the interaction of  $\psi$  and soil  $\rho_b$ , with peak  $N_2$ -N fluxes occurring at a  $D_p/D_o$  value of <0.005 (Fig. 6). However, of note was the fact that at -0.2 kPa, the trend

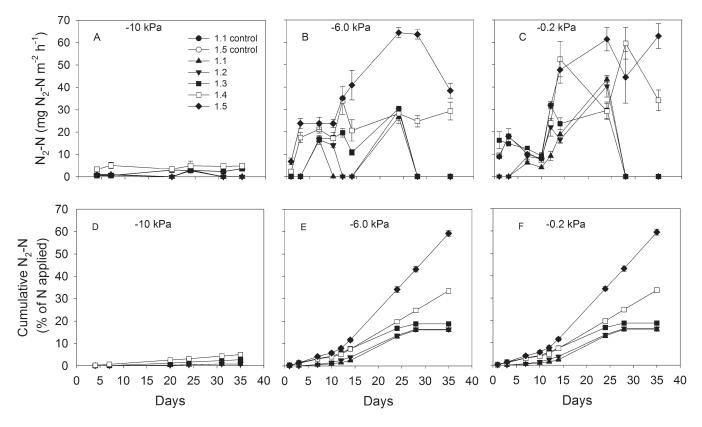


Fig. 5. Mean daily  $N_2$ -N fluxes (a, b, c) and cumulative  $N_2$ -N fluxes (d, e, f) from soil cores over time following soil compaction and urea solution application for the three experiments performed at -10, -6.0, and -0.2 kPa. Numerals in the legend indicate soil bulk density ( $\rho_b$ ) treatments applied (Mg m<sup>-3</sup>). Error bars = SEM; n = 4.

for fluxes to increase sequentially with increasing soil  $\rho_{\rm b}$  within a given  $\psi$  was reversed: at -0.2 kPa  $\rm N_2-N$  fluxes declined as soil  $\rho_{\rm b}$  increased (Fig. 6). When the ratio of  $\rm N_2-N/N_2O$ -N was plotted versus  $D_{\rm p}/D_{\rm o}$  data, the ratio increased rapidly at a  $D_{\rm p}/D_{\rm o}$  value of <0.005 (Fig. 6).

Regression analysis explained 88% of the variation in the relationship between  $\log D_p/D_o$ , when  $D_p/D_o$  was >0.005, and the log-cumulative N<sub>2</sub>O-N flux (Fig. 7), with a respective value of 44% when plotted against log WFPS. Likewise, 93% of the variation in the relationship between  $\log D_p/D_o$ , when  $D_p/D_o$  was >0, and the log-cumulative N<sub>2</sub>-N flux, could be explained by linear regression (Fig. 7), with a respective value of 83% when plotted against log WFPS.

## **DISCUSSION**Soil Chemical and Physical Characteristics

Increases in the percentages of meso- and microporosities with increasing soil  $\rho_b$  allowed a given soil volume to retain more water at a given level of soil  $\psi,$  which in turn produced the observed decline in  $\epsilon$  as soil  $\rho_b$  increased in the -10- and -6.0-kPa experiments. At -0.2 kPa, however, the soil was effectively saturated regardless of the soil  $\rho_b$  treatment applied. The effect of increasing soil  $\rho_b$  on soil pore size distribution and the associated decreases in  $\epsilon$  and  $\varphi$  explain the decline in  $D_p/D_o$  with increasing soil  $\psi$  since  $D_p/D_o$  is a function of both  $\epsilon$  and  $\varphi$  (Millington and Quirk, 1961; Moldrup et al., 2000), and the diffusion of  $O_2$  through water is several orders of magnitude below that in air

(Rolston and Moldrup, 2002). Values of  $\varepsilon$ ,  $\phi$ , and  $D_p/D_o$  were comparable to previously reported values for repacked soil cores (Balaine et al., 2013).

Elevated soil pH values observed under the urea treatments occurred as a result of urea hydrolysis forming  ${\rm CO_3}^{2-}$  ions, which further hydrolyzed to produce  ${\rm HCO_3}^-$  and  ${\rm OH}^-$  ions (Avnimelech and Laher, 1977). Subsequent declines in soil pH occur as a result of NH $_3$  volatilization (Avnimelech and Laher, 1977) and nitrification (Prosser, 2012).

Soil NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>-N concentrations are of course net values due to inputs from nitrification and losses via denitrification processes (nitrifier denitrification and/or denitrification), the latter being a function of the soil's aeration status, which is indicated by  $D_{\rm p}/D_{\rm o}$ . Stepniewski (1981) found that when the  $D_{\rm p}/D_{\rm o}$  values ranged from 0.02 to 0.005, anaerobic soil conditions prevailed. However, the actual occurrence of anaerobic conditions at a given  $D_p/D_0$  value will still depend on the soil's  $O_2$  demand (Petersen et al., 2013). At -10 kPa,  $D_p/D_o$  values were >0.02 until soil  $\rho_h$  increased to 1.4 Mg m<sup>-3</sup> when the value equaled 0.008, indicating anaerobic conditions may have occurred in this treatment despite soil NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>-N concentrations continuing to increase over time in all soil  $\rho_{\mbox{\scriptsize b}}$  treatments. The cumulative loss of  $N_2$  at -10 kPa in both the 1.3 and 1.4 Mg m<sup>-3</sup> treatments ( $\leq$ 5%) confirms denitrification processes did occur but at a  $D_{\rm p}/$  $D_0$  value of  $\leq$ 0.026. At -6.0 kPa, declines in net soil NO<sub>3</sub> $^-$ -N concentrations over time were only observed at 1.5 Mg m<sup>-3</sup>, where denitrification processes clearly exceeded NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>-N sup-

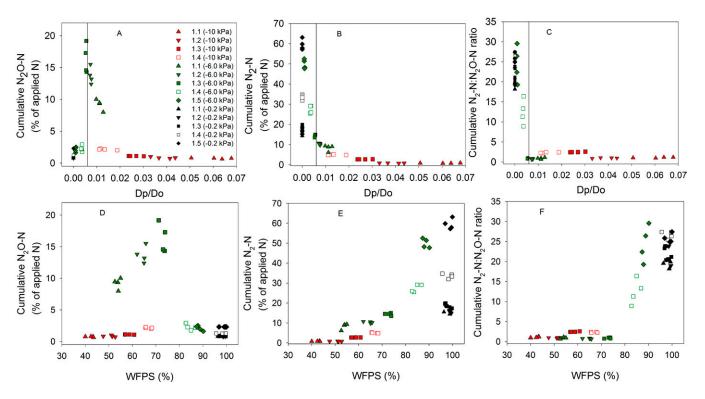


Fig. 6. Pooled cumulative  $N_2O-N$  flux, cumulative  $N_2-N$  flux, and cumulative flux ratio data from the three experiments performed at -10, -6.0, and -0.2 kPa plotted vs. relative gas diffusivity  $(D_p/D_o; a, b)$  and c), where the vertical line at a  $D_p/D_o$  of 0.006 is the critical value found by Balaine et al. (2013), and plotted vs. water-filled pore space (WFPS; d, e, f). Numerals in legend indicate soil bulk density  $(\rho_b)$  treatments applied (Mg m<sup>-3</sup>) with relative matric potential  $(\psi)$  experiment in brackets. Data points are individual replicates.

ply. This was despite the fact that  $D_p/D_o$  values were within the anaerobic range given by Stepniewski (1981) at all levels of soil  $\rho_b$ . The fluxes of  $N_2O$  and  $N_2$  at -6.0 kPa, which were higher than those at -10 kPa, confirmed that denitrification processes occurred with the contribution of the  $N_2O$ -N flux reduced at 1.4 and 1.5 Mg m $^{-3}$  due to further reduction of  $N_2O$  to  $N_2$ .

Of note in the -6.0-kPa experiment was the rapid increase in the  $N_2O$ -N flux on Day 7 in soil  $\rho_b$  treatments of 1.1 to 1.3 Mg m $^{-3}$ . Fluxes of N<sub>2</sub>O are strongly linked to NO $_2$ <sup>-</sup> intensity in the soil, a function of its concentration and duration (Maharjan and Venterea, 2013). Thus, this initial period of elevated N<sub>2</sub>O-N fluxes at 1.1 to 1.3 Mg m<sup>-3</sup> was most likely a result of the formation and increasing concentration of NO<sub>2</sub>in the soil, which was elevated in these soil  $\rho_b$  levels on Day 7, the same day N2O fluxes increased. This effect has been previously observed following bovine urine application to pasture soil (Clough et al., 2009). The reason these N2O-N fluxes were elevated for approximately 10 d was most likely due to bacterial nitrifiers having to increase nitrite oxidoreductase (nxrA) abundance. Venterea et al. (2015) found that it required 10 d for the abundance of nxrA to increase following the addition of urea (1000 mg N kg<sup>-1</sup> soil) to soils at 85% of field capacity. Clough et al. (2009) also observed significant growth in nxrA gene copy abundance after soil NO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> concentrations peaked 8 to 10 d following bovine urine application to pasture soil.

This strong, potentially NO $_2$ <sup>-</sup>-induced N $_2$ O flux at Day 7 onward was not seen at -6.0 kPa in the 1.4 and 1.5 Mg m $^{-3}$  treatments due to further reduction of N $_2$ O to N $_2$ , a consequence of the soil being in the anaerobic range ( $D_p/D_o \leq 0.004$ ) in these

treatments. The second period of elevated  $N_2O$  fluxes at -6.0 kPa was due to denitrification processes. At -10 kPa,  $D_p/D_o$  values were higher and the soil was too well aerated for  $NO_2^-$  to form  $N_2O$  to the same extent via denitrification processes, while at -0.2 kPa, a peak in the  $N_2O$ -N flux of shorter duration only occurred at 1.5 Mg m<sup>-3</sup>, again at Day 7.

At -0.2 kPa, the  $D_p/D_o$  values were effectively zero once the urea solution had been applied. While  $O_2$  will still have penetrated to a shallow depth at the soil surface, the denitrification processes were of a sufficiently high rate that  $NO_3^-$  concentrations declined at all levels of soil  $\rho_b$  with lower  $N_2O$ -N fluxes due to a more complete reduction of the  $N_2O$  as evidenced by the relatively high  $N_2$  fluxes.

### Relationship of $N_2O-N$ and $N_2-N$ fluxes with Water-filled Pore Space and $D_p/D_0$

Pooling the data from the three experiments and plotting both the cumulative  $N_2O-N$  and  $N_2-N$  fluxes and their ratios against  $D_p/D_o$  (Fig. 6) allows the interactive effects of soil  $\rho_b$  and  $\psi$  to be integrated so that the progressive effect of diminishing  $D_p/D_o$  on the magnitude of the  $N_2O-N$  and  $N_2-N$  fluxes is observed. The  $N_2O-N$  fluxes were observed to increase in a sequential fashion, from low to high soil  $\rho_b$  and from dry (–10 kPa) to wet (–6.0 kPa), with no such order observed when soils were saturated. A similar sequence was observed for the  $N_2-N$  fluxes; however, this sequential order was reversed at –0.2 kPa with higher  $N_2-N$  fluxes in the 1.5 Mg m<sup>-3</sup> treatment. This resulted from applying urea solutions after soil compaction so that the urea solution did not penetrate as far into the soil as in the

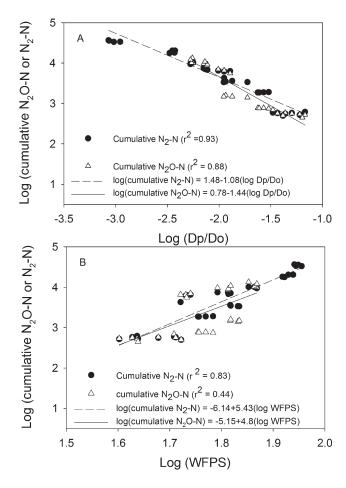


Fig. 7. Regression of cumulative N<sub>2</sub>O-N and cumulative N<sub>2</sub>-N fluxes, expressed as their respective log values, vs. the log of relative gas diffusivity  $(D_p/D_o)$ . Cumulative N<sub>2</sub>O-N fluxes are plotted for  $D_p/D_o$  values of  $^3$ 0.005 while cumulative N<sub>2</sub>-N fluxes are plotted for  $D_p/D_o$  values of >0. Data points are individual replicates. WFPS, water-filled pore space.

less compacted treatments, as evident from the blue dye test. Thus, at 1.5 Mg m<sup>-3</sup>, the diffusive pathway for N<sub>2</sub> was shorter, which helps to explain the higher N<sub>2</sub>–N fluxes at 1.5 Mg m<sup>-3</sup>. Conversely, fluxes in the saturated soils at soil  $\rho_b$  of  $\leq$  1.4 may have been lower as a result of the urea solution penetrating deeper so that the ensuing N<sub>2</sub> produced was entrapped deeper in the soil cores and unable to readily diffuse out (Letey et al., 1980; Clough et al., 2001).

The pooled data set enables a comparison of the cumulative fluxes against WFPS, a readily obtained soil variable often used to predict or explain soil  $N_2O$  emissions (e.g., Linn and Doran, 1984). However, as Farquharson and Baldock (2008) noted, WFPS by the very nature of its derivation does not integrate the interactive effects of varying soil  $\rho_b$  and  $\psi$  on soil gaseous emissions. This experiment reinforces the comments of Farquharson and Baldock (2008). While previous studies have shown strong relationships between soil  $\psi$  and  $N_2O$  emissions (Petersen et al., 2008; Castellano et al., 2010; Van der Weerden et al., 2012), such relationships are not robust when soil  $\rho_b$  also varies (Balaine et al., 2013). Measuring  $N_2O$  fluxes from a factorial experiment where soil cores varied in both soil  $\rho_b$  and  $\psi$  4 d after saturating soil cores with a  $NO_3^-$  solution, Balaine et al. (2013) demonstrates

strated that N<sub>2</sub>O fluxes were poorly explained by WFPS but that a strong linear relationship (p < 0.01;  $r^2 = 0.82$ ) between log-N<sub>2</sub>O-N flux and  $\log D_p/D_o$ , which encapsulated the variation in both  $\rho_b$  and  $\psi$ , explained the variation in N<sub>2</sub>O fluxes well. The current results further demonstrate that this relationship holds for cumulative fluxes (Fig. 7), even after monitoring N<sub>2</sub>O-N fluxes over a 35-d period during a complete inorganic N transformation sequence from urea hydrolysis through to NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> removal via denitrification processes.

Balaine et al. (2013) defined a critical  $D_p/D_0$  value (0.006) where maximum measured N2O-N fluxes occurred. Similarly, in the current study  $N_2O-N$  fluxes increased with decreasing  $D_p/D_O$ values until  $D_{\rm p}/D_{\rm o}$  equated to a very similar critical value (0.005), and as in Balaine et al. (2013), N2O-N fluxes declined dramatically below the critical  $D_{\rm p}/D_{\rm o}$  value (Fig. 6). This decline in N<sub>2</sub>O-N flux can now be confirmed as being the result of N2 production and possibly entrapment within the soil matrix. However, the longer N<sub>2</sub>O entrapment persists, the greater the potential for reduction to N<sub>2</sub> due to the declining soil redox value (Hansen et al., 2014). Based on the current results, the low ratio of the cumulative fluxes  $(N_2-N/N_2O-N)$  at  $D_p/D_o$  values of >0.005 indicate that economically significant N losses from ruminant urine patches or urea fertilizer are unlikely at  $D_{\rm p}/D_{\rm o}$  values of >0.005 via denitrification processes. However, if  $\bar{D}_{\rm p}/D_{\rm o}$  values are <0.005 gaseous N emissions are likely to be dominated by N<sub>2</sub> and to be substantial. This implies that soil management within a grazed pasture, with respect to reducing both N2O and N2 emissions, should optimize soil structure (reduce soil  $\rho_b$ ) and soil water contents to maximize  $D_{\rm p}/D_{\rm o}$  without affecting pasture growth.

The method used to measure  $D_p/D_0$  assumes  $O_2$  consumption is negligible (Rolston and Moldrup, 2002). However, as Petersen et al. (2013) noted,  $D_{\rm p}/D_{\rm o}$  value is a function of both  ${\rm O_2}$ supply and demand. Using calculated  $D_{\rm p}/D_{\rm o}$  values, Petersen et al. (2013) measured N2O emissions occurring in cropping soils following  $NO_3^-$  addition when  $D_p/D_o$  values were >0.02, possibly as a result of a freeze-thaw cycle releasing labile C, which they speculated may have in turn induced a high O2 demand, suboxic conditions, and subsequent denitrification. In the current study, it is also highly likely the O2 demand was elevated as a consequence of the urea application increasing DOC concentrations since the ensuing high soil pH that follows urea application induces the solubilization of soil organic matter (Monaghan and Barraclough, 1993). The strong correlations observed between soil pH and DOC concentrations support solubilization of soil organic matter as the DOC source. While the soil DOC concentrations declined with time in all soil  $\rho_b$  treatments, they remained above the minimum value required for denitrification to commence, previously reported to be 40 mg C kg<sup>-1</sup> soil (Beauchamp et al., 1980). Oxygen consumption and availability in a soil may also be driven by soil temperature, which determines respiration rates (Smith et al., 2003). While a  $D_{\rm p}/D_{\rm o}$  value of 0.02 has been reported as a boundary for development of anaerobiosis (Stepniewski, 1981), the current results where  $N_2$  production occurred at a  $D_p/D_0$  of 0.026, albeit at a lower rate, and those of Petersen et al. (2013) demonstrate denitrification mechanisms occurring at  $D_{\rm p}/D_{\rm o}$  values of >0.02. This indicates that either anaerobiosis is developing at  $D_{\rm p}/D_{\rm o}$  values of >0.02 and/or the mechanism of N<sub>2</sub>O and/or N<sub>2</sub> production may not require anoxia and may in fact be a consequence of nitrifier-denitrification, which can operate at the boundary of oxic and anoxic conditions (Wrage et al., 2001; Zhu et al., 2013). To assess the potential shift (increase) in critical  $D_{\rm p}/D_{\rm o}$ , with changing soil O<sub>2</sub> demand, future work should investigate the interaction of varying C inputs and temperature conditions on both  $D_{\rm p}/D_{\rm o}$  and subsequent N<sub>2</sub>O and N<sub>2</sub> emissions, along with microbial processes.

### **CONCLUSIONS**

Cumulative emissions of  $\rm N_2O$  and  $\rm N_2$  over 35 d following a urea input designed to simulate a ruminant urine deposition event were affected by both soil  $\rho_{\rm b}$  and  $\psi.$  For the first time, we show that cumulative emissions from such an N input can also be strongly related to soil  $D_{\rm p}/D_{\rm o}$  and that the rapid decline in  $\rm N_2O$  production, as  $D_{\rm p}/D_{\rm o}$  decreases to exceed a critical value, is the consequence of  $\rm N_2$  production. Soil and irrigation management should be optimized to maximize  $D_{\rm p}/D_{\rm o}$  to mitigate economic and environmental losses of N. Future studies are needed to examine how soil microbes and soil  $\rm O_2$  supply change with varying  $D_{\rm p}/D_{\rm o}$  conditions as a consequence of soil management and temperature.

#### ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This research was funded by the Ministry for Business, Innovation, and Employment under the Land Use Change and Intensification (C02X0812) program of the New Zealand Institute for Plant & Food Research. We thank Chris Dunlop (New Zealand Institute for Plant & Food Research), Qian Liang, Roger Cresswell, and Manjula Premaratne (Lincoln University, New Zealand) for help with analyses.

#### **REFERENCES**

- Andersen, A.J., and S.O. Petersen. 2009. Effects of C and N availability and soilwater potential interactions on  $\rm N_2O$  evolution and PLFA composition. Soil Biol. Biochem. 41:1726–1733. doi:10.1016/j.soilbio.2009.06.001
- Anderson, T.W., and D.A. Darling. 1952. Asymptotic theory of certain "Goodness of Fit" criteria based on stochastic processes. Ann. Math. Stat. 23:193–212. doi:10.1214/aoms/1177729437
- Avnimelech, Y., and M. Laher. 1977. Ammonia volatilization from soils: Equilibrium considerations. Soil Sci. Soc. Am. J. 41:1080–1084. doi:10.2136/sssaj1977.03615995004100060013x
- Balaine, N., T.J. Clough, M.H. Beare, S.M. Thomas, E.D. Meenken, and J.G. Ross. 2013. Changes in relative gas diffusivity explain soil nitrous oxide flux dynamics. Soil Sci. Soc. Am. J. 77:1496–1505. doi:10.2136/ sssaj2013.04.0141
- Ball, B.C. 2013. Soil structure and greenhouse gas emissions: A synthesis of 20 years of experimentation. Eur. J. Soil Sci. 64:357–373. doi:10.1111/eiss 12013
- Bathurst, N.O. 1952. The amino acids of sheep and cow urine. J. Agric. Sci. (Cambridge) 42:476–478. doi:10.1017/S0021859600057385
- Beauchamp, E.G., C. Gale, and J.C. Yeomans. 1980. Organic matter availability for denitrification in soils of different textures and drainage classes. Commun. Soil Sci. Plant Anal. 11:1221–1233. doi:10.1080/00103628009367119
- Blakemore, L.C., P.L. Searle, and B.K. Daly. 1987. Methods for chemical analysis of soils. Manaaki-Whenua Press, Lincoln, New Zealand.
- Buckthought, L.E., T.J. Clough, K.C. Cameron, H.J. Di, and M.A. Shepherd. 2015. Urine patch and fertiliser N interaction: Effects of fertiliser rate and season of urine application on nitrate leaching and pasture N uptake. Agric. Ecosyst. Environ. 203:19–28. doi:10.1016/j.agee.2015.01.019
- Castellano, M.J., J.P. Schmidt, J.P. Kaye, C. Walker, C.B. Graham, H.M. Lin, and C.J. Dell. 2010. Hydrological and biogeochemical controls on the timing

- and magnitude of nitrous oxide flux across an agricultural landscape. Glob. Change Biol. 16:2711–2720. doi:10.1111/j.1365-2486.2009.02116.x
- Clough, T.J., F.M. Kelliher, Y.P. Wang, and R.R. Sherlock. 2006. Diffusion of  $^{15}\text{N-labelled}$   $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  into soil columns: A promising method to examine the fate of  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  in subsoils. Soil Biol. Biochem. 38:1462–1468. doi:10.1016/j. soilbio.2005.11.002
- Clough, T.J., J.L. Ray, L.E. Buckthought, J. Calder, D. Baird, M. O'Callaghan, R.R. Sherlock, and L.M. Condron. 2009. The mitigation potential of hippuric acid on N<sub>2</sub>O emissions from urine patches: An in situ determination of its effect. Soil Biol. Biochem. 41:2222–2229. doi:10.1016/j.soilbio.2009.07.032
- Clough, T.J., R.R. Sherlock, K.C. Cameron, and S.F. Ledgard. 1996. Fate of urine nitrogen on mineral and peat soils in New Zealand. Plant Soil 178:141–152. doi:10.1007/BF00011172
- Clough, T.J., R.R. Sherlock, K.C. Cameron, R.J. Stevens, R.J. Laughlin, and C. Muller. 2001. Resolution of the <sup>15</sup>N balance enigma? Aust. J. Soil Res. 39:1419–1431. doi:10.1071/SR00092
- Cook, F.J., J.H. Knight, and F.M. Kelliher. 2013. Modelling oxygen transport in soil with plant root and microbial oxygen consumption: Depth of oxygen penetration. Soil Res. 51:539–553. <a href="doi:10.1071/SR13223">doi:10.1071/SR13223</a>
- Davidson, E.A. 2009. The contribution of manure and fertilizer nitrogen to atmospheric nitrous oxide since 1860. Nat. Geosci. 2:659–662. doi:10.1038/ngeo608
- de Klein, C.A.M., R.R. Sherlock, K.C. Cameron, and T.J. van der Weerden. 2001. Nitrous oxide emissions from agricultural soils in New Zealand: A review of current knowledge and directions for future research. J. R. Soc. N. Z. 31:543–574. doi:10.1080/03014223.2001.9517667
- Delgado, J.A. 2002. Quantifying the loss mechanisms of nitrogen. J. Soil Water Conserv. 57:389–398.
- Dobbie, K., I.P. McTaggart, and K.A. Smith. 1999. Nitrous oxide emissions from intensive agriculture systems: Variations between crops and seasons, key driving variables and mean emission factors. J. Geophys. Res. 104:26891– 26899. doi:10.1029/1999JD900378
- Dobbie, K., and K.A. Smith. 2001. The effects of temperature, water-filled pore space and land use on N<sub>2</sub>O emissions from an imperfectly drained gleysol. Eur. J. Soil Sci. 52:667–673. doi:10.1046/j.1365-2389.2001.00395.x
- Farquharson, R., and J. Baldock. 2008. Concepts in modelling  $\rm N_2O$  emissions from land use. Plant Soil 309:147–167. doi:10.1007/s11104-007-9485-0
- Flury, M., and H. Fluhler. 1994. Brilliant blue FCF as a dye tracer for solute transport studies: A toxicological overview. J. Environ. Qual. 23:1108–1112. doi:10.2134/jeq1994.00472425002300050037x
- Ghani, A., M. Dexter, and K.W. Perrott. 2003. Hot-water extractable carbon in soils: A sensitive measurement for determining impacts of fertilisation, grazing and cultivation. Soil Biol. Biochem. 35:1231–1243. doi:10.1016/ S0038-0717(03)00186-X
- Hansen, M., T.J. Clough, and B. Elberling. 2014. Flooding-induced  $\rm N_2O$  emission bursts controlled by pH and nitrate in agricultural soils. Soil Biol. Biochem. 69:17–24. doi:10.1016/j.soilbio.2013.10.031
- Harrison-Kirk, T., S.M. Thomas, T.J. Clough, M.H. Beare, T.J. van der Weerden, and E.D. Meenken. 2015. Compaction influences  $N_2O$  and  $N_2$  emissions from  $^{15}N$ -labeled synthetic urine in wet soils during successive saturation/drainage cycles. Soil Biol. Biochem. 88:178–188. doi:10.1016/j. soilbio.2015.05.022
- Haynes, R.J., and P.H. Williams. 1993. Nutrient cycling and soil fertility in the grazed pasture ecosystem. Adv. Agron. 49:119–199. doi:10.1016/S0065-2113(08)60794-4
- Hewitt, A.E. 1998. New Zealand soil classification. Landcare research science series no. 1. 2nd ed. Manaaki Whenua Press, Lincoln, New Zealand.
- Hutchinson, G.L., and A.R. Mosier. 1981. Improved soil cover method for field measurement of nitrous oxide fluxes. Soil Sci. Soc. Am. J. 45:311–316. doi:10.2136/sssaj1981.03615995004500020017x
- Klefoth, R.R., T.J. Clough, O. Oenema, and J.W. van Groenigen. 2014. Soil bulk density and moisture content influence relative gas diffusivity and the reduction of nitrogen-15 nitrous oxide. Vadose Zone J. 13:1–8. doi:10.2136/vzj2014.07.0089
- Kool, D.M., E. Hoffland, S.P.A. Abrahamse, and J.W. van Groenigen. 2006. What artificial urine composition is adequate for simulating soil N<sub>2</sub>O fluxes and mineral N dynamics? Soil Biol. Biochem. 38:1757–1763. doi:10.1016/j.soilbio.2005.11.030
- Letey, J., W.A. Jury, A. Hadas, and N. Valoras. 1980. Gas diffusion as a factor in

- laboratory incubation studies on denitrification. J. Environ. Qual. 9:223–227.  $\underline{doi:10.2134/jeq1980.00472425000900020012x}$
- Linn, D.M., and J.W. Doran. 1984. Effect of water-filled pore space on carbon dioxide and nitrous oxide production in tilled and nontilled soils. Soil Sci. Soc. Am. J. 48:1267–1272. <a href="doi:10.2136/sssaj1984.03615995004800060013x">doi:10.2136/sssaj1984.03615995004800060013x</a>
- Maharjan, B., and R.T. Venterea. 2013. Nitrite intensity explains N management effects on  $N_2O$  emissions in maize. Soil Biol. Biochem. 66:229–238. doi:10.1016/j.soilbio.2013.07.015
- McTaggart, I.P., H. Akiyama, H. Tsuruta, and B.C. Ball. 2002. Influence of soil physical properties, fertiliser type and moisture tension on N<sub>2</sub>O and NO emissions from nearly saturated Japanese upland soils. Nutr. Cycl. Agroecosyst. 63:207–217. doi:10.1023/A:1021119412863
- Millington, R.J., and J.P. Quirk. 1961. Permeability of porous solids. Trans. Faraday Soc. 57:1200–1207.
- Moldrup, P., J.E. Olesen, P. Schjønning, T. Yamaguchi, and D.E. Rolston. 2000. Predicting the gas diffusion coefficient in undisturbed soil from soil water characteristics. Soil Sci. Soc. Am. J. 64:94–100. doi:10.2136/ sssaj2000.64194x
- Monaghan, R.M., and D. Barraclough. 1993. Nitrous oxide and dinitrogen emissions from urine-affected soil under controlled conditions. Plant Soil 151:127–138. doi:10.1007/BF00010793
- Morley, N., E. Baggs, P. Dörsch, and L. Bakken. 2008. Production of NO, N $_2$ O and N $_2$  by extracted soil bacteria, regulation by NO $_2$ <sup>-</sup> and O $_2$  concentrations. FEMS Microbiol. Ecol. 65:102–112. doi:10.1111/j.1574-6941.2008.00495.x
- Mosier, A.R., J.K. Syers, and J.R. Freney. 2004. Nitrogen fertilizer: An essential component of icreased food, feed, and fiber production. In: A.R. Mosier et al., editors, Agriculture and the nitrogen cycle. Assessing the impacts of fertilizer use on food production and the environment. Island Press, Washington, D.C. p. 3–15.
- Mulvaney, R.L., and C.W. Boast. 1986. Equations for determination of nitrogen-15 labeled dinitrogen and nitrous oxide by mass spectrometry. Soil Sci. Soc. Am. J. 50:360–363. <a href="doi:10.2136/sssaj1986.03615995005000020021x">doi:10.2136/sssaj1986.03615995005000020021x</a>
- Petersen, S.O., P. Ambus, L. Elsgaard, P. Schjønning, and J.E. Olesen. 2013. Long-term effects of cropping system on N<sub>2</sub>O emission potential. Soil Biol. Biochem. 57:706–712. <a href="https://doi.org/10.1016/j.soilbio.2012.08.032">doi:10.1016/j.soilbio.2012.08.032</a>
- Petersen, S.O., P. Schjønning, I.K. Thomsen, and B.T. Christensen. 2008. Nitrous oxide evolution from structurally intact soil as influenced by tillage and soil water content. Soil Biol. Biochem. 40:967–977. doi:10.1016/j. soilbio.2007.11.017
- Prosser, J.I. 2012. Part IV. Soil biology and biochemistry: Soil biology in its second golden age. 27.3 Nitrogen transformations. In: P.N. Huang, Y.

- Li, and M.E. Sumner, editors, Handbook of soil sciences: Properties and processes. 2nd ed. CRC Press, London, UK. p. 27-19–27-32.
- Ravishankara, A.R., J.S. Daniel, and R.W. Portmann. 2009. Nitrous oxide (N<sub>2</sub>O): The dominant ozone-depleting substance emitted in the 21st century. Science 326:123–125. doi:10.1126/science.1176985
- Rolston, D.E., and P. Moldrup. 2002. Gas Diffusivity. In: G.C. Topp and J.H. Dane, editors, Methods of soil analysis. Part 4. Physical methods. SSSA, Madison, WI. p. 113–139.
- Romano, N., J.W. Hopmans, and G.H. Dane. 2002. Water retention and storage. In: G.C. Topp and G.H. Dane, editors, Methods of soil analysis. Part 4. Physical methods. SSSA, Madison, WI. p. 692–698.
- Schjønning, P., I.K. Thomsen, P. Moldrup, and B.T. Christensen. 2003. Linking soil microbial activity to water- and air-phase contents and diffusivities. Soil Sci. Soc. Am. J. 67:156–165. doi:10.2136/sssaj2003.1560
- Smith, K.A., T. Ball, F. Conen, K.E. Dobbie, J. Massheder, and A. Rey. 2003. Exchange of greenhouse gases between soil and atmosphere: Interactions of soil physical and biological processes. Eur. J. Soil Sci. 54:779–791. doi:10.1046/j.1351-0754.2003.0567.x
- Stepniewski, W. 1981. Oxygen diffusion and the strength as related to soil compaction. II. Oxygen diffusion coefficient. Polish J. Soil Sci. 14:3–13.
- Stevens, R.J., R.J. Laughlin, G.J. Atkins, and S.J. Prosser. 1993. Automated determination of nitrogen-15 labelled dinitrogen and nitrous oxide by mass spectrometry. Soil Sci. Soc. Am. J. 57:981–988. doi:10.2136/ sssaj1993.03615995005700040017x
- Tiedje, J., S. Simkins, and P. Groffman. 1989. Perspectives on measurement of denitrification in the field including recommended protocols for acetylene based methods. Plant Soil 115:261–284. doi:10.1007/BF02202594
- Van der Weerden, T.J., F.M. Kelliher, and C.A.M. de Klein. 2012. Influence of pore size distribution and soil water content on nitrous oxide emissions. Soil Res. 50:125–135.
- Venterea, R., T.J. Clough, J.A. Coulter, and F. Breuillin-Sessoms. 2015. Ammonium sorption and ammonia inhibition of nitrite-oxidizing bacteria explain contrasting soil N<sub>2</sub>O production. Sci. Rep. 5:12153. doi:10.1038/srep12153
- Walczak, R., E. Rovdan, and B. Witkowska-Walczak. 2002. Water retention characteristics of peat and sand mixtures. Int. Agrophys. 16:161–165.
- Wrage, N., G.L. Velthof, M.L. van Beusichem, and O. Oenema. 2001. Role of nitrifier denitrification in the production of nitrous oxide. Soil Biol. Biochem. 33:1723–1732. doi:10.1016/S0038-0717(01)00096-7
- Zhu, X., M. Burger, T.A. Doaneb, and W.R. Howarth. 2013. Ammonia oxidation pathways and nitrifier denitrification are significant sources of N<sub>2</sub>O and NO under low oxygen availability. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 110:6328–6333. doi:10.1073/pnas.1219993110