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N₂O AND CH₄ FLUXES IN SOIL INFLUENCED BY FERTILIZATION AND TRACTOR TRAFFIC

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Summary—The effects of fertilization and tractor traffic on N₂O emission and CH₄ uptake in agricultural soil were studied in a field trial with different fertilization and soil compaction. The soil was a well-drained sandy loam and the crop rotation was rich in ley and legumes. The fertilization treatments were: NPK fertilizer (140 kg NH₄NO₃-N ha⁻¹); cattle slurry (CS) (189 kg total N ha⁻¹), CS (81 kg total N ha⁻¹), and an unfertilized treatment. The soil was experimentally compacted by two passes with a tractor, wheel by wheel, shortly before fertilization. Gas fluxes at the soil surface were measured by the soil cover method. Soil air at a depth of 7–12 cm was sampled through stationary soil air samplers. Concentrations of N₂O in soil air were more than seven times higher in compacted, NPK-fertilized soil than in any other treatments. Maximum concentrations (1900 µl N₂O l⁻¹) were observed shortly after periods with heavy rain. The accumulated N₂O emissions from the NPK-fertilized treatment (4 June–8 July) corresponded to 5.3% of added NH₄NO₃-N in compacted soil, and 3.9% in uncompacted soil. Fertilization with cattle slurry equivalent to 81 kg total N ha⁻¹ gave an N₂O emission corresponding to 3.1% of added NH₄-N in uncompacted soil, and 2.7% in compacted soil. Increasing levels of cattle slurry resulted in a reduction in N₂O emission per kg NH₄-N added. The accumulated CH₄ uptake (4 June–8 July) in the soil was 9.7 mg CH₄ m⁻² in unfertilized and uncompacted soil. It was reduced by 52% by soil compaction, 50% on average by fertilization and 78% by soil compaction and fertilization combined. Fertilization with NH₄NO₃ or cattle slurry resulted in similar effects.

INTRODUCTION

Soil is an important source of atmospheric N₂O, and a sink for CH₄ (Mosier *et al.*, 1991). The emission of N₂O may be perceived as a leakage of intermediate products in nitrification and denitrification. These reactions are influenced by oxygen supply, water content, temperature, soil pH, organic matter, the presence of plants (Byrnes, 1990) and the concentrations of NH₄-N and NO₃-N in the soil (Jones and Morita, 1983). A well-drained soil acts as a sink for atmospheric CH₄ due to methane oxidation, by either ammonia oxidizers or methanotrophs (Bedard and Knowles, 1989). In arable land agricultural practices such as fertilization and tractor traffic as well as climate and soil type are likely to influence these gas fluxes. Numerous studies reviewed by Eichner (1990) show great variability in N₂O fluxes from agricultural soils. Less work has been done on CH₄ flux. Mosier *et al.* (1991) report a CH₄ uptake of 2.6, 1.8 and 1.3 g C ha⁻¹ d⁻¹ in native grassland, fallow and wheat sites, respectively.

In some areas soil compaction is a serious problem. Very little work has been reported on the effect of soil compaction on N₂O emission in a humid climate and no work on the effect on CH₄ uptake. In western Norway large areas are easily compacted, partly

because of humid climate and partly because of fine textured soils and high content of organic material in the soils. The aim of this investigation was to study the influence of soil compaction through tractor traffic and fertilization with NH₄NO₃ or cattle slurry on CH₄ and N₂O fluxes in an easily compacted soil in a humid climate.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Gas fluxes and soil air composition were measured during the seventh year of a field experiment with different fertilization and soil compaction treatments (growth season 1991). The field experiment was located in Surnadal, Norway 25 m a.s.l., 63°00'00" N, 8°88'44" E. Precipitation in April, May and June was 457 mm, which is 179% of the normal precipitation. The average temperature for April, May and June was 7.7°C (normal 8.4°C). Soil temperature and precipitation during the period of measurement are given in Fig. 1.

The experiment had a split-plot factorial design with two replicates, soil compaction on main plots and fertilization on small plots (2.8 × 8 m, sample area 1.5 × 6.5 m). For each flux measurement, two soil cover chambers were placed at random within each field plot (minimum spacing 1 m). Soil air was sampled using two stationary soil air samplers (equilibrium chambers) in each plot. Thus, for each

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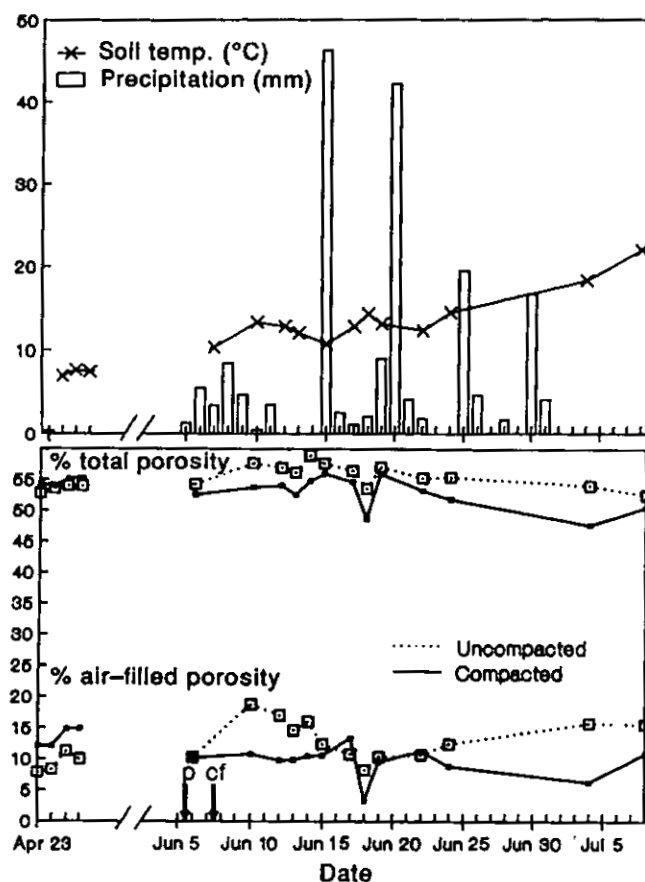


Fig. 1. Soil temperature ($^{\circ}\text{C}$) at 15 cm depth, precipitation (mm), total porosity and air-filled porosity as a percentage of soil volume.

treatment, there were four parallel flux and soil air measurements taken on each day of measurement.

The fertilization treatments were: NPK fertilizer (18% N, 3% P, 15% K) with $140 \text{ kg NH}_4\text{NO}_3\text{-N ha}^{-1}$, cattle slurry (CS) equivalent to $189 \text{ kg total N (116 kg NH}_4\text{-N) ha}^{-1}$, CS equivalent to $81 \text{ kg total N (50 kg NH}_4\text{-N) ha}^{-1}$, and an unfertilized treatment. CS was diluted with water up to 200% of the original volume and spread by can with a small spreading plate. NPK fertilizer was spread by hand. Fertilizers were raked into the top 5 cm of the soil immediately after application. This loosened the soil in the upper surface. Samples of cattle slurry were frozen for later analyses following the method described by Horwitz (1980).

The diluted slurry contained $64 \text{ g dry matter l}^{-1}$, $2.8 \text{ g Kjeldahl-N l}^{-1}$, $1.7 \text{ g NH}_4\text{-N l}^{-1}$, $25 \text{ mg NO}_3\text{-N l}^{-1}$, $1.5 \text{ g water soluble organic C l}^{-1}$ and had a pH of 7.6.

In 1991, soil compaction treatment comprised two passes of a 4 tonne tractor, wheel by wheel, shortly before fertilization, at a soil moisture tension equal to $pF \text{ ca } 2$. The rear wheels were double-settings with a total tyre width of 140 cm (inflation pressure of 57 kPa). In front there were low pressure tyres with a total width of 100 cm.

Similar fertilizer and compaction treatments have been carried out every year from 1985 with the exception of 1990, when no extra compaction or fertilization was applied.

Tillage treatments (ploughing, two harrowings, rolling) and sowing were carried out across the experimental plots with tractors similar to those used for compaction. Thus, the uncompacted soil was to some extent affected by tractor traffic.

The experimental field has a slope of $<2\%$ and is placed on a naturally-drained sandy loam developed on fluvial deposits. The soil profile has a contrasting character in the subsoil layer (beneath 30–100 cm), with *ca* 50% by volume containing stones bigger than 4 cm, while the remainder is rich in gravel and coarse sand (Table 1).

The top soil contained 2.2% organic C, 0.17% organic N and had a pH (H_2O) of 6.1. Average bulk densities (7–11 cm depth) were 1.21 g cm^{-3} in uncompacted soil and 1.30 g cm^{-3} in compacted soil.

The experiment was started in 1985. The crop rotation was adapted to ecological farming with milk production and had a high frequency of ley and legumes.

The 1991 crop was green fodder with rape (*Brassica napus*), barley (*Hordeum vulgare*), peas

Table 1. Soil texture. Percent by weight of the fraction <2 mm, except for gravel which is given as a percentage of the total weight. Determined following Elonen (1971)*

	Soil layer		
	0-20 cm	20-25 cm	Subsoil
Gravel (0.2-4 cm)	1-3	1-3	70-90
Coarse sand (2.0-0.6 mm)	1-2	1-2	34-68
Medium sand (0.6-0.2 mm)	5-7	7-15	22-37
Fine sand (0.2-0.0 mm)	38-44	33-42	5-27
Coarse silt (0.06-0.02 mm)	27-29	27	1-6
Medium silt (0.02-0.006 mm)	13-17	13	0-5
Fine silt (0.006-0.002 mm)	4-6	6-7	0-1
Clay (<0.002 mm)	4-6	4	1-4

*Three samples behind the determination of soil texture 0-20 cm and 20-25 cm, eleven samples behind the determination of subsoil.

(*Pisum arvense*), vetch (*Vicia sativa*) and Westerwoldth rye-grass (*Lolium multiflorum* Lam. var. *Westerwoldicum* auct.). Crops from 1985 to 1990 were: greenfodder, barley, 3 yr ley and oats. The oats straw was left on the soil surface during the winter and was removed shortly before ploughing in spring 1991.

The soil porosity and water content were determined in undisturbed soil samples taken by means of 100 cm³ cylinders. At each sampling date, three samples were taken in both compacted and uncompacted areas (7-11 cm depth). Particle density used to calculate material and pore volume was determined following the method of De Boodt *et al.* (1967).

Gas measurements

Gas fluxes were measured shortly after snowmelt (23, 24 and 26 April), before and after ploughing (4 and 7 June) and after compaction and fertilization treatments (10, 12, 13, 14, 15, 17, 18, 19, 22, 24 June; 4 and 6 July).

Gas fluxes at the soil surface were measured by soil cover chambers (thin-walled tin cans, 22.5 cm i.d., 23 cm high) with a reflecting outer surface similar to that described by Bakken *et al.* (1987). This ensured minimal heating by direct sunlight. In order to prevent bulk flow of air into the soil while pushing the soil cover chambers into the ground (1 cm), three holes (12 mm dia) on the top were kept open. After placement of the chambers, these holes were closed with butyl rubber stoppers (type 20-B3P, Chromacol Ltd, London). Gas samples were taken through these stoppers with a two-way blood collection needle. The needle was pierced through the rubber stoppers and connected to 12 ml evacuated glass vials (N 20-10 Macherey-Nagel, Düren) as outlined by Magnusson (1989). Before sampling, the vials were closed with the same type of stoppers, covered with a layer of silicone and evacuated to <10⁻³ atm.

Equilibrium chambers for soil air sampling at depths of 7-12 cm were installed shortly after rolling the field. The equilibrium chambers were constructed of pointed cylinders of stainless steel, with 19.5 cm length, 9 mm o.d. and 4 mm i.d., and eleven 1 mm holes. The holes were countersunk in order to avoid clogging by the soil. Gas samples (6 ml) were taken

through viton rubber septa at the top of the equilibrium chambers in the same way as for flux measurements (N 20-5/4 Macherey-Nagel, Düren).

Within 14 days after sampling, the gas samples were analysed on a gas chromatograph (Fractovap 4200, Carlo Erba, Italy) equipped with three detectors. The storage of gas samples in the same vials and rubber stoppers was tested by Sitaula *et al.* (1992). After 30 days storage they found a recovery of 97% N₂O, 100% CH₄ and 94% CO₂.

Moderate concentrations (<40 µl l⁻¹) of N₂O were measured on an ECD (electron capture detector, type ECD40), and higher concentrations on a TCD (thermal conductivity detector). CH₄ was measured by FID (flame ionizing detector), and CO₂ by TCD. The column was a 25 m × 0.53 mm Poraplot Q (Chrompac, Middelburg, The Netherlands), connected directly to a 6-port injection valve (type C6W, VALCO Instrument Co. Inc., Houston, U.S.A.) with a 0.2 ml sampling loop. The carrier gas (He) flow was 7 ml min⁻¹. The temperatures of the oven, TCD and ECD were 35, 70 and 350°C, respectively. The outline of the gas chromatograph system is described by Sitaula *et al.* (1992).

N₂O and CH₄ concentrations in the soil cover chambers at the start of each closure period were estimated by the arithmetical mean of air samples taken 20 cm above the ground simultaneously with samples of flux and soil air. These measurements of atmospheric background displayed some variability (SD = 0.09 µl l⁻¹ for CH₄ and 0.1 µl l⁻¹ for N₂O, n = 19). This variability was a combination of real variation in gas concentrations and analytical errors. The latter was important for ambient concentrations of N₂O due to base line instability. Standards with higher N₂O-concentrations gave reasonable stable signals (coefficient of variation = 5% for ECD determination of a 6.43 µl l⁻¹ standard and only 2-3% for TCD determinations of standards >40 µl l⁻¹).

Gas samples were taken 3 h after placement of the soil cover chambers, except for two measurements which were extended to 5 h. In these cases (15 and 17 June) samples were taken after both 3 and 5 h. Flux was estimated by the increased concentration during the first 3 h. A comparison of 0-3 and 3-5 h flux measurements in 15 and 17 June gave an average estimated flux of 12.6 mg N₂O-N m⁻² d⁻¹ in the 0-3 h estimate and 13.2 mg N₂O-N m⁻² d⁻¹ in the 3-5 h estimate. Thus, there was no evidence of a retardation of the fluxes towards the end of the 5 h incubation.

The area under the flux curves (straight lines between data points, Figs 2 and 3) were used to estimate the accumulated N₂O emission and CH₄ uptake during the period of measurements (4 June-8 July).

Statistical analyses and calculations

The main effects and interactions of soil compaction, fertilization and date were tested with

analyses of variance (ANOVA) and the Newman-Keul's test. The interaction replicate-compaction was used as an error term to test the effect of compaction. Studentized residuals were used to test the normality of the distributions with residual plots and procedure UNIVARIATE (SAS Institute, 1988). The concentration of CH_4 in the soil air was normally distributed and the CH_4 flux and the CO_2 concentrations were so close to normal distribution that they were treated statistically as if that was the case. Fluxes and soil atmospheric concentrations of N_2O were log-normally distributed and the data were log-transformed with natural logarithms before the statistical analyses were run. In the case of N_2O fluxes, some of the data were negative and a constant number (10) was added to all numbers before log-transformation and analyses of variance.

The means and standard errors of the mean (SEM) of log-normally distributed N_2O data were calculated using Finney's method, described by Parkin *et al.* (1988). They compared the method of moments, maximum likelihood and Finney's method to estimate mean, variance and coefficient of variation of log-normally distributed data. It was found that Finney's method had least bias when the coefficient of variation of the underlying log-normal frequency distribution exceeded 100%, which is the case for our N_2O data.

CH_4 uptake rates were calculated in accordance with first-order kinetics. This is in agreement with the observations by Sitaula and Bakken (unpubl.), who found that CH_4 concentrations in a soil cover chamber closely followed an exponential function during the first 8 h of incubation.

Since estimates of accumulated N_2O emission and CH_4 uptake are linear functions of the flux data, the standard error could be calculated accordingly, based on the estimate variance for each sampling day (after Cochran and Cox, 1957, p. 71).

In order to compare the fertilization effects on N_2O emission rates with those reported by Eichner (1990), the average value for daily fertilizer-derived N_2O emissions in $\text{g N}_2\text{O-N kg}^{-1}$ mineral N added has been calculated (Table 2). This is calculated as the average daily N_2O emission in fertilized treatments minus average daily N_2O emission in the unfertilized treatment, divided by the amount of mineral N in the fertilizer.

In order to investigate treatment effects on N_2O diffusion, the ratio between measured flux and the measured concentration gradient ($C_s - C_A$, $C_s = \text{N}_2\text{O-concentration at soil depths of 7-12 cm}$, $C_A = \text{N}_2\text{O-concentration 20 cm above soil surface}$) was calculated for each treatment. The ratio was log-normally distributed and treatment means and SEM were calculated according to Finney's method (Parkin *et al.*, 1988). Log-transformed data were used in analyses of variance and the Newman-Keul's test. To avoid negative flux values, the calculations were based on observations from 15 June to 8 July.

RESULTS

N_2O emission and soil air concentration

Fertilization resulted in increased N_2O emission and concentration in soil air ($P < 0.01$). There was no significant difference between cattle slurry and NPK fertilization in uncompacted soils (Fig. 2, Table 2). In compacted soils the average soil air concentrations of N_2O were seven times higher in NPK-fertilized plots than in plots fertilized with 189 kg N ha^{-1} in cattle slurry. Very high N_2O concentrations in soil air were found in compacted, NPK-fertilized soil after heavy rain (Fig. 2). Moreover, high N_2O fluxes were observed from NPK-fertilized treatments, but in compacted soil the N_2O flux was lower than might have been expected considering the extremely high N_2O concentrations in the soil air (Fig. 2, Table 2). The amounts of cattle slurry added had little effect on N_2O flux and soil atmospheric concentration (Fig. 2, Table 2).

Emissions of $< 2.5 \text{ mg N}_2\text{O-N m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$ were found in the measurements taken in April. These data are not presented in the tables or figures.

The accumulated N_2O emission from the NPK-fertilized treatment for the period from June 4 to July 8 (Table 2) corresponded to 5.3% of added $\text{NH}_4\text{NO}_3\text{-N}$ in compacted soil, and 3.9% in uncompacted soil. Fertilization with cattle slurry equivalent to $81 \text{ kg total N ha}^{-1}$ gave an N_2O emission that corresponded to 3.1% of added $\text{NH}_4\text{-N}$ in uncompacted soil, and 2.7% in compacted soil. Increasing levels of cattle slurry resulted in a reduction in N_2O emission per $\text{kg NH}_4\text{-N}$ added. Fertilization with cattle slurry equivalent to $189 \text{ kg total N ha}^{-1}$ gave an N_2O emission of 1.9% of added $\text{NH}_4\text{-N}$ in uncompacted soil, and 1.4% in compacted soil. The N_2O emissions from unfertilized treatments are subtracted from the total emissions in these estimates.

An increase in N_2O flux was first observed about 7 days after fertilization and was found to be most marked for compacted soils fertilized with NPK fertilizer (Fig. 2). Plots treated with cattle slurry gave lower N_2O fluxes and later increases than NH_4NO_3 -fertilized plots. This was particularly obvious for compacted soils fertilized with a high level of cattle slurry, in which maximum N_2O emissions were observed at the end of the examination period.

The N_2O concentrations in soil air varied throughout the growing season (Fig. 2) with a temporal pattern depending on the fertilizer type ($P < 0.01$). The N_2O concentration in soil air started to increase 7 days after fertilization, in both NPK and cattle slurry fertilization. In unfertilized soil there was no marked increase in N_2O concentration in soil air throughout the investigation period. As for the N_2O flux, the seasonal variation in the soil air concentration was significantly affected by soil compaction ($P < 0.01$), fertilization ($P < 0.01$) and the interaction between soil compaction and fertilization

NPK and unfertilized

Cattle slurry

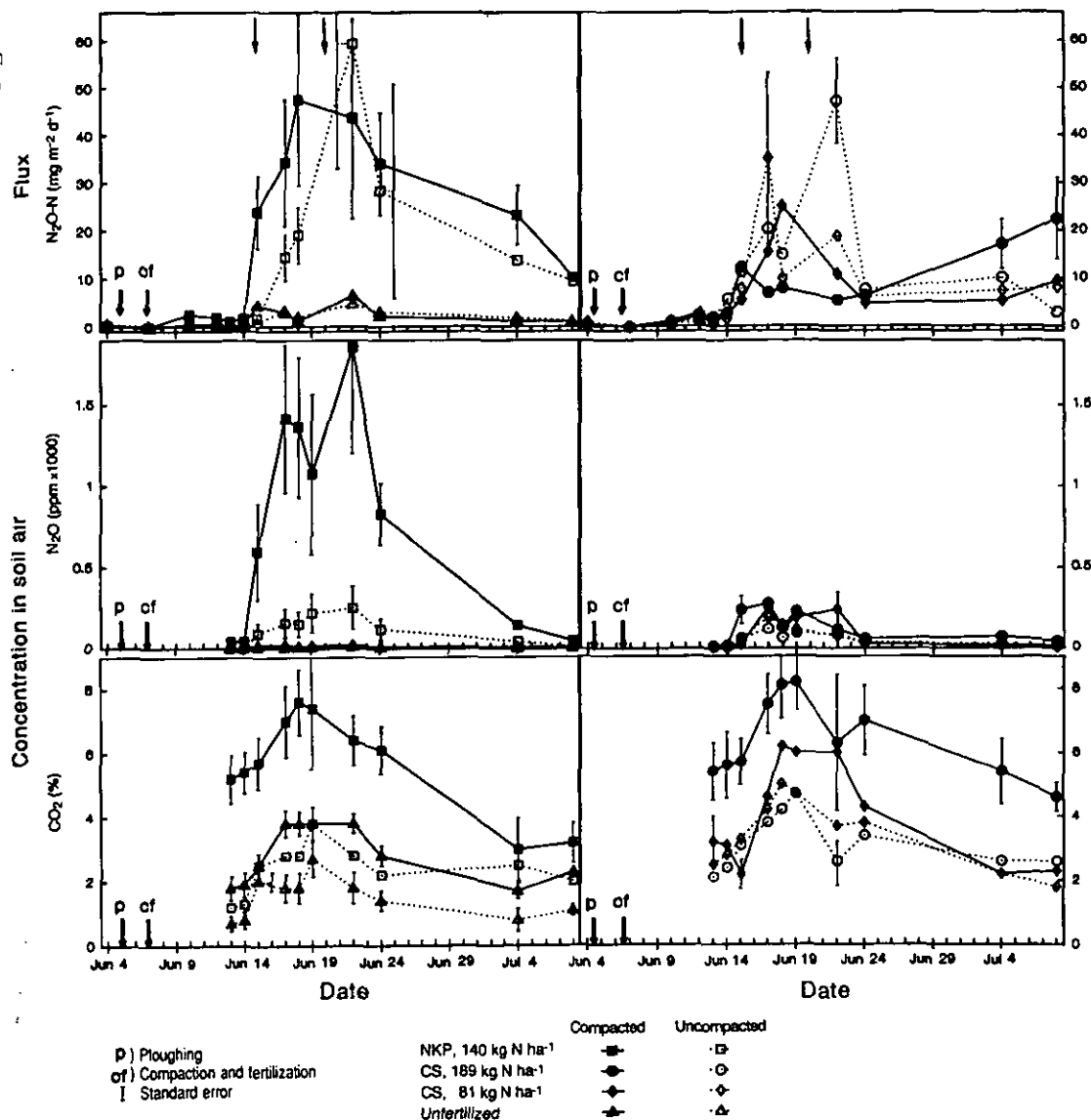


Fig. 2. N₂O and CO₂ concentrations in soil air (7–12 cm deep) and N₂O fluxes with different soil compaction, cattle slurry (CS) and NPK fertilization. Vertical lines are means $\pm$ SEM ($n = 4$). Arrows at the top indicate heavy rainfall ($>40 \text{ mm d}^{-1}$).

($P < 0.01$). This is illustrated by the large peak in N₂O concentration in soil air in the compacted, NPK-fertilized treatment (Fig. 2). These effects were tested with ANOVA as interactions between time, fertilization and soil compaction.

There was a good correlation between N₂O concentration in the soil air and N₂O flux ($r = 0.67$, $P < 0.01$). The closest correlation was found in NPK-fertilized, uncompacted soil, where 50% of the variation in N₂O flux could be explained by the variation in N₂O concentration in soil air (Table 3). In compacted soil fertilized with 189 kg N in cattle slurry, the flux and soil air concentrations were not

significantly correlated. The N₂O emission was either weakly correlated or not correlated with concentrations of CO₂ in soil air, but N₂O concentrations in soil air were more strongly correlated with CO₂ concentrations (Table 3). The air-filled porosity was negatively correlated with both N₂O parameters in the uncompacted soil, in contrast to compacted soil where no significant correlation was found.

Periods with heavy rain, resulting in lowered air-filled porosity, increased CO₂ and N₂O concentrations and N₂O fluxes. Peak values for N₂O fluxes were observed about 2 days after heavy rainfall (Figs 1 and 2).

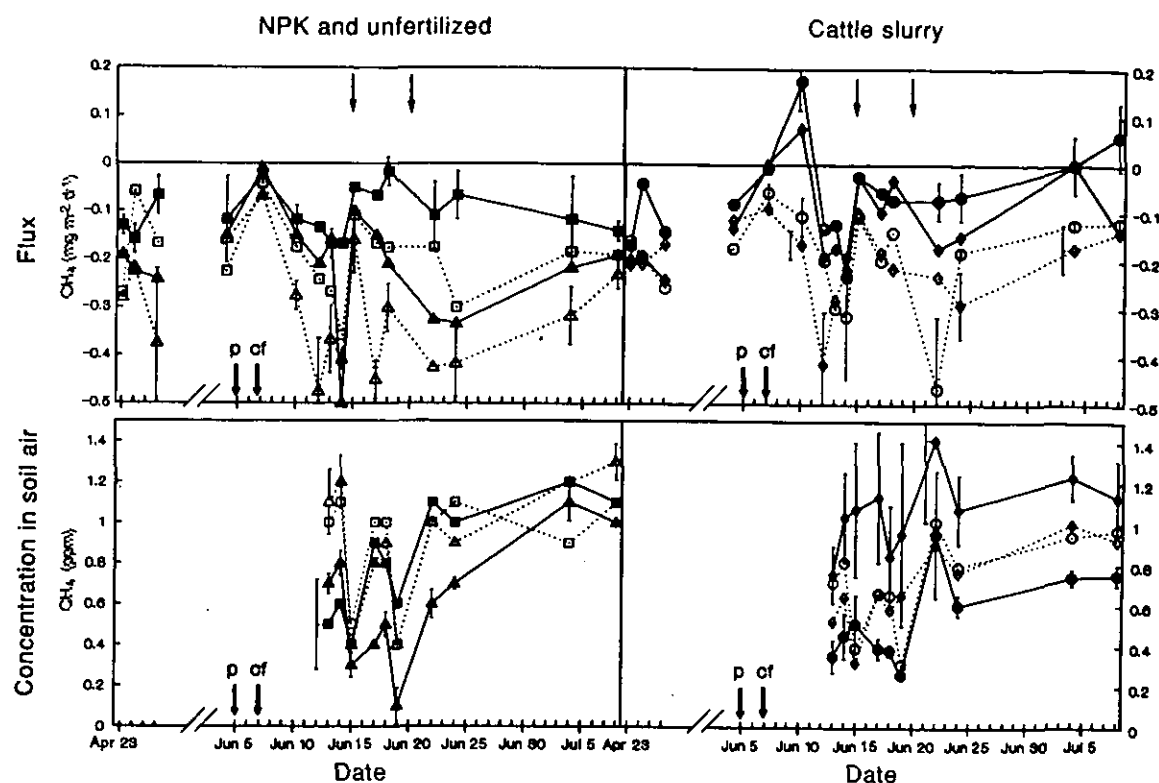


Fig. 3. CH_4 fluxes and concentrations in soil air (7–12 cm deep) with different soil compaction, cattle slurry (CS) and NPK fertilization. Same symbols as in Fig. 2.

Theoretically, an incubation period lasting as long as 3 h could cause retarded N_2O emissions as a result of a reduction in the concentration gradient from soil to chamber air. In >90% of the cases the N_2O concentration at 7–12 cm in soil air was more than eight times higher than that measured in the soil cover chambers after a 3 h closure (Table 4). Under such circumstances the N_2O concentration gradient was not reduced by more than 12–13% during the 3 h. Hence, the flux is unlikely to be more seriously affected.

CH_4 uptake and concentration in soil air

The accumulated CH_4 uptake by soil, for the period 4 June–8 July, ranged from 1 to 10 $\text{mg CH}_4 \text{ m}^{-2}$ (Table 2). Both fertilization ($P < 0.01$) and soil compaction ($P = 0.06$) reduced CH_4 uptake. Estimates of total CH_4 uptake based on straight lines between measured fluxes (Fig. 3) are presented in Table 2. The CH_4 uptake was reduced by 52% by soil compaction, 50% by fertilization and 78% by the combination of soil compaction and fertilization.

Table 2. CH_4 and N_2O -flux in the period 4 June–8 July, based on measured flux during the first 3 h of incubation; average values for each treatment $\pm$ SE and ratio between N_2O emission and concentration gradient from soil to atmosphere

Treatment	Accumulated flux		Fertilizer derived flux $\text{g N}_2\text{O-N d}^{-1}$ $\text{kg}^{-1} \text{min-N}^\dagger$	Ratio ‡
	CH_4 (mg m^{-2}) *	N_2O (mg N m^{-2})		
Uncompacted				
NPK, 140 kg N ha^{-1} §	$6.2 \pm 0.6^*$	$532 \pm 162^*$	1.1	$38 \pm 13^*$
CS, 189 kg N ha^{-1}	$5.6 \pm 0.4^*$	$358 \pm 36^*$	0.8	$48 \pm 9^*$
CS, 81 kg N ha^{-1}	$6.4 \pm 0.6^*$	$252 \pm 37^*$	1.2	$38 \pm 10^*$
Unfertilized	9.7 ± 0.6^b	62 ± 12^b		$57 \pm 15^*$
Compacted				
NPK, 140 kg N ha^{-1}	$3.0 \pm 0.4^*$	$736 \pm 112^*$	1.6	12 ± 4^b
CS, 189 kg N ha^{-1}	$1.1 \pm 0.6^*$	268 ± 44^b	0.6	19 ± 7^b
CS, 81 kg N ha^{-1}	$2.4 \pm 0.7^*$	217 ± 41^b	1.0	$49 \pm 23^*$
Unfertilized	6.8 ± 0.5^b	57 ± 10^c		$21 \pm 5^*$

* Within each column, figures which are not significantly different, share the same letter (Newman-Keul's test, $\alpha = 0.05$).

† Average daily fertilizer derived N_2O emission in $\text{g N}_2\text{O-N kg}^{-1}$ mineral N added.

‡ Ratio = 100 emission ($\text{mg N}_2\text{O-N m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$)/concentration gradient ($\mu\text{l l}^{-1} \text{ N}_2\text{O}$), average values for each treatment $\pm$ SEM.

§ NPK = NPK fertilizer; CS = cattle slurry.

Table 3. Correlation between N₂O emission, N₂O and CO₂ concentration in soil air and air-filled porosity (Pearson correlation coefficients)†

Treatments	N ₂ O-emission‡			Soil-N ₂ O	
	Soil-N ₂ O	Soil-CO ₂	Air-filled porosity	Soil-CO ₂	Air-filled porosity
Uncompacted					
NPK, 140 kg N ha ⁻¹ §	0.71***	0.46**	-0.48**	0.78***	-0.65***
CS, 189 kg N ha ⁻¹	0.59***	0.15 ^{ns}	-0.45**	0.59***	-0.77***
CS, 81 kg N ha ⁻¹	0.54***	0.33 ^{ns}	-0.49**	0.72***	-0.77***
Unfertilized	0.44**	0.24 ^{ns}	-0.32 ^{ns}	0.76***	-0.57***
Compacted					
NPK, 140 kg N ha ⁻¹	0.64***	0.48**	-0.22 ^{ns}	0.41*	0
CS, 189 kg N ha ⁻¹	0.23 ^{ns}	-0.55**	-0.14 ^{ns}	0.21 ^{ns}	0
CS, 81 kg N ha ⁻¹	0.58***	0	-0.14 ^{ns}	0.54***	0
Unfertilized	0.60***	0.56***	0.22 ^{ns}	0.63***	0

*Significant at 5% level; **significant at 1% level; ***significant at 0.1% level.

†Numbers of observations behind each correlation coefficient are 33-36.

‡N₂O-emission = ln N₂O emission; soil-N₂O = ln N₂O concentration 7-12 cm in soil air; Soil-CO₂ ± CO₂ concentration 7-12 cm in soil air; air-filled porosity = % air of soil volume 7-11 cm in soil.

§NPK = NPK fertilizer; CS = cattle slurry.

^{ns}Non-significant.Table 4. Measured concentrations of N₂O in chambers after 3 h, expressed as a percentage of the concentrations measured in soil air. Frequency distribution of all measurements in the period 4 June-July

Chamber concentration in % of soil air concentration	Relative frequency
0.01	0.33
0.5-2.5	0.41
2.4-12.5	0.18
12.5-62.5	0.06
62.5-125	0.02

There was no significant difference between fertilization with NH₄NO₃ or that with cattle slurry. Neither did the amount of cattle slurry added affect the CH₄ uptake significantly. There was no interaction between fertilizers and soil compaction with respect to CH₄ uptake.

Both CH₄ uptake and CH₄ concentration in soil air varied throughout the growing season ($P < 0.01$), but there was no significant correlation between these two parameters.

In three of the fertilizer treatments (NPK, CS 189 and unfertilized), CH₄ concentrations and fluxes were lower in compacted than in uncompacted soil.

In the CS 81 treatment, compacted soil had lower fluxes and much higher concentrations than those in uncompacted soil (Fig. 3).

Favourable conditions for N₂O production are unfavourable for CH₄ oxidation and a negative correlation between these two processes was expected. No clear correlation between CH₄ uptake or CH₄ concentration in soil air and N₂O emission or concentration in soil air was found, however (Table 5). The CH₄ concentration in soil air was negatively correlated with CO₂ concentration in soil air (Table 5), but there was no correlation between CO₂ concentration in soil air and CH₄ uptake in the soil.

DISCUSSION

N₂O emission and soil air concentration

Our estimated N₂O emissions (corresponding to 1-5% of added mineral N, Fig. 2, Table 2) are large compared with results reported in the review by Eichner (1990) where N₂O emissions corresponding to 0.01-1.7%, or 4.4-174.5 mg daily N₂O-N kg⁻¹ added NH₄NO₃-N are reported. The large N₂O emissions found in our study can probably be explained by the extremely high precipitation together

Table 5. Correlation between uptake and soil air concentration of CH₄, N₂O emission and N₂O and CO₂ concentration in soil air (Pearson correlation coefficients)†

Treatments	CH ₄ -uptake‡		Soil-CH ₄		
	N ₂ O-flux	Soil-N ₂ O	N ₂ O-flux	Soil-N ₂ O	Soil-CO ₂
Uncompacted					
NPK, 140 kg N ha ⁻¹ §	0	0.37*	0.06 ^{ns}	0.41*	-0.73***
CS, 189 kg N ha ⁻¹	-0.37*	0	0.29 ^{ns}	-0.20 ^{ns}	-0.47**
CS, 81 kg N ha ⁻¹	0	0.11 ^{ns}	0	-0.25 ^{ns}	-0.53***
Unfertilized	0	0	0	-0.51**	-0.76***
Compacted					
NPK, 140 kg N ha ⁻¹	0.35*	0.44**	0.17 ^{ns}	0.31 ^{ns}	-0.49**
CS, 189 kg N ha ⁻¹	0.13 ^{ns}	0.39*	0.44**	0	-0.47**
CS, 81 kg N ha ⁻¹	0.26 ^{ns}	0.12 ^{ns}	-0.26 ^{ns}	0	0.29 ^{ns}
Unfertilized	-0.17 ^{ns}	0.22 ^{ns}	-0.21 ^{ns}	-0.38*	-0.53***

*Significant at 5% level; **significant at 1% level; ***significant at 0.1% level.

†Numbers of observations behind each correlation coefficient are 33-36.

‡CH₄-flux = CH₄ uptake; Soil-CH₄ = CH₄ concentration 7-12 cm in soil air.

§NPK = NPK fertilizer; CS = cattle slurry.

^{ns}Non-significant.

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with soil conditions that preclude efficient draining of the topsoil. As a result of abrupt textural change between the top layer and the gravelly subsoil, there is poor capillary contact to deeper soil layers and the soil moisture tension has to reach a relatively low level (pF 1.5–2) before draining to the gravel layer can begin. Thus the water will not drain out during long periods of rain and the water content in the soil will remain high. From 15 to 22 June there was 107 mm rain and the soil was already wet in advance of this rain [water-filled pore space (WFPS) in compacted soil was 81 and 73% in uncompacted soil]. Throughout this rainy period the water-filled pore space increased further and air-filled porosity in the soil decreased (Fig. 1). Even in uncompacted soil, air-filled porosity decreased to <10%.

Because of the high water content in the soil and the weak structure in this sandy loam, the soil structure is easily deteriorated by soil compaction. Thus the tractor traffic on the compacted soils has probably caused greater damage on the soil structure and more anaerobic conditions than similar compaction would do in most areas with similar agricultural practises. We observed that soil compaction resulted in reduced air-filled porosity (Fig. 1) and increased CO_2 concentration in soil air (Fig. 2). In addition, Hansen (unpubl. data) demonstrated a decreased number of earthworms as a result of the compaction. The low air-filled porosity and high CO_2 concentrations in compacted soil indicate retarded diffusion through the upper soil layer. The CO_2 concentrations were particularly high in the treatments fertilized with 140 kg $\text{NH}_4\text{NO}_3\text{-N}$ or 189 kg N in cattle slurry (Fig. 2). The same treatments had a very low N_2O emission: N_2O gradient ratio (Table 2).

As reviewed by Davidson (1991), denitrification becomes increasingly important as a source of N_2O when WFPS exceeds 60%. In our experiment the mean WFPS (10 June–8 July) was 82% in compacted soils. Fertilization with $\text{NO}_3\text{-N}$ in compacted soil would therefore easily cause N_2O release by denitrification. The high peaks in N_2O concentration in soil air that were found when soil compaction and NH_4NO_3 fertilization were combined (Fig. 2) are probably due to high denitrification rates. N_2O emission caused by nitrification has probably played a minor role in our investigation because of the high moisture content in the soil. According to Davidson (1991), 30–70% WFPS is an optimal range for nitrification; in our study WFPS varied between 68 and 93%.

Considering the high WFPS values in our soil, a significant fraction of the N lost through denitrification will probably end up as N_2 (Davidson, 1991). Thus, measured N_2O -emissions (Table 2) probably constitute only a portion of nitrogen loss caused by denitrification. In a previous study in the same experimental field Hansen and Bakken (unpubl. data) estimated that nitrogen loss by denitrification during

the first 2 weeks after fertilization with 126 kg $\text{NH}_4\text{NO}_3\text{-N ha}^{-1}$ was increased by about 50 kg N ha^{-1} as a result of compaction. Nitrogen losses caused by denitrification are also reported elsewhere and the potential losses are large. von Rheinbaben (1990) refers to denitrification estimates by the ^{15}N balance and acetylene inhibition methods ranging from 0 to 77% of total fertilizer N. With the help of the acetylene method, Colbourn *et al.* (1984) found a denitrification potential of 320–390 g N $\text{ha}^{-1} \text{d}^{-1}$ kg $^{-1}$ applied $\text{NO}_3\text{-N}$ in field and laboratory experiments.

In compacted soil fertilized with cattle slurry the denitrification rate is likely to increase throughout the growth period. This is indicated by increasing N_2O emissions towards the end of the examination period in these treatments (Fig. 2). Organic material and $\text{NO}_3\text{-N}$ from nitrification of $\text{NH}_4\text{-N}$ in the cattle slurry are available, and at the same time the air content in the compacted soil is very low. In uncompacted soil, the risk of denitrification towards the autumn is much less. The plants grow better, more NO_3 is taken up by the crop and more oxygen is available.

Source of error in the N_2O emission estimates

The use of an average value for atmospheric N_2O concentration as a starting concentration for each cylinder (time zero) creates some uncertainty in flux estimates. The variability of atmospheric background was quite large; the SD being $0.1 \mu\text{l l}^{-1}$. An error of $0.1 \mu\text{l l}^{-1}$ in estimated N_2O accumulation during a 3 h incubation period is equivalent to a flux error of $0.2 \text{ mg N}_2\text{O-N m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$. This is equivalent to $7 \text{ mg N}_2\text{O-N m}^{-2}$ for the whole 35-day period of our measurements, which probably represents the maximum error due to the uncertainty in the initial concentrations. This uncertainty is equivalent to 12–13% of the total estimated emission in unfertilized treatments and <4% in the fertilized ones.

As most measurements in the present investigation were carried out around noon, diurnal variation and temperature increase could theoretically cause erroneously high N_2O emissions (Denmead *et al.*, 1979; Ryden *et al.*, 1978). The total N_2O flux values are probably not seriously affected. This is because of the reflecting surface of the soil cover chambers (Bakken *et al.*, 1987), and because most of the measured N_2O release took place in periods with cloudy weather (Blackmer *et al.*, 1982).

CH_4 uptake and concentration in soil air

Our estimates of CH_4 uptake in agricultural soil are in the same order of magnitude as the estimates of Mosier *et al.* (1991). The decrease in CH_4 uptake caused by fertilization is probably an effect of nitrogen (Fig. 2, Table 2). This is in agreement with the findings of Mosier *et al.* (1991), Steudler *et al.* (1989) and has been attributed to concentration of NH_4^+ in the soil (Bedard and Knowles, 1989). NH_4^+

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and CH₄ apparently compete for the same active site on the monooxygenases, the enzymes catalyzing the first oxidation step of CH₄ and NH₄⁺ in methanotrophs and nitrifiers (Bedard and Knowles, 1989). Jones and Morita (1983) found that a concentration level of NH₄-N or NO₃-N of 10 µl l⁻¹ increased the CH₄ oxidation by ammonia oxidizers (*Nitrosomonas europaea*, *Nitrosococcus oceanus*). Increasing concentrations of NH₄-N above this level (50 and 100 µl l⁻¹) decreased CH₄ oxidation, but CH₄ oxidation was not influenced by a similar increase in NO₃-N concentration.

In our study the mineral N concentrations in the soil were not determined during the growing season 1991, but earlier observations of NH₄-N concentrations in the same field experiment showed a range of NH₄-N concentration in the soil from 2 to 15 µg g⁻¹ dry wt (three measurements yearly in 5 previous years, unpubl.). Fertilization seemed to increase the amount of NH₄-N in the soil only slightly (average increase = 0.5 µg g⁻¹ dry wt, max registered increase = 6.4 µg g⁻¹ dry wt). We neither know the reactions of nitrifiers in this range, nor how methanotrophs would respond to increasing NH₄-N concentrations, but the slight differences in concentrations of NH₄-N suggest that the inhibiting effect of fertilization on CH₄ uptake cannot only be due to the NH₄-N concentration in the soil. On the other hand a bulk measurement of NH₄-N in the soil might be very different from the NH₃ actually available in the active site of the monooxygenases in nitrifiers and methanotrophs. Measured nitrification would be a much better measurement of ammonia available for nitrifiers and methanotrophs. Mosier *et al.* (1991) suggested that it is the N turnover rate (mineralization and nitrification) rather than the mineral N content that influences the CH₄ oxidation.

The reduction in CH₄ uptake caused by soil compaction (Fig. 2, Table 2) is probably attributable to retarded diffusion. This explanation is supported by the fact that soil compaction reduced the soil air concentration as well as the flux. The only exception to this pattern was CS 81 kg N ha⁻¹.

The lack of correlation between CH₄ uptake and N₂O emission (Table 5) is in contrast to the results of Mosier *et al.* (1991), who found that N₂O emissions from the soils were inversely related to CH₄ uptake. We had a very high moisture content and consequently low air-filled porosity during the whole period of measurement. Our results would probably have been different if we had measured flux over a large range of soil moisture contents.

To summarize, soil compaction and fertilization had an effect on both N₂O and CH₄ flux. The accumulated N₂O emission from the NPK-fertilized treatment corresponded to 5.3% of added NH₄NO₃-N in compacted soil, and 3.9% in uncompacted soil. Fertilization with cattle slurry equivalent to 81 kg total N ha⁻¹ gave an N₂O emission corresponding to 3.1% of added NH₄-N in uncompacted soil, and

2.7% in compacted soil. Fertilization with cattle slurry equivalent to 189 kg total N ha⁻¹, gave a N₂O emission of 1.9% of added NH₄-N in uncompacted soil, and 1.4% in compacted soil. Increasing levels of cattle slurry resulted in a reduction in N₂O emission per kg NH₄-N added. The CH₄ uptake in the soil, ranging from 1 to 10 mg CH₄ m⁻², was reduced by 52% by soil compaction, 50% on average by fertilization and 78% by a combination of soil compaction and fertilization. Fertilization with NH₄NO₃ or cattle slurry had a similar effect on CH₄ uptake.

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