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Geoderma Regional

DOI:

[10.1016/j.geodrs.2024.e00791](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.geodrs.2024.e00791)

Published: 01/06/2024

Peer reviewed version

[Cyswllt i'r cyhoeddiad / Link to publication](#)

Dyfyniad o'r fersiwn a gyhoeddwyd / Citation for published version (APA):

Langley-Randall, J., Jones, D. L., Cotton, J., Williams, J. R., & Chadwick, D. R. (2024). Slurry acidification is as effective as slurry injection at reducing ammonia emissions without increasing N₂O emissions: A short-term mesocosm study. *Geoderma Regional*, 37, Article 00791. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.geodrs.2024.e00791>

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1 Slurry acidification is as effective as slurry injection at reducing ammonia
2 emissions without increasing N₂O emissions: a short-term mesocosm study

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9 Abstract

10 Agriculture accounts for 90% of UK ammonia (NH₃) emissions, which must decrease to
11 achieve legally-binding reductions of 16% by 2030. Slurry acidification abates NH₃
12 throughout the slurry management chain, yet is not currently used in the UK. Two mesocosm-
13 scale experiments assess the potential for slurry acidification to reduce NH₃ emissions at
14 application and measure impacts on NH₃ emissions and short-term changes to soil mineral
15 dynamics and N₂O emissions. Experiment 1 determined the impacts of acidified cattle slurry
16 (pH 6.5, 5.5, and 4.8) to conventional (non-acidified) slurry when simulating surface
17 broadcasting. Experiment 2 assessed the impact of conventional and acidified slurry (pH 5.5)
18 using simulated surface broadcasting and shallow injection of cattle slurry.

19 Acidification significantly abated NH₃ (% of NH₄-N applied) from 61.6% for conventional
20 slurry to 26.6% at pH 5.5, and 2.5% at pH 4.8. Acidified surface broadcast was as effective at
21 abating NH₃ emissions to injected conventional slurry, and also delayed nitrification, while not
22 significantly altering N₂O emissions from conventional slurry. These results indicate slurry
23 acidification could be used for the UK reach the NH₃ reduction target and exceed the current
24 abatement potential through combining low emissions spreading techniques with acidification.

25 Keywords

26 Cambisol, Inceptisol, Ammonium, Nitrate, Agriculture

27 1 Introduction

28 Slurry acidification, the process of adding concentrated acid to slurry (Fangueiro et al., 2015a),
29 is commercially used in Denmark as a Best Available Technique to abate NH₃ emissions
30 (Thiermann and Latacz-Lohmann, 2022). The reduction of NH₃ emissions following
31 acidification has been the subject of studies at all stages of the slurry management chain,

32 validating the principle of shifting the dominance of total ammoniacal N in slurry to NH_4^+ with
33 very clear outcomes, as well as additional benefits including the reduction of methane
34 emissions (Bastami et al., 2016, Misselbrook et al., 2016). However, slurry type, target pH and
35 soil type all contribute to the extent acidification reduces NH_3 emissions at land spreading. For
36 example, a previous study reported that at pH 7.0, 23% of applied $\text{NH}_4\text{-N}$ for cattle slurry was
37 lost through volatilisation over the first three days following application, which was reduced
38 by 95% when acidified to pH 5.5 (Stevens et al., 1989). While another study found that
39 acidifying cattle slurry to pH 6.5 resulted in 20% of $\text{NH}_4\text{-N}$ applied emitted volatilised as NH_3 ,
40 which was reduced to 6.6% of applied $\text{NH}_4\text{-N}$ at pH 6.0, over the first four days (Seidel et al.,
41 2017).

42 Comparison of acidification to other land spreading NH_3 abatement technologies are not
43 common. However, one Mediterranean based study (Fangueiro et al., 2018) reported that
44 surface broadcasting of acidified slurry was found to have reduced NH_3 emissions by similar
45 amounts to slurry injection of the conventional (non-acidified) treatment (Fangueiro et al.,
46 2018). Similarly acidified band spread slurry has been found to abate a comparable quantity of
47 NH_3 losses to a conventional slurry that was injected (Fangueiro et al., 2018). If NH_3 mitigation
48 is the sole reason for using low trajectory slurry spreading methods, then the potential to surface
49 broadcast acidified slurry to mitigate NH_3 emissions to the same extent, is potentially a lower
50 cost technology for farmers, and could be explored as an alternative. However, there are other
51 benefits of shallow injection and trailing hose slurry application methods, including more
52 uniform nutrient distribution (Maguire et al., 2011), and reduced contamination of grass with
53 slurry (Rodhe and Halling, 2015), that need to be considered.

54 There is also an increased risk of N pollution swapping from adopting NH_3 mitigation practices,
55 and especially the release of nitrous oxide (N_2O), a greenhouse gas approximately 300 times
56 more potent than CO_2 (IPCC, 2021). The latter has been reported to increase following the
57 injection of slurry, when compared to surface broadcast, due to the formation of anaerobic
58 nutrient “hot-spots” around injection slots (Wagner et al., 2021; Grosz et al., 2022). The main
59 factors controlling N_2O emissions are the amount of $\text{NO}_3\text{-N}$ (that arises following nitrification
60 of the slurry $\text{NH}_4\text{-N}$) and soluble organic C for denitrification, both of which are impacted by
61 acidification (Duncan et al., 2017), and soil moisture content. The timing of N_2O peaks from
62 soil have been found to vary as a result of slurry acidification (Malique et al., 2021). An initial
63 peak of N_2O following the application of acidified slurry has been found to be more intense
64 than the second peak, with the latter often coinciding with a plateauing of soil NO_3^-

65 concentration and indicating the ceasing of nitrification (Park et al., 2017). A lag in N₂O
66 emissions have been observed in a number of studies where acidification has delayed or
67 reduced the initial release of N₂O indicating an inhibitory effect on nitrification and/or
68 denitrification (Fangueiro et al., 2018; Gómez-Muñoz et al., 2016; Park et al., 2017).

69 Slurry application technique has been found to impact the N₂O emissions as a result of creating
70 anaerobic hotspots within the soil profile, favouring denitrification (Chadwick et al., 2011;
71 Fangueiro et al., 2017; Park et al., 2017). A study (Fangueiro et al., 2015b) reported that both
72 injection, and slurry acidification combined with incorporation, increased N₂O emissions,
73 while surface broadcast slurry emitted the lowest levels N₂O (Gómez-Muñoz et al., 2016).
74 However, in terms of total N losses (NH₃+N₂O+NO₃ leaching), slurry injection has been found
75 to be most effective means of application to retain slurry N within the soil, with acidified slurry
76 found to be more effective than conventional slurry (Fangueiro et al., 2015b). This was
77 confirmed in a later publication where acidified band spread slurry was found to have similar
78 N losses (NH₃ and N₂O combined) to slurry injection, and was 92% lower than non-acidified
79 band spread slurry (Fangueiro et al., 2018).

80 Given the majority of previous work has been carried out in Mediterranean soils and climate,
81 this study aimed to assess the impact of both slurry pH and application technique on short-term
82 NH₃ and N₂O emissions in a typical UK grassland soil. Soil mineral N dynamics were also
83 measured to help understand the patterns of gaseous emissions observed. The results would
84 provide an indication of the abatement potential for the use of acidification with surface
85 broadcast slurry as an NH₃ emission mitigation approach, compared to other BAT methods
86 (e.g. shallow injection), whilst exploring any potential co-benefits or trade-offs of NH₃
87 mitigation on N₂O losses. The study also aimed to provide information on any additional gains
88 in combining low emissions application techniques with slurry acidification.

89 Two experiments were established to address the following hypotheses: i) the lowest slurry pH
90 will retain the most slurry N in the soil and be most effective in reducing NH₃ emissions, ii)
91 surface broadcasting of acidified slurry will be as effective as shallow injection of conventional
92 slurry at reducing NH₃ emissions, iii) slurry injection will out-perform surface broadcast in
93 terms of retaining greater levels of slurry-N, and iv) application of acidified slurry will result
94 in lower short-term N₂O emissions compared to conventional slurry regardless of application
95 method.

96 Hypotheses i) and iv) are addressed in experiment one, while hypotheses ii), iii) and iv) are
97 addressed in experiment two. The two mesocosm-scale experiments used a bench-top NH₃
98 emissions measurement system to capture NH₃ emissions and measure N₂O emissions from
99 the emitting surface of intact grassland soil cores over a minimum of 2 weeks.

100 2 Methods

101 2.1 Ammonia desktop system (DAVoS design)

102 A desktop ammonia volatilisation system (DAVoS) was constructed (Supplementary
103 Information), consisting of 12 chambers (Misselbrook et al., 2005), and situated in a
104 temperature controlled laboratory operating at 18°C. Briefly, acid traps containing 200 ml
105 0.0125 ml H₃PO₄ were located either side of an air tight chamber with a vacuum pump drawing
106 NH₃-free ambient air through all chambers at a rate of 3 L min⁻¹, with any emitted NH₃ from
107 each chamber being captured in the acid trap between the chamber and vacuum pump. Each
108 chamber lid had a permanent silicone suba-seal inserted to allow N₂O sampling, via needle and
109 syringe, when valves controlling the inlet and outlet air flows on either side of the chamber had
110 been closed.

111 Prior to initiating the experiments, recovery tests (Misselbrook et al., 2005) were performed to
112 measure system efficiency at capturing emitted NH₃. This involved placing a petri-dish
113 containing 20 ml NH₄SO₄ (2g/L N) in each chamber. The pH of the solution was raised by
114 adding, through injection via the suba-seal, 1ml of 1M sodium bicarbonate to stimulate
115 volatilisation. Following 4 hours of operation at 3 L min⁻¹, 1 ml of 2M H₂SO₄ was added to
116 cease volatilisation. The NH₃ in the acid traps and the contents of the petri dish was analysed
117 colorimetrically for NH₄-N content. The average recovery following 1 trap change at 4 hours
118 across all chambers was 94 % (± 1.8 %), which was deemed close enough to represent 100%
119 of the losses without the need to use a correction factor.

120 2.2 Experimental design

121 Intact soil cores (0-15 cm) were collected from three discrete areas of a 26 month old Italian
122 ryegrass grass ley which had received 50 kg N ha⁻¹ of ammonium nitrate six months prior to
123 sampling (Henfaes Research Station, North Wales 53°14'21.3 N, 4°0'50.3 W; 10 m above sea
124 level). These were used as replicates for each slurry treatment (n=3). The soil is characterised
125 as a free-draining Eutric Cambisol with a sandy clay loam texture. Prior to initiating each
126 experiment, soil cores were acclimatised at 60% water filled pore space for a week before a
127 single RhizonTM sampler was inserted to a depth of 9 cm to enable sampling of soil solution.

128 Vegetation was cut to 5 cm from the top of the core prior to application of slurry to replicate a
129 post-cut slurry application.

130 For each experiment slurry was collected from an aboveground slurry store located on a dairy
131 farm (Abergwyngregyn, North Wales, 53°23'52.0 N, 4°02'18.5 W) and applied at an
132 equivalent application rate of 40 m³ ha⁻¹. Following application the slurry composition of each
133 slurry treatment was analysed at a commercial laboratory (NRM laboratories, Cawood
134 Scientific Ltd., Bracknell, UK) and slurry pH was measured in the Bangor University
135 laboratory immediately after application.

136 At the conclusion of experiments, soil cores were divided into two soil layers (0-7.5cm and
137 7.5-15cm) and destructively sampled with the entire section of core combined. Each layer was
138 analysed for soil pH and EC (1:2.5 DiH₂O w/v), and extractable NH₄-N and NO₃-N, using 1:5
139 (w/v) K₂SO₄ extractions for colorimetric analysis (Mulvaney, 1996; Miranda et al., 2001).

140 2.3 Experiment 1 – Effect of slurry pH on NH₃ and N₂O emissions

141 The impact of adjusting slurry pH, compared to a conventional unamended slurry, was
142 measured on short-term NH₃ and N₂O emissions after application to soil. 20 L of slurry was
143 homogenised by hand using a paddle, divided into 4 separate 5 L containers, and acidified to
144 the target pH's, 4.5, 5.5, and 6.5, using 96% H₂SO₄ (Sigma-Aldrich, UK), as well as a
145 conventional slurry (pH 7.5) treatment (Table 2). Each slurry treatment was applied to the
146 surface of each core (simulated surface broadcast) (n=3), and the cores were immediately
147 inserted into the DAVoS. Sampling of N₂O and NH₃ emissions was carried out : 0 hour, 1 hour,
148 24 hour, 27 hour, and then daily on day 2, 3, 4, 5, 7, 8, 9, 11, 14. The N₂O sampling continued
149 at regular intervals throughout the rest of the experiment (day 15, 18, 23, 27, 32, 34, 41, 77,
150 83, 94, and 109). The N₂O emission measurements continued for >3 months to ensure the
151 majority of the emission 'envelope' was accounted for (Vangeli et al., 2022).

152 2.4 Experiment 2 – Effect of slurry application method and slurry pH on NH₃ and N₂O 153 emissions

154 Experiment 2 was established to assess the effect of slurry application method and slurry pH
155 on short-term NH₃ and N₂O emissions. 10 L of slurry was homogenised by hand using a paddle
156 and divided into two 5 L containers. The slurry in one was acidified to pH 5.5, using 96%
157 H₂SO₄ (Sigma-Aldrich, UK), with the other remaining as conventional slurry. The 4
158 experimental treatments were: acidified surface broadcast, acidified injection, conventional
159 surface broadcast, conventional injection. Both acidified and conventional slurry injection

160 simulated shallow injection with open slots created in the centre of the soil core 50 mm deep.
161 NH₃ emissions, N₂O emissions and soil solution sampling were carried out over a 2 week
162 period on this occasion (0 hour, 1 hour, 6 hour, 24 hour, 30 hour, and then days: 2, 3, 4, 5, 9,
163 10, 11, 14) to capture the initial ‘envelope’ of gaseous N loss (Grosz et al., 2022). This provided
164 the opportunity to understand short-term changes to N forms, and support the findings from
165 Experiment 1.

166 2.5 Analytical methods

167 2.5.1 Sample analysis

168 At each sample point, the exhaust acid trap was analysed using colorimetric determination of
169 NH₄-N concentration (Mulvaney, 1996). The mass of NH₃-N emitted during a sampling period
170 was then calculated by multiplying the NH₄-N concentration by the volume of H₃PO₄ in each
171 acid trap (Misselbrook et al., 2005).

172 Soil solution samples were collected in 9 ml Vacutest[®] vials attached to the Rhizon samplers
173 and analysed for NH₄-N and NO₃-N using colorimetric methods (Miranda et al., 2001;
174 Mulvaney, 1996).

175 2.5.2 Nitrous oxide analysis

176 Gas samples were taken from the headspace (0.5 litres) using a needle and 20 ml syringe and
177 injected into a pre-evacuated 20 ml glass vial. A headspace gas sample was taken at 0 minutes
178 and 40 minutes, with three chambers randomly selected at each sample point for additional
179 sampling to check the linearity of N₂O concentration accumulation in the headspace (with
180 samples taken at T0, T10, T20, T30 and T40). Linearity samples were analysed, with emissions
181 found to be linear on 56% of occasions when accepted at R²>0.95, and 70% of occasions when
182 accepting at R²>0.9 in experiment 1, and 72% of occasions at R²>0.95, and 81% of occasions
183 at R²>0.9 in experiment 2. The majority of occasions where linearity was not met was during
184 periods of low flux, similar to the findings of others (Cardenas et al., 2016; Marsden et al.,
185 2016).

186 N₂O analysis was carried out on a Perkin Elmer 580 Gas Chromatograph (GC) equipped with
187 an ECD, with a Turbo Matrix 110 auto sampler (Perkin Elmer Inc., Beverly, CT, USA).

188 2.5.3 Data Processing

189 Replicate cores were taken from the same sites as experimental cores, dried at 105°C, with bulk
190 density subsequently calculated from the volume of the core. The calculations to convert

191 gravimetric soil moisture content into % WFPS used bulk density measurements and a particle
192 density of 2.65 g cm⁻³ (Louro et al., 2013). Dionised water was added on a weekly basis to
193 adjust for moisture loss over the period (this also accounted for the removal of water via the
194 Rhizon samplers) to maintain the target 60% WFPS.

195 2.5.4 Method for calculating NH₃ fluxes and cumulative emissions

196 NH₃ fluxes were calculated based on the acid trap NH₄-N concentration data and trap volume,
197 as outlined above. Cumulative NH₃-N emissions were then calculated by summing the mass
198 trapped on consecutive sampling dates. This then allowed for percentages to be calculated for
199 the quantity of N lost in terms of total N applied and total NH₄-N applied.

200 2.5.5 Method for calculating N₂O fluxes and cumulative emissions

201 N₂O cumulative emission fluxes were calculated based on the trapezoidal integration method
202 (Cardenas et al., 2016). As a control receiving no treatment was absent from the study, it was
203 not possible to calculate true emissions factors that are comparable to the IPCC standards.
204 Instead, N₂O losses were calculated as a percentage of N applied lost as N₂O.

205 2.6 Statistical analysis

206 Throughout both experiments, statistical analysis was performed using R v. 4.1717 (R core
207 team, 2016) where a significance level of $p < 0.05$ was accepted as significant. Where data
208 were deemed normal, linear models were used and were then subjected to an ANOVA (R core
209 team, 2016). If significant differences were found “lsmeans” (Lenth, 2017) was used to carry
210 out Tukey post-hoc tests. Where data failed to meet normality assumptions data was log
211 transformed, and if normality was still not met a non-parametric Kruskal-Wallis test (R core
212 team, 2016) was performed. One-way ANOVAs (R core team, 2016) were carried out on single
213 time point data including cumulative totals at the end of the experimental period. All results
214 were graphical illustrated with “ggplot2” (Wickham, 2016).

215 3 Results

216 3.1 Soil properties

217 Analysis was carried out for soil used in both experiments (Table 1) with little variation found
218 between replicate sites.

219 **TABLE 1**

220 3.2 Slurry properties

221 Original slurry properties (conventional, non-acidified slurry) for Experiment 1 were typical of
222 those found in the UK, whilst those for Experiment 2 were found to have a low nutrient content,
223 especially TN, when compared to typical values for the dry matter content. For both
224 experiments, slurry acidification resulted in some loss of organic matter (Table 2). All other
225 properties remained similar with the exception of sulphur, which increased with the addition
226 of H₂SO₄.

227 **TABLE 2**

228 3.3 Experiment 1 – Effect of slurry pH on NH₃ and N₂O emissions

229 Slurry acidified to pH 4.5 clearly shows the lowest NH₃ emissions following surface
230 broadcasting of cattle slurry (Figure 1). A Kruskal-Wallis test was performed and showed
231 significant ($p < 0.05$) differences between cumulative NH₃-N loss and slurry pH treatments, and
232 sampling date.

233 **Figure 1**

234 Following log transformation and analysis, acidification (pH5.5) of cattle slurry was found to
235 significantly lower NH₃-N emissions (26.6% ± 7.24 NH₄-N applied, 9.25% ± 1.22, TN
236 applied) when compared to conventional slurry (61.6% ± 2.13 NH₄-N applied, 19.0% ± 0.33
237 TN applied). However acidification to pH 4.5 resulted in significantly lower cumulative NH₃-
238 N emissions than all other treatments (2.5% ± 0.20 NH₄-N applied, 0.8% ± 0.03 TN applied).

239 Figure 2 indicates that the greatest reduction in slurry pH reduces cumulative N₂O emissions
240 over the initial 24 days following application. However, once the delay in emissions has
241 elapsed, slurry acidified to pH 4.5 became the greatest emitter of N₂O. A Kruskal-Wallis test
242 was carried out, with a significant difference ($p < 0.05$) found when analysing cumulative N₂O
243 loss against time following application.

244 No significant differences were found between N₂O losses, as a percentage of total N applied
245 for each treatment, but slurry acidified to pH 4.5 was found to have a greater percentage loss
246 (0.13%) than other treatments (0.06-0.11%). This mirrors the findings shown in Figure 2, with
247 pH 4.5 resulting in the greatest cumulative loss of N₂O.

248 **Figure 2**

249 3.4 Experiment 2 – Effect of slurry application method and slurry pH on NH₃ and N₂O
250 emissions

251 After log transformation, acidification was found to significantly lower NH₃ emissions 1 hour
252 after application (Figure 3) regardless of application technique (Acidified Broadcast 3.4 ± 0.23
253 % of NH₄-N applied and Acidified Injected 3.1 ± 0.37 % of NH₄-N applied) compared to
254 Conventional Broadcast (11.4 ± 1.88 % of NH₄-N applied). Conventional Injected (4.6 ± 0.40
255 % of NH₄-N applied) also resulted in significantly lower NH₃-N losses than Conventional
256 Broadcast after 1 hour. No significant differences were found between Acidified Broadcast and
257 Conventional Broadcast, and Conventional Broadcast and Conventional Injected after day 11
258 ($p > 0.05$). Additionally, NH₃-N loss following application by Acidified Injected was found to
259 be significantly lower than Conventional Injection from hour 6 until the end of the experiment.
260 Cumulative NH₃-N loss, expressed as % total NH₄-N applied, highlighted that Acidified
261 Injected ($16.2\% \pm 1.40$) was significantly lower than Acidified Broadcast ($23.5\% \pm 1.35$),
262 Conventional Broadcast ($38.0\% \pm 2.86$) and Conventional Injected ($27.2\% \pm 1.88$), while
263 Acidified Broadcast ($23.5\% \pm 1.35$) was significantly different from Conventional Broadcast
264 ($38.0\% \pm 2.86$) when log transformed.

265 **Figure 3**

266 No significant differences were found when comparing N₂O flux data of acidified and
267 conventional slurry applied via surface broadcast and shallow injection over the 14-day period
268 experiment (Figure 4). Acidified Broadcast emitted the greatest cumulative quantity of N₂O
269 ($10.3 \pm 5.02 \mu\text{g N kg}^{-1}$) whilst Conventional Broadcast emitted the least ($3.7 \pm 2.23 \mu\text{g N kg}^{-1}$).
270 Both Acidified Injected ($5.4 \pm 2.06 \mu\text{g N kg}^{-1}$) and Conventional Injected ($5.8 \pm 2.43 \mu\text{g N}$
271 kg^{-1}) emitted similar quantities.

272 **Figure 4**

273 Given the short-term nature of the experiment, only partial N₂O losses as a percentage of total
274 N applied could be calculated given the potential for the longer-term nature of N₂O emissions.
275 The greatest percentage loss was found following the application of acidified broadcast slurry
276 (0.04%). However, all differences between treatments were found to be non-significant.

277 The greatest concentrations of soil solution NH₄-N were detected in the Acidified Injected
278 treatment, peaking at a mean of $19.9 \text{ mg NH}_4\text{-N l}^{-1}$ (± 12.4) (Figure 5 – panel a). Soil solution
279 NH₄-N concentrations in the Acidified Injected treatment were found to be significantly greater

280 ($p < 0.05$) than both conventional treatments (Conventional Broadcast and Conventional
281 Injected) until day eight, after which no significant differences were found between treatments.
282 Although greater concentrations of $\text{NH}_4\text{-N}$ were found to be present in the Acidified Broadcast
283 treatment (peaking at $3.1 \text{ mg NH}_4\text{-N l}^{-1} \pm 1.7$) compared to conventional slurry (CB 2.6 mg
284 $\text{NH}_4\text{-N l}^{-1} \pm 0.9$, CI $1.7 \text{ mg NH}_4\text{-N l}^{-1} \pm 1.4$), no significant differences were found.

285 **Figure 5**

286 Throughout the 14-day experimental period there were no differences between treatments for
287 soil solution concentrations of $\text{NO}_3\text{-N}$ (Figure 5 – panel b).

288 Acidified broadcast slurry had greater values of both K_2SO_4 extractable $\text{NH}_4\text{-N}$ and $\text{NO}_3\text{-N}$ at
289 the conclusion of the experiment in the top 7.5 cm of the soil core (Figure 6), but no significant
290 differences were found between treatments at 15 cm.

291 **Figure 6**

292 4 Discussion

293 The slurry used in both experiments were higher in dry matter than for typical UK cattle slurry
294 (6-8%) presented in RB209, the UK nutrient management guide. However, the nutrient content
295 was typical of slurries with a comparable dry matter content. In experiment 2, total Kjeldahl N
296 was an order of magnitude lower, explaining the lower overall NH_3 loss found when compared
297 to those found in experiment 1.

298 The results presented in experiment 1 support the findings of others (Fangueiro et al., 2015a;
299 Seidel et al., 2017) who report that acidification reduced NH_3 emissions following slurry
300 application in terms of percentage abated. However, based on $\text{NH}_4\text{-N}$ applied, the overall
301 quantity of NH_3 lost across all treatments was low when compared to other studies (Fangueiro
302 et al., 2017; Seidel et al., 2017; Stevens et al., 1989). A previous study reported that when cattle
303 slurry was acidified to pH 5.5, NH_3 loss was reduced by 95% compared to slurry at pH 7 within
304 three days after application (Stevens et al., 1989). However, in this experiment a similar scale
305 of reduction was only found between slurry at pH 7.4 and pH 4.5. This is likely a result of the
306 greater than average UK slurry dry matter used in this study (8.3 – 10.2% DM), reducing
307 infiltration and increasing the potential for volatilisation. In terms of NH_3 emissions, acidifying
308 to pH 5.5 reduced total N loss by 46%, and total $\text{NH}_4\text{-N}$ applied by 68% during the initial 14
309 days following application (Figure 1). Although not measured, the slurry used in this
310 experiment was thought to have a rapid buffering capacity, with marked NH_3 emissions

311 measured from pH 5.5 slurry from day 1 in both experiments (Figure 1 and Figure 3). Overall,
312 these results highlight the important contribution acidification could offer in terms of UK
313 agriculture delivering significant reductions in NH₃ emissions in order to reach a reduction in
314 total NH₃ emissions set out in the NECR (Defra, 2018).

315 Slurry acidification resulted in NH₃ emission reduction and greater retention of slurry NH₄-N
316 in the soil for longer (Figure 5). The findings presented in various studies (Fangueiro et al.,
317 2015b, 2017, 2018) suggests that acidification inhibits and delays nitrification. The influence
318 of acidification on delaying nitrification was seen to have the same effect regardless of the level
319 of acidity, with all acidified slurry treatments resulting in a similar delay to peak soil solution
320 NO₃-N concentration. By the end of the experiment soil extractable NH₄-N and NO₃-N
321 concentrations were not significantly different between treatments (Figure 6), which further
322 supports the short-term nature of any delays to nitrification. This initial increase in slurry NH₄-
323 N retention in the soil, without increasing soil solution or extractable soil NO₃-N
324 concentrations, indicates the increased fertiliser value of acidified slurry without evidence of
325 pollution swapping, but highlights the importance of applying slurry at an appropriate time for
326 maximum plant uptake.

327 Experiment 2 clearly shows the potential acidification has in reducing NH₃ emissions
328 regardless of application technique (Figure 3). The combination of both abatement methods,
329 acidification and injection, provided an insight to the potential maximum reduction in NH₃
330 abatement. Although the use of acidification would increase the economic burden on the
331 agricultural sector to reduce NH₃ loss, this experiment has shown the use of acidification would
332 be an effective means of reducing emissions. The reduction in NH₃-N loss was found to range
333 between 55-70% when comparing both acidified (pH 5.5) treatments to conventional surface
334 broadcasting of slurry, and acidified surface broadcasting of slurry was as effective at reducing
335 NH₃ emissions as slurry injection in this experiment. Acidification in combination with surface
336 broadcast and injection (Experiment 2) showed a reduction in total N loss of 29 and 50%, and
337 total NH₄-N loss of 39 and 58% respectively. This research clearly demonstrates how slurry
338 acidification is comparable to the current Best Available Techniques for NH₃ emission
339 reductions. Although the use of acidification in combination with surface broadcast would
340 make use of existing farm spreading equipment, it would not bring about other benefits from
341 injection or using as trailing shoe. These include reducing sward contamination (Rodhe and
342 Halling, 2015), and a more uniform distribution of nutrients (Maguire et al., 2011).

343 Current plans under UK policy is for all slurry to be spread using low emission techniques (HM
344 Government, 2018), similar to the precedent set in Denmark where surface broadcasting of
345 slurry has been banned since 2002 (Sommer and Knudsen, 2021). Experiment 2 outlines how
346 the combination of slurry acidification and low emission spreading techniques can be combined
347 to offer significantly lower NH_3 emissions, exceeding the abatement of slurry injection by
348 itself. The use of slurry acidification in-house also increases the abatement potential, while
349 eliminating the requirement to cover the slurry store (Defra, 2023). If UK government are to
350 pursue an abatement strategy that combines slurry placement e.g. band spreading, with in-field
351 acidification the change would cost approximately twice the amount, per m^{-2} applied, if
352 currently bandspread compared to currently surface broadcast. However, the combination of
353 low emission spreading techniques and acidification will maximise NH_3 abatement potential,
354 while maintaining the additional benefits of placement accuracy and reduced sward
355 contamination from low emission spreading techniques.

356 The results presented highlight the potential of acidification to increase the fertiliser value of
357 slurry as shown by the greater concentrations of soil solution NH_4^+ (Figure 6). Similar findings
358 are also presented in the literature (Bell et al., 2016; Fangueiro et al., 2016; Sánchez-Rodríguez
359 et al., 2018) where greater concentrations of soil $\text{NH}_4\text{-N}$ were also found following the
360 application of acidified slurry. However, given the short-term nature of these increases (7-21
361 days) it is essential that acidified slurry is applied during periods of active plant growth to
362 maximise benefits of greater concentrations of $\text{NH}_4\text{-N}$, and prevent N pollution swapping
363 (Chadwick et al., 2011; Bell et al., 2016). In a practical sense, this underlines the potential value
364 of slurry acidification for farmers in areas unsuitable for shallow injection, if similar results are
365 found on different soil types.

366 Given the potential of increased N_2O emissions, as a result of greater $\text{NH}_4\text{-N}$ concentrations
367 available for nitrification and denitrification following the application of acidified slurry and
368 injection of slurry, it was important to ensure that N pollution swapping does not occur. The
369 results of both experiments (Figs 2 and 4) corroborate studies by others whereby acidification
370 had no significant impact on N_2O emissions when compared to conventional slurry (Fangueiro
371 et al., 2015b, 2017; Seidel et al., 2017). When slurry was acidified, nitrification and
372 denitrification were potentially inhibited (as shown in Figs 2 and 4). Previously, injection has
373 been reported to lead to localised hotspots of nutrients and anaerobic conditions in the soil
374 profile resulting in greater N_2O emissions (Chadwick et al., 2011; Grosz and Kenmann, 2022;
375 Petersen and Sommer, 2011). This was not found in experiment 2 (Figure 5) where no

376 significant differences were found between both acidified and conventional slurry injection and
377 the surface broadcast equivalents. The N₂O losses reported were low but comparable to slurry
378 emission factors found by others (Bell et al., 2016), whereas the short-term nature of both
379 experiments meant that only partial N losses from N₂O could be produced. However, the
380 percentage losses of total N applied through N₂O emissions in both experiments show that
381 acidified treatments are marginally greater than non-acidified, albeit non-significant which has
382 been reported previously (Malique et al., 2021). This is of importance in terms of N pollution
383 swapping and the sustainable use of slurry acidification across the UK as a NH₃ abatement
384 strategy. However, further experimentation would be required on multiple soil types and at
385 field scale to fully understand the potential of N emissions following acidification.

386 5 Conclusions

387 The results of these two short-term experiments show the potential of slurry acidification to
388 reduce N loss through NH₃ emissions from a typical UK grassland soil, and provide a
389 percentage reduction similar to those found in European studies. The reduction of NH₃ loss
390 through combining slurry acidification and different slurry application techniques clearly
391 shows that acidification of cattle slurry applied through surface broadcast was comparable to
392 conventional slurry injection, and the extent in which combining techniques can exceed
393 abatement from low emissions spreading techniques alone. This has strong policy implications
394 by providing clear evidence of the performance of low emission slurry spreading practises
395 compared with a potential new technology for UK agriculture, i.e. slurry acidification.
396 Importantly combining slurry acidification with shallow injection demonstrates reduced NH₃
397 loss and increased NH₄-N availability without significantly increasing NO₃-N concentrations
398 and N₂O emissions. This was the same for slurry acidified to pH 4.5, but also for all acidified
399 treatments, showing the potential fertilizer benefits of acidification without increasing
400 pollution. Ultimately, the use of slurry acidification has beneficial impacts on retaining N
401 within a UK soil without leading to increased NO₃-N and N₂O.

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525 **Acknowledgements**

526 This study was funded as part of Defra project (number: SC0215).

527 **Competing interests**

528 The authors declare no competing interests.

529

530 Table 1

	Site 1	Site 2	Site 3
Bulk Density (g cm⁻³)	1.0 ±0.03	1.0±0.06	1.0±0.01
Organic Matter (%)	5.3±0.1	5.8±0.03	5.6±0.14
pH	6.4±0.08	6.4±0.1	6.7±0.06
EC (µS cm⁻¹)	41.3±12	32.1±7	29.7±10
Total N (mg N kg⁻¹)	3.8±0.2	3.5±0.5	3.6±0.3
Total C (mg C kg⁻¹)	32.2±6.5	28.9±4.2	30.6.±5.7
C:N ratio	8.5±0.4	8.3±0.3	8.5±0.5
Extractable NO₃⁻ (mg N kg⁻¹)	0.9±0.2	1.2±0.4	2.4±0.7
Extractable NH₄⁺ (mg N kg⁻¹)	2.4±0.6	12.0±2.1	3.5±1.1

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Table 1: Pre-application soil properties.

Multiple soil cores (N=3) were taken at each replicate sampling point and averaged with ± representing SEM. Data presented on a dry weight of soil basis.

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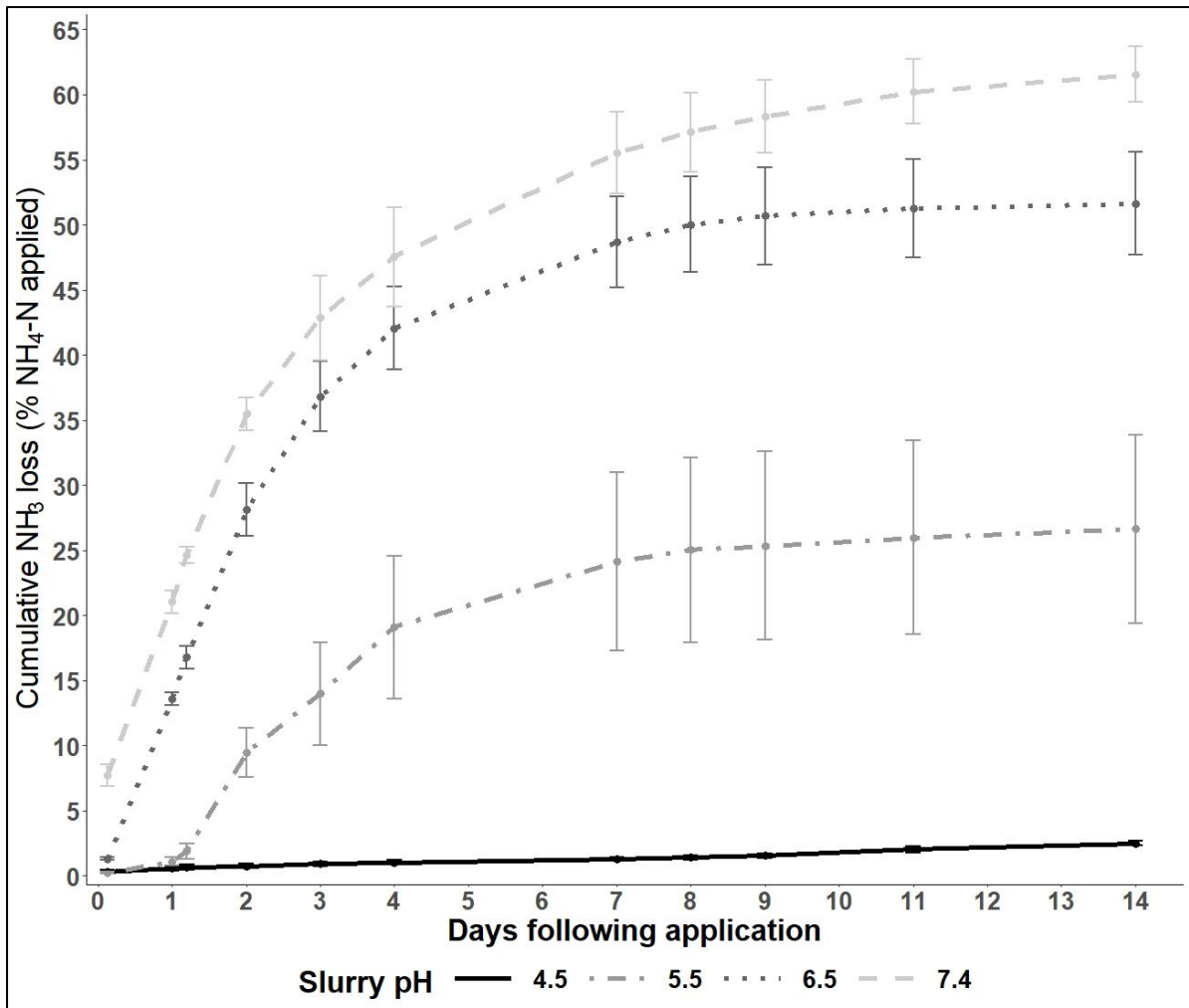
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	Unit	Experiment 1				Experiment 2	
		pH 4.5	pH 5.5	pH 6.5	pH 7.5	pH 5.5	pH 7.5
Oven Dry Solids	%	10.30	9.25	9.07	8.92	7.68	9.01
Total Kjeldahl N	% w/w	0.40	0.37	0.41	0.41	0.15	0.17
NH₄⁺-N	mg kg ⁻¹	1616	1654	1638	1626	498	490
Total Phosphorus	mg kg ⁻¹	625	621	609	629	384	381
Total Potassium	mg kg ⁻¹	2164	2185	2160	2245	1516	1535
Total Magnesium	mg kg ⁻¹	470	463	460	472	462	478
Total Copper	mg kg ⁻¹	2.91	2.84	2.72	2.78	2.52	2.57
Total Zinc	mg kg ⁻¹	15.6	13.6	14.1	16.1	12.5	13.2
Total Sulphur	mg kg ⁻¹	3638	1343	824	453	1126	259
Total Calcium	mg kg ⁻¹	1173	1127	1146	1204	1221	1291
Total Sodium	mg kg ⁻¹	599	600	588	610	291	296
pH at application		4.47	5.43	6.60	7.69	5.39	7.62
Acid requirement (ml 1M H ₂ SO ₄ 100 ml ⁻¹)		8.0	5.5	2.0	-	7.7	-

Table 2: Slurry characteristics of each treatment applied to cores.

Analysis was performed by NRM laboratories (Bracknell, UK) with the exception of pH which was measured in the Bangor University laboratory just after slurry treatment applications. n=1. Data are expressed on a fresh weight basis.

550 **Figure 1**



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Figure 1: Cumulative NH₃ loss after acidification to varying pH values.

Points show mean values and error bars represent ± SEM (n=3)

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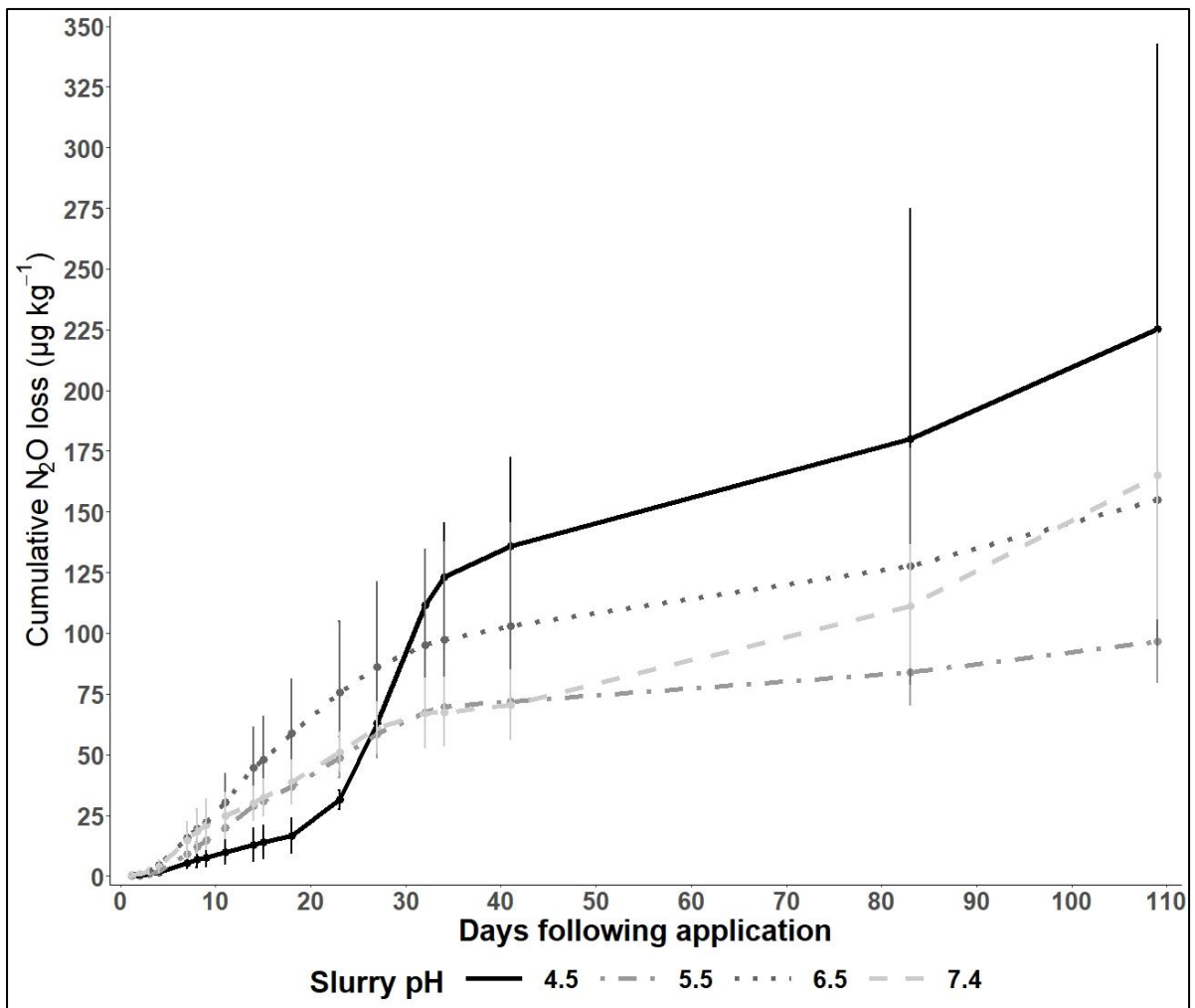
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562 **Figure 2**



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Figure 2: Cumulative N₂O loss after acidification slurry to varying pH.

Cumulative N₂O loss over the 109-day measurement period following application of slurry applied at four different pH with emissions displayed as mean for each treatment. Points show mean values and error bars represent SEM ± (n=3). Fluxes expressed on a soil dry weight basis.

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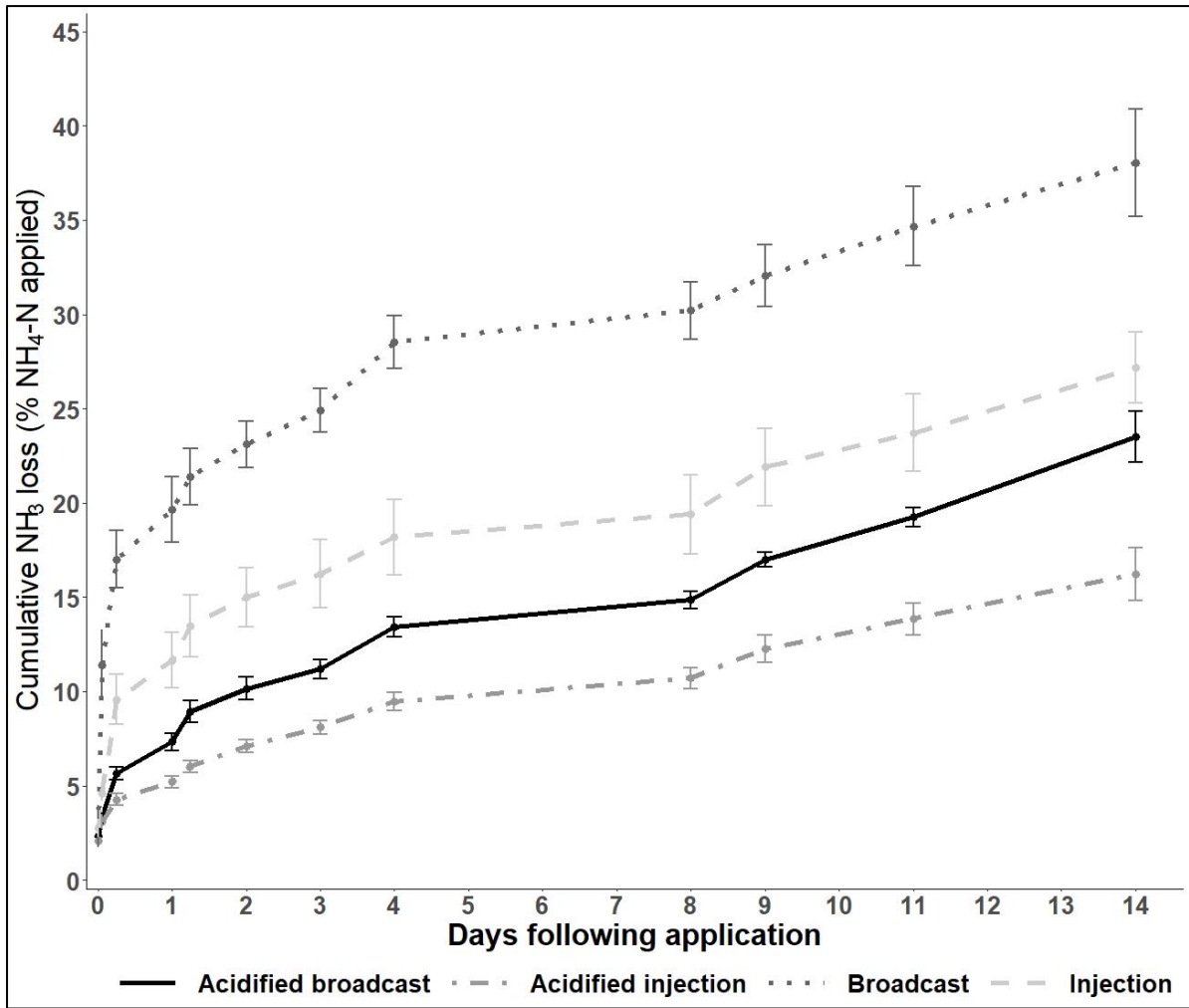
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574 **Figure 3**



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Figure 3: Cumulative ammonia loss after slurry acidification and different slurry application techniques.

Points show mean values and error bars represent ± SEM (N=3).

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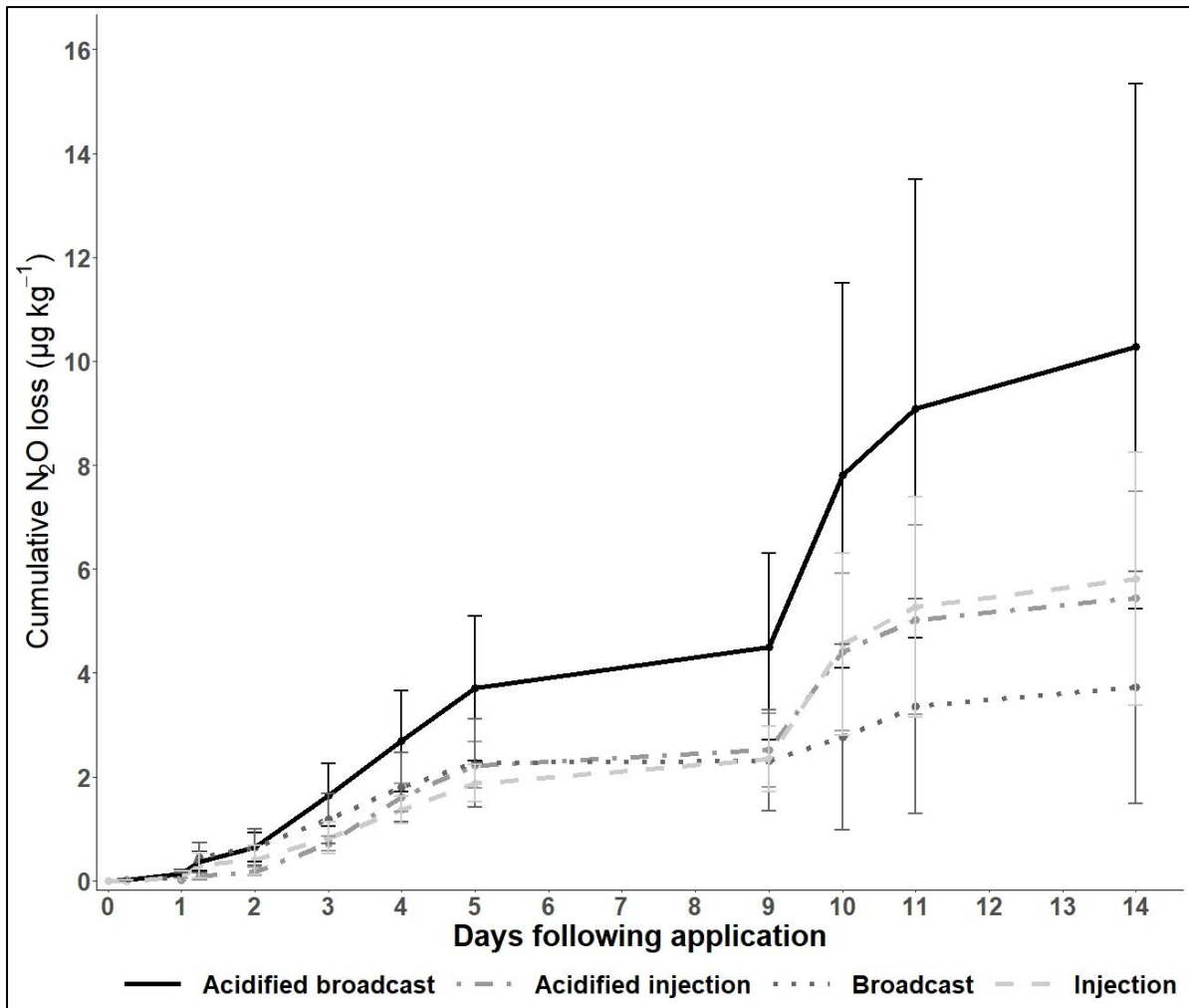
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585 **Figure 4**



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Figure 4: Cumulative N₂O loss after slurry acidification and different slurry application techniques.

Cumulative N₂O loss over the 14-day experiment following application of acidified (pH 5.5) and conventional slurry applied via surface broadcast and injection. Points show mean values and error bars represent ± SEM (n=3). Fluxes expressed on a soil dry weight basis.

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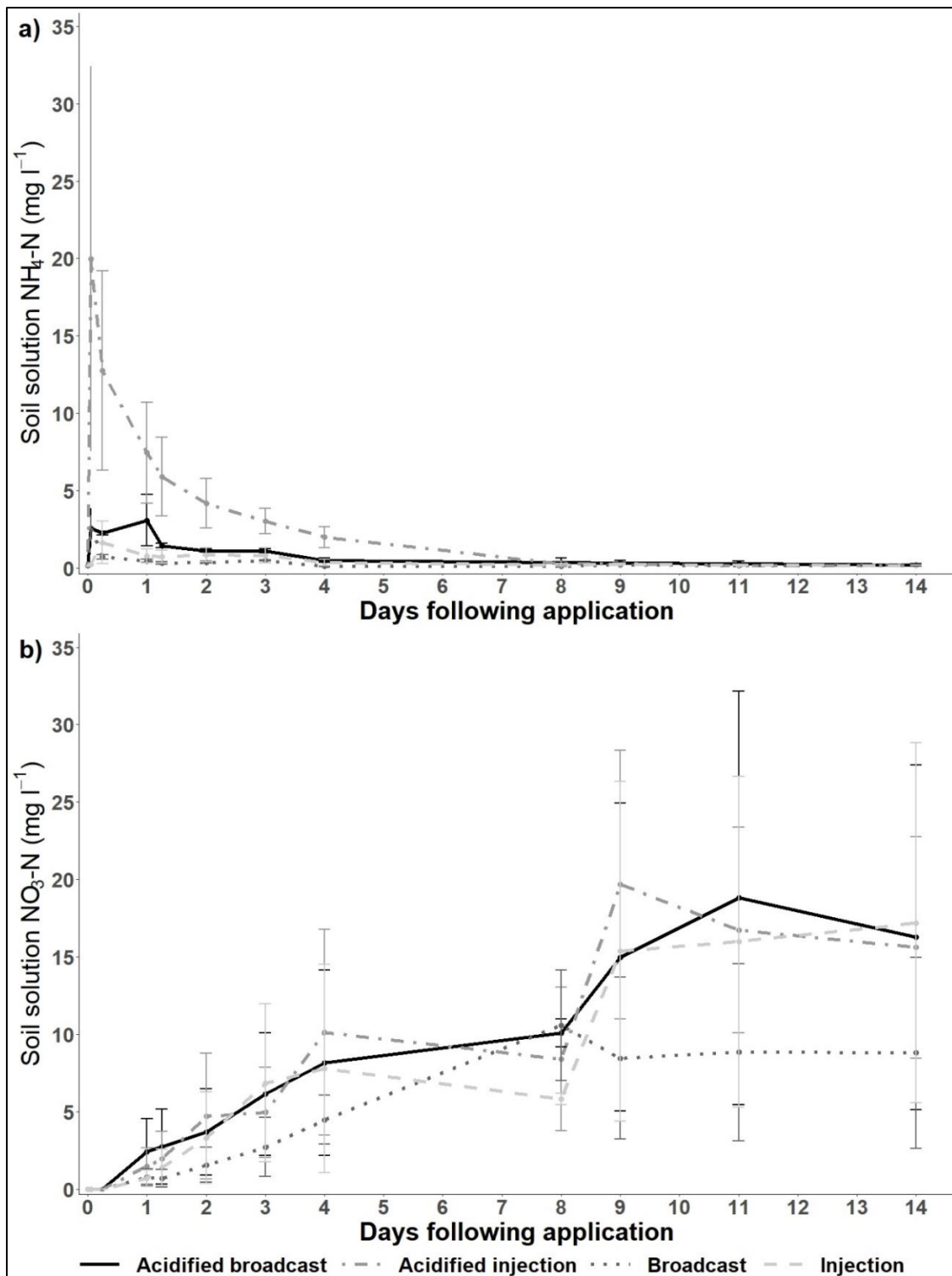
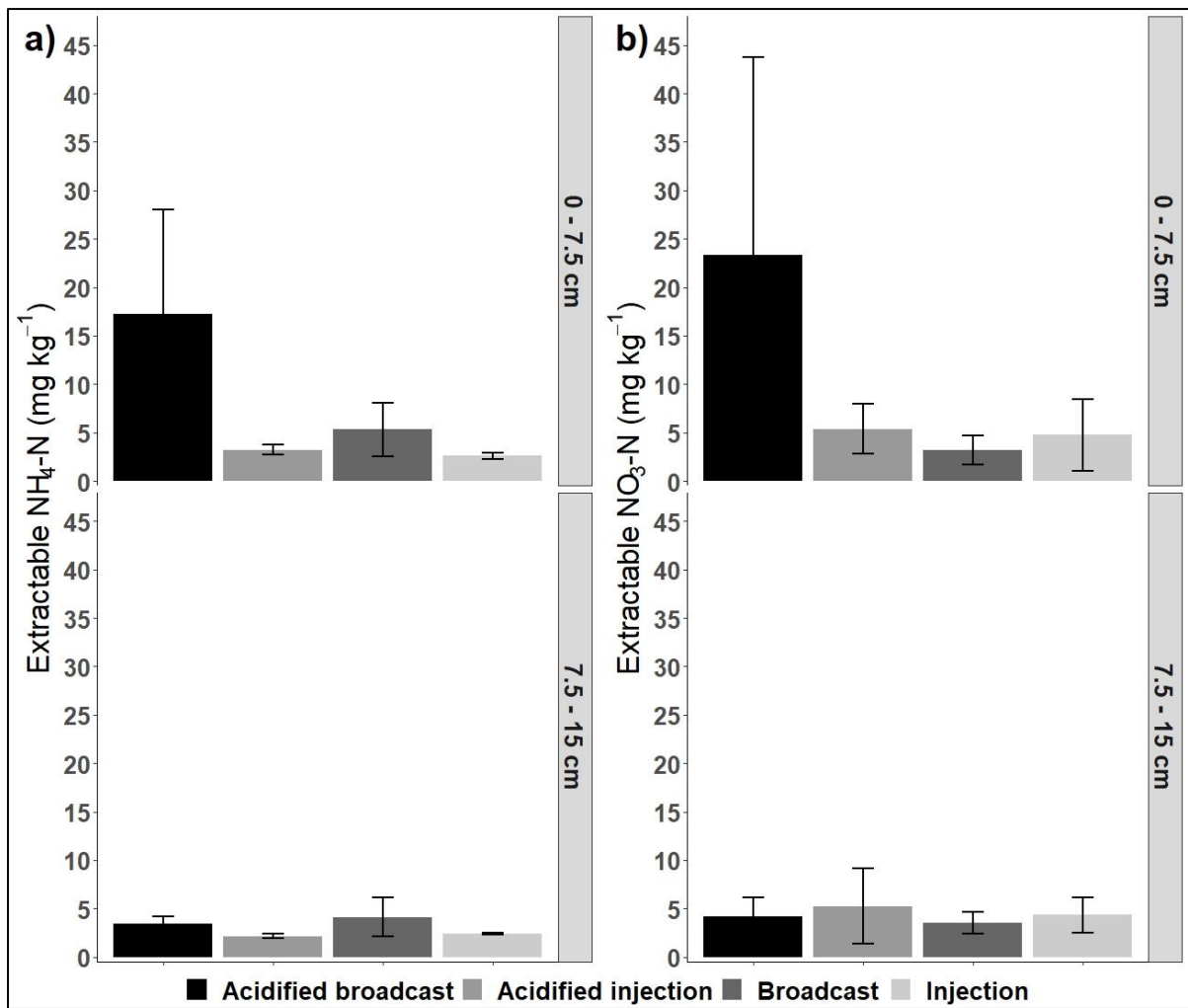


Figure 5: Soil solution $\text{NH}_4\text{-N}$ and $\text{NO}_3\text{-N}$ after slurry acidification and different slurry application techniques.

Concentrations of $\text{NH}_4\text{-N}$ (panel a) and $\text{NO}_3\text{-N}$ (Panel b) in soil solution following application of acidified slurry (pH 5.5) and conventional slurry via surface broadcast and shallow injection. Points show mean values and error bars represent \pm SEM (n=3).



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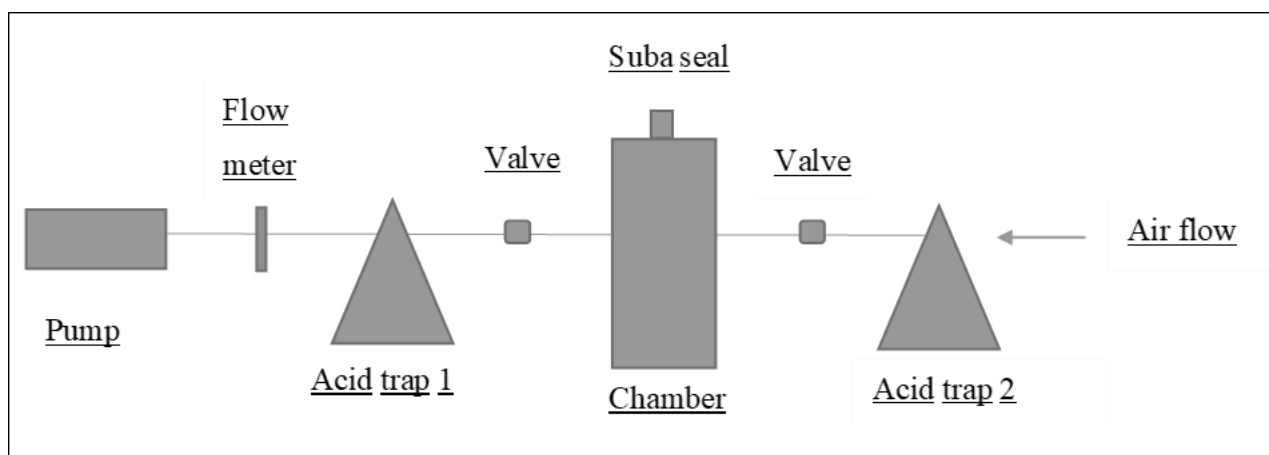
Figure 6: Extractable NH₄-N and NO₃-N at the end of the experiment after slurry application using acidified or conventional and surface broadcast or shallow injection.

Concentrations of extractable NH₄-N (panel a) and NO₃-N (Panel b) found at the conclusion of the experiment. Each core was separated into “Top” (0 - 7.5 cm) and “Base” (7.5 - 15 cm). Bars show mean values and error bars represent ± SEM (n=3). Data expressed on a soil dry weight basis.

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601 Supplementary Information



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603 Schematic of DAVoS

Each acid trap was filled with 200 ml 0.125 M H_3PO_4 with the pump drawing air through each chamber at 3 l min^{-1} . The contents of “acid trap 1” was retained for chemical analysis at each sampling point.