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Application of a triple 15N tracing technique to elucidate N transformations in a UK grassland soil --Manuscript Draft--

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Abstract:	To identify the production and consumption pathways and temporal dynamics of N 2 O emitted from soil, this study uses 15 N-labelled substrate-N to quantify the underlying gross N transformation rates using the Ntrace analysis tool and link them to N-emissions. In three experiments twelve soil cores each were incubated in a lab incubation system to measure gaseous emissions, while parallel incubations under the same conditions were set up for destructive soil sampling at 7 time points. Using the triple labelling technique (applying NH 4 NO 3 with either the NH 4 + -N or the NO 3N, or both being 15 N labelled), this study investigated the effects of 55, 70 and 85% water filled pore space (deemed to promote nitrification, both nitrification and denitrification, and denitrification, respectively) in a clay soil on gaseous N emissions and investigates the source and processes leading to N 2 O emissions. To assess the utilisation of applied NO 3 - vs. nitrified NO 3 - from applied NH 4 + , the 15 N tracing tool Ntrace was used to quantify the rates of immobilisation of NO 3 - and NH 4 + , oxidation of NH 4 + , mineralisation of organic N and subsequent nitrification by the analysis of the 15 N in the soil. Gross transformation rates were calculated, indicating the relative importance of added NO 3 - and NO 3 - derived from nitrified added NH 4 + . Results show an important contribution of heterotrophic nitrification (organic N oxidation to NO 3 -) which was highest at the 55% water filled pore space (WFPS), decreasing in its contribution to N-transformation processes with increasing WFPS, while nitrification (NH 4 + oxidation to NO 3 -) was contributing the most at 70% WFPS. The contribution of denitrification nicreased with increasing WFPS, but only became dominant at 85% WFPS. While denitrification still showed to be most important at high and nitrification at lower WFPS is a contributor, but not the sole/most important parameter determining the type of N-transformation processes taking place.
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Dear Editor:

I am submitting on behalf of my co-authors the revised manuscript and relevant response documents for your consideration to publish. Details are below, With best regards, Laura

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28 Abstract

29 To identify the production and consumption pathways and temporal dynamics of N₂O emitted from soil, this study uses ¹⁵N-30 31 labelled substrate-N to quantify the underlying gross N transformation rates using the Ntrace analysis tool and link them 32 to N-emissions. In three experiments twelve soil cores each were 33 incubated in a lab incubation system to measure gaseous 34 emissions, while parallel incubations under the same conditions 35 were set up for destructive soil sampling at 7 time points. Using 36 the triple labelling technique (applying NH₄NO₃ with either the 37 NH_4^+ -N or the NO₃⁻-N, or both being ¹⁵N labelled), this study 38 investigated the effects of 55, 70 and 85% water filled pore 39 space (deemed to promote nitrification, both nitrification and 40 denitrification, and denitrification, respectively) in a clay soil on 41

42 gaseous N emissions and investigates the source and processes43 leading to N₂O emissions.

To assess the utilisation of applied NO_3^- vs. nitrified NO_3^- from applied NH_4^+ , the ¹⁵N tracing tool *Ntrace* was used to quantify the rates of immobilisation of NO_3^- and NH_4^+ , oxidation of NH_4^+ , mineralisation of organic N and subsequent nitrification by the analysis of the ¹⁵N in the soil. Gross transformation rates were calculated, indicating the relative importance of added NO_3^- and NO_3^- derived from nitrified added NH_4^+ .

Results show an important contribution of heterotrophic 51 nitrification (organic N oxidation to NO3⁻) which was highest at 52 53 the 55% water filled pore space (WFPS), decreasing in its 54 contribution to N-transformation processes with increasing WFPS, while nitrification (NH4⁺ oxidation to NO3⁻) was 55 56 contributing the most at 70% WFPS. The contribution of denitrification increased with increasing WFPS, but only 57 became dominant at 85% WFPS. While denitrification still 58 showed to be most important at high and nitrification at lower 59 WFPS, the actual % WFPS values were not as expected and 60 61 highlight the fact that WFPS is a contributor, but not the sole/most important parameter determining the type of N-62 transformation processes taking place. 63

64

65 Keywords

66 Nitrous oxide; denitrification; nitrification; heterotrophic67 nitrification

68 1 Introduction

Nitrous oxide (N_2O) is an important greenhouse gas (GHG) accounting for approximately 6% of the current global warming (WMO, 2018). The atmospheric N₂O concentration has been increasing since the Industrial Revolution, with soils representing its major source, making the understanding of its sources and removal processes important for the development of mitigation strategies.

Several processes have been studied to determine their 76 77 contribution to N₂O production in soils: (i) nitrification, which has been reported as autotrophic (NH4⁺ oxidation) and 78 79 heterotrophic (organic N oxidation) (Zhang et al., 2015); (ii) denitrification, due to the incomplete denitrification of nitrate 80 (NO_3) under anaerobic conditions (Attard et al., 2011); (iii) 81 82 nitrifier denitrification (Zhu et al., 2013); and (iv) chemodenitrification as a non-biological process (Van Hecke et 83 al., 1990). 84

It has been found that N₂O is mainly produced via biological processes and that emissions through nitrification and denitrification produce up to 70% of the annual emitted N₂O worldwide (Butterbach-Bahl et al., 2013). Several studies aimed to distinguish the main pathway responsible for N₂O emissions

90 (Khalil et al., 2004; Bateman and Baggs, 2005), and identify a predominant process 91 under certain conditions. While 92 nitrification requires O₂, denitrification relies on its absence or limitation and has been attributed to anoxic conditions (Khalil et 93 al., 2004). It is therefore generally agreed that water filled pore 94 space (WFPS) is one of the key factors affecting which process 95 96 dominates N₂O production. The higher the WFPS the more air in pores is replaced by water, thereby removing O_2 from the soil. 97 98 However, it is also thought that several processes can occur simultaneously in different microsites of the same soil (Arah, 99 100 1997) due to the generation of local differences in soil 101 aggregates.

102 It is well known that N₂O is produced by microorganisms who are dependent on several factors, such as environmental 103 104 conditions, nutrient availability etc. (Saggar et al., 2013), which suggests that it is also likely that the N₂O-source processes 105 106 themselves change over time due to changes in limiting factors 107 such as soil moisture and carbon availability, allowing newly 108 formed N-species to become new sources. As an example, in 109 addition to added NO₃⁻, the native soil NO₃⁻ and that produced from nitrification of applied or soil NH_4^+ , can also be a source of 110 N₂O via denitrification following nitrification. 111

Different methods have been applied to identify the occurrence
and importance of different processes under different conditions.
Amongst those are ¹⁵N-labelling techniques (Stark, 2000), as

well as isotopologue analyses of N₂O and O₂ ($^{15}N/^{18}O$) (Meijide

116 et al., 2010; Bergstermann et al., 2011; Wu et al., 2016).

117 When aiming to determine how important different processes are under certain environmental conditions and management (e.g. 118 soil moisture, C and N applications, etc), incubation 119 experiments, where single factors and combinations of these can 120 121 be manipulated, are the methodology of choice. Automated systems such as the denitrification incubation system, DENIS 122 123 (Cárdenas et al., 2003) at Rothamsted have proven useful for process determination. In the DENIS, soil cores are incubated 124 125 under an N2-free atmosphere, allowing direct measurements of 126 all emitted N gases (NO, N2O and N2) as well as CO2. The 127 transformation of N in soils and particularly the production of N₂O from different sources, such as fertilisers or animal excreta, 128 129 has been studied through a series of laboratory incubation experiments (i.a. Meijide et al. (2010), Bergstermann et al. 130 (2011), Loick et al. (2017)) using this system. The advantage of 131 132 this system, when looking at N₂O source processes is, that under 133 an N₂ free atmosphere it is possible to measure N₂ which, 134 depending on the initial conditions, can only be produced via complete denitrification. 135

136 In order to fully investigate transformations leading to N_2O 137 production and removal, quantifying their contributions and 138 assessing the potential for change of processes, a combination of laboratory experiments with models/analysis tools at the samescale offer great potential.

One process model/analysis tool using ¹⁵N distribution in the 141 data obtained from ¹⁵N labelling experiments has been 142 developed by Müller et al. (2004; 2007). This analysis tool, 143 represents an improvement of the dilution model by Kirkham 144 145 and Bartholomew (1954), and includes soil nitrite and gaseous compounds emitted. It traces ¹⁵N applied to soil and quantifies 146 the gross N rates based on measurements of the partition of ¹⁵N 147 in soil pools from dual or triple isotope labelling of the source. 148 149 The model determines the most suitable dynamics through the 150 best Akaike's Information Criterion (AIC). The objective of this 151 study is to show how N-transformation processes leading to N2O emissions change over time and how WFPS can influence the 152 153 initial dominance of certain processes but does not necessarily determine a sole process. The advantage of the triple labelling 154 155 technique is that production of N₂O from an organic (unlabelled) source outside the mineral N pools can be unambiguously 156 157 determined because if all relevant mineral N pools are labelled 158 then a dilution of the N₂O has to arrive from outside that system. 159 Also, for the parameter optimisation techniques it provides additional observations which reduce the danger of over 160 161 parameterisation during parameter optimisation

To achieve this the triple labelling technique using Ammonium
Nitrate (NH₄NO₃) was applied as a substrate with the N being

labelled with ¹⁵N in its different positions. Changes in soil N 164 $(NO_2^-, NO_3^-, and NH_4^+)$ were measured to quantify the 165 underlying gross N transformation rates using the Ntrace 166 167 analysis tool (Müller et al., 2007) with the measured emissions to then identify sub-rates based on the ¹⁵N distribution in the 168 data. This was linked to gaseous N-emissions to identify the 169 170 production and consumption pathways and temporal dynamics of N₂O. In order to determine the source of N₂O from the triple 171 172 labelling experiment, the DENIS was extended by connecting it to a GC-MS to include continuous measurements of emitted ¹⁵N-173 174 N_2O .

We will test the following hypothesis: 1) that NO and N₂O losses at different soil moisture levels will decrease at higher moisture values due to easier diffusion and conversion to N₂; 2) that at the highest soil moisture N₂O is mostly derived from NO₃⁻ whilst at the low moisture from NH₄⁺; 3) that nitrification and denitrification are the main sources of N₂O at all moistures.

181

182 2 Materials and Methods

183 2.1 Soil Preparation

A clayey pelostagnogley soil of the Hallsworth series (Clayden and Hollis, 1984) (44% clay, 40% silt, 15% sand (w/w), Table
1) was collected on the 26th of May 2015 from a typical grassland in SW England, located at Rothamsted Research,

188	North Wyke, Devon, UK (50°46'10"'N, 3°54'05"'W). Spade-
189	squares (20 x 20 cm to a depth of 15 cm) of soil were taken from
190	12 locations along a 'W' line across a field of 600 m^2 size, which
191	had not had any grazing animals on it, nor received any fertiliser
192	input for over 20 years. After sampling, the soil was air dried to
193	~30% H_2O (gravimetric moisture content), roots and plant
194	residues were removed, and the soil sieved to <2 mm and stored
195	at 4°C before packing into cores and starting the incubation.
196	Initial soil characteristics are given in Table 1.

197

198 2.2 Experimental Design

The incubation experiment was carried out using the DENIS, a 199 200 specialized gas-flow-soil-core incubation system (Cárdenas et al., 2003) in which environmental conditions can be tightly 201 202 controlled. The DENIS simultaneously incubates a maximum of 203 12 vessels containing one soil core each. Cores were packed to a bulk density of 0.8 g cm⁻³ to reflect field conditions, to a height 204 of 75 mm into stainless steel sleeves of 141 mm diameter. Due 205 to the limited space within the DENIS and the requirement for 206 replication, three experiments (see below) were performed 207 directly one after another under the same tightly controlled 208 209 conditions (i.e. temperature, gas flow, amendment application). All soil was kept in the fridge (4°C) until needed and treated to 210 211 the same time scales to prevent any changes in soil characteristics. 212

213	To promote nitrification-, denitrification- or a combination of
214	both, each experiment was performed at a different WFPS
215	(Bollmann and Conrad, 1998; Butterbach-Bahl et al., 2013). The
216	soil moisture was adjusted to 55%, 70% or 85% WFPS,
217	respectively, taking the amendment with nutrient solution into
218	account. To measure N_2 fluxes, the native N_2 was removed from
219	the soil and headspace without limiting O ₂ levels that would be
220	present in air. This was achieved by using a helium-oxygen
221	mixture He:O ₂ of 80:20. First the soil cores were flushed from
222	the bottom at a flow rate of 30 ml min ^{-1} for 14 h. To measure
223	baseline emissions, flow rates were then decreased to 12 ml
224	min^{-1} and the flow re-directed over the surface of the soil core
225	for three days before amendment application and for the
226	remaining experimental period. The vessels were kept at 20°C
227	during flushing as well as for the 13-day incubation period after
228	amendment application.

Three incubations were needed to accommodate the different ¹⁵N 229 treatments and soil moisture levels. Each incubation involved the 230 following three treatments of NH4NO3 (Sigma-Aldrich, St. 231 Louis, MO, USA), with three replicate vessels per treatment: i) 232 $^{15}\mathrm{NO}_3$ = cores amended with single labelled $\mathrm{NH_4}^{15}\mathrm{NO}_3$ at 50 233 atom%; ii) ${}^{15}NH_4$ = cores amended with single labelled 234 $^{15}\text{NH}_4\text{NO}_3$ at 50 atom%; iii) $^{15}\text{NO}_3{}^{15}\text{NH}_4$ = cores amended with 235 double labelled ¹⁵NH4¹⁵NO3 at 50 atom%. Considering the total 236 surface area of the vessel, N was applied at a rate of 75 kg N 237

ha⁻¹. The applied rate of N equates to 125 mg N kg⁻¹ dry soil, which was dissolved in 50 ml of H₂O before being applied to the soil. To maintain the incubation conditions, the amendment was applied to each of the three cores via a sealed amendment container on top of the incubation vessel. Before amendment application the headspace of the amendment vessel was flushed with He to prevent any atmospheric N₂ entering the system.

Additionally, a parallel incubation only for destructive soil 245 246 sampling at 7 time-points after treatment application (5 h, days 1, 2, 3, 4, 7, 10) with 3 replicates of each was performed each 247 248 time. For logistical reasons smaller cores (4.5 cm diameter) had 249 to be used, which were packed with the same soil and to the same 250 specifications used for the DENIS incubation and kept under the same controlled conditions. At the sampling time, soil was 251 252 analysed for extractable Ammonium (NH_4^+) , Nitrate (NO_3^-) , Nitrite (NO₂⁻) concentrations and ¹⁵N-enrichment of those 253 molecules (¹⁵NH₄⁺, ¹⁵NO₃⁻, ¹⁵NO₂⁻). 254

255

256 **2.3** Gas analyses

Gas samples were taken every four hours for each vessel from the Denis system. Fluxes of N_2O and CO_2 were quantified using a Perkin Elmer Clarus 500 gas chromatograph (Perkin Elmer Instruments, Beaconsfield, UK) equipped with an electron capture detector (ECD) for N_2O and CO_2 . N_2 emissions were measured by gas chromatography with a helium ionisation 263 detector (VICI AG International, Schenkon, Switzerland), while NO concentrations were determined by chemiluminescence 264 (Sievers NOA280i, GE Instruments, Colorado, USA). All gas 265 266 concentrations were corrected for the surface area and flow rate going through the vessel (measured daily). Fluxes were 267 calculated on a kg N or C ha⁻¹ day⁻¹ basis. Isotopic signatures 268 269 were determined via isotope ratio mass spectrometer (PDZ Europa 20-20 Stable Isotope Analyser, Sercon, Crewe, UK) 270 271 linked to an ANCA-TGII gas preparation system (Sercon, 272 Crewe, UK).

273

274 2.4 Soil analyses

275 The initial soil N was measured at the start of each incubation by randomly taking three 100 g samples from the bulk soil before 276 277 core packing and WFPS adjustment. This soil was analysed for total extractable oxidised N (TO_xN, combined amount of NO₂⁻ 278 and NO_3^{-}) and NH_4^{+} . Soil samples (100 g) from the parallel 279 280 incubation were analysed for extractable NO_2^- , NO_3^- and NH_4^+ concentrations at each time point. WFPS was calculated from 281 soil moisture contents by drying a subsample (50 g) at 105°C 282 overnight. Soil extractable NO₂⁻, NO₃⁻ and NH₄⁺, concentrations 283 were analysed after blending the samples with 2M KCl at pH 8 284 following the method of Stevens and Laughlin (1995). The 285 analysed colourimetry 286 extracts were by using а Spectrophotometer (Cecil Instruments, Cambridge, UK) for the 287

288	analysis of NO2 ⁻ , or an Aquakem 250 discrete photometric
289	analyser (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Hemel Hempsted, UK) for
290	the analysis of NO ₃ ⁻ and NH ₄ ⁺ . The ¹⁵ N abundances of the NO ₂ ⁻
291	, $\mathrm{NO}_3^{\scriptscriptstyle -}$ and NH_{4^+} were determined by methods based on the
292	generation of N ₂ O for isotope ratio mass spectrometry (IRMS).
293	The production of N_2O from NO_2^- and NO_3^- is based on the
294	reaction between NO_2^- and NH_2OH under acid conditions and
295	the NO_3^- having been reduced to NO_2^- with Cd (Stevens and
296	Laughlin, 1994). The production of N_2O from NH_4^+ consists of
297	a diffusion stage where ammonia (NH ₃) is absorbed into H ₂ SO ₄
298	followed by an oxidation step where recovered $(NH_4)_2SO_4$ is
299	oxidised to N_2 by alkaline NaOBr, during which N_2O is
300	produced as a by-product (Laughlin et al., 1997). In each case,
301	the resulting N ₂ O was transferred to an Exetainer (Labco Ltd,
302	Lampeter, Wales). The N ₂ O enrichment was determined using a
303	Gilson Autosampler (Gilson UK, Dunstable, UK) by IRMS as
304	described in the gas analyses section.

305

306 2.5 Statistical analysis

307 Statistical analysis was performed using GenStat 16th edition 308 (VSN International Ltd). Prior to the statistical tests all data were 309 analysed to proof their normal distribution (Kolmogorove-310 Smirnov test) and equality of variance (Levene test). Cumulative 311 emissions of NO, N₂O, N₂ and CO₂ were calculated from the area under the curve (time vs flux as shown in figure 2) afterlinear interpolation between sampling points.

314

315 2.6 Analysis of N₂O source contribution

To determine the contribution of different sources to N2O 316 emissions the *Ntrace*_{basic} analysis tool by Müller et al. (2007) 317 was used. This analysis tool represents an extension of the 318 dilution approach of Kirkham and Bartholomew (1954) and 319 quantifies gross N rates based on measured data. To achieve this, 320 321 a model is used to quantify the individual gross rates, connecting the various soil N pools by parameter optimization routines. 322 The gross N transformation rates quantified where: 323 324 M_{Nrec} , mineralization of recalcitrant organic N to NH₄⁺;

- 325 M_{Nlab} , mineralization of labile organic N (e.g., monomolecular
- 326 organic N, amino acids, proteins) to NH_4^+ ;
- 327 $I_{NH4Nrec}$, immobilization of NH₄⁺ to recalcitrant organic N;
- 328 $I_{NH4Nlab}$, immobilization of NH₄⁺ to labile organic N;
- 329 A_{NH4} , adsorption of NH₄⁺ on exchange sites;
- 330 R_{NH4a} , release of adsorbed NH₄⁺;
- 331 O_{NH4} , oxidation of NH₄⁺ to NO₃⁻;

332 O_{Nrec} , oxidation of organic N to NO₃⁻; (heterotrophic

- 333 nitrification)
- as well as the following 4 rates, which were, however,negligible:
- 336 I_{NO3} , immobilization of NO₃⁻ to recalcitrant organic N;

337 D_{NO3} , dissimilatory reduction of NO₃⁻ to NH₄⁺;

338 A_{NO3} , adsorption of NO₃⁻ to labile organic N;

339 R_{NO3} , release of adsorbed NO₃⁻

One feature of *Ntrace* is to identify the simplest model structure 340 that is sufficient and adequate to explain the measured data. 341 Therefore, a range of different model versions (including/ 342 343 excluding certain transformation rates) and/or kinetic setting are tested. The most suitable model is then identified by comparing 344 345 the AIC of each model run which takes the goodness of fit and the number of parameters used into account. Thus, this tool also 346 identifies rates which are not needed to explain the overall 347 348 dynamics (e.g. the mineralization of labile organic N in our 349 case). Figure 1 shows the full conceptual model according to Müller et al. (2014) indicating the rates used based on the 2007 350 351 model (Müller et al., 2007) in the top left area.

Pathway specific N₂O emissions were determined by assuming that N₂O originated from the NH₄⁺, organic N and NO₃⁻ pool (Fig. 1) (Stange et al., 2009; Müller et al., 2014). The contributions of these three pools were calculated by the parameter identification routine described by Rütting et al. (2010):

358
$$a_{N20} = C_{NH4} \times a_{NH4} + C_{ON} \times a_{ON} + C_{NO3} \times a_{NO3} \quad (1)$$

359
$$C_{NH4} + C_{ON} + C_{NO3} = 1$$
 (2)

Where a_{N20} is the ¹⁵N abundance of N₂O produced during incubation, a_{NH4} , a_{ON} and a_{NO3} are the ¹⁵N abundance of NH₄⁺, organic N and NO₃⁻, respectively, and C_{NH4} , C_{ON} and C_{NO3} are the contributions from oxidation of NH₄⁺ to NO₃⁻, oxidation of organic N to NO₃⁻ and reduction of NO₃⁻ to total N₂O production, respectively.

366

367 **3 Results**

368 **3.1** Fluxes of N gases and CO₂

Nitric oxide emissions increased in all treatments (Fig. 2a) during the incubation period. At the highest moisture of 85% WFPS, NO emissions reach a plateau after 6 days and start to decrease after 10 days. For the 2 lower moisture levels emissions were increasing over the whole course of the experiment. Emissions increased significantly with WFPS, as shown.

Nitrous oxide emissions (Fig. 2b) were very low and near the 375 376 detection limit (N₂O: 0.5 ppm, equivalent to a flux of 0.00027 kg N ha⁻¹ h⁻¹) in the two lower WFPS treatments. In the 85% WFPS 377 treatment N₂O emissions were significantly higher (p < 0.05) than 378 the other 2 treatments and showed a peak at day 1 of around 14 379 g N ha⁻¹ h⁻¹ after which emissions decreased to around 3 g N ha⁻ 380 ¹ h⁻¹ by the end of the experiment. At the lower WFPS of 55 and 381 70%, N₂O emissions were not significantly different between the 382 WFPS treatments. 383

Nitrogen gas emissions (Fig. 2c) were low in the 55% and 70%
WFPS treatments and did not show a peak. Higher N₂ emissions

were detected in the 85% WFPS treatment with a peak at around day 2. After day 5, N_2 emissions were low as in the other two treatments. Some N_2 was introduced into the system when the amendment was applied. This took about 1 day to disappear (see high soil moisture treatment) (see Fig. 2).

The total amounts of N emitted as NO, N_2O and N_2 show an 391 392 increase with increasing WFPS (Tab.2). However, total amounts of NO-N were almost insignificant making up less than 0.04% 393 394 of total N emissions. Total emissions of N₂O were low in the 55% and 70% WFPS treatment (<3% of total N emissions), but 395 significantly higher at the highest WFPS of 85% (21.3% of total 396 397 N emissions). N₂ emissions was only any significantly different 398 at the high soil moisture. The N2-N represented the largest component of the emitted N at least 80%. The N₂O-N to N₂-N 399 400 ratios were smaller at the middle soil moisture (0.03) compared to 0.27 at 85% WFPS. 401

Carbon dioxide emissions (Fig. 2d) increased immediately after 402 the application of NH₄NO₃ and showed a maximum on day 2 in 403 404 the 55% and 85% WFPS treatments decreasing afterwards. In 405 the 70% WFPS treatment emissions seem to have decreased in the first day to recover in day 2 which was followed by a steady 406 decrease similarly to the other 2 treatments. Values for the 70% 407 408 WFPS treatment were the lowest during all the incubation 409 compared to the other 2 treatments.

411 **3.2** Proportion of N_2O from added N

Results of the estimation of the proportion of N₂O derived from 412 the applied treatments showed that initially, at 55% WFPS, very 413 414 little N₂O emissions derived from added single-labelled NH₄⁺ (Fig. 3a, \circ). Larger amounts derived from added labelled ¹⁵N, 415 were found in the other ¹⁵N-treatments within the first day (up to 416 50% from ¹⁵NH₄¹⁵NO₃). Those rapidly decreased and became 417 similar to the ¹⁵NH₄⁺ treatment after 24 hours. For the rest of the 418 419 incubation similar proportions of N₂O derived from all labelled 420 amendments. Those proportions increased until day 12 when 421 they reached about 10%.

The trends changed in the 70% moisture treatment (Fig. 3b), where the proportion of N₂O from the added ¹⁵N initially increased for all ¹⁵N amendments. After day 1 the proportion remained the same for the ¹⁵NO₃⁻ amendment (\blacktriangle) but kept increasing steadily for the other ¹⁵N-amendments reaching 25 and 30% for ¹⁵NH₄⁺ and ¹⁵NH₄¹⁵NO₃, respectively.

For the highest moisture treatment (Fig. 3c), the proportion of 428 429 N₂O from labelled N also increased on the first day for all treatments, however, with ¹⁵NO₃ and ¹⁵NH₄¹⁵NO₃ the increase 430 was significantly higher than with $^{15}NH_4$ (o; up to 50%). After 431 this day, the contribution of the labelled amendment to N₂O 432 emissions decreased for those amendments, reducing to 20 and 433 40% for ¹⁵NO₃ and ¹⁵NH₄¹⁵NO₃, respectively on day 13. In the 434 ¹⁵NH₄ treatment on the other hand, N₂O emissions decreased 435

436 slightly after the maximum in day 1 and then continued to437 increase, reaching 20% on day 13.

438

439 **3.3** Soil N concentrations and ¹⁵N enrichment

Analysis of the soil N before each incubation and before core packing showed the following values of TO_xN : 0.0681 (±0.001), 0.1335 (±0.0112) and 0.0844 (±0.0096) mg g⁻¹ dry soil for 55, 70 and 85% WFPS-incubations, respectively. For NH₄⁺, values were 0.0869 (±0.0044), 0.0485 (±0.0010) and 0.0957 (±0.0017) mg g⁻¹ dry soil for 55, 70 and 85% WFPS-incubations, respectively.

447

Figure 4 shows the dynamics of the analysed N forms in the soil 448 throughout the experiment. Soil NO_2^- was of the order of 0.1 µg 449 N g⁻¹ dry soil during the incubation period and slightly higher in 450 the 85% WFPS treatment. Soil NH4⁺ and NO3⁻ concentrations 451 were around 1000 times higher than NO_2^- , with more NO_3^- than 452 453 NH_4^+ in the 70% and 85% WFPS treatments, while no differences in soil NH4⁺ and NO3⁻ could be detected in the 454 455 55% WFPS treatment.

The 70 and 85% WFPS treatments showed larger changes in the time series with soil NO_3^- increasing and NH_4^+ decreasing, while those concentrations remained relatively constant and of similar

459 magnitude (around 0.15 mg N g^{-1} dry soil⁻¹) in the 55% moisture 460 treatment.

461

The ¹⁵N-enrichment of soil NO₂⁻, NO₃⁻ and NH₄ is shown in 462 Figure 5. The lowest ¹⁵N-enrichment of soil NO₂⁻ and NO₃⁻ was 463 from the ${}^{15}NH_4$ amendment (•) (Fig. 5a and b) for all moisture 464 treatments while a higher enrichment of those two soil 465 components was found when ${}^{15}NO_3$ (\blacktriangle) or ${}^{15}NH_4{}^{15}NO_3$ (\blacksquare) 466 467 were applied (Fig. 5d,e,g and h). Values of enriched NO₂⁻ were generally lower than those of enriched NO_3^- (5 vs. 20 atom%) 468 469 (Fig. 5a and b). Soil ¹⁵N-enrichment of NO₃⁻ was generally in the 470 order 85%>55%>70% WFPS (solid blue, dotted orange, dashed green) when the soil was amended with ¹⁵NO₃ or ¹⁵NH₄¹⁵NO₃ 471 (Fig. 5e and h). 472

The amendment with ${}^{15}NO_3$ (\blacktriangle) resulted in lowest soil NH₄⁺ 473 enrichment (Fig. 5f) at 70 and 85% WFPS, while the opposite 474 was found for the initial 4 days when soil was at 55% WFPS. 475 Here treating the soil with ¹⁵NO₃ resulted in higher soil NH₄⁺ 476 enrichment than soil treated with ¹⁵NH₄ or ¹⁵NH₄¹⁵NO₃. There 477 478 was no significant difference in the enrichment of the soil NH₄⁺ depending on whether the soil was amended with ¹⁵NH₄ or 479 ¹⁵NH₄¹⁵NO₃; enrichment was higher for the 70 and 85% WFPS 480 481 treatments than the 55% one (Fig. 5c and i).

As previously mentioned, compared to the other amendments the
 addition of ¹⁵NH₄ resulted in significantly lower enrichment of

¹⁵N-labelled NO₂⁻ as well as NO₃⁻ for all WFPS treatments and a significant decrease in 15 NH₄⁺ at the lower WFPS values of 55 and 70%.

When applying ${}^{15}NO_3$ the only significant changes in the enrichment of ${}^{15}N$ -labelled compounds was found at 85% WFPS where ${}^{15}N$ -labelled NO_3^- enrichment was significantly lower at the end of the 10-day experiment and at 55% WFPS where ${}^{15}N$ labelled NH_4^+ enrichment was also significantly lower at the end of the experimental period (Fig.5d-f).

493 Applying ¹⁵NH4¹⁵NO₃ did not result in any significant changes 494 in the enrichment of ¹⁵N-labelled NO₂⁻ or NO₃⁻ at any of the 495 WFPSs. However, a significantly lower enrichment of ¹⁵N-496 labelled NH4⁺ between the beginning and end of the 497 experimental period was found for all WFPS values (Fig. 5g-i). 498

499 **3.4** Analysis of transformation rates

500 The results of the Ntrace analysis tool (Fig. 1) showed that gross transformation rates of NO3⁻ and NH4⁺ and Mineralisation of 501 labile N to NH4⁺ were generally highest at 55% WFPS and 502 mostly decreased with increasing WFPS (Fig. 6a-c). Oxidation 503 504 of recalcitrant N to NO₃, however increased with increasing WFPS (Fig. 6d). Desorption of adsorbed NH₄⁺ as well as NO₃⁻ 505 was highest at 70% WFPS (Fig. 6e), although not statistically 506 507 significant, while the transformation of NH_4^+ to NO_3^- was significantly lower at this WFPS than at the higher or lowerWFPS (Fig. 6a).

510

511 **3.5** Apportioning of N₂O emissions

Figure 7 shows the resulting apportioning of the N₂O emissions 512 513 to the three different processes: heterotrophic nitrification, denitrification and nitrification. At 55% WFPS, an initial large 514 contribution of denitrification is shown, which quickly 515 decreased in favour of heterotrophic nitrification (30%) by the 516 517 end of day 1. Heterotrophic nitrification remained the dominant process throughout the incubation except on days 4 and 10, when 518 519 the sum of denitrification and autotrophic nitrification where 520 approximately 50%.

At 70% WFPS, heterotrophic nitrification dominated at the start of the incubation vs denitrification (70 vs 30%) but decreased in importance with time to almost zero at the end of the incubation, when autotrophic nitrification became more dominant (65%).

At 85% WFPS, heterotrophic nitrification is only relevant on the first day (80%); from then on, denitrification dominated (100% on days 1-2) and remained at about 60-80% with the rest of the contribution coming from autotrophic nitrification.

The summary graph (Fig. 8) shows the average contribution of each process to N_2O emissions as total amounts of N_2O -N emitted, as well as percentage of N_2O emitted by each of the three processes. With increasing soil moisture, an increase in the contribution from denitrification to N₂O emissions was found,
whilst the contribution from heterotrophic nitrification
decreased. For autotrophic nitrification, however, the largest
contribution was at the intermediate soil moisture of 70% WFPS.

538 4 **Discussion**

- 539 In a recent literature review and meta-analysis, Barrat et al.
- 540 (2020) found that WFPS was a significant explanatory variable
- 541 for N₂O emissions and this was affected by the prior moisture
- 542 status of the soil. In our experiments, the soils were prepared in
- 543 <u>a standard manner, so only the final moisture status at the start</u>
- 544 of the incubation differed. Therefore in our study, we
- 545 <u>investigated the relative differences between the 3 soil moisture</u>
- 546 <u>status (or WFPS) on N partitioning in the soil N compounds</u>
- 547 and the N emitted compounds, and the apportioning of N₂O
- 548 <u>emissions to different processes.</u>

549 4.1 Process dependent N-emissions at different WFPS

550 Denitrification, if complete, transforms the produced N₂O into 551 N₂. Denitrification is commonly incomplete with N₂O not being 552 transformed to N₂ due to a lack of N₂O reductase (Nos) in the 553 microbial community, or due to a sufficient supply of NO₃⁻ 554 whose reduction is energetically more favourable than the 555 reduction of N₂O to N₂ (Saggar et al., 2013). Due to incomplete 556 denitrification, highest N₂O production is expected from 557 denitrification and consequently from soils with a relatively higher WFPS. However, the importance and dominance of 558 559 certain processes ultimately depends on the microbial 560 community present in the soil and its activity which is influenced by the soil conditions. In our study we used a grassland soil that, 561 has not had any fertiliser input, nor been grazed and therefore 562 563 has not received animal excrements as a nutrient source for over 20 years. We assume that due to the management of the field 564 565 lacking regular supply of nutrients, the microbial community within the soil would have differed from those communities 566 567 found in other grasslands (Denef et al., 2009). This would have 568 had an influence on the N-transformation processes in this soil. 569 Additionally, it has been shown that soil moisture content influences nutrient availability and movement through the soil 570 571 (Misra and Tyler, 1999) therefore influencing access of those nutrients transported within a solution to the present microbial 572 573 community and subsequently influencing N transformation 574 processes.

575 In addition, the contributions observed from the treatments
576 applied to the emitted N₂O were generally less than 50%,
577 implying that the soil N pool was a larger contributor. We had
578 no zero N treatment in our experimental design to confirm this,
579 however, even if we had this, it is possible that the soil microbial
580 community was primed by added N (Müller and Clough, 2014),

581 so more of the soil N would have been utilised in the N treated
582 soils, than in a zero N control.

583 4.1.1 N-emission processes at 85% WFPS

In our study, the highest N₂O emissions were found at WFPS of 584 85% and these emissions decreased over time. At this high 585 WFPS the dual labelling analysis showed that more N₂O was 586 derived from the applied NO₃⁻ (Fig. 3c, initially ¹⁵NO₃⁻ 587 contributed over 50% while ${}^{15}NH_4^+$ contributed less than 5%), 588 indicating that denitrification was the dominant process in our 589 590 experiment. Over the course of the experiment at 85% WFPS, the proportion of N₂O from the ¹⁵N labelled NO₃⁻ decreased, 591 while that of NH₄⁺ increased. 592

A possible explanation for the increased contribution of applied 593 ¹⁵N-NH₄⁺ in N₂O emissions could be that the measured ¹⁵N-N₂O 594 derived from ¹⁵NO₃⁻ which had previously been produced via 595 nitrification from the added ¹⁵NH₄⁺. The results of soil NO₃⁻ 596 agree with this as there was an increase during the incubation 597 598 coinciding with a decrease in soil NH4⁺. The initial increase in CO₂ reflects aerobic respiration after the treatments were applied 599 that settles at the end of the peak at about days 3-4. The N₂ fluxes 600 up till day 4 in the highest soil moisture treatment can be 601 explained by an increase in anaerobicity during this period 602 promoting denitrification. It is possible, that O₂ concentrations 603 recover with time, changing conditions from promoting 604

605 denitrification to promoting nitrification where N₂O is produced from hydroxylamine NH₂OH. Nitrifying conditions might have 606 also developed at the surface by drying of the upper layers of the 607 608 soil. Though moisture contents of the soil cores used in this 609 experiment did not change significantly over time, it has been shown in previous experiments that water can redistribute from 610 611 top to bottom creating more aerobic, nitrification promoting conditions at the surface where gas exchange with the 612 613 atmosphere takes place (Loick et al., 2016). However, our results suggest that most of the detected N₂O came from denitrification 614 615 of the NO₃⁻ produced via nitrification of the applied ¹⁵NH₄⁺ due 616 to the increase in NO_3^- and a general decrease in NH_4^+ at 85% 617 WFPS (Fig. 4). Therefore, while nitrification is taking place even under this high WFPS, denitrification is still the dominant 618 619 process producing N₂O. This is further supported by soil ^{15}N analysis (Fig. 5), where results show a significant increase in soil 620 $^{15}\text{NO}_3^-$ in the $^{15}\text{NH}_4^+$ treatments, while the enrichment of $^{15}\text{NH}_4^+$ 621 in the same treatment significantly decreased. 622

Emissions of other N-gases produced during N transformation processes provide additional support that denitrification was most important at the highest WFPS of 85%. Higher emissions of N₂ (Fig. 2c), the final product of denitrification indicate that complete denitrification had been achieved for some of the available NO_3^- .

629 4.1.2 N-emission processes at 70% WFPS

At the intermediate WFPS of 70% it was expected that 630 nitrification and denitrification would be equally important. In 631 632 fact, the results of the Ntrace analysis tool show an equal contribution of denitrification, nitrification and heterotrophic 633 nitrification at 70% WFPS. ¹⁵N soil analysis also supports a near 634 equal distribution of nitrification and denitrification with ¹⁵NH₄⁺ 635 showing a decrease and ¹⁵NO₃⁻ a corresponding increase when 636 $^{15}NH_4^+$ was added (Fig. 5b/c). The analysis of $^{15}N_2O$ (Fig. 3b) 637 revealed an approximately 3 times higher contribution of the 638 639 added ${}^{15}NO_3^-$ to N₂O emissions than that of added ${}^{15}NH_4^+$, 640 indicating that most of the emitted N₂O was produced via 641 denitrification. However, total amounts of N₂O were very small, as were CO_2 emissions (Fig. 2d), both indicating that the 642 microbial N-transformation processes and denitrification in 643 particular were very slow/small under these conditions. 644

645 4.1.3. N-emission processes at 55% WFPS

The lowest WFPS of 55% was chosen to promote nitrification. 646 647 The results of the *Ntrace* analysis tool support that this was the with nitrification heterotrophic nitrification 648 case and contributing to about 80% of N₂O emissions (Fig.8), while 649 650 denitrification only played a role at the very beginning of the incubation after amendment was applied, which would have 651 temporarily increased the WFPS at the top of the core and 652 653 promoted anaerobic, denitrifying conditions prior to the

654 amendment solution percolating into the soil. This is supported by the ¹⁵N analysis of the emitted N₂O, which initially showed a 655 high contribution of added ¹⁵NO₃⁻ to N₂O emissions, indicating 656 657 denitrification being the main process producing N₂O, which quickly declined. By day 1 both, applied ¹⁵NO₃, as well as 658 $^{15}NH_4^+$, contributed equally to N₂O emissions. (Fig.3a). 659 660 Considering that N₂O is not an obligatory intermediate during nitrification, but merely a potential by-product (Anderson, 661 662 1964), these results also indicate that nitrification processes dominate over denitrification under these low moisture 663 conditions. 664

665

666 4.2 Influence of WFPS on soil N-transformation

667 *processes*

668 Our study demonstrates the influence of WFPS on soil Ntransformation processes. Generally, gross soil N transformation 669 rates associated with both NH4⁺ and NO3⁻ turnover decreased 670 with increasing WFPS. The total contribution of nitrification to 671 soil N transformation processes was higher at low WFPS and 672 decreased with increasing WFPS. However, an interesting 673 observation was that the oxidation of organic N to NO3⁻ 674 increased almost 5-fold from 70 to 85% WFPS which may 675 support the higher denitrification rate by supplying additional 676 electron acceptors. However, this increase was not paralleled by 677 an increase of N₂O emitted. This may be due to an increasing 678

reduction of N_2O to N_2 (i.e. increasing $N_2:N_2O$ ratio or decrease in $N_2O:N_2$ as described earlier) under increasing anaerobicity (Butterbach-Bahl et al., 2013).

682 The optimal conditions for nitrification are said to occur between 30-60% WFPS (Medinets et al., 2015). Emissions of NO can 683 derive from nitrification as well as denitrification, though it has 684 685 been found that the rates of produced NO measured as emissions are higher under drier conditions, where a lower WFPS leaves 686 687 more air-filled pores enabling NO to escape to the surface (Pilegaard, 2013). At WFPS above 65% it is believed that 688 emissions of N2O and N2 increase due to an increase in 689 690 denitrification. NO, however, while it is being produced to a 691 larger extent at high soil moisture, is also reduced to N₂O due to a longer residence time decreasing the amount emitted to the 692 693 surface (Pilegaard, 2013). In this study, the observed increase in NO emissions with increasing moisture levels suggests 694 denitrification was the source. Loick et al. (2016) concluded that 695 up to 0.67% of the added N (from a nitrate source) was emitted 696 697 as NO from denitrification supporting our findings.

Our results did not confirm our first hypothesis that losses are lower at higher moisture levels for NO and N_2O . In fact, for all gases, losses were higher at the high soil moisture possibly because the soil was not saturated enough to impede gas diffusion. Our second hypothesis was partly proved, as at the high soil moisture the proportion of N_2O from nitrate containing

amendments was higher. The results for the lower moisture level did not agree with our hypothesis as the proportion of N₂O from all the amendments was similar and not mainly from NH_4^+ .

707 Overall, our results support the assumption that nitrification 708 (autotrophic as well as heterotrophic) plays a bigger part at lower WFPS, when air filled pores increase aerobicity, while 709 710 denitrification becomes more important the higher the WFPS and therefore the lower the aerobicity. With our ¹⁵N tracing 711 712 approach we found that heterotrophic nitrification was the 713 dominant process at 55% WFPS disproving our third hypothesis 714 that nitrification and denitrification dominate at all moisture 715 levels, its contribution quickly decreased with increasing WFPS, 716 while nitrification contributed most at the intermediate WFPS of 717 70% and least at 55%. Heterotrophic nitrification has been 718 reported in previous studies as dependent on soil pH, C:N ratio and land use and that it can contribute up to 85% of the total N₂O 719 720 flux in soils with pH values between 4.2 to 8.4 (Zhang et al., 2015). This process converts organic N (although it is believed 721 722 it also happens with inorganic N sources (Zhang et al., 2014)) to 723 NO_3^{-} . It is believed this occurs particularly in acidic soils where 724 autotrophic nitrification can be inhibited. The soil used in this 725 study was of pH 5.6 (Table 1) placing it within the soils that can 726 potentially undergo this process. Müller et al. (2014) stated that heterotrophic nitrification is a contributor to N₂O emissions in 727 grassland soils with high organic matter contents. This further 728

729 supports the finding that this process occurs in this study 730 (organic matter content 11.7% Table 1). In the study by Rütting 731 and Müller (2008) it was shown that heterotrophic nitrification 732 would carry out oxidation of organic N to NO₂⁻ (rather than NO₃⁻ 733). We also know that microbial consortia exist where a network of metabolic activity is present (Butterbach-Bahl et al., 2013), 734 735 therefore it is likely that NO₂ originating from the organic N pool is directly reduced to N_2O (and not further oxidised to NO_3^-) by 736 737 the activity of denitrifying organisms. This also explains that higher percentages of N₂O via the organic pathway occur under 738 739 higher WFPS values.

At the WFPS above 70% it has been shown that N_2O is produced solely by denitrification (Bateman and Baggs, 2005). However, in our case denitrification only became dominant at 85% WFPS, and denitrification contributed about 70% of the N_2O emissions at this WFPS (Fig. 7,8), while overall not much activity was found at neither 50, nor 70% WFPS.

The lower N_2O emissions for the 2 lower moisture levels over the course of the experiment could be due to a slower response of the microbial community to the added N compared to the highest soil moisture treatment where nutrient availability is expected to be higher (Papendick and Camprell, 1981).

Emissions of CO₂ have been used as an indicator of microbial respiration and activity (López-Aizpún et al., 2018). In this study the results indicate that the microbial community was most active at a WFPS of 85% in agreement with the above statement,
but this was followed by the driest treatment and the least active
was at the intermediate WFPS of 70% coinciding with the N₂O
trend. Other factors need to also be considered as N₂O
production and consumption from biogenic processes as well as
abiotic processes such as gas diffusion, are both dependant of
moisture in soil.

761

762 5 Conclusions

763 Our results highlight the variability in the effect of WFPS on the dominance of different N transformation processes in soil. 764 765 Though the general assumption, that denitrification is more important at high WFPS, is supported here, the actual percentage 766 767 of WFPS attributed to the different processes was not as expected. Heterotrophic nitrification was found to be an 768 769 important source of N₂O especially under drier conditions while 770 nitrification plays a crucial role for N₂O emissions, directly but 771 also via nitrification coupled with denitrification under medium and high WFPS. 772

Results obtained from the experiment performed at 85% WFPS show the importance of nitrification even under high WFPS and raise the question if and how much of the N₂O emissions could have been mitigated by preventing nitrification supplying NO_3^-
for denitrification by e.g. using nitrification inhibitors (Owusu-

778 Twum et al., 2017; Wu et al., 2017a; Wu et al., 2017b).

779 Our study was performed under controlled conditions with a clay 780 soil that had not received any fertiliser or manure/slurry input for 781 few years. Under these conditions, we found a relatively equal contribution of nitrification, denitrification and heterotrophic 782 783 nitrification to N₂O production at 70% WFPS. At the lower WFPS of 55% the contribution of heterotrophic nitrification 784 785 dominated, while at the highest WFPS of 85% denitrification 786 contributed most of the measured N₂O. These results will not 787 necessarily apply to other soil types, particularly extreme high or 788 low organic matter soils. Further studies to understand how 789 carbon quality affect the fate of N in soils are needed.

However, the process that will be supported at a certain WFPS
will most likely depend on the type of soil including its natural
carbon and nutrient content, its history and the microbial
community present. Emissions are also influenced by abiotic
factors that are also dependant on soil moisture.

795

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- 963

 Table 1. Soil characteristics (before amendment application).

Mean \pm standard error (n = 3).

Parameter	Α	moun	nt
pH water [1:2.5]	5.6	±	0.27
BD (g cm ⁻²)	0.8	±	0.0005
Available Magnesium (mg kg ⁻¹ dry soil)	100.4	±	4.81
Available Phosphorus (mg kg ⁻¹ dry soil)	10.4	±	1.10
Available Potassium (mg kg ⁻¹ dry soil)	97.5	±	12.83
Available Sulphate (mg kg ⁻¹ dry soil)	51.7	±	0.62
Total N (g kg ⁻¹ dry soil)	5.0	±	0.10
Total Extractable Oxidised N (mg kg ⁻¹ dry soil)	15.1	±	0.07
Ammonium N (mg kg ⁻¹ dry soil)	9.2	\pm	0.09
Organic Matter <u>Total Organic Carbon</u> (% w/w)	<u>11.76.79</u>	±	0.29<u>0.17</u>

Table 2. Average cumulative emissions of NO, N₂O over the experimental period and N₂ from day 2.6 (after flushing out of N₂ introduced with amendment) in kg N ha⁻¹

WFPS	NO-N	N_2O -N	N2-N	total N	%N as NO-N	%N as N2O-N	% N as N2-N
55%	$1.09E-04 \pm 6.28E-06$	$4.16E-03 \pm 2.35E-04^{b}$	0.00 ± 0.00 ^a	0.00 ± 0.00	na	na	na
70%	$1.41E-04 \pm 7.32E-07$ ^b	$2.69E-03 \pm 4.28E-05^{a}$	0.08 ± 0.08 ^a	0.09 ± 0.08	0.16	3.0	89
85%	$1.61E-04 \pm 5.71E-06^{a}$	$8.51E-02 \pm 3.52E-03$ ^c	0.32 ± 0.30^{a}	0.40 ± 0.31	0.04	21.2	80

Mean \pm standard error (n = 9). Different letters indicate significant differences in emissions between the WFPS treatments (p<0.05)

Dear editor and reviewers:

We would like to thank you for your comments.

Reviewer #2: The authors have unfortunately only responded to a small part of my comments on your manuscript. Possibly this is due to the change in the person of the corresponding author. Remaining are above all deficiencies concerning the reliability of the methods used and the interpretation of the presented results. Only when these have been corrected can I agree to the publication of the manuscript. However, the revision will certainly contribute to a much better recognition of the novelty value of the presented research approach.

In detail, this involves the following issues.

In general, a critical discussion of the reliability of the results is missing. This concerns first of all the measurement of gas fluxes with the DENIS system. Thus, given the low N2O fluxes at 55% and 70% WFPS and the absence of N2O in the He-O2 mixture, it is possible that negative N2O fluxes could not be detected. Furthermore, the rather surprising occurrence of N2-fluxes at 55% and 70% could well be due to leaks of the incubation system and/or a low detection sensitivity of the helium ionization detector.

Previous answer: We thank the reviewer for the points raised. We would only be able to detect concentrations that are within DLs. For consumption of N2O to occur, we would have to have N2O in the headspace which we don't have. However, there is consumption of N2O from the added N, which we measure as N2. Emissions of N2 were negligible in the 55 and 70% moisture treatments, had there been leaks in the system, all the vessels would have had high values.

R: the gas measurements are in a dynamic chamber, so there is a flow of gas continuously supplied to the headspace. We have not seen negative fluxes in this system in 20 years. Normally negative fluxes are observed in static chambers, but even in these there is controversy about negative fluxes and whether they are real.

As figure 2c shows, only the highest moisture treatment showed significant N2 fluxes, the lower moisture treatments didn't.

Another disadvantage in this context is that the investigations by DENIS did not include an unfertilized variant. The comparison of the N2O release from the control with the fertilized variant would certainly have provided clear indications as to whether the relatively high proportion of soil N in the N2O formation at 55% and 70% WFPS is also plausible. Please also address this issue briefly in the discussion.

Previous answer: We have a limited number of treatments that we can include in 1 incubation. As we needed 3 treatments (3 labelling) we sacrificed the controls for an extra replicate for the treatments (3 treatments x 4 replicates) to make experiments more robust. We were interested in the relative difference between treatments which resulted in this design, but we agree with the reviewer a control could have given us other insights.

R: we understand that the reviewer suggests that soil N might not be a large contributor to emissions. Unfortunately, even if we had included a non-fertiliser treatment, we would not be able to prove this, as adding N to the soil might have primed the microbes to take up more soil N, which might have not been taken otherwise. However, we have included some text in the discussion regarding this.

A discussion is also necessary regarding the results of the 15N-based investigations. In view of the much lower oxidation intensity of Nrec compared to the NH4 and NO3 transformations, it must be critically questioned whether the calculated high percentages of heterotrophic nitrification, especially at 55% and 70% WFPS, are at all plausible.

R: In an earlier study (Rütting, T., Müller, C., 2008. Process-specific analysis of nitrite dynamics in a permanent grassland soil by using a Monte Carlo sampling technique. European Journal of Soil Science 59, 208-215) it was shown that heterotrophic nitrification would carry out oxidation of Norg to nitrite (rather than nitrate). We also know that microbial consortia exist where a network of metabolic activity is present (see Butterbach-Bahl, K., Baggs, E.M., Dannenmann, M., Kiese, R., Zechmeister-Boltenstern, S., 2013. Nitrous oxide emissions from soils, how well do we understand the processes and their controls. Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society London B368, 16-21.) therefore it is likely that nitrite originating from the Norg pool is directly reduced to N2O (and not further oxidised to nitrate) by the activity of denitrifying organisms. This also explains that higher percentages of N2O via the organic pathway occur under higher WFPS values (i.e. more reducing conditions).

Especially serious is the lack of a comparative consideration of the results from both methods. However, this is very important because only then it becomes clear whether the coupling of different methods actually leads to synergy effects in the acquisition of new knowledge, as indicated in the introduction. Particular attention must be paid to the clarification of apparent contradictions. For example, the extremely high shares of N2, which presumably originates from denitrification, in the total amount of gaseous N losses, especially at 55% and 70% (Table 2), contradict the relatively low share of denitrification in N2O formation due to the 15N studies (Figures 7 and 8). R: we can clarify this, as the reviewer might be misunderstanding the difference between the 2 datasets:

The fluxes from the Denis system represent the total fluxes from the amended soils, including: soil N + amendment N sources.

The isotope data, are tracing the pathway of the amendment N through the soil and out as gas. So whilst Table 2 gives the total fluxes emitted, the figures (7, 8) are using the enrichment of the emitted N_2O to apportion to the different sources.

So a small flux can have a large proportion of that flux attributed to a particular source. The two methods are not comparable but supplementary.

For the generalizability of the results, it is also important to deal with the limited suitability of the WFPS for characterizing the real gas dynamics in soils (e.g. Farquharson & Baldock (2008), Plant and Soil 309, 147-16). Not least because the very low bulk density of 0.8 g soil cm-3 used here means that the absolute volume of aerated pores is still very large even at high WFPS. On arable sites with usually much higher bulk densities this is of course quite different.

R: although we agree with the reviewer using WFPS can be limited, it is still a good indicator of source processes. We have just published a literature review (Barrat et al., attached) demonstrating this and have included text in the discussion with this reference.

We also agree that even at high WFPS we can still see processes such as nitrification, and this is shown in Fig. 7 and 8. So the isotope tracing tool has helped us determine the contributions of the processes as stated in the manuscript (ie denitrification, nitrification, etc).

Minor deficits

In the section Material and Methods it must be explicitly clarified which N2O was used for the 15N analyses. With high probability, not the N2O from the DENIS facility, but from soil cores of the parallel incubation (lines 282-294).

R: we used the N_2O from the Denis system, as we have continuous data. We have added this in the methods to make it clear (2.3).

Table 1: Please indicate total organic C instead of organic matter. R: we have converted OM to TOC as requested. Highlights

- heterotrophic nitrification is an important source of N₂O at low WFPS
- similar contributions of nitrification, heterotrophic nitrification and denitrification occurred at medium WFPS level
- high N_2O emissions result via nitrification coupled denitrification at medium & high WFPS
- abiotic factors need to be considered as well as biotic factors to understand the cause of emissions

- 1 Application of a triple ¹⁵N tracing technique to elucidate N
- 2 transformations in a UK grassland soil
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28 Abstract

29 To identify the production and consumption pathways and temporal dynamics of N₂O emitted from soil, this study uses ¹⁵N-30 31 labelled substrate-N to quantify the underlying gross N transformation rates using the Ntrace analysis tool and link them 32 to N-emissions. In three experiments twelve soil cores each were 33 incubated in a lab incubation system to measure gaseous 34 emissions, while parallel incubations under the same conditions 35 were set up for destructive soil sampling at 7 time points. Using 36 the triple labelling technique (applying NH₄NO₃ with either the 37 NH_4^+ -N or the NO₃⁻-N, or both being ¹⁵N labelled), this study 38 investigated the effects of 55, 70 and 85% water filled pore 39 space (deemed to promote nitrification, both nitrification and 40 denitrification, and denitrification, respectively) in a clay soil on 41

42 gaseous N emissions and investigates the source and processes43 leading to N₂O emissions.

To assess the utilisation of applied NO_3^- vs. nitrified NO_3^- from applied NH_4^+ , the ¹⁵N tracing tool *Ntrace* was used to quantify the rates of immobilisation of NO_3^- and NH_4^+ , oxidation of NH_4^+ , mineralisation of organic N and subsequent nitrification by the analysis of the ¹⁵N in the soil. Gross transformation rates were calculated, indicating the relative importance of added NO_3^- and NO_3^- derived from nitrified added NH_4^+ .

Results show an important contribution of heterotrophic 51 nitrification (organic N oxidation to NO3⁻) which was highest at 52 53 the 55% water filled pore space (WFPS), decreasing in its 54 contribution to N-transformation processes with increasing WFPS, while nitrification (NH4⁺ oxidation to NO3⁻) was 55 56 contributing the most at 70% WFPS. The contribution of denitrification increased with increasing WFPS, but only 57 became dominant at 85% WFPS. While denitrification still 58 showed to be most important at high and nitrification at lower 59 WFPS, the actual % WFPS values were not as expected and 60 61 highlight the fact that WFPS is a contributor, but not the sole/most important parameter determining the type of N-62 transformation processes taking place. 63

64

65 Keywords

66 Nitrous oxide; denitrification; nitrification; heterotrophic67 nitrification

68 1 Introduction

Nitrous oxide (N_2O) is an important greenhouse gas (GHG) accounting for approximately 6% of the current global warming (WMO, 2018). The atmospheric N₂O concentration has been increasing since the Industrial Revolution, with soils representing its major source, making the understanding of its sources and removal processes important for the development of mitigation strategies.

Several processes have been studied to determine their 76 77 contribution to N₂O production in soils: (i) nitrification, which has been reported as autotrophic (NH4⁺ oxidation) and 78 79 heterotrophic (organic N oxidation) (Zhang et al., 2015); (ii) denitrification, due to the incomplete denitrification of nitrate 80 (NO_3) under anaerobic conditions (Attard et al., 2011); (iii) 81 82 nitrifier denitrification (Zhu et al., 2013); and (iv) chemodenitrification as a non-biological process (Van Hecke et 83 al., 1990). 84

It has been found that N₂O is mainly produced via biological processes and that emissions through nitrification and denitrification produce up to 70% of the annual emitted N₂O worldwide (Butterbach-Bahl et al., 2013). Several studies aimed to distinguish the main pathway responsible for N₂O emissions

90 (Khalil et al., 2004; Bateman and Baggs, 2005), and identify a predominant process 91 under certain conditions. While 92 nitrification requires O₂, denitrification relies on its absence or limitation and has been attributed to anoxic conditions (Khalil et 93 al., 2004). It is therefore generally agreed that water filled pore 94 space (WFPS) is one of the key factors affecting which process 95 96 dominates N₂O production. The higher the WFPS the more air in pores is replaced by water, thereby removing O_2 from the soil. 97 98 However, it is also thought that several processes can occur simultaneously in different microsites of the same soil (Arah, 99 100 1997) due to the generation of local differences in soil 101 aggregates.

102 It is well known that N₂O is produced by microorganisms who are dependent on several factors, such as environmental 103 104 conditions, nutrient availability etc. (Saggar et al., 2013), which suggests that it is also likely that the N₂O-source processes 105 106 themselves change over time due to changes in limiting factors 107 such as soil moisture and carbon availability, allowing newly 108 formed N-species to become new sources. As an example, in 109 addition to added NO₃⁻, the native soil NO₃⁻ and that produced from nitrification of applied or soil NH_4^+ , can also be a source of 110 N₂O via denitrification following nitrification. 111

Different methods have been applied to identify the occurrence
and importance of different processes under different conditions.
Amongst those are ¹⁵N-labelling techniques (Stark, 2000), as

well as isotopologue analyses of N₂O and O₂ ($^{15}N/^{18}O$) (Meijide

116 et al., 2010; Bergstermann et al., 2011; Wu et al., 2016).

117 When aiming to determine how important different processes are under certain environmental conditions and management (e.g. 118 soil moisture, C and N applications, etc), incubation 119 experiments, where single factors and combinations of these can 120 121 be manipulated, are the methodology of choice. Automated systems such as the denitrification incubation system, DENIS 122 123 (Cárdenas et al., 2003) at Rothamsted have proven useful for process determination. In the DENIS, soil cores are incubated 124 125 under an N2-free atmosphere, allowing direct measurements of 126 all emitted N gases (NO, N2O and N2) as well as CO2. The 127 transformation of N in soils and particularly the production of N₂O from different sources, such as fertilisers or animal excreta, 128 129 has been studied through a series of laboratory incubation experiments (i.a. Meijide et al. (2010), Bergstermann et al. 130 (2011), Loick et al. (2017)) using this system. The advantage of 131 132 this system, when looking at N₂O source processes is, that under 133 an N₂ free atmosphere it is possible to measure N₂ which, 134 depending on the initial conditions, can only be produced via complete denitrification. 135

136 In order to fully investigate transformations leading to N_2O 137 production and removal, quantifying their contributions and 138 assessing the potential for change of processes, a combination of laboratory experiments with models/analysis tools at the samescale offer great potential.

One process model/analysis tool using ¹⁵N distribution in the 141 data obtained from ¹⁵N labelling experiments has been 142 developed by Müller et al. (2004; 2007). This analysis tool, 143 represents an improvement of the dilution model by Kirkham 144 145 and Bartholomew (1954), and includes soil nitrite and gaseous compounds emitted. It traces ¹⁵N applied to soil and quantifies 146 the gross N rates based on measurements of the partition of ¹⁵N 147 in soil pools from dual or triple isotope labelling of the source. 148 149 The model determines the most suitable dynamics through the 150 best Akaike's Information Criterion (AIC). The objective of this 151 study is to show how N-transformation processes leading to N2O emissions change over time and how WFPS can influence the 152 153 initial dominance of certain processes but does not necessarily determine a sole process. The advantage of the triple labelling 154 155 technique is that production of N₂O from an organic (unlabelled) source outside the mineral N pools can be unambiguously 156 157 determined because if all relevant mineral N pools are labelled 158 then a dilution of the N₂O has to arrive from outside that system. 159 Also, for the parameter optimisation techniques it provides additional observations which reduce the danger of over 160 161 parameterisation during parameter optimisation

To achieve this the triple labelling technique using Ammonium
Nitrate (NH₄NO₃) was applied as a substrate with the N being

labelled with ¹⁵N in its different positions. Changes in soil N 164 $(NO_2^-, NO_3^-, and NH_4^+)$ were measured to quantify the 165 underlying gross N transformation rates using the Ntrace 166 167 analysis tool (Müller et al., 2007) with the measured emissions to then identify sub-rates based on the ¹⁵N distribution in the 168 data. This was linked to gaseous N-emissions to identify the 169 170 production and consumption pathways and temporal dynamics of N₂O. In order to determine the source of N₂O from the triple 171 172 labelling experiment, the DENIS was extended by connecting it to a GC-MS to include continuous measurements of emitted ¹⁵N-173 174 N_2O .

We will test the following hypothesis: 1) that NO and N₂O losses at different soil moisture levels will decrease at higher moisture values due to easier diffusion and conversion to N₂; 2) that at the highest soil moisture N₂O is mostly derived from NO₃⁻ whilst at the low moisture from NH₄⁺; 3) that nitrification and denitrification are the main sources of N₂O at all moistures.

181

182 2 Materials and Methods

183 2.1 Soil Preparation

A clayey pelostagnogley soil of the Hallsworth series (Clayden and Hollis, 1984) (44% clay, 40% silt, 15% sand (w/w), Table
1) was collected on the 26th of May 2015 from a typical grassland in SW England, located at Rothamsted Research,

188	North Wyke, Devon, UK (50°46'10"'N, 3°54'05"'W). Spade-
189	squares (20 x 20 cm to a depth of 15 cm) of soil were taken from
190	12 locations along a 'W' line across a field of 600 m^2 size, which
191	had not had any grazing animals on it, nor received any fertiliser
192	input for over 20 years. After sampling, the soil was air dried to
193	~30% H_2O (gravimetric moisture content), roots and plant
194	residues were removed, and the soil sieved to <2 mm and stored
195	at 4°C before packing into cores and starting the incubation.
196	Initial soil characteristics are given in Table 1.

197

198 2.2 Experimental Design

The incubation experiment was carried out using the DENIS, a 199 200 specialized gas-flow-soil-core incubation system (Cárdenas et al., 2003) in which environmental conditions can be tightly 201 202 controlled. The DENIS simultaneously incubates a maximum of 203 12 vessels containing one soil core each. Cores were packed to a bulk density of 0.8 g cm⁻³ to reflect field conditions, to a height 204 of 75 mm into stainless steel sleeves of 141 mm diameter. Due 205 to the limited space within the DENIS and the requirement for 206 replication, three experiments (see below) were performed 207 directly one after another under the same tightly controlled 208 209 conditions (i.e. temperature, gas flow, amendment application). All soil was kept in the fridge (4°C) until needed and treated to 210 211 the same time scales to prevent any changes in soil characteristics. 212

213	To promote nitrification-, denitrification- or a combination of
214	both, each experiment was performed at a different WFPS
215	(Bollmann and Conrad, 1998; Butterbach-Bahl et al., 2013). The
216	soil moisture was adjusted to 55%, 70% or 85% WFPS,
217	respectively, taking the amendment with nutrient solution into
218	account. To measure N_2 fluxes, the native N_2 was removed from
219	the soil and headspace without limiting O ₂ levels that would be
220	present in air. This was achieved by using a helium-oxygen
221	mixture He:O ₂ of 80:20. First the soil cores were flushed from
222	the bottom at a flow rate of 30 ml min ^{-1} for 14 h. To measure
223	baseline emissions, flow rates were then decreased to 12 ml
224	min^{-1} and the flow re-directed over the surface of the soil core
225	for three days before amendment application and for the
226	remaining experimental period. The vessels were kept at 20°C
227	during flushing as well as for the 13-day incubation period after
228	amendment application.

Three incubations were needed to accommodate the different ¹⁵N 229 treatments and soil moisture levels. Each incubation involved the 230 following three treatments of NH4NO3 (Sigma-Aldrich, St. 231 Louis, MO, USA), with three replicate vessels per treatment: i) 232 $^{15}\mathrm{NO}_3$ = cores amended with single labelled $\mathrm{NH_4}^{15}\mathrm{NO}_3$ at 50 233 atom%; ii) ${}^{15}NH_4$ = cores amended with single labelled 234 $^{15}\text{NH}_4\text{NO}_3$ at 50 atom%; iii) $^{15}\text{NO}_3{}^{15}\text{NH}_4$ = cores amended with 235 double labelled ¹⁵NH4¹⁵NO3 at 50 atom%. Considering the total 236 surface area of the vessel, N was applied at a rate of 75 kg N 237

ha⁻¹. The applied rate of N equates to 125 mg N kg⁻¹ dry soil, which was dissolved in 50 ml of H₂O before being applied to the soil. To maintain the incubation conditions, the amendment was applied to each of the three cores via a sealed amendment container on top of the incubation vessel. Before amendment application the headspace of the amendment vessel was flushed with He to prevent any atmospheric N₂ entering the system.

Additionally, a parallel incubation only for destructive soil 245 246 sampling at 7 time-points after treatment application (5 h, days 1, 2, 3, 4, 7, 10) with 3 replicates of each was performed each 247 248 time. For logistical reasons smaller cores (4.5 cm diameter) had 249 to be used, which were packed with the same soil and to the same 250 specifications used for the DENIS incubation and kept under the same controlled conditions. At the sampling time, soil was 251 252 analysed for extractable Ammonium (NH_4^+) , Nitrate (NO_3^-) , Nitrite (NO₂⁻) concentrations and ¹⁵N-enrichment of those 253 molecules (¹⁵NH₄⁺, ¹⁵NO₃⁻, ¹⁵NO₂⁻). 254

255

256 **2.3** Gas analyses

Gas samples were taken every four hours for each vessel from the Denis system. Fluxes of N_2O and CO_2 were quantified using a Perkin Elmer Clarus 500 gas chromatograph (Perkin Elmer Instruments, Beaconsfield, UK) equipped with an electron capture detector (ECD) for N_2O and CO_2 . N_2 emissions were measured by gas chromatography with a helium ionisation 263 detector (VICI AG International, Schenkon, Switzerland), while NO concentrations were determined by chemiluminescence 264 (Sievers NOA280i, GE Instruments, Colorado, USA). All gas 265 266 concentrations were corrected for the surface area and flow rate going through the vessel (measured daily). Fluxes were 267 calculated on a kg N or C ha⁻¹ day⁻¹ basis. Isotopic signatures 268 269 were determined via isotope ratio mass spectrometer (PDZ Europa 20-20 Stable Isotope Analyser, Sercon, Crewe, UK) 270 271 linked to an ANCA-TGII gas preparation system (Sercon, 272 Crewe, UK).

273

274 2.4 Soil analyses

275 The initial soil N was measured at the start of each incubation by randomly taking three 100 g samples from the bulk soil before 276 277 core packing and WFPS adjustment. This soil was analysed for total extractable oxidised N (TO_xN, combined amount of NO₂⁻ 278 and NO_3^{-}) and NH_4^{+} . Soil samples (100 g) from the parallel 279 280 incubation were analysed for extractable NO_2^- , NO_3^- and NH_4^+ concentrations at each time point. WFPS was calculated from 281 soil moisture contents by drying a subsample (50 g) at 105°C 282 overnight. Soil extractable NO₂⁻, NO₃⁻ and NH₄⁺, concentrations 283 were analysed after blending the samples with 2M KCl at pH 8 284 following the method of Stevens and Laughlin (1995). The 285 analysed colourimetry 286 extracts were by using а Spectrophotometer (Cecil Instruments, Cambridge, UK) for the 287

288	analysis of NO ₂ , or an Aquakem 250 discrete photometric
289	analyser (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Hemel Hempsted, UK) for
290	the analysis of NO_3^- and NH_4^+ . The ¹⁵ N abundances of the NO_2^-
291	, $\mathrm{NO}_3^{\scriptscriptstyle -}$ and NH_{4^+} were determined by methods based on the
292	generation of N ₂ O for isotope ratio mass spectrometry (IRMS).
293	The production of N_2O from NO_2^- and NO_3^- is based on the
294	reaction between NO_2^- and NH_2OH under acid conditions and
295	the NO_3^- having been reduced to NO_2^- with Cd (Stevens and
296	Laughlin, 1994). The production of N_2O from NH_4^+ consists of
297	a diffusion stage where ammonia (NH ₃) is absorbed into H ₂ SO ₄
298	followed by an oxidation step where recovered (NH ₄) ₂ SO ₄ is
299	oxidised to N_2 by alkaline NaOBr, during which N_2O is
300	produced as a by-product (Laughlin et al., 1997). In each case,
301	the resulting N ₂ O was transferred to an Exetainer (Labco Ltd,
302	Lampeter, Wales). The N ₂ O enrichment was determined using a
303	Gilson Autosampler (Gilson UK, Dunstable, UK) by IRMS as
304	described in the gas analyses section.

305

306 2.5 Statistical analysis

307 Statistical analysis was performed using GenStat 16th edition 308 (VSN International Ltd). Prior to the statistical tests all data were 309 analysed to proof their normal distribution (Kolmogorove-310 Smirnov test) and equality of variance (Levene test). Cumulative 311 emissions of NO, N₂O, N₂ and CO₂ were calculated from the area under the curve (time vs flux as shown in figure 2) afterlinear interpolation between sampling points.

314

315 2.6 Analysis of N₂O source contribution

To determine the contribution of different sources to N2O 316 emissions the *Ntrace*_{basic} analysis tool by Müller et al. (2007) 317 was used. This analysis tool represents an extension of the 318 dilution approach of Kirkham and Bartholomew (1954) and 319 quantifies gross N rates based on measured data. To achieve this, 320 321 a model is used to quantify the individual gross rates, connecting the various soil N pools by parameter optimization routines. 322 The gross N transformation rates quantified where: 323 324 M_{Nrec} , mineralization of recalcitrant organic N to NH₄⁺;

- 325 M_{Nlab} , mineralization of labile organic N (e.g., monomolecular
- 326 organic N, amino acids, proteins) to NH_4^+ ;
- 327 $I_{NH4Nrec}$, immobilization of NH₄⁺ to recalcitrant organic N;
- 328 $I_{NH4Nlab}$, immobilization of NH₄⁺ to labile organic N;
- 329 A_{NH4} , adsorption of NH₄⁺ on exchange sites;
- 330 R_{NH4a} , release of adsorbed NH₄⁺;
- 331 O_{NH4} , oxidation of NH₄⁺ to NO₃⁻;

332 O_{Nrec} , oxidation of organic N to NO₃⁻; (heterotrophic

- 333 nitrification)
- as well as the following 4 rates, which were, however,negligible:
- 336 I_{NO3} , immobilization of NO₃⁻ to recalcitrant organic N;

337 D_{NO3} , dissimilatory reduction of NO₃⁻ to NH₄⁺;

338 A_{NO3} , adsorption of NO₃⁻ to labile organic N;

339 R_{NO3} , release of adsorbed NO₃⁻

One feature of *Ntrace* is to identify the simplest model structure 340 that is sufficient and adequate to explain the measured data. 341 Therefore, a range of different model versions (including/ 342 343 excluding certain transformation rates) and/or kinetic setting are tested. The most suitable model is then identified by comparing 344 345 the AIC of each model run which takes the goodness of fit and the number of parameters used into account. Thus, this tool also 346 identifies rates which are not needed to explain the overall 347 348 dynamics (e.g. the mineralization of labile organic N in our 349 case). Figure 1 shows the full conceptual model according to Müller et al. (2014) indicating the rates used based on the 2007 350 351 model (Müller et al., 2007) in the top left area.

Pathway specific N₂O emissions were determined by assuming that N₂O originated from the NH₄⁺, organic N and NO₃⁻ pool (Fig. 1) (Stange et al., 2009; Müller et al., 2014). The contributions of these three pools were calculated by the parameter identification routine described by Rütting et al. (2010):

358
$$a_{N20} = C_{NH4} \times a_{NH4} + C_{ON} \times a_{ON} + C_{NO3} \times a_{NO3} \quad (1)$$

359
$$C_{NH4} + C_{ON} + C_{NO3} = 1$$
 (2)

Where a_{N20} is the ¹⁵N abundance of N₂O produced during incubation, a_{NH4} , a_{ON} and a_{NO3} are the ¹⁵N abundance of NH₄⁺, organic N and NO₃⁻, respectively, and C_{NH4} , C_{ON} and C_{NO3} are the contributions from oxidation of NH₄⁺ to NO₃⁻, oxidation of organic N to NO₃⁻ and reduction of NO₃⁻ to total N₂O production, respectively.

366

367 3 **Results**

368 **3.1** Fluxes of N gases and CO₂

Nitric oxide emissions increased in all treatments (Fig. 2a) during the incubation period. At the highest moisture of 85% WFPS, NO emissions reach a plateau after 6 days and start to decrease after 10 days. For the 2 lower moisture levels emissions were increasing over the whole course of the experiment. Emissions increased significantly with WFPS, as shown.

Nitrous oxide emissions (Fig. 2b) were very low and near the 375 376 detection limit (N₂O: 0.5 ppm, equivalent to a flux of 0.00027 kg N ha⁻¹ h⁻¹) in the two lower WFPS treatments. In the 85% WFPS 377 treatment N₂O emissions were significantly higher (p < 0.05) than 378 the other 2 treatments and showed a peak at day 1 of around 14 379 g N ha⁻¹ h⁻¹ after which emissions decreased to around 3 g N ha⁻ 380 ¹ h⁻¹ by the end of the experiment. At the lower WFPS of 55 and 381 70%, N₂O emissions were not significantly different between the 382 WFPS treatments. 383

Nitrogen gas emissions (Fig. 2c) were low in the 55% and 70%
WFPS treatments and did not show a peak. Higher N₂ emissions

were detected in the 85% WFPS treatment with a peak at around day 2. After day 5, N_2 emissions were low as in the other two treatments. Some N_2 was introduced into the system when the amendment was applied. This took about 1 day to disappear (see high soil moisture treatment) (see Fig. 2).

The total amounts of N emitted as NO, N_2O and N_2 show an 391 392 increase with increasing WFPS (Tab.2). However, total amounts of NO-N were almost insignificant making up less than 0.04% 393 394 of total N emissions. Total emissions of N₂O were low in the 55% and 70% WFPS treatment (<3% of total N emissions), but 395 significantly higher at the highest WFPS of 85% (21.3% of total 396 397 N emissions). N₂ emissions was only any significantly different 398 at the high soil moisture. The N2-N represented the largest component of the emitted N at least 80%. The N₂O-N to N₂-N 399 400 ratios were smaller at the middle soil moisture (0.03) compared to 0.27 at 85% WFPS. 401

Carbon dioxide emissions (Fig. 2d) increased immediately after 402 the application of NH₄NO₃ and showed a maximum on day 2 in 403 404 the 55% and 85% WFPS treatments decreasing afterwards. In 405 the 70% WFPS treatment emissions seem to have decreased in the first day to recover in day 2 which was followed by a steady 406 decrease similarly to the other 2 treatments. Values for the 70% 407 408 WFPS treatment were the lowest during all the incubation 409 compared to the other 2 treatments.

411 **3.2** Proportion of N_2O from added N

Results of the estimation of the proportion of N₂O derived from 412 the applied treatments showed that initially, at 55% WFPS, very 413 414 little N₂O emissions derived from added single-labelled NH₄⁺ (Fig. 3a, \circ). Larger amounts derived from added labelled ¹⁵N, 415 were found in the other ¹⁵N-treatments within the first day (up to 416 50% from ¹⁵NH₄¹⁵NO₃). Those rapidly decreased and became 417 similar to the ¹⁵NH₄⁺ treatment after 24 hours. For the rest of the 418 419 incubation similar proportions of N₂O derived from all labelled 420 amendments. Those proportions increased until day 12 when 421 they reached about 10%.

The trends changed in the 70% moisture treatment (Fig. 3b), where the proportion of N₂O from the added ¹⁵N initially increased for all ¹⁵N amendments. After day 1 the proportion remained the same for the ¹⁵NO₃⁻ amendment (\blacktriangle) but kept increasing steadily for the other ¹⁵N-amendments reaching 25 and 30% for ¹⁵NH₄⁺ and ¹⁵NH₄¹⁵NO₃, respectively.

For the highest moisture treatment (Fig. 3c), the proportion of 428 429 N₂O from labelled N also increased on the first day for all treatments, however, with ¹⁵NO₃ and ¹⁵NH₄¹⁵NO₃ the increase 430 was significantly higher than with $^{15}NH_4$ (o; up to 50%). After 431 this day, the contribution of the labelled amendment to N₂O 432 emissions decreased for those amendments, reducing to 20 and 433 40% for ¹⁵NO₃ and ¹⁵NH₄¹⁵NO₃, respectively on day 13. In the 434 ¹⁵NH₄ treatment on the other hand, N₂O emissions decreased 435

436 slightly after the maximum in day 1 and then continued to437 increase, reaching 20% on day 13.

438

439 **3.3** Soil N concentrations and ¹⁵N enrichment

Analysis of the soil N before each incubation and before core packing showed the following values of TO_xN : 0.0681 (±0.001), 0.1335 (±0.0112) and 0.0844 (±0.0096) mg g⁻¹ dry soil for 55, 70 and 85% WFPS-incubations, respectively. For NH₄⁺, values were 0.0869 (±0.0044), 0.0485 (±0.0010) and 0.0957 (±0.0017) mg g⁻¹ dry soil for 55, 70 and 85% WFPS-incubations, respectively.

447

Figure 4 shows the dynamics of the analysed N forms in the soil 448 throughout the experiment. Soil NO_2^- was of the order of 0.1 µg 449 N g⁻¹ dry soil during the incubation period and slightly higher in 450 the 85% WFPS treatment. Soil NH4⁺ and NO3⁻ concentrations 451 were around 1000 times higher than NO_2^- , with more NO_3^- than 452 453 NH_4^+ in the 70% and 85% WFPS treatments, while no differences in soil NH4⁺ and NO3⁻ could be detected in the 454 455 55% WFPS treatment.

The 70 and 85% WFPS treatments showed larger changes in the time series with soil NO_3^- increasing and NH_4^+ decreasing, while those concentrations remained relatively constant and of similar

459 magnitude (around 0.15 mg N g^{-1} dry soil⁻¹) in the 55% moisture 460 treatment.

461

The ¹⁵N-enrichment of soil NO₂⁻, NO₃⁻ and NH₄ is shown in 462 Figure 5. The lowest ¹⁵N-enrichment of soil NO₂⁻ and NO₃⁻ was 463 from the ${}^{15}NH_4$ amendment (•) (Fig. 5a and b) for all moisture 464 treatments while a higher enrichment of those two soil 465 components was found when ${}^{15}NO_3$ (\blacktriangle) or ${}^{15}NH_4{}^{15}NO_3$ (\blacksquare) 466 467 were applied (Fig. 5d,e,g and h). Values of enriched NO₂⁻ were generally lower than those of enriched NO_3^- (5 vs. 20 atom%) 468 469 (Fig. 5a and b). Soil ¹⁵N-enrichment of NO₃⁻ was generally in the 470 order 85%>55%>70% WFPS (solid blue, dotted orange, dashed green) when the soil was amended with ¹⁵NO₃ or ¹⁵NH₄¹⁵NO₃ 471 (Fig. 5e and h). 472

The amendment with ${}^{15}NO_3$ (\blacktriangle) resulted in lowest soil NH₄⁺ 473 enrichment (Fig. 5f) at 70 and 85% WFPS, while the opposite 474 was found for the initial 4 days when soil was at 55% WFPS. 475 Here treating the soil with ¹⁵NO₃ resulted in higher soil NH₄⁺ 476 enrichment than soil treated with ¹⁵NH₄ or ¹⁵NH₄¹⁵NO₃. There 477 478 was no significant difference in the enrichment of the soil NH₄⁺ depending on whether the soil was amended with ¹⁵NH₄ or 479 ¹⁵NH₄¹⁵NO₃; enrichment was higher for the 70 and 85% WFPS 480 481 treatments than the 55% one (Fig. 5c and i).

As previously mentioned, compared to the other amendments the
 addition of ¹⁵NH₄ resulted in significantly lower enrichment of

¹⁵N-labelled NO₂⁻ as well as NO₃⁻ for all WFPS treatments and a significant decrease in 15 NH₄⁺ at the lower WFPS values of 55 and 70%.

When applying ${}^{15}NO_3$ the only significant changes in the enrichment of ${}^{15}N$ -labelled compounds was found at 85% WFPS where ${}^{15}N$ -labelled NO_3^- enrichment was significantly lower at the end of the 10-day experiment and at 55% WFPS where ${}^{15}N$ labelled NH_4^+ enrichment was also significantly lower at the end of the experimental period (Fig.5d-f).

493 Applying ¹⁵NH4¹⁵NO₃ did not result in any significant changes 494 in the enrichment of ¹⁵N-labelled NO₂⁻ or NO₃⁻ at any of the 495 WFPSs. However, a significantly lower enrichment of ¹⁵N-496 labelled NH4⁺ between the beginning and end of the 497 experimental period was found for all WFPS values (Fig. 5g-i). 498

499 **3.4** Analysis of transformation rates

500 The results of the Ntrace analysis tool (Fig. 1) showed that gross transformation rates of NO3⁻ and NH4⁺ and Mineralisation of 501 labile N to NH4⁺ were generally highest at 55% WFPS and 502 mostly decreased with increasing WFPS (Fig. 6a-c). Oxidation 503 504 of recalcitrant N to NO₃, however increased with increasing WFPS (Fig. 6d). Desorption of adsorbed NH₄⁺ as well as NO₃⁻ 505 was highest at 70% WFPS (Fig. 6e), although not statistically 506 507 significant, while the transformation of NH_4^+ to NO_3^- was significantly lower at this WFPS than at the higher or lowerWFPS (Fig. 6a).

510

511 **3.5** Apportioning of N₂O emissions

Figure 7 shows the resulting apportioning of the N₂O emissions 512 513 to the three different processes: heterotrophic nitrification, denitrification and nitrification. At 55% WFPS, an initial large 514 contribution of denitrification is shown, which quickly 515 decreased in favour of heterotrophic nitrification (30%) by the 516 517 end of day 1. Heterotrophic nitrification remained the dominant process throughout the incubation except on days 4 and 10, when 518 519 the sum of denitrification and autotrophic nitrification where 520 approximately 50%.

At 70% WFPS, heterotrophic nitrification dominated at the start of the incubation vs denitrification (70 vs 30%) but decreased in importance with time to almost zero at the end of the incubation, when autotrophic nitrification became more dominant (65%).

At 85% WFPS, heterotrophic nitrification is only relevant on the first day (80%); from then on, denitrification dominated (100% on days 1-2) and remained at about 60-80% with the rest of the contribution coming from autotrophic nitrification.

The summary graph (Fig. 8) shows the average contribution of each process to N_2O emissions as total amounts of N_2O -N emitted, as well as percentage of N_2O emitted by each of the three processes. With increasing soil moisture, an increase in the contribution from denitrification to N₂O emissions was found,
whilst the contribution from heterotrophic nitrification
decreased. For autotrophic nitrification, however, the largest
contribution was at the intermediate soil moisture of 70% WFPS.

538 4 **Discussion**

In a recent literature review and meta-analysis, Barrat et al. 539 (2020) found that WFPS was a significant explanatory variable 540 541 for N₂O emissions and this was affected by the prior moisture 542 status of the soil. In our experiments, the soils were prepared in a standard manner, so only the final moisture status at the start 543 544 of the incubation differed. Therefore in our study, we investigated the relative differences between the 3 soil moisture 545 546 status (or WFPS) on N partitioning in the soil N compounds 547 and the N emitted compounds, and the apportioning of N_2O emissions to different processes. 548

549 4.1 Process dependent N-emissions at different WFPS

550 Denitrification, if complete, transforms the produced N₂O into 551 N₂. Denitrification is commonly incomplete with N₂O not being 552 transformed to N₂ due to a lack of N₂O reductase (Nos) in the 553 microbial community, or due to a sufficient supply of NO₃⁻ 554 whose reduction is energetically more favourable than the 555 reduction of N₂O to N₂ (Saggar et al., 2013). Due to incomplete 556 denitrification, highest N₂O production is expected from

557 denitrification and consequently from soils with a relatively higher WFPS. However, the importance and dominance of 558 559 certain processes ultimately depends on the microbial 560 community present in the soil and its activity which is influenced by the soil conditions. In our study we used a grassland soil that, 561 has not had any fertiliser input, nor been grazed and therefore 562 563 has not received animal excrements as a nutrient source for over 20 years. We assume that due to the management of the field 564 565 lacking regular supply of nutrients, the microbial community within the soil would have differed from those communities 566 567 found in other grasslands (Denef et al., 2009). This would have 568 had an influence on the N-transformation processes in this soil. 569 Additionally, it has been shown that soil moisture content influences nutrient availability and movement through the soil 570 571 (Misra and Tyler, 1999) therefore influencing access of those nutrients transported within a solution to the present microbial 572 573 community and subsequently influencing N transformation 574 processes.

In addition, the contributions observed from the treatments applied to the emitted N₂O were generally less than 50%, implying that the soil N pool was a larger contributor. We had no zero N treatment in our experimental design to confirm this, however, even if we had this, it is possible that the soil microbial community was primed by added N (Müller and Clough, 2014),
so more of the soil N would have been utilised in the N treatedsoils, than in a zero N control.

583 4.1.1 N-emission processes at 85% WFPS

In our study, the highest N₂O emissions were found at WFPS of 584 85% and these emissions decreased over time. At this high 585 WFPS the dual labelling analysis showed that more N₂O was 586 derived from the applied NO₃⁻ (Fig. 3c, initially ¹⁵NO₃⁻ 587 contributed over 50% while ${}^{15}NH_4^+$ contributed less than 5%), 588 indicating that denitrification was the dominant process in our 589 590 experiment. Over the course of the experiment at 85% WFPS, the proportion of N₂O from the ¹⁵N labelled NO₃⁻ decreased, 591 while that of NH₄⁺ increased. 592

A possible explanation for the increased contribution of applied 593 ¹⁵N-NH₄⁺ in N₂O emissions could be that the measured ¹⁵N-N₂O 594 derived from ¹⁵NO₃⁻ which had previously been produced via 595 nitrification from the added ¹⁵NH₄⁺. The results of soil NO₃⁻ 596 agree with this as there was an increase during the incubation 597 598 coinciding with a decrease in soil NH₄⁺. The initial increase in CO₂ reflects aerobic respiration after the treatments were applied 599 that settles at the end of the peak at about days 3-4. The N₂ fluxes 600 up till day 4 in the highest soil moisture treatment can be 601 explained by an increase in anaerobicity during this period 602 promoting denitrification. It is possible, that O₂ concentrations 603 recover with time, changing conditions from promoting 604

605 denitrification to promoting nitrification where N₂O is produced from hydroxylamine NH₂OH. Nitrifying conditions might have 606 also developed at the surface by drying of the upper layers of the 607 608 soil. Though moisture contents of the soil cores used in this 609 experiment did not change significantly over time, it has been shown in previous experiments that water can redistribute from 610 611 top to bottom creating more aerobic, nitrification promoting conditions at the surface where gas exchange with the 612 613 atmosphere takes place (Loick et al., 2016). However, our results suggest that most of the detected N₂O came from denitrification 614 615 of the NO₃⁻ produced via nitrification of the applied ¹⁵NH₄⁺ due 616 to the increase in NO_3^- and a general decrease in NH_4^+ at 85% 617 WFPS (Fig. 4). Therefore, while nitrification is taking place even under this high WFPS, denitrification is still the dominant 618 619 process producing N₂O. This is further supported by soil ^{15}N analysis (Fig. 5), where results show a significant increase in soil 620 $^{15}\text{NO}_3^-$ in the $^{15}\text{NH}_4^+$ treatments, while the enrichment of $^{15}\text{NH}_4^+$ 621 in the same treatment significantly decreased. 622

Emissions of other N-gases produced during N transformation processes provide additional support that denitrification was most important at the highest WFPS of 85%. Higher emissions of N₂ (Fig. 2c), the final product of denitrification indicate that complete denitrification had been achieved for some of the available NO_3^- .

629 4.1.2 N-emission processes at 70% WFPS

At the intermediate WFPS of 70% it was expected that 630 nitrification and denitrification would be equally important. In 631 632 fact, the results of the Ntrace analysis tool show an equal contribution of denitrification, nitrification and heterotrophic 633 nitrification at 70% WFPS. ¹⁵N soil analysis also supports a near 634 equal distribution of nitrification and denitrification with ¹⁵NH₄⁺ 635 showing a decrease and ¹⁵NO₃⁻ a corresponding increase when 636 $^{15}NH_4^+$ was added (Fig. 5b/c). The analysis of $^{15}N_2O$ (Fig. 3b) 637 revealed an approximately 3 times higher contribution of the 638 639 added ${}^{15}NO_3^-$ to N₂O emissions than that of added ${}^{15}NH_4^+$, 640 indicating that most of the emitted N₂O was produced via 641 denitrification. However, total amounts of N₂O were very small, as were CO_2 emissions (Fig. 2d), both indicating that the 642 microbial N-transformation processes and denitrification in 643 particular were very slow/small under these conditions. 644

645 4.1.3. N-emission processes at 55% WFPS

The lowest WFPS of 55% was chosen to promote nitrification. 646 647 The results of the *Ntrace* analysis tool support that this was the with nitrification heterotrophic nitrification 648 case and contributing to about 80% of N₂O emissions (Fig.8), while 649 650 denitrification only played a role at the very beginning of the incubation after amendment was applied, which would have 651 temporarily increased the WFPS at the top of the core and 652 653 promoted anaerobic, denitrifying conditions prior to the

654 amendment solution percolating into the soil. This is supported by the ¹⁵N analysis of the emitted N₂O, which initially showed a 655 high contribution of added ¹⁵NO₃⁻ to N₂O emissions, indicating 656 657 denitrification being the main process producing N₂O, which quickly declined. By day 1 both, applied ¹⁵NO₃, as well as 658 $^{15}NH_4^+$, contributed equally to N₂O emissions. (Fig.3a). 659 660 Considering that N₂O is not an obligatory intermediate during nitrification, but merely a potential by-product (Anderson, 661 662 1964), these results also indicate that nitrification processes dominate over denitrification under these low moisture 663 conditions. 664

665

666 4.2 Influence of WFPS on soil N-transformation

667 *processes*

668 Our study demonstrates the influence of WFPS on soil Ntransformation processes. Generally, gross soil N transformation 669 rates associated with both NH4⁺ and NO3⁻ turnover decreased 670 with increasing WFPS. The total contribution of nitrification to 671 soil N transformation processes was higher at low WFPS and 672 decreased with increasing WFPS. However, an interesting 673 observation was that the oxidation of organic N to NO3⁻ 674 increased almost 5-fold from 70 to 85% WFPS which may 675 support the higher denitrification rate by supplying additional 676 electron acceptors. However, this increase was not paralleled by 677 an increase of N₂O emitted. This may be due to an increasing 678

reduction of N_2O to N_2 (i.e. increasing $N_2:N_2O$ ratio or decrease in $N_2O:N_2$ as described earlier) under increasing anaerobicity (Butterbach-Bahl et al., 2013).

682 The optimal conditions for nitrification are said to occur between 30-60% WFPS (Medinets et al., 2015). Emissions of NO can 683 derive from nitrification as well as denitrification, though it has 684 685 been found that the rates of produced NO measured as emissions are higher under drier conditions, where a lower WFPS leaves 686 687 more air-filled pores enabling NO to escape to the surface (Pilegaard, 2013). At WFPS above 65% it is believed that 688 emissions of N2O and N2 increase due to an increase in 689 690 denitrification. NO, however, while it is being produced to a 691 larger extent at high soil moisture, is also reduced to N₂O due to a longer residence time decreasing the amount emitted to the 692 693 surface (Pilegaard, 2013). In this study, the observed increase in NO emissions with increasing moisture levels suggests 694 denitrification was the source. Loick et al. (2016) concluded that 695 up to 0.67% of the added N (from a nitrate source) was emitted 696 697 as NO from denitrification supporting our findings.

Our results did not confirm our first hypothesis that losses are lower at higher moisture levels for NO and N_2O . In fact, for all gases, losses were higher at the high soil moisture possibly because the soil was not saturated enough to impede gas diffusion. Our second hypothesis was partly proved, as at the high soil moisture the proportion of N_2O from nitrate containing

amendments was higher. The results for the lower moisture level did not agree with our hypothesis as the proportion of N₂O from all the amendments was similar and not mainly from NH_4^+ .

707 Overall, our results support the assumption that nitrification 708 (autotrophic as well as heterotrophic) plays a bigger part at lower WFPS, when air filled pores increase aerobicity, while 709 710 denitrification becomes more important the higher the WFPS and therefore the lower the aerobicity. With our ¹⁵N tracing 711 712 approach we found that heterotrophic nitrification was the 713 dominant process at 55% WFPS disproving our third hypothesis 714 that nitrification and denitrification dominate at all moisture 715 levels, its contribution quickly decreased with increasing WFPS, 716 while nitrification contributed most at the intermediate WFPS of 717 70% and least at 55%. Heterotrophic nitrification has been 718 reported in previous studies as dependent on soil pH, C:N ratio and land use and that it can contribute up to 85% of the total N₂O 719 720 flux in soils with pH values between 4.2 to 8.4 (Zhang et al., 2015). This process converts organic N (although it is believed 721 722 it also happens with inorganic N sources (Zhang et al., 2014)) to 723 NO_3^{-} . It is believed this occurs particularly in acidic soils where 724 autotrophic nitrification can be inhibited. The soil used in this 725 study was of pH 5.6 (Table 1) placing it within the soils that can 726 potentially undergo this process. Müller et al. (2014) stated that heterotrophic nitrification is a contributor to N₂O emissions in 727 grassland soils with high organic matter contents. This further 728

729 supports the finding that this process occurs in this study 730 (organic matter content 11.7% Table 1). In the study by Rütting 731 and Müller (2008) it was shown that heterotrophic nitrification 732 would carry out oxidation of organic N to NO₂⁻ (rather than NO₃⁻ 733). We also know that microbial consortia exist where a network of metabolic activity is present (Butterbach-Bahl et al., 2013), 734 735 therefore it is likely that NO₂ originating from the organic N pool is directly reduced to N_2O (and not further oxidised to NO_3^-) by 736 737 the activity of denitrifying organisms. This also explains that higher percentages of N₂O via the organic pathway occur under 738 739 higher WFPS values.

At the WFPS above 70% it has been shown that N_2O is produced solely by denitrification (Bateman and Baggs, 2005). However, in our case denitrification only became dominant at 85% WFPS, and denitrification contributed about 70% of the N_2O emissions at this WFPS (Fig. 7,8), while overall not much activity was found at neither 50, nor 70% WFPS.

The lower N_2O emissions for the 2 lower moisture levels over the course of the experiment could be due to a slower response of the microbial community to the added N compared to the highest soil moisture treatment where nutrient availability is expected to be higher (Papendick and Camprell, 1981).

Emissions of CO₂ have been used as an indicator of microbial respiration and activity (López-Aizpún et al., 2018). In this study the results indicate that the microbial community was most active at a WFPS of 85% in agreement with the above statement,
but this was followed by the driest treatment and the least active
was at the intermediate WFPS of 70% coinciding with the N₂O
trend. Other factors need to also be considered as N₂O
production and consumption from biogenic processes as well as
abiotic processes such as gas diffusion, are both dependant of
moisture in soil.

761

762 5 Conclusions

763 Our results highlight the variability in the effect of WFPS on the dominance of different N transformation processes in soil. 764 765 Though the general assumption, that denitrification is more important at high WFPS, is supported here, the actual percentage 766 767 of WFPS attributed to the different processes was not as expected. Heterotrophic nitrification was found to be an 768 769 important source of N₂O especially under drier conditions while 770 nitrification plays a crucial role for N₂O emissions, directly but 771 also via nitrification coupled with denitrification under medium and high WFPS. 772

Results obtained from the experiment performed at 85% WFPS show the importance of nitrification even under high WFPS and raise the question if and how much of the N₂O emissions could have been mitigated by preventing nitrification supplying NO_3^-

for denitrification by e.g. using nitrification inhibitors (Owusu-

778 Twum et al., 2017; Wu et al., 2017a; Wu et al., 2017b).

779 Our study was performed under controlled conditions with a clay 780 soil that had not received any fertiliser or manure/slurry input for 781 few years. Under these conditions, we found a relatively equal contribution of nitrification, denitrification and heterotrophic 782 783 nitrification to N₂O production at 70% WFPS. At the lower WFPS of 55% the contribution of heterotrophic nitrification 784 785 dominated, while at the highest WFPS of 85% denitrification 786 contributed most of the measured N₂O. These results will not 787 necessarily apply to other soil types, particularly extreme high or 788 low organic matter soils. Further studies to understand how 789 carbon quality affect the fate of N in soils are needed.

However, the process that will be supported at a certain WFPS
will most likely depend on the type of soil including its natural
carbon and nutrient content, its history and the microbial
community present. Emissions are also influenced by abiotic
factors that are also dependant on soil moisture.

795

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 Table 1. Soil characteristics (before amendment application).

Mean \pm standard error (n = 3).

Parameter	Amount		
pH water [1:2.5]	5.6	±	0.27
BD (g cm ⁻²)	0.8	±	0.0005
Available Magnesium (mg kg ⁻¹ dry soil)	100.4	±	4.81
Available Phosphorus (mg kg ⁻¹ dry soil)	10.4	±	1.10
Available Potassium (mg kg ⁻¹ dry soil)	97.5	±	12.83
Available Sulphate (mg kg-1 dry soil)	51.7	±	0.62
Total N (g kg ⁻¹ dry soil)	5.0	±	0.10
Total Extractable Oxidised N (mg kg ⁻¹ dry soil)	15.1	±	0.07
Ammonium N (mg kg-1 dry soil)	9.2	±	0.09
Total Organic Carbon (% w/w)	6.79	±	0.17

Table 2. Average cumulative emissions of NO, N₂O over the experimental period and N₂ from day 2.6 (after flushing out of N₂ introduced with amendment) in kg N ha⁻¹

WFPS	NO-N	N_2O -N	N_2 -N	total N	%N as NO-N	%N as N2O-N	% N as N2-N
55%	$1.09E-04 \pm 6.28E-06$ ^c	$4.16E-03 \pm 2.35E-04^{b}$	0.00 ± 0.00 ^a	0.00 ± 0.00	na	na	na
70%	$1.41E-04 \pm 7.32E-07^{b}$	$2.69E-03 \pm 4.28E-05^{a}$	0.08 ± 0.08 ^a	0.09 ± 0.08	0.16	3.0	89
85%	$1.61E-04 \pm 5.71E-06^{a}$	$8.51E-02 \pm 3.52E-03$ ^c	0.32 ± 0.30^{a}	0.40 \pm 0.31	0.04	21.2	80

Mean \pm standard error (n = 9). Different letters indicate significant differences in emissions between the WFPS treatments (p<0.05)



Figure 1











	NO ₂	NO₃	NH_4
55% WFPS	··· ·	···· △ ···	
70% WFPS	- • -	- ± -	
85% WFPS	—	_	



time in days after amendment application











Process Parameter





Declaration of interests

 \boxtimes The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

□The authors declare the following financial interests/personal relationships which may be considered as potential competing interests:

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