1	ABATEMENT MEASURES TO REDUCE AMMONIA
2	EMISSIONS FROM OPEN-LOT FEEDYARDS AND DAIRIES
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15	Abstract. Reduction of ammonia emissions from animal feeding operations is important from the
16	perspective of environmental policy and its impact on agriculture. Control measures for the abatement of
17	ammonia from open-lot beef cattle feedyards and dairies can be grouped into pre-excretion and post-excretion
18	strategies. Pre-excretion strategies include developing nutritional strategies to improve the utilization of crude
19	protein (CP). Decreasing CP from 13% to 11.5% at the end of the feeding period did not affect animal
20	performance, but the N:P concentration in the manure was unchanged. Decreasing CP from 13% to 10%
21	increased the N:P concentration in the manure, but adversely affected dry matter intake and gain efficiency.
22	Post-excretion strategies include the use of urease inhibitors and other additives to control ammonium
23	concentrations and manure pH. Additives such as alum which alter manure pH were shown to decrease ammonia
24	emissions by up to 98% in laboratory studies, but cost as much as \$63 per animal unit per year. Urease
25	inhibitors have been shown to conserve urea in the manure and reduce ammonia emissions in the laboratory, but
26	based on recent research their effectiveness and economics in the field is still questionable. This paper further
27	discusses the factors affecting ammonia emission rates and effectiveness and economics of pre-excretion and
28	post-excretion BMPs for reducing ammonia emissions from animal feeding operations.
29	Keywords. ammonia, feedyard, dairy, manure, emissions, urease inhibitor, cattle

30 INTRODUCTION

Beef cattle producers face many challenges as the result of increased public concerns regarding effects of agricultural practices on the environment. Excessive nutrients accumulate in beef cattle feedlots when imports of elemental nutrients in purchased feeds are greater than nutrient exports in beef cattle products. Significant amounts of nitrogen can be volatilized from manure on the feedlot surface. Scientists have estimated that as much as 50% of feed N is lost as ammonia (Bierman et al., 1999).

37 Nitrogen loss into the atmosphere results in lower N:P ratios, leads to less-desirable fertilizer 38 value of manure, and contributes to air quality concerns. The need to decrease the emissions of 39 ammonia and other gases produced by livestock and their waste products has grown in recent years. As 40 a result of data indicating that these gases have the potential to contribute to the greenhouse effect, acid 41 rain, and/or stratospheric ozone depletion, many European countries already have regulations limiting 42 ammonia emissions from concentrated animal feeding operations. Moreover, emissions of ammonia 43 and oxides of N and S have been implicated as potential contributors to fugitive dust emissions, 44 especially PM-10 and PM-2.5 particulates (Morse, 1996a; Morse, 1996b).

The nitrogen excreted in the feces is composed of undigested feed residues, microbial cells, endogenous secretions, and sloughed cells from the gastrointestinal tract. Once excreted, most of these nitrogenous residues are degraded slowly and therefore release ammonia-N into the atmosphere at a slow rate. In contrast, urinary N is composed primarily of urea ($CO(NH_2)_2$), which is rapidly hydrolyzed to ammonium and carbon dioxide by microbes in the feces and soil (Mason, 2004). The conversion of urea to ammonium is an enzymatic process, and is catalyzed by the urease enzyme which is present in feces and soil.

Ammonia volatilization is a complex process which is generally related to four factors: 1) ammonium concentration in the manure and atmosphere, 2) temperature of the manure, 3) pH of the manure, and 4) turbulent transport or wind exchange (Harper et al., 2004; Sommer and Hutchings, Scientists working on control measures have typically focused on reducing ammonium 56 concentrations, controlling pH, and reducing the exposed area and air exchange over the emitting area
57 (Sommer and Hutchings, 1995).

These control measures can be grouped into two primary management strategies: 1) pre-excretion strategies such as altering animal diets, and 2) post-excretion strategies such as altering pH or applying surface additives. Pre-excretion strategists would ask the question "What can we do to reduce the nitrogen excreted in the manure?" while post-excretion strategists would ask "What can we do to reduce ammonia emissions once the manure hits the ground?" Both of these strategies will be discussed in detail with reference to recent research.

64 **PRE-EXCRETION STRATEGIES**

65 Cattle consume nitrogen in the form of crude protein (CP), and convert it into body tissue or byproduct waste (urine and feces). A logical method for controlling the amount of volatized ammonia 66 67 is to develop nutritional strategies to improve the utilization of CP. Excess N is passed through the 68 animal and excreted in the feces and urine. Reducing these dietary excesses might be the easiest way to 69 reduce nutrients in the manure. In an ideal world, cattle would be fed the exact amount of nutrients that 70 their bodies require for optimum growth. However, because of inherent variation in cattle and feed 71 ingredients, this may not be altogether possible. Nevertheless, identifying methods for altering and 72 controlling inputs is a current focus of research (NRC, 2000).

73 It is common industry practice for beef cattle to be fed a constant CP concentration (routinely 74 approximately 13 to 13.5%) throughout the entire feeding period (Galyean and Gleghorn, 2000). 75 However, nutrient requirements change as the cattle grow, resulting in animals receiving less than 76 optimum CP early in the feeding period and greater than optimum CP late in the feeding period 77 (Gleghorn et al., 2004). Changing the diet (i.e. the CP concentration) during the feeding period to more 78 closely meet the nutritional requirement is a concept called 'phase feeding.' Studies with cattle fed 79 finishing diets based on dry-rolled corn suggest that CP concentration can be reduced to less than 11% 80 during the latter portion of the feeding period without adversely affecting animal performance

(Erickson et al., 2001). However, when cattle are fed more fermentable finishing diets based on
steam-flaked grains, decreasing dietary CP concentrations could potentially lead to an increase in
digestive disturbances (Cole, 2003).

84 Vasconcelos et al. (2004a, 2004b) evaluated the effects of phase feeding on the performance of 85 beef steers fed steam flaked corn based diets (Table 1). All cattle were fed a 90% concentrate finishing diet that contained 13% CP until they weighed approximately 477 kg. At that time, the diet was either 86 87 maintained at 13% CP or switched to 11.5% CP or 10% CP. Decreasing dietary CP to 11.5% did not 88 affect performance; however, decreasing the CP to 10% adversely affected dry matter intake and gain 89 efficiency. Decreasing dietary CP to 11.5% did not significantly affect the N:P ratio of pen surface 90 manure but decreasing dietary CP to 10% increased (P < 0.05) the manure N:P ratio. 91 In a larger study, with more extensively processed steam flaked corn, Gleghorn et al. (2005, 92 unpublished data) noted similar overall results. However, they also noted that switching diets during 93 the last 56 days on feed caused a decrease in dry matter intake (P < 0.05). 94 We evaluated the effects of dietary CP concentration (11.5, 13 or 14.5%), ruminal degradability 95 of dietary CP (supplemental sources were urea, cottonseed meal or a mixture), and days fed on 96 potential ammonia losses using an in vitro system (Cole et al., 2005). Feces and urine excreted were 97 collected from 54 steers fed nine diets in a factorial arrangement (3 concentrations and 3 supplemental 98 sources). Increasing dietary CP concentration increased in-vitro ammonia losses primarily due to increased urinary N excretion. Ammonia losses increased (P < 0.01) as days on feed increased (Table 99 100 2), suggesting that decreasing dietary CP concentration will have its greatest effect on ammonia losses 101 late in the feeding period. 102 Ammonia losses may also be decreased by shifting N excretion from the rapidly degraded urinary

102 Annohia losses may also be decreased by shifting N excretion from the rapidly degraded urmary 103 urea N to more slowly degraded fecal N. Using a total N balance technique, Bierman et al. (1999) and 104 Erickson et al. (2003) reported that increasing dietary fiber decreased total N volatilization; apparently 105 by shifting N excretion to the feces. Because cattle have the ability to recycle N from one section of 106 the gut to another via the blood stream, feeding methods that shift digestion to the lower gut may

- 107 increase fecal N excretion while decreasing urinary N excretion. However, these methods can
- 108 potentially decrease animal performance and increase overall ammonia losses.

109 Table 1. Effect of phase feeding of crude protein on performance of finishing steers and on the N:P ratio of collected

110 pen manure (Vasconcelos et al., 2004b)

Item	13.0% CP ^a	11.5% CP ^a	10.0% CP ^a	SEM	Р
Daily gain, kg					
Before switch	2.01	2.05	1.98	1.26	0.91
After switch	1.63	1.72	1.53	0.07	0.21
Overall	1.78	1.87	1.69	0.05	0.09
Dry matter intake, kg/d					
Before switch	10.27	10.23	10.37	0.109	0.62
After switch	11.13	10.83	10.12	0.186	0.01
Overall	10.80	10.66	10.20	0.164	0.06
Gain:feed ratio, g/kg					
Before switch	190	201	196	6.0	0.83
After switch	151	159	146	4.0	0.29
Overall	166	175	162	2.0	0.07
Manure N:P	3.56	3.45	3.87	0.10	0.04
^a CP concentration of diet after switched from 13% CP finishing diet.					

111

112 Table 2. Cumulative ammonia-N, and total N losses during the 7-d in vitro incubation period (overall LS means; n =

113 54/day: Cole et al., 2005)

Itom	Collection peri	Collection period (days on feed)				
nem	< 30 ^a	75	>120	SEM		
NH ₃ -N lost, mg	13.26 b	26.66 c	41.04 d	1.19		
NH ₃ -N lost, % of urine N	2.76 b	3.82 c	5.60 d	0.11		
Total N lost, mg	137.8 b	161.2 bc	177.6 c	10.4		
N lost, % added N	15.3	13.2	15.6	0.88		
N lost, % urine N	37.6	25.0	27.7	2.14		
NH ₃ -N lost, % N lost	38.1 b	46.3 c	45.0 c	2.17		
^a Approximate days on feed when feces and urine were collected.						
h c d. Means in same row without a common letter differ ($P < 0.05$)						

¹¹⁴

116 Nitrogen excretion can also be shifted away from the urine via feeding a protein source with a

117 lower ruminal degradability. Increasing the urea concentration of the diet can increase urinary N

118 excretion and thus increase ammonia losses (Cole et al., 2005).

119 **POST-EXCRETION STRATEGIES**

120 Several post-excretion applied chemical amendments and additives have been studied to reduce

- 121 ammonia emissions (Cole et al., 1999). In open lot feedyards and dairies, temperature and turbulent
- 122 transport (i.e. wind) are difficult to control, making the controlling of ammonium concentration and pH

¹¹⁵

123 the best means available for controlling post-excretion ammonia volatilization. Additives rely on 124 several modes of action to control pH and ammonium concentration.

125 CONTROL OF PH

126 The ammonium concentration in manure is dependent on the rate of hydrolysis of urea

127 (CO(NH2)2). Urea is initially converted to ammonium carbonate (Eq. 1), then to ammonium ions,

128 carbon dioxide gas, and water (Eq. 2). The hydrolysis reaction consumes H+, increasing the pH

129 (Sawyer and McCarty, 1978). The resultant increase in pH then drives the ammonium-ammonia

130 balance (Eq. 3) to the right, increasing ammonia volatilization.

131
$$\operatorname{CO(NH}_2)_2 + 2\operatorname{H}_2\operatorname{O} \xrightarrow{\operatorname{varease enzyme}} (\operatorname{NH}_4)_2\operatorname{CO}_3$$
 [1]

132
$$(\mathrm{NH}_4)_2\mathrm{CO}_3 + 2\mathrm{H}^+ \Rightarrow 2\mathrm{NH}_4^+ + \mathrm{CO}_2\uparrow + \mathrm{H}_2\mathrm{O}$$
 [2]

133
$$\operatorname{NH}_{4}^{+} + \operatorname{OH}^{-} \Leftrightarrow \operatorname{NH}_{3}^{+} + \operatorname{H}_{2}^{O}$$
 [3]

Ammonium predominates at lower pH while ammonia gas predominates at high pH. At a pH of approximately 9.5, equal amounts of ammonia and ammonium are present. Nearly 10 times more ammonia is present when the pH is 8.0 than when the pH is 7.0. Thus, decreasing the pH has been shown to reduce ammonia losses (Harmsen and Kolenbrander, 1965).

Chemical amendments such as alum and calcium chloride reduce ammonia emissions by
decreasing pH and through cation exchange. Hydrolysis of the Al³⁺ ion in alum frees three H⁺ ions,
decreasing pH and reducing ammonia emissions. Through cation exchange, hydrogen ions are released
and replaced by aluminum or calcium ions, again resulting in decreased pH and reduced ammonia
emissions.
With emoted (1000) embedded the efficience of the abunded emoted or Clifford Collor. McClifford emissions.

Kithome et al. (1999) evaluated the efficacy of the chemical amendments
$$CaCl_2$$
, $CaSO_4$, $MgCl_2$,

144 $MgSO_4$, and $Al_2(SO_4)_3$ (alum) for reducing ammonia emissions from composted poultry manure.

145 Mixing 20% CaCl₂ with compost reduced ammonia emissions by 90%, whereas 20% alum reduced

ammonia emissions by 26%. However, CaSO₄ and MgSO₄ were ineffective in reducing ammonia

147 emissions. Moore et al. (1995) reported that alum significantly reduced ammonia volatilization from
148 poultry manure. The direct addition of sulfuric acid to cow and pig slurries has also been shown to
149 reduce ammonia volatilization (Stevens et al., 1989).

In a laboratory experiment, Shi et al. (2001) evaluated several amendments which used pH
adjustment for the control of ammonia emissions from simulated open-lot feedyards (Table 3, Figure
1). Alum was effective at reducing ammonia emissions by as much as 98%. There was a strong
curvilinear relationship between pH and ammonia emissions, with ammonia emissions increasing
rapidly between pH 6 and 8 (Figure 2).



155

156Figure 1. Photograph of the ammonia emission apparatus consisting of Tupperware® air emission chambers157and acid traps connected to a vacuum pump.

158

159 CONTROL OF AMMONIUM CONCENTRATION

160 Ammonia emissions can be decreased by altering the carbon/nitrogen ratio of the pen surface.

161 Subair et al. (1999) evaluated the ability of paper products added to liquid hog manure to reduce

- ammonia emissions, and found that ammonia volatilization was reduced from 29% to 47% by
- 163 increasing the carbon/nitrogen ratio of the liquid hog manure.
- 164
- 165 Table 3. Total ammonia-N volatilized from simulated open-lot beef cattle feedyard surfaces over a 21-day period in the
- 166 laboratory (adapted from Shi et al., 2001). Each mean was calculated from three replications. Costs include materials
- 167 and shipping, but do not include spreading costs.

Treatment	Mean NH ₃ -N Emisson Rate (μg m ⁻² min ⁻¹)	% Reduction as Compared to Control	Final pH	Cost if Applied Every 21 Days (\$ animal unit ⁻¹ yr ⁻¹)		
Blank (soil only)	14 a	NA	6.83	NA		
Control (soil-manure, no amendment)	3307 e	NA	7.55	NA		
Alum (4500 kg/ha)	281 a	91.5	5.98	31.50		
Alum (9000 kg/ha)	56 a	98.3	4.20	63.00		
Calcium chloride (4500 kg/ha)	952 bc	26.4	6.99	25.75		
Calcium chloride (9000 kg/ha)	743 b	22.5	6.85	51.68		
Brown humate (9000 kg/ha)	1071 bcd	32.4	7.06	96.22		
Black humate (9000 kg/ha)	1314 d	39.8	7.10	96.22		
NBPT (1 kg/ha)	1186 cd	35.9	7.52	1.45		
NBPT (2 kg/ha)	1138 cd	34.4	7.58	2.90		
Means in a column without common letters are significantly different using Tukey's HSD test (P<0.05).						

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Figure 2. Graph showing the relationship between ammonia emissions and pH for the simulated beef cattle feedyard data from Table 3 (adapted from Shi et al., 2001)

In addition to chemical and enzymatic amendments, several commercial products are now
marketed for reducing ammonia emissions. Zhu et al. (1997) evaluated several commercial additives
for reducing ammonia emissions from swine lagoons. Ammonia emissions ranged from a 37% increase
to a 36% reduction.

Probably the best way to reduce ammonia production is to slow or stop the conversion of urea to ammonium. Compounds that inhibit the enzymatic breakdown of nitrogenous compounds present in feces and urine can decrease ammonia production. Urease inhibitors can block the hydrolysis of urinary urea to ammonium and thereby decrease ammonia production.

182 Urease Inhibitors - Lab Studies

Varel (1997) evaluated the urease inhibitors cyclohexylphosphoric triamide (CHPT) and phenyl phosphorodiamidate (PPDA) on one-liter manure slurries composed of equal parts of beef cattle feces and urine. With an initial urea concentration of 3.3 g/l, and an initial urease inhibitor concentration of 10 mg/l, both inhibitors prevented hydrolysis of urea for 4 to 11 days. The weekly addition of 10, 40, or 100 mg/l of PPDA to cattle manure with an initial urea concentration of 5.6 g/l prevented 38, 48, and 70% of the urea from being hydrolyzed after 28 days.

In a laboratory experiment to simulate open-lot beef cattle feedyards, Shi et al. (2001) applied the urease inhibitor N-(n-butyl)thiophosphoric triamide (NBPT) to mixtures of 1550 g soil, 133 g feces, and 267 g urine. The mixtures were placed into plastic containers and, using a vacuum system, air was passed over the soil-manure surface and ammonia was trapped by bubbling the air through dilute sulfuric acid (Figure 1). Shi found that application of 1 and 2 kg/ha of NBPT resulted in 36 and 34% reduction in ammonia emissions, respectively (Table 3).

Parker et al. (2005) conducted a laboratory experiment to further evaluate the urease inhibitor
NBPT and how moisture and application frequency affect ammonia emissions . Soil (1200 g) was
placed into plastic containers and fresh feces (400 g) were spread evenly over the top of the soil. The
NBPT was sprayed on the manure surface at rates of 0, 1 and 2 kg/ha, at 8, 16, and 32 day frequencies,
and with or without simulated rainfall. To simulate feedyard conditions, 23 mL of synthetic urine was

added to each chamber every two days (equal to 6 L of daily excretion over a 14 m^2 area). The 200 201 synthetic urea was prepared by mixing 21.4 g urea, 23.1 g KHCO., 3.8 g KCl and 1.9 g K, SO, together 202 in 1 L of water. Gaseous ammonia was trapped by bubbling through a sulfuric acid solution using a 203 vacuum system and analyzed for nitrogen using automated procedures similar to Shi et al. (2001) 204 (Figure 1). The 8-day application frequency was most effective, with the 1 and 2 kg/ha treatments resulting in 49% to 69% reduction in ammonia emission rates (Table 4). Simulated rainfall reduced the 205 206 ammonia emission rates as compared to the non-rainfall treatments, though the differences were not 207 statistically different. Parker et al. (2005) determined that NBPT must be applied at a frequency less 208 than 16 days in order to effectively reduce NH₃ emissions, as application at 16 or 32 day frequencies 209 was not significantly different than the control.

210 Table 4. Mean NH_3 -N emission rates ($\mu g m^2 min^4$) for three NBPT application rates, three application frequencies,

and with or without simulated rainfall. Each mean is calculated from three replications (adapted from Parker et al.,

212 2005). Costs include materials and shipping, but do not include spreading costs.

NBPT	NBPT	Simulated	Mean NH ₃ -N	% Reduction as	Cost by Treatment		
Rate	Application	Rainfall*	Emisson Rate	Compared to	(\$ animal unit ⁻¹ yr ⁻¹)		
(kg/ha)	Frequency (days)		(µg m ⁻² min ⁻¹)	Control			
0	Na	no	ба	NA	NA		
(Blank)							
0	Na	no	1570 d	NA	NA		
(Control)							
1	8	no	790 bc	49	3.80		
1	8	yes	590 b	62	3.80		
1	16	no	1510 d	3	1.90		
1	16	yes	1330 d	15	1.90		
1	32	no	1590 d	-1	0.95		
1	32	yes	1570 d	0	0.95		
2	8	no	530 b	66	7.60		
2	8	yes	490 ab	69	7.60		
2	16	no	1540 d	1	3.80		
2	16	yes	1230 cd	22	3.80		
2	32	no	1400 d	11	1.90		
2	32	yes	1190 cd	24	1.90		
Means in a c	Means in a column without common letters are significantly different using Tukey's HSD test (P<0.05).						
* Treatments	* Treatments with simulated rainfall received 0.6 cm water added every four days.						

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214 Urease Inhibitors - Field Studies

215 Varel et al. (1999) conducted two experiments to evaluate the urease inhibitors CHPT and NBPT

216 when applied to open-lot beef cattle feedlot pens. In the first experiment, CHPT and NBPT were

applied to an 18 m² subarea within each pen in a single application at rates of 45.6 and 22.8 kg ha⁻¹,

respectively. Urea accumulation peaked on day 4 at 2 g urea per kg dry manure for CHPT, and disappeared by day 11. Urea accumulation peaked on day 9 at 3.5 g/kg for NBPT and disappeared by day 14. In the second experiment, NBPT was applied every 7 days for 6 weeks at 22.8 kg ha⁻¹. Urea accumulated to a peak concentration of 17 g urea per kg dry manure at day 31 and stabilized at this concentration until week 6 when NBPT application was halted. Urea concentration then decreased to about 10 g/kg one week later and 5 g/kg two weeks later.

224 In Spring 2004 we conducted a study at the West Texas A&M University Research Feedyard to 225 evaluate how rate of urease inhibitor application affects ammonia emissions from beef cattle feedyard 226 surfaces under field conditions (Parker et al., 2005, unpublished data). The NBPT (sold in aqueous 227 form with 20% active ingredient under the trade name Agrotain®) was applied over a six-week study 228 period to six pens (6 by 26 m), each containing 10 beef cattle. The steers were weighed (avg. weight 229 485 kg) and randomly assigned to each pen. A schematic of the pen layout is shown in Figure 3. The 230 earthen-surfaced pens were constructed six months earlier as part of a recent feedlot addition, and 231 cattle had been fed in the pens for about three months prior to the initiation of our experiment. Those 232 cattle were removed, and a new set of steers were placed in the pens 20 days prior to the first NBPT 233 application.

NBPT was applied to pens 53-55 every seven days for six weeks at treatment rates of 0, 1 and 2
kg/ha. The NBPT was mixed with water and applied using a tractor-mounted, 3.9 m wide, 415 L
commercial sprayer equipped with nine nozzles spaced 0.5 m apart (Wylie Mfg. Co, Petersburg, TX).
Pens 49-51 were initially applied NBPT at 0, 1, and 2 kg/ha, but were subsequently increased to 4 and
8 kg/ha on day 14 because of our inability to detect statistical differences in ammonia emission rates
between the 0, 1, and 2 kg/ha treatments. Pen 50 was subsequently increased to 40 kg/ha on day 18.
Table 5 shows the dates and application rates of the NBPT throughout the experiment.





Figure 3. Schematic of the field NBPT study.

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244 Table 5. Dates and rates of NBPT application in the field experiment.

Day	Date	Action
0	04/26/04	Applied 0, 1, 2 kg/ha to all pens
7	05/03/04	Applied 0, 1, 2 kg/ha to all pens
14	05/10/04	Applied 0, 1, 2 kg/ha to pens 53-55
		Applied 0, 4, 8 kg/ha to pens 49-51
18	05/14/04	Applied 40 kg/ha to pen 50
21	05/17/04	Applied 0, 1, 2 kg/ha to pens 53-55
28	05/24/04	Applied 0, 1, 2 kg/ha to pens 53-55
35	05/31/04	Applied 0, 1, 2 kg/ha to pens 53-55
42	06/0704	End of Experiment

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Ammonia fluxes were measured using a 26.5 cm inside diameter flux chamber connected with tubing to a TEI 17C chemiluminescence NH_3 analyzer (Franklin, MA) housed within a mobile laboratory. Six manure samples were collected from each pen on day 0, 28, and 42 and analyzed for TKN, organic N, NH_4 -N, NO_3 -N, moisture content and volatile solids by Servi-Tech Laboratories, Dodge City, KS. We were unable to detect statistically significant differences in ammonia fluxes between the different NBPT application rates (Table 6) because of high variability within pens. For example, 27 individual NH₃-N flux measurements within Pen 53 on May 13, 2004 ranged from 512 to

253 14,990 ug $m^{-2} \min^{-1}$ (Koziel et al., 2005).

254 The mean TKN concentration for the 2 kg/ha treatment was slightly higher than the 0 and 1 kg/ha

- treatments, indicating that the urease inhibitor was only somewhat effective in retaining nitrogen
- within the manure pack at the application rates tested (Table 7, Figure 4). At the completion of the six-
- week experiment, the 2 kg/ha and 40 kg/ha NBPT treatments retained 9 and 20% more total nitrogen in
- the manure than the control.

Table 6. Mean ammonia emission rates ($\mu g m^2 min^{-1}$) for the different NBPT application rates (each mean calculated

260 from six individual flux measurements per pen).

Emissions c	comparing 0, 1, and 2	kg/ha treatr	nents					
Date	Days after applying 1 or 2 kg/ha	Pen 55 0 kg/ha Control		Pen 5 1 kg/	Pen 53 1 kg/ha		Pen 54 2 kg/ha	
		mean std dev		mean	std dev	mean	std dev	P *
05/06/04	10	1400 a	695	906 a	438	1054 a	507	0.32
05/07/04	11	702 a	180	987 a	558	795 a	186	0.39
05/10/04	14	1082 a	397	933 a	370	1035 a	623	0.86
06/03/04	38	1575 a	362	1569 a	555	2089 a	755	0.24
Emissions c	comparing 0, 4, and 8	kg/ha treatr	nents					
Date	Days after applying 4 or 8 kg/ha	Pen 51 0 kg/ha Control		Pen 50 4 kg/ha		Pen 49 8 kg/ha		
05/11/04	1	2037 a	1493	1720 a	777	1682 a	996	0.84
05/12/04	2	1504 a	314	1540 a	626	1812 a	331	0.44
05/13/04	3	482 a	179	492 a	107	516 a	119	0.91
05/14/04	4	1256 a	931	910 a	325	731 a	161	0.31
Emissions c	comparing 0 and 40 k	g/ha treatme	ents					
Date	Pate Days after applying 40 kg/ha Control		Pen 5 40 kg	50 /ha				
05/17/04	3	1424	1122	1023	349			0.25
05/18/04	4	783	238	695	148			0.23
05/20/04	<u>14 6 2086 1280 1915 720 0.66</u>							0.66
Means in a row without a common letter are significantly different using Tukey's HSD test (P<0.05). *P values from one-way ANOVA or independent samples t-test comparing treatments on a given date.								

263 Table 7. Mean chemical characteristics of manure samples at the times denoted for the field study. Each mean was

264 calculated from six individual manure samples from each pen.

Description	Day	Pen No.	TKN (%)	Organic N (%)	NH ₄ -N (%)	NO ₃ -N (mg/kg)	Moisture Content (%)	Volatile Solids (%)
Start of experiment (Control)	0	55	0.87 a	0.81 a	0.057 abc	0.33 a	19.0 b	37.7 ab
Start of experiment (1 kg/ha)	0	53	0.78 a	0.72 a	0.056 abc	0.20 a	18.3 b	35.6 a
Start of experiment (2 kg/ha)	0	54	0.79 a	0.74 a	0.050 ab	0.08 a	17.0 b	35.8 a
3 d after applying 40 kg/ha	21	50	1.50 b	1.46 b	0.040 a	1.67 bc	8.0 a	44.1 abcd
After 4 weeks (Control)	28	55	1.92 de	1.84 ef	0.075 cd	2.90 de	7.0 a	53.8 e
After 4 weeks (1 kg/ha)	28	53	1.88 de	1.80 def	0.083 d	3.35 e	5.9 a	48.9 de
After 4 weeks (2 kg/ha)	28	54	2.01 e	1.94 f	0.073 bd	2.83 cde	5.8 a	51.1 de
10 d after applying 40 kg/ha	28	50	1.75 cd	1.71 cde	0.040 a	1.60 b	3.5 a	42.2 abcd
End of experiment (Control)	42	55	1.61 bc	1.58 bcd	0.035 a	2.58 bcde	6.7 a	44.9 bcde
End of experiment (1 kg/ha)	42	53	1.59 bc	1.54 bc	0.048 a	2.83 cde	4.7 a	38.4 abc
End of experiment (2 kg/ha)	42	54	1.75 cd	1.70 cde	0.049 a	2.58 bcde	6.8 a	49.8 de
End of experiment (40 kg/ha)	42	50	1.94 de	1.88 ef	0.057 abc	2.12 bcd	6.7 a	47.3 cde
Means in a column without common	letters are sig	gnificant	ly differen	t using Tuk	ey's HSD tes	st (P<0.05).		



Figure 4. Boxplots comparing TKN concentrations in the manure at days 0, 28, and 42 after first NBPT application. NBPT was applied every seven days.

269 Potential Concerns with Urease Inhibitors

270 Urease inhibitors have been very successful in farming applications where slowing the conversion 271 of urea to ammonium provides extra time for the crops to take up the ammonium. However, the use of 272 urease inhibitors in feedyard conditions is entirely different, as the ammonium is not consumed by 273 plants but will eventually convert to ammonia gas and volatilize. Because urease inhibitors have a 274 finite life of about 7 to 10 days, additional urease inhibitor must be added if one wishes to keep the N 275 in urea form. As more urea is deposited daily on the feedyard surface, it seems logical that additional 276 urease inhibitor would also be needed if the goal is to control all or most of the ammonia emissions. 277 Theoretically, if a given amount of urease inhibitor were applied at the beginning of the feeding period, 278 then in week two the same amount of urease inhibitor would be needed plus additional urease inhibitor 279 to account for the recently added urea (i.e 2X that of the first week). In the third week, then 3X that of 280 the first week would be required. If urease inhibitor application were ceased prior to removal of the 281 manure, then based on previous research results, it would appear that the existing urea would be 282 hydrolyzed rapidly resulting in a large flush of ammonia gas. An analogy would be a balloon in which 283 additional air is added each day. If the balloon were ever untied, then all of the air would rush out at 284 once. In the case of ammonia, this would probably not be a desirable situation. Ongoing research with 285 urease inhibitors will continue to provide valuable information on the long-term effectiveness of urease inhibitors for open-lot feeding operations. It may be that urease inhibitors have the most value when 286 287 applied near the end of the feeding period prior to manure being removed from the feedyard.

288 **CONCLUSIONS**

In this paper, several pre-excretion and post-excretion strategies have been identified for minimizing ammonia emissions from open-lot feedyards and dairies. Decreasing the crude protein concentration in the diet at the end of the feeding period appears to have promise for reducing the amount of nitrogen excreted to the atmosphere, but additional research will likely be necessary to make sure that animal performance is not compromised. The use of surface-applied additives and urease

inhibitors also appear to have promise in retaining the nitrogen in the manure once it is excreted,

thereby reducing ammonia emissions. The long-term effectiveness of these additives under actual field

296 conditions will continue to be a topic of research in coming years. It is likely that a combination of pre-

297 excretion and post-excretion strategies will provide the most economical and environmentally friendly

298 control technologies for reducing ammonia emissions from open-lot feedyards.

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