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# Measuring ammonia and odours emissions during full field digestate use in agriculture.

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## **Abstract**

The use of digestate in agriculture represents an opportunity for reducing the use of synthetic fertilizers while promoting nutrient and organic matter recycling, i.e. contributing to a circular economy. However, some environmental impacts could result from digestate use, with particular reference to N emissions, which can contribute to particulate matter formation in the atmosphere. So, correct digestate spreading methods need to be tested to reduce ammonia emission and, possibly, also to avoid annoyance to the inhabitants. In this work a digestate from organic wastes was used as a fertilizer by its injection at 15 cm, in comparison with a synthetic one (urea) for three consecutive years in open fields, measuring ammonia and odours emission. On average, the ammonia emission from digestate was of  $25.6 \pm 9.4 \text{ kg N Ha}^{-1}$  ( $11.6\% \pm 4$  of Total Ammonia Nitrogen - TAN - dosed), while urea emitted  $24.8 \pm 8.3 \text{ kg N Ha}^{-1}$  ( $13.4\% \pm 4.5$  of TAN dosed). The injected digestate also

26 emitted less odour than urea ( $601 \pm 531$  and  $1,767 \pm 2,221$  OU m<sup>-2</sup> h<sup>-1</sup>, respectively), being ammonia  
27 coming from urea hydrolysis responsible for odour productions.

28 The different N fertilizers did not lead to differences in crop yields, i.e.  $18.5 \pm 2.9$  Mg grain Ha<sup>-1</sup> and  
29  $17.4 \pm 1.2$  Mg grain Ha<sup>-1</sup> for digestate and urea respectively.

30

31 **Keywords:** Ammonia emissions; Anaerobic digestion; Digestate fertilization; Odour emissions;  
32 Open field measurements; Organic wastes.

33

## 34 **1. Introduction**

35 Climate change is pushing the world into shifting production processes towards more sustainable  
36 models, lowering environmental impacts and reducing greenhouse gas emissions (European  
37 Commission, 2019; Frantzeskaki et al., 2019). One of the main challenges is how to manage the  
38 transition towards circular economy models based on the recovery of wastes, that become raw  
39 material for the subsequent production cycle (Lüdeke-Freund et al., 2019; Pieroni et al., 2019).

40 Nutrient recovery from organic wastes represents an interesting circular economy model able to  
41 upgrade waste into fertilizers to be used in substitution for synthetic ones (Toop et al., 2017). Indeed,  
42 N and P dispersion in the environment causes many problems and these two elements have been  
43 reported to be over “planetary boundaries” (Rockström et al., 2009; Steffen et al., 2015). Moreover,  
44 fertilizer production requires large amounts of energy consumption or the exploitation of non-  
45 renewable mineral deposits that strongly impact on environmental and climate change (Springmann  
46 et al., 2018).

47 However, untreated organic wastes do not represent acceptable fertilizers (Westerman and Bicudo,  
48 2005). Technology/biotechnology is needed to transform them into useful products (Sigurnjak et al.,  
49 2019). In the last decades, anaerobic digestion has been proposed as a valid biotechnology for  
50 producing bioenergy but, also, to produce bio fertilizers, i.e. the digestate, to be used in agriculture  
51 as a substitute for synthetic fertilizers (Riva et al., 2016; Tambone et al., 2019; Verdi et al., 2019).

52 Furthermore, the possibility of using digestate in agriculture has raised many doubts regarding its  
53 possible environmental impacts. The high amounts of nitrogen in the mineral form (ammonia-N),  
54 which is useful for plant nutrition, can cause environmental problems due to both nitrates ( $\text{NO}_3^-$ )  
55 leaching and N emission to the atmosphere ( $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  and  $\text{NH}_3$ ) (Cameron et al., 2013; Delgado, 2002).  
56 Although problems connected with nitrate leaching have received much attention in the past (Padilla  
57 et al., 2018), less is known regarding N emissions.

58 The anthropogenic emission of ammonia causes a series of impacts on both climate, ecosystems and  
59 health. In fact, once in the upper atmosphere, ammonia combines with other molecules generating a  
60 wide range of nitrogen compounds which fall to the soil causing acidification and eutrophication of  
61 ecosystems (Clark and Tilman, 2008; Hautier et al., 2014). Furthermore, ammonia in the atmosphere  
62 contributes to the formation of secondary particulate matters (Erisman and Schaap, 2004) influencing  
63 the planet climate because they act as condenser nuclei for atmospheric water forming clouds  
64 (Bianchi et al., 2016). In addition particulate matters affect human health causing acute or chronic  
65 respiratory diseases (Comunian et al., 2020; Fennelly, 2020; Losacco and Perillo, 2018; Setti et al.,  
66 2020). In previous work (Riva et al., 2016) it was reported for the Lombardy Region (North Italy)  
67 that about 96% of ammonia polluting the air was due to agricultural activity (livestock), with these  
68 data being confirmed by the international literature (Clarisse et al., 2009).

69 In recent decades, many studies have tried to clarify the ammonia emissions from both mineral and  
70 animal fertilizers (Sommer and Hutchings, 2001; Sommer and Olesen, 2000), but not many data are  
71 available for digestate. Getting real data is sometimes very difficult because working at full field scale  
72 is costly and complicated. Therefore, the data proposed have often been obtained at lab or pilot scale  
73 (Finzi et al., 2019) and so, rather distant from the reality. In addition, studying only at lab scale makes  
74 it impossible to test innovative technologies such as digestate injection into the soil, coupled with  
75 precision farming, to reduce ammonia emissions (Morken and Sakshaug, 1998; Nicholson et al.,  
76 2018).

77 Ammonia has been reported having a very low odour threshold causing inhabitants annoyance during  
78 fertilization. Therefore, reducing ammonia emission means, also, reducing odour emission. In  
79 addition, organic fertilizers contain organic matter that can produce many volatile organic odorous  
80 molecules as the result of microbial bioprocess such as fermentation and anaerobic respiration (Orzi  
81 et al., 2015). Thus, spreading organic fertilizers such as digestate in the field introduces another  
82 problem in addition to ammonia emission, i.e. odour impact, which is interesting to study.

83 In previous work it was reported that anaerobic digestion, because it degrades the easily degradable  
84 organic matter, strongly reduced the potential odour emission but, because it mineralize organic-N to  
85 ammonia, odours potentially can increase if ammonia emission are not controlled (Orzi et al., 2015).

86 The digestate injection into the soil has been reported reducing odour emission at values even below  
87 that measured for mineral fertilizers spreaded onto the surface, such as urea (Orzi et al., 2018), taking  
88 into consideration that odours from urea is the result of ammonia coming from its hydrolysis.

89 Digestate is increasingly indicated as a useful N-fertilizers able to replace mineral fertilizers (e.g. urea)  
90 for crop production (Riva et al., 2016). Therefore its use should be promoted, but taking into account  
91 correct and safe management.

92 The objective of this study was to provide data on ammonia and odour emissions resulting from the  
93 use of digestate from organic wastes (mainly sewage sludge) in the open field in a full-scale  
94 production context, by adopting a low emission strategy, i.e. digestate injection, to reduce both  
95 ammonia and odour emissions.

96 The study was performed by comparing digestate with conventional N-fertilization (urea) and  
97 discussing the results obtained with the literature data. The experiments were repeated for three  
98 consecutive years (2018, 2019 and 2020). They were carried out on a maize crop located in the Po  
99 valley (northern Italy), one of the most intensely cultivated areas in Europe, and consequently with  
100 serious problems about ammonia in the atmosphere (ISPRA, 2019).

101

## 102 **2. Material and Methods**

103 *2.1 Spreading and experimental setup*

104 All the experiments were carried out to compare emissions and agronomic performance of two  
105 different fertilizers (slurry-like digestate and solid granular urea, plus an unfertilized control) dosed  
106 following standard agricultural procedure used in the Po Valley. The experimental fields were located  
107 in the Po valley, northern Italy, and the experiments were carried out on a maize field, with  
108 experimental plots in triplicate and using a randomized scheme.

109 Digestate was spread by injection in soil at a depth of 15 cm by using a tank car joined to a rigid  
110 multi-anchor-subsoiler coupled with a Retrofit Variable-Rate Control (VRT control). Digestate was  
111 dosed in order to satisfied N maize requirements, adopting an N efficiency of 0.5, such as suggested  
112 by the Regional Plan for Water Protection from Nitrate from Agriculture (Regione Lombardia, 2020).  
113 Doing so efficient N dosed for digestate was equal to that coming from urea (Table 1). Urea was  
114 spread as the solid form on the soil surface following a routine procedure typical of Po Valley.  
115 Fertilization date, fertilizers used and doses applied, and spreading methodology are reported in Table  
116 1.

117 The ammonia and odours measurements took place at pre-sowing fertilization in three consecutive  
118 years, 2018-2019-2020, adopting the same agronomic and emission measurement technique, and  
119 fertilizer doses.

120

121 *2.2 Fertilizer sampling and analysis*

122 The digestates used in this work were sampled immediately before they were injected in the field.

123 The analyses took place in the hours immediately following.

124 The main characteristics of the digestate used in this work are shown in Table 2. Digestate pH was  
125 determined in aqueous solution using a 1:2.5 sample/water ratio. Total solids (TS) and total organic  
126 carbon (TOC) determinations were carried out following standard procedures of the American Public  
127 Health Association (APHA, 1992). Total nitrogen (TKN) and ammonia nitrogen (TAN) were  
128 determined according to the analytical method for wastewater sludges (IRSA CNR, 1994). Total P

129 content was assessed by inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometry (Varian, Fort. Collins, USA),  
130 preceded by acid digestion (EPA, 1998) of the samples. All the analyses were carried out in triplicate.

131

### 132 *2.3 Soil sampling and analysis*

133 The soils studied in this work were sampled just before the spreading by taking three random samples  
134 (made by 3 sub-samples)/plot of soil (20 cm); this procedure was repeated each year and no statistical  
135 differences occurred. Samples were air dried, sieved to 2 mm and then ground to 0.5 mm. The main  
136 characteristics of soils are reported in Table S1. Soil pH was determined in aqueous solution using a  
137 1:2.5 sample/water ratio (McLean, 1982), and texture by the pipette method (Gee and Bauder, 1986).  
138 Cation Exchange Capacity (CEC) was determined by saturating the samples with BaCl<sub>2</sub> (Rhoades,  
139 1982). Total organic carbon (TOC) was determined using the Walkley and Black method (Olsen et  
140 al., 1982), total nitrogen by the Kjeldahl method (Faithfull, 2002). All the analyses were carried out  
141 in triplicate.

142

### 143 *2.4 Ammonia emission measurement*

144 For all the experiments, the ammonia emitted from the experimental plots was measured in the hours  
145 following the pre-sowing injection/spreading (Figure 1). All the digestate injections took place at the  
146 same hour (h. 11:00), and the first sampling was always carried out 10 hours later (21:00).

147 The experiments were repeated for three consecutive years on the same experimental plots, which  
148 main soil chemical characteristics are reported in Table S1. In particular, the soil used showed a  
149 neutral pH ( $7 \pm 0.4$ ), it was rich in silt ( $44\% \pm 2.1$ ) and it was relatively poor in clay ( $10\% \pm 0.5$ ). The  
150 amounts of ammonia nitrogen dosed at pre-sowing were kept almost unchanged for all the three years  
151 tested, i.e. 200 - 229 and 185 kg N Ha<sup>-1</sup> for digestate and urea, respectively (Table 1).

152 The concentration of NH<sub>3</sub> was monitored by the exposure of ALPHA passive samplers (Riva et al.,  
153 2016; Tang et al., 2001). For each plot, the ALPHA samplers were exhibited in sets of three. To  
154 obtain background environmental concentration values, an additional sampling point was placed at a

155 distance of about 1,000 meters away from the fertilized fields and other possible point sources of  
156 NH<sub>3</sub>.

157 Each sampler located in the plot was replaced a minimum of twice a day near sunrise and sunset, to  
158 be able to monitor the variation of atmospheric turbulence which has a direct effect on the dispersion  
159 of pollutants. During the application day and the following day, the substitution was done when the  
160 vehicles entered the field, for fertilization and for incorporation. The study of atmospheric turbulence  
161 was carried out by using an ultrasonic anemometer (10 Hz) positioned in the plots near to the  
162 samplers.

163 By processing the NH<sub>3</sub> concentration information, an analysis of the dispersion of NH<sub>3</sub> in the  
164 atmosphere was performed through the application of the dispersion model (WindTrax, Tunderbeach  
165 Scientific, CA). The obtained dispersion coefficient ( $D$ ; s m<sup>-1</sup>) was used to determine the flow ( $S$ ; ng  
166 NH<sub>3</sub> m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>) emitted from the fertilized surface, on the basis of the concentrations measured in each  
167 plot ( $C$ ; μg m<sup>-3</sup>) and environmental ( $C_{bgd}$ ; μg m<sup>-3</sup>), according to the following equation:

168

$$169 \quad S = (C - C_{bgd}) \times D^{-1}$$

170

171 The ammonia emission factor (EF%) was obtained from the ratio between the released N-NH<sub>3</sub> (kg  
172 ha<sup>-1</sup>) and the calculated amount of ammonia nitrogen (N-NH<sub>4</sub>; kg ha<sup>-1</sup>) spread onto the soil with  
173 fertilizations.

174

### 175 *2.5 Potential odour emission and field odour emission measurement*

176 Potential odour emissions were measured on gas samples collected in the laboratory following the  
177 protocol reported by Riva and colleagues (Riva et al., 2016). The sampling was carried out by  
178 spreading the sample homogeneously on a surface that was then covered with a steel chamber having  
179 a sampling area of 0.127 m<sup>2</sup>. A continuous flow of air was continuously flushed inside the chamber  
180 for 5 minutes (rate 0.38 m<sup>3</sup> h<sup>-1</sup>). Output gas from the chamber was collected in Nalophan sampling

181 bags, which were then analysed through dynamic olfactometry (CEN, 2003) within 24 hours from  
182 sampling. Analyses were performed in three replicates.

183 The same method was used for full field sampling. The chamber was placed above the newly fertilized  
184 soil, taking care to eliminate any air leaks from the edges. All measurements were made once per  
185 plot.

186 The results of the Dynamic Olfactometry were expressed as odour concentration value ( $\text{OU m}^{-3}$ ). The  
187 specific odour emission rate SOER ( $\text{OUE m}^{-2} \text{h}^{-1}$ ) was calculated by using the following equation:

188

$$189 \quad \text{SOER} = 1000 \times (C \times Q/S)$$

190

191 in which C is the odour concentration ( $\text{OU m}^{-3}$ ), Q is the incoming air rate to the flux chamber ( $0.38$   
192  $\text{m}^3 \text{h}^{-1}$ ) and S the surface covered by the chamber ( $0.127 \text{m}^2$ ).

193

#### 194 *2.6 Maize yield quantification and N content in grain*

195 The annual yields for each of the experimental plots were assessed by manual harvesting of the grain.

196 The data obtained from each plot were then aggregated in order to obtain a value (in  $\text{Mg Ha}^{-1}$ ) for  
197 each treatment, i.e. digestate, urea and control.

198 The quantification of the N content in the harvested maize grain was performed through combustion  
199 method (Dumas method) (Saint-Denis and Goupy, 2004). Before analysis, the grain samples (20 g of  
200 dry matter) were prepared by grounding them using a ball mill. N was detected by using an elemental  
201 analyser (Rapid max N exceed model, Elementar, Lomazzo, Italy). Each analysis was performed in  
202 triplicate.

203

#### 204 *2.7 Statistical analysis*



205 The statistical analyses were carried out using IBM SPSS<sup>®</sup> 23 software. Unless otherwise specified,  
206 the significance limit value  $p$  was set at 0.05 for all the analyses carried out. The plots were obtained  
207 through the use of Microsoft EXCEL 2016.

208

### 209 **3. Results and discussion**

#### 210 *3.1 Maize yield*

211 At the end of each of the crop seasons, the grain yield from soils fertilized with digestate and urea  
212 was evaluated (Table 3). In agreement with data from previous work (Riva et al., 2016; Verdi et al.,  
213 2019; Walsh et al., 2012), the production, as a three-year average, for the plots fertilized with digestate  
214 ( $18.1 \pm 2.9 \text{ Mg Ha}^{-1}$ ) was very similar to that obtained from the plots fertilized with urea ( $17.4 \pm 1.2$   
215  $\text{Mg Ha}^{-1}$ ) (one-way ANOVA analysis,  $p = 0.72$ ,  $n = 3$ ). Low standard deviation indicated that the  
216 yields were very similar throughout the three years. The use of digestate determined, as an average  
217 value over the three years, an N content in the grain of  $12 \pm 0.9 \text{ gN kg}^{-1} \text{ DM}$ , higher than that of the  
218 control ( $9.26 \pm 0.6 \text{ gN kg}^{-1} \text{ DM}$ ) and treatment with urea ( $11.3 \pm 0.7 \text{ gN kg}^{-1} \text{ DM}$ ) (one-way ANOVA,  
219  $n = 6$ ,  $p < 0.01$ , Tukey post-test).

220

#### 221 *3.2 Ammonia emission*

222 The ammonia emission measurements were done using passive ALPHA samplers and processing the  
223 data with dispersion models (see Section 2.4). This approach has advantages and disadvantages:  
224 passive samplers fully exposed to the atmosphere do not allow maintaining controlled micro-  
225 environmental conditions, unlike other methods such as wind tunnels (Misselbrook et al., 2005).  
226 Therefore measurement made at different time can be affected by environmental parameters,  
227 introducing variability. On the other hand, passive ALPHA sampler, taking into consideration the  
228 environmental conditions occurred during the measurements, allows realistic measurements of  
229 emission that occurred at that particular time and condition (Misselbrook et al., 2005).

230 ~~A comparison between techniques is not the aim of this work, however the technique used was chosen~~  
231 ~~well knowing its limits and strengths.~~

232 The fluxes of NH<sub>3</sub> released from the soil after spreading (years 2018, 2019 and 2020) are shown in  
233 Figure 1. Observing each of the three graphs alone (Figure 1), it can be clearly seen that there is a  
234 strong overlap between the emission curves of NH<sub>3</sub> from soils fertilized with digestate (solid lines)  
235 and urea (dashed lines). In each of the three years, the soils fertilized with urea and digestate were  
236 therefore found to have emitted similar amounts of ammonia over time, thus responding in a similar  
237 way to the main environmental factors that may have influenced this process (Bouwmeester et al.,  
238 1985; Cameron et al., 2013; Sommer and Hutchings, 2001). Among these factors, the most important  
239 in this specific case were the climatic conditions in the days preceding and following the spreading  
240 (Tables S2 and S3), given that the chemical characteristics of the soil remained unchanged. However,  
241 it was not possible to obtain a coherent model that correlated emission flows with climatic conditions  
242 by using multivariate statistical analysis (Partial Least Squares Analysis, PLS) (Table S4), probably  
243 due to the high variability of data acquired between years and complexity of the factors involved in  
244 the open field.

245 Comparing instead the emission flows year by year (2018, 2019 and 2020), they appeared very  
246 variable (Figure 1). In fact, the graphic corresponding to the experiment of 2018 showed a strong  
247 emission peak between the 10<sup>th</sup> and 20<sup>th</sup> hour after fertilization, corresponding to the night, followed  
248 by a higher modest peak close to the 50<sup>th</sup> hour after spreading, corresponding instead to the morning  
249 hours. The ammonia losses at the end of the experiment were of 32.2 kg N Ha<sup>-1</sup> and 25 kg N Ha<sup>-1</sup> for  
250 digestate and urea, respectively, corresponding to a loss of 14.9% and 13.5% of the TAN dosed, and  
251 were very similar between digestate and urea (Table 3). The graph reporting data on 2019 showed a  
252 completely different pattern: in this case, in fact, in the first 20 hours after fertilization, the emission  
253 flows appeared very low, then increased starting from the 20<sup>th</sup> h after fertilization with urea and later  
254 for fertilization with digestate. Emission peaks were reached after 45 hours, at 6:00 in the morning.  
255 A second peak of similar intensity was then recorded at the 70<sup>th</sup> h after the spreading, again at 6:00

256 in the morning. In this case, the loss of ammonia was 26.9 kg N Ha<sup>-1</sup> and 33 kg N Ha<sup>-1</sup> for digestate  
257 and urea (12% and 17.8% loss of TAN dosed), respectively (Table 3). 2019 was the year in which  
258 urea lost more ammonia (%TAN) than in other years of experimentation. This was probably due to  
259 climatic conditions; in fact, the soil received several showers of rain in the days before the spreading  
260 (Table S3) and the low temperatures combined with the high atmospheric humidity probably  
261 contributed to maintaining high soil moisture (Table S2). It is well known that these conditions tend  
262 to increase the loss of ammonia from urea, especially if dosed on the surface, because of moisture  
263 enhanced urea hydrolysis (Cameron et al., 2013).

264 Finally, for the year 2020 high emission levels were already observed during the first measurement,  
265 i.e. 10 hours after fertilization, reaching a peak at the 25<sup>th</sup> h, at noon. After this single peak, the  
266 ammonia emission was reduced to very modest values and was close to zero for the rest of the  
267 experiment.

268 At the end of the experiment, the total ammonia emitted was of 15.6 kg N Ha<sup>-1</sup> and of 16.4 kg N Ha<sup>-1</sup>  
269 <sup>1</sup> for digestate and urea respectively, corresponding to a loss of 7.8% and 8.9% of the TAN dosed.  
270 These were the lowest values measured over the three years of experiments, for both digestate and  
271 urea. Such low emissions were probably caused by the particularly dry environmental conditions,  
272 especially in the days before and immediately following the spreading (Table S2). On the third day  
273 after spreading, rains were recorded (2.6 mm) (Table S3) which, however, were not enough to have  
274 a significant effect on ammonia emission.

275 Ultimately, observing all the data from the three years together it was not possible to identify a similar  
276 pattern for ammonia emissions, since they showed such a strong variability between the three years  
277 due probably to environmental condition. In particular, from the above discussion and taking into  
278 consideration environmental parameters reported in Table S2 and S3, both highest solar radiation and  
279 wind speed for the year 2020 led to dry condition (lowest air moisture) reducing ammonia emission,  
280 according, also, to what reported in the literature (Cameron et. al, 2013).

281 Therefore, data collected on 2018, 2019 and 2020 (Table S2) in this work, represented real emissions  
282 occurred under those particular environmental conditions. However, considering that three  
283 measurements were made in three different years characterized by diverse conditions, the average  
284 emission values obtained can be assumed as a good approximation of real ammonia emission  
285 occurred during fertilizers injection/spreading.

286 At the end of the trials, the average ammonia losses were similar and not statistically different (One-  
287 way ANOVA  $p = 0.92$ ,  $n = 6$ ), i.e.  $11.6 \pm 4$  % TAN and  $13.4 \pm 4.5$  % TAN, respectively for digestate  
288 and urea (mean of the years 2018, 2019 and 2020) (Figure 2). Furthermore, according to Sommer and  
289 Olesen (2000), on average, about 48% of the total ammonia emitted during such experiments was  
290 likely to be emitted in the first 24 hours after fertilization. For all the three years, the ammonia  
291 emissions recorded were stable and close to zero after 80 h from the spreading (Figure 2).

292 To include the data reported in this work in a broader context, a comparative study was carried out  
293 with data from the literature, deriving from similar studies carried out using digestate (Table 4) both  
294 injected and spread on the surface, and urea (Table S5) distributed onto the surface. Unfortunately,  
295 not many data were reported from digestate used on maize so that the comparisons made include  
296 other crops. In addition, the use of different methods to measure ammonia emission make this  
297 comparison more difficult and this must be taken into consideration discussing the result afterwards.  
298 The loss of ammonia (% TAN dosed) reported in this work for digestate ( $11.6\% \pm 4$  on average, Table  
299 3) was very similar to the data reported by Riva and colleagues (10.8%, Table 4) (Riva et al., 2016),  
300 which were carried out in the same climatic zone (Lombardy, Italy), with the same distribution  
301 technique (injection at 15 cm) and crop (maize) and adopting the same measurement method, i.e.  
302 passive sampler. However, it is interesting to note that Riva et al. (2016) dosed an amount of ammonia  
303 N ( $65.7 \text{ kg N Ha}^{-1}$ ) equal to about one third to the amount used in this work ( $200 - 229 \text{ kg N Ha}^{-1}$ ),  
304 from which it seems that the amount of N dosed was probably less relevant than other variables (i.e.  
305 climate and spreading techniques) in determining ammonia loss.

306 Comparison made with other literature data (Table 4) was more difficult because all data were  
307 obtained using a different methodology, i.e. wind tunnel. Anyway, by using digestate distributed by  
308 injection on grass (Nicholson et al., 2018) and on rygrass (Rubæk et al., 1996) emission measured  
309 were not so far from those measured in this work, i.e. N loss of  $22.5 \pm 9.1\%$  TAN and N loss of  $14.6$   
310  $\pm 4.7\%$  TAN (average data), respectively. These values were lower than N loss obtained by  
311 distributing the digestate on the surface, which was, as average, of  $38.9 \pm 12\%$  TAN (Chantigny et  
312 al., 2004; Rubæk et al., 1996). These data underlined the importance to inject digestate reducing N  
313 emission.

314 Ammonia emission due to urea use in this work have been compared with data in the literature (Table  
315 S5) that, like the spreading modality used in this work, all considered surface spreading. In our work  
316 the ammonia loss (% TAN dosed) registered was of  $13.4 \pm 4.5\%$  TAN and so lower than the average  
317 calculated from the literature, i.e.  $24.8\% \pm 16.6$  ( $n = 17$ ). However, since different methods have been  
318 used, the comparison made is only indicative. However, reports revealed a very wide range of data,  
319 from 10% TAN to 66% TAN (Black et al., 1987; Cai et al., 2002; Ellington, 1986; Fan et al., 2005;  
320 Musa, 1968; Rojas et al., 2012) (Table S5).

321 These differences may be due to multiple factors related to both climatic conditions and soil  
322 characteristics (Harrison and Webb, 2001). Unfortunately, from such a heterogeneous group of  
323 studies, it was not possible to reconstruct a complete picture. However, as regards the data reported  
324 in this work, it is possible to hypothesize that the low percentage of ammonia lost by urea, compared  
325 to the average of the other works (Table S5), may be attributable to the low rainfall at our site during  
326 the period of the observations (Table S2 and Table S3), since moisture is one of the main drivers for  
327 ammonia emission from urea (Cameron et al., 2013).

328 Taking into consideration results obtained and the literature data, some suggestions can be given to  
329 reduce the ammonia emission using N fertilizers. First of all, spreading or distributing fertilizers onto  
330 the surface causes large ammonia emission so that it becomes essential to inject liquid fertilizers (i.e.  
331 digestate) and bury solid fertilizers (i.e. urea) (Sommer and Hutchings, 2001), above all in presence

332 of humid soil. Humidity has been reported playing an important role in ammonia emission from urea  
333 because it promotes its hydrolysis releasing ammonium (Cameron et al., 2013). On the other hand,  
334 abundant rainfall or irrigation immediately after spreading have the effect to reduce ammonia  
335 emission for both urea and digestate, thanks to water that drains the dissolved ammonium in deep soil  
336 removing it from the soil-atmosphere interface (Sanz-Cobena et al., 2011).

337 Contrary to what one might think the amount of nitrogen dosed does not seem to have an impact on  
338 the percentage of ammonia lost.

339

### 340 *3.3 Odour emission*

341 The odour emission measurements reported in this work were carried out in both lab scale (potential  
342 odour emission) and open field. Measuring potential odour (lab scale) is very useful because it allows  
343 to measure the odour emitted by different fertilizers and so their potentiality in emitting odours when  
344 then they are used in full field. In addition, this measurement allows measuring odours from fertilizers  
345 excluding all environmental variables that in the open field can heavily influence the result (Orzi et  
346 al., 2018; Riva et al., 2016). The successive comparison between potential odour emission (lab scale  
347 measurement) and odour emitted in the open field for the same fertilizer, allows estimating the impact  
348 of environmental variables on the values measured in open field, including soil injection and soil  
349 incorporation (Orzi et al., 2018).

350 However, odors emission detections suffer for high variability that is an intrinsic characteristic of  
351 these measurements (Hudson et al., 2007), making it difficult to carry out statistically robust  
352 comparisons. The variability is due to both the large number of factors affecting odour emission,  
353 especially from biomass (Zilio et al., 2020), and technical difficulties in performing measurements  
354 (Hudson et al., 2007). In addition, the dynamic olfactometry method, despite it being the reference  
355 method for this type of measurement, suffers from low reproducibility of data due to human error  
356 (Van Harreveld et al., 1999; Hove et al., 2017). Keeping in mind these limitations, data obtained in  
357 this work are below discussed.

358 Digestate used in this work showed a potential odour emission measured at lab scale of  $3,740 \pm 846$   
359  $\text{OU m}^{-2} \text{h}^{-1}$  (Figure 3) in line with data reported, on average, for agricultural digestate ( $\text{OU}_{\text{dig.}} = 4,454$   
360  $\pm 5,217 \text{OU m}^{-2} \text{h}^{-1}$ ;  $n = 25$ ) (Orzi et al., 2015; Orzi et al., 2018).

361 Literature reported that anaerobic digestion, because it degrades the easily degradable organic matter  
362 and concentrates the more recalcitrant compounds (Orzi et al., 2015; Orzi *et al.*, 2018; Zilio *et al.*,  
363 2020) reduces potential odour production (Orzi et al., 2015). Therefore, it was interesting, for the  
364 purposes of the discussion, to compare the odour emission values from the same substrates before  
365 and after anaerobic digestion. Unfortunately, in this work it was not possible to test feed sewage  
366 sludge, because it was represented by a mix of different substrates (more than 60) that varied during  
367 the year. However, the liquid digestate used, because it was stocked in a  $50,000 \text{m}^3$  tank before  
368 agricultural use, allowed taking representative samples to be measured.

369 Therefore, data obtained for the digestate used in this work were compared with those coming from  
370 previous studies for both digestates and non-digested material (Orzi et al., 2018, 2015). From Figure  
371 3 the digestate for this work showed a lower potential odour emission than those reported for pig and  
372 cow digestates ( $7,460 \pm 4,080$  and  $6,598 \pm 7,166 \text{OU m}^{-2} \text{h}^{-1}$  respectively), although the high standard  
373 deviation did not allow statistical differences to be established. On the other hand, observing the  
374 potential odour emission from the same undigested biomasses, very high values were registered for  
375 pig slurry ( $128.123 \pm 179.426 \text{OU m}^{-2} \text{h}^{-1}$ ), unlike cow slurry that showed a potential odour emission  
376 ( $8.456 \pm 6.686 \text{OU m}^{-2} \text{h}^{-1}$ ) not so far from that of cow digestate. The difference between pig and cow  
377 slurry can be ascribed to the fact that the second one was made by lignocellulosic residual material  
378 partially anaerobically digested (by a polygastric mammal), which underlined the importance, in  
379 addition to anaerobic digestion, of the organic substrate's origin (Scaglia et al., 2018). In this way,  
380 because sewage sludge represents a partially digested organic material coming from a wastewater  
381 treatment plant, low potential odour emission can be ascribed to both the material origin and to the  
382 subsequent anaerobic digestion. This fact was confirmed by biological stability degree of digestate  
383 measured by both aerobic ( $\text{OD}_{20}$ ) and anaerobic (BMP) tests (Scaglia et al., 2018), i.e.  $\text{OD}_{20}$  of 22.7

384  $\pm 6.1 \text{ mg O}_2 \text{ g}^{-1} \text{ dw}$  and BMP of  $57 \pm 23 \text{ L}_{\text{biogas}} \text{ kg}^{-1} \text{ dw}$  that were in line ( $\text{OD}_{20}$ ) or lower (BMP) than  
385 those measured for two green composts, i.e.  $15.06 \pm 0.3 \text{ mg O}_2 \text{ g}^{-1} \text{ dw}$  and  $10.3 \pm 1.1 \text{ mg O}_2 \text{ g}^{-1} \text{ dw}$ ,  
386 and  $144 \pm 3.8 \text{ L}_{\text{biogas}} \text{ kg}^{-1} \text{ dw}$  and  $201 \pm 20 \text{ L}_{\text{biogas}} \text{ kg}^{-1} \text{ dw}$ , respectively (Scaglia et al., 2018).  
387 The urea, as expected, showed the lowest potential odour emission value, i.e.  $150 \pm 106 \text{ OU m}^{-2} \text{ h}^{-1}$ ,  
388 not so far with previous data  $454 \pm 215 \text{ OU m}^{-2} \text{ h}^{-1}$  (Orzi et al., 2018).  
389 In open field experiments (2018, 2019 and 2020) odour emissions from the experimental plots were  
390 measured each year immediately after fertilization (Table 3). The results showed that, considering  
391 the three years average, the odour emitted by the plots fertilized with digestate was very low, i.e.  $601$   
392  $\pm 531 \text{ OU m}^{-2} \text{ h}^{-1}$ , and similar to that emitted by non-fertilized plots ( $633 \pm 494 \text{ OU m}^{-2} \text{ h}^{-1}$ ). The plots  
393 fertilized with urea, on the other hand, showed a higher average odour emission ( $1,767 \pm 2,221 \text{ OU}$   
394  $\text{m}^{-2} \text{ h}^{-1}$ ) than the digestate-fertilized plots, but were not statistically different, probably due to the high  
395 variability that is typical of odour measurements.  
396 Therefore, odour emission measured for digestate studied in this work in the open field was much  
397 lower than the potential odour measured at lab scale (Figure 3). This difference was most likely due  
398 to the injection of digestate into the soil which was able to reduce the odour emission, as previously  
399 described (Orzi et al., 2018; Riva et al., 2016). On the other hand, urea odour emission measured in  
400 the full field, was, as an average of the three years tested, of  $1,767 \pm 2,221 \text{ OU m}^{-2} \text{ h}^{-1}$  much higher  
401 than the potential measured i.e.  $150 \pm 106 \text{ OU m}^{-2} \text{ h}^{-1}$ . Probably in this case soil and air moisture,  
402 promoting a fast urea hydrolysis, stimulated ammonia emission. As known, ammonia has a low  
403 olfactory threshold (odour threshold between  $0.0266$  and  $39.6 \text{ mg m}^{-3}$ ) (Rice and Netzer, 1982), thus  
404 its rapid release may have produced an increase in odour emission.  
405 Observing the data reported in Figure 4, the digestate used in this work by injection showed odour  
406 emission that was not so different from data reported for injected pig and cow digestates, measured  
407 previously adopting the same methodologies (Orzi et al., 2018), i.e.  $900 \pm 584 \text{ OU m}^{-2} \text{ h}^{-1}$  and  $1347$   
408  $\pm 749 \text{ OU m}^{-2} \text{ h}^{-1}$ , respectively). These data confirmed the validity of the injection method to limit  
409 odour emission, confirmed by the comparison of data for injected pig digestate with spread pig



410 digestate, i.e.  $900 \pm 584 \text{ OU m}^{-2} \text{ h}^{-1}$  vs  $4,280 \pm 1,346 \text{ OU m}^{-2} \text{ h}^{-1}$ , respectively (Orzi et al., 2016). On  
411 the other hand, no substantial differences can be observed between injected cow digestate and surface  
412 spread cow digestate, i.e.  $1,347 \pm 749 \text{ OU m}^{-2} \text{ h}^{-1}$  vs  $1,883 \pm 847 \text{ OU m}^{-2} \text{ h}^{-1}$ , respectively (Orzi et al.,  
413 2018), indicating that the most important factors involved in odour reduction during agronomic use  
414 of digestate are the spreading technique (injection vs. surface spread), the treatment (digestate vs.  
415 non-digestate) and the biomass origin.

416

#### 417 **4. Conclusions**

418 This work showed that the use of digestate from sewage sludge as a fertilizer in agriculture can replace  
419 urea without increasing ammonia emission. The injection of digestate into the soil has been confirmed  
420 as a good technique for reducing ammonia emission, allowing it to reach levels comparable to those  
421 typical of surface fertilization with urea. Ammonia emission can be further reduced by improving the  
422 injection system: preliminary data indicated that the use of a flexible anchor reduced emissions with  
423 respect to the use of rigid ones.

424 Concerning the emission of odour, it has been observed that digestate from sewage sludge emits less  
425 odour than digestates from livestock manure, and if injected into the soil its emission was reduced to  
426 a level that was no longer distinguishable from that of non-fertilized soil.

427 The digestate dosed allowed producing maize at the same rate as the urea confirmed the good  
428 fertilizing properties of both dressings.

429 In conclusion, anaerobic digestion plus liquid digestate injection were confirmed as good practice to  
430 provide a suitable fertilizer, replacing the synthetic fertilizer in an environmentally sustainable way,  
431 i.e. with low ammonia and odours emissions.

432

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438

439 **Notes**

440 The authors declare no competing financial interest

441

442 **Author Contributions**

443 FA: designed the project, elaborated and interpreted the data and wrote the paper

444 MZ: collected, elaborated and interpreted the data and wrote the paper

445 AG and GG: managed the experimental field and the agronomic operations

446 AP and BR: collected the data

447 EM and OS: Scientific contribution and manuscript correction.

448

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453

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455 **References**

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652

653 Table 1. Main information regarding fertilization plan adopted: fertilization date, fertilizers used, and dose applied.

Campaign	Plots	Date	Fertilization	Fertilizer	Ntot applied (kg N Ha <sup>-1</sup> )	Efficient N applied <sup>a</sup> (kg N Ha <sup>-1</sup> )	Total NH <sub>4</sub> <sup>+</sup> applied (kg N Ha <sup>-1</sup> )	Type of spreading
2018	Digestate	23/04/2018	Pre-sowing	Digestate	370	185	229	Injection 15 cm
		22/06/2018	Top-dressing	Ammonia sulphate	100	100	100	Fertigation
	Urea	23/04/2018	Pre-sowing	Urea	185	185	185 <sup>b</sup>	Spread in surface
		22/06/2018	Top-dressing	Ammonia sulphate	100	100	100	Fertigation
2019	Digestate	16/04/2019	Pre-sowing	Digestate	370	185	229	Injection 15 cm
		1/08/2019	Top-dressing	Ammonia sulphate	100	100	100	Fertigation
	Urea	16/04/2019	Pre-sowing	Urea	185	185	185 <sup>b</sup>	Spread in surface
		1/08/2019	Top-dressing	Ammonia sulphate	100	100	100	Fertigation
2020	Digestate	28/05/2020	Pre-sowing	Digestate	370	185	200	Injection 15 cm
		31/07/2020	Top-dressing	Ammonia sulphate	90	90	90	Fertigation
	Urea	28/05/2020	Pre-sowing	Urea	185	185	185 <sup>b</sup>	Spread in surface
		31/07/2020	Top-dressing	Ammonia sulphate	90	90	90	Fertigation

654 <sup>a</sup>Data calculated taking into consideration N efficiency for digestate of 0.5 and for urea of 1, according to Regional Plan for Water Protection from Nitrate from Agriculture  
655 (Regione Lombardia, 2020).

656 <sup>b</sup>Ureic ammonia considered as 100% ammonia.

657

658

Table 2. Main characteristics of the digestates used in this work (mean  $\pm$  SD, n=3).

<b>Parameter</b>	<b>Unit</b>	<b>2018</b>	<b>2019</b>	<b>2020</b>
<b>pH</b>	pH unit	8.6 $\pm$ 0.3	8.4 $\pm$ 0.3	8.5 $\pm$ 0.4
<b>Total solids (TS)</b>	%	10.3 $\pm$ 0.48	10.5 $\pm$ 0.5	10.5 $\pm$ 0.2
<b>Total Organic Carbon (TOC)</b>	% dw <sup>a</sup>	29.2 $\pm$ 4.13	31.2 $\pm$ 4.2	30.9 $\pm$ 0.2
<b>Total Nitrogen (TKN)</b>	% dw	7.7 $\pm$ 0.3	7.5 $\pm$ 0.5	7.3 $\pm$ 0.8
<b>N-NH<sub>4</sub> (TAN)</b>	% dw	4.6 $\pm$ 0.4	4.5 $\pm$ 0.3	3.9 $\pm$ 0.1
<b>TAN/TKN</b>	%	60	60	53

<sup>a</sup>dw = dry weight

659

660

661 **Table 3.** Ammonia emissions, maize productions yield and N content in grain for the three years of experiments. Ammonia and odour emission are  
 662 reported as mean  $\pm$  SD ( $n=3$ ). Yield are reported as dry grain yield produced per hectare (mean  $\pm$  SD;  $n=3$ ). N content in grain are reported as grams  
 663 of N per kilograms of dry grain material (mean

Campaign	Fertilizer	Total cumulated ammonia emission (kg N Ha <sup>-1</sup> )	Loss of NH <sub>3</sub> (%Ntot)	Loss of NH <sub>3</sub> (%TAN)	Odour emission (OU m <sup>-2</sup> h <sup>-1</sup> )	Grain yield DM (Mg Ha <sup>-1</sup> )	N content in grain (gN kg <sup>-1</sup> )
2018	Unfertilized	Undetectable <sup>a</sup>	-	-	277 $\pm$ 7a	6.5 $\pm$ 0.8a	9.08 $\pm$ 0.2a
	Digestate	34.2	9.25	14.9	262 $\pm$ 52a	16.8 $\pm$ 1.4b	11.4 $\pm$ 0.8b
	Urea	25	13.5	13.5	259 $\pm$ 31a	17.4 $\pm$ 2.1b	11.3 $\pm$ 0.5b
2019	Unfertilized	Undetectable	-	-	367 $\pm$ 22a	11.6 $\pm$ 1.2a	9.12 $\pm$ 0.3a
	Digestate	26.9	7.44	12	444 $\pm$ 122a	16.1 $\pm$ 1.4b	12.8 $\pm$ 0.2c
	Urea	33	17.8	17.8	404 $\pm$ 54a	16.2 $\pm$ 1.6b	11.3 $\pm$ 0.9b
2020	Unfertilized	Undetectable	-	-	1,257 $\pm$ 311a	13.3 $\pm$ 1.8a	9.56 $\pm$ 1a
	Digestate	15.6	4.33	7.8	1,097 $\pm$ 730a	21.4 $\pm$ 3.1c	11.7 $\pm$ 0.7b
	Urea	16.4	8.85	8.9	4,638 $\pm$ 1,097b	18.6 $\pm$ 2.1b	11.4 $\pm$ 0.9b
Mean	Unfertilized	Undetectable	-	-	633 $\pm$ 494a	10.4 $\pm$ 3.5a	9.26 $\pm$ 0.6a
	Digestate	25.6 $\pm$ 9.4a <sup>b</sup>	7.01 $\pm$ 2.5a	11.6 $\pm$ 4a	601 $\pm$ 531a	18.1 $\pm$ 2.9b	12 $\pm$ 0.9c
	Urea	24.8 $\pm$ 8.3a	13.4 $\pm$ 4.5b	13.4 $\pm$ 4.5a	1,767 $\pm$ 2,221a	17.4 $\pm$ 1.2b	11.3 $\pm$ 0.7b

664 <sup>a</sup>ammonia emission in unfertilized plots did not differ from background.

665 <sup>b</sup>Letters are referred to One-way ANOVA analysis carried out comparing for each year the odour emitted from the three treatments (Tukey post-test,  $p < 0.01$ ;  $n = 3$ ).

666

**Table 4.** Ammonia emission measured in this work in comparison with literature data reporting experiment performed at full field.

Digestate origin	Spreading technique	Crop	Season	N <sub>tot</sub> dosed (kg N Ha <sup>-1</sup> )	NH <sub>4</sub> <sup>+</sup> dosed (kg N Ha <sup>-1</sup> )	NH <sub>3</sub> cumulated emission (kg N Ha <sup>-1</sup> )	Loss of NH <sub>3</sub> (%N <sub>tot</sub> )*	Loss of NH <sub>3</sub> (%TAN) <sup>a</sup>	Measurement method	Reference
		Maize	Spring	370	229	34.2	9.24	14.9		This work
Sewage sludge	Injection 15 cm	Maize	Spring	370	229	26.9	7.27	11.7	ALPHA passive samplers	This work
		Maize	Spring	370	200	15.6	4.22	7.82		This work
Cattle slurry + energy crops	Injection 15 cm	Maize	Spring	130	65.7	7.1	5.46	10.8	ALPHA passive samplers	(Riva et al., 2016)
		Grass	Spring	142	100	17	12	17		(Nicholson et al., 2018)
		Grass	Spring	106	75.3	17	16	22.6		(Nicholson et al., 2018)
Food waste	Injection 10 cm	Grass	Autumn	117	79.6	12	10.3	15.1	Wind tunnels	(Nicholson et al., 2018)
		Grass	Autumn	151	122	43	28.5	35.2		(Nicholson et al., 2018)
Cattle + pig slurry	Injection 5 cm	Ryegrass	Spring	86	67	12	14	17.9		(Rubæk et al., 1996)
		Ryegrass	Spring	106	80	9	8.49	11.3	Wind tunnels	(Rubæk et al., 1996)
Pig slurry		Timothy	Spring	700	485	200	28.6	41.2		(Chantigny et al., 2004)
Liquid Pig slurry	Surface spreading	Timothy	Spring	140	-	17.7	12.6	-		(Chantigny et al., 2007)
		Ryegrass	Spring	110	70	35	31.8	50	Wind tunnels	(Rubæk et al., 1996)
Cattle + pig slurry		Ryegrass	Spring	106	78	20	18.9	25.6		(Rubæk et al., 1996)

669

670 **Caption Figures**

671

672 **Figure 1.** Ammonia emissions ( $\text{kg N Ha}^{-1} \text{ h}^{-1}$ ,  $n = 3$ ) measured in the hours following  
673 injection/spreading of fertilizers on maize crop in the years 2018, 2019 and 2020. X axis on the top  
674 of the figure shows the time after fertilization (hours), while X-axis on the bottom of the figure shows  
675 the daytime. Error bars show the SD.

676

677 **Figure 2.** Cumulated ammonia loss (% TAN) in the hours following the spreading. The data reported  
678 refer to the average of the three years of experimentation on maize fields (2018, 2019 and 2020).

679

680 **Figure 3.** Potential odour emissions measured in laboratory for the digestate used in this work in  
681 comparison with other organic matrices (data from Orzi *et al.*, 2015, 2018) (mean  $\pm$  SD).

682

683 **Figure 4.** Odour emissions measured in full field for different fertilizers (data from Orzi *et al.*, 2018)  
684 compared with those measured for digestate and urea used in this work (mean  $\pm$  SD).

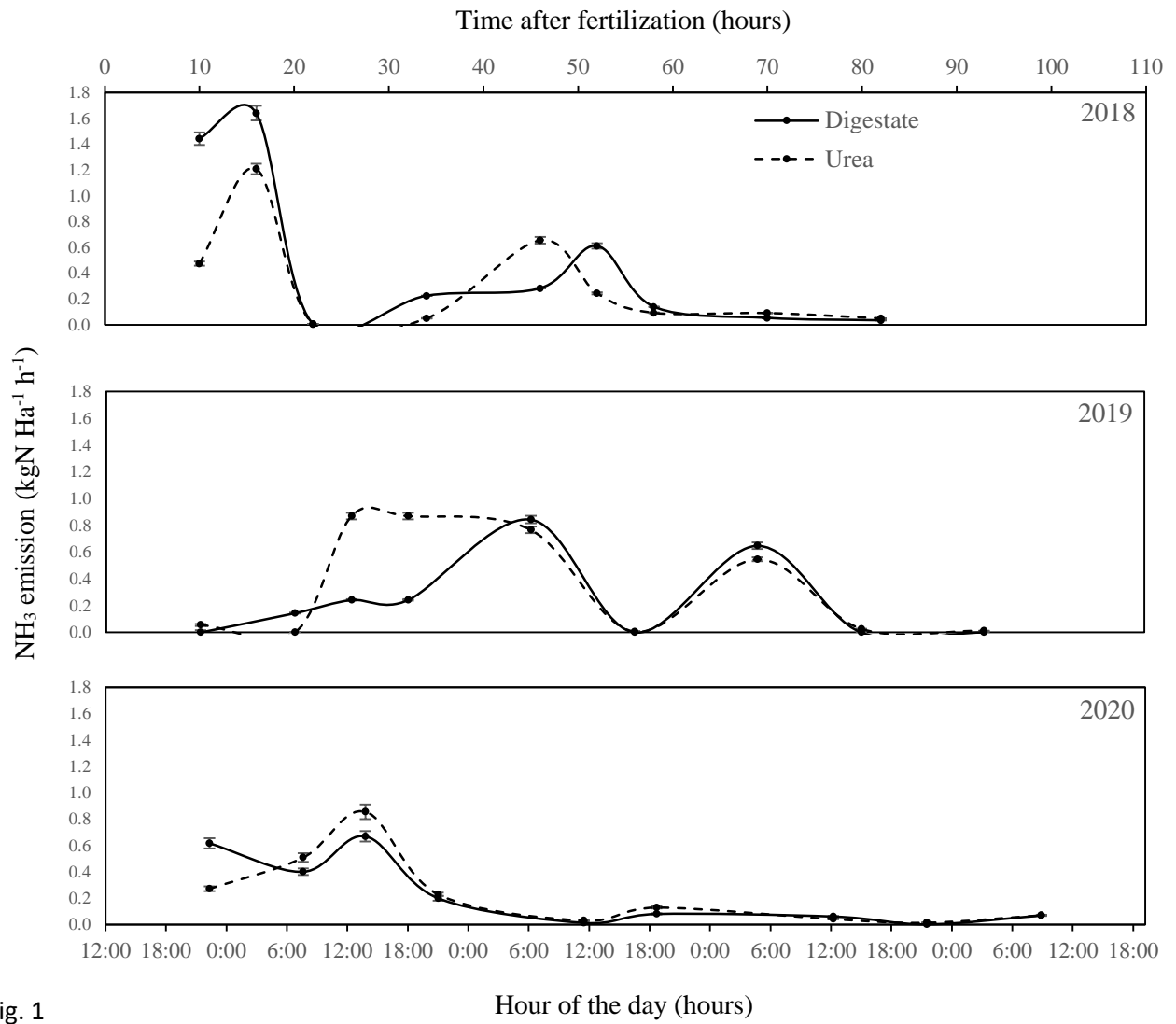
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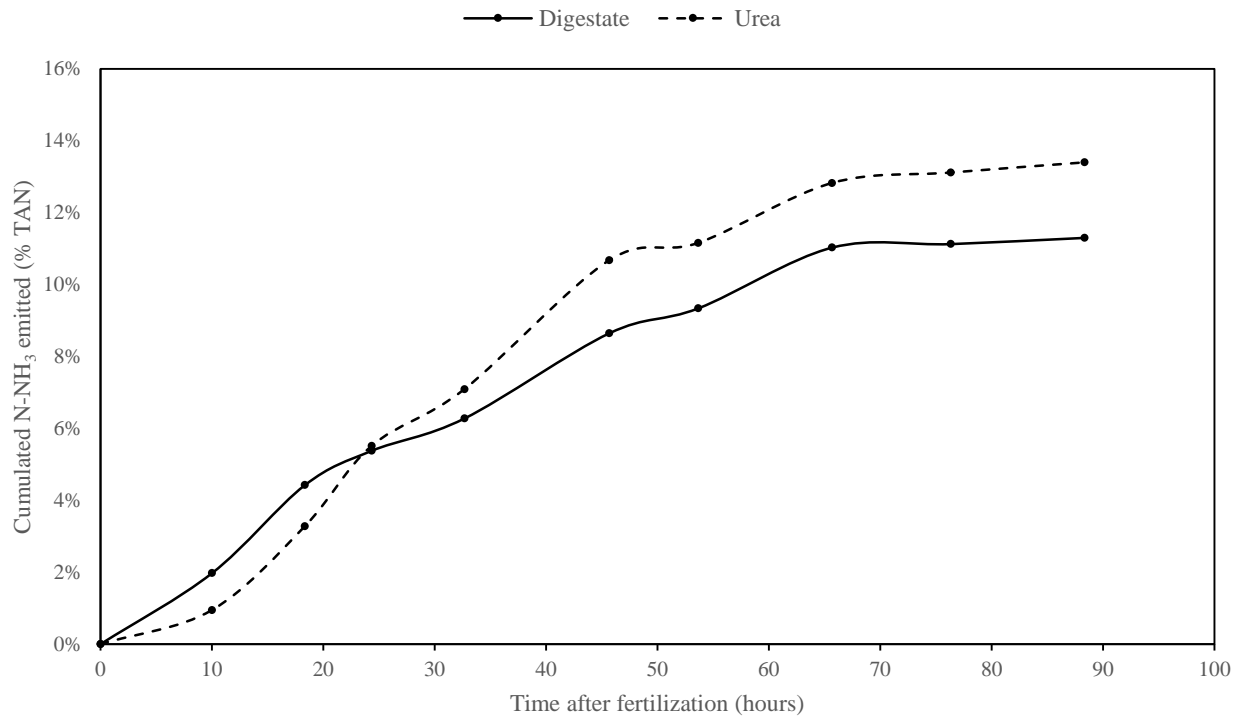
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Fig. 1

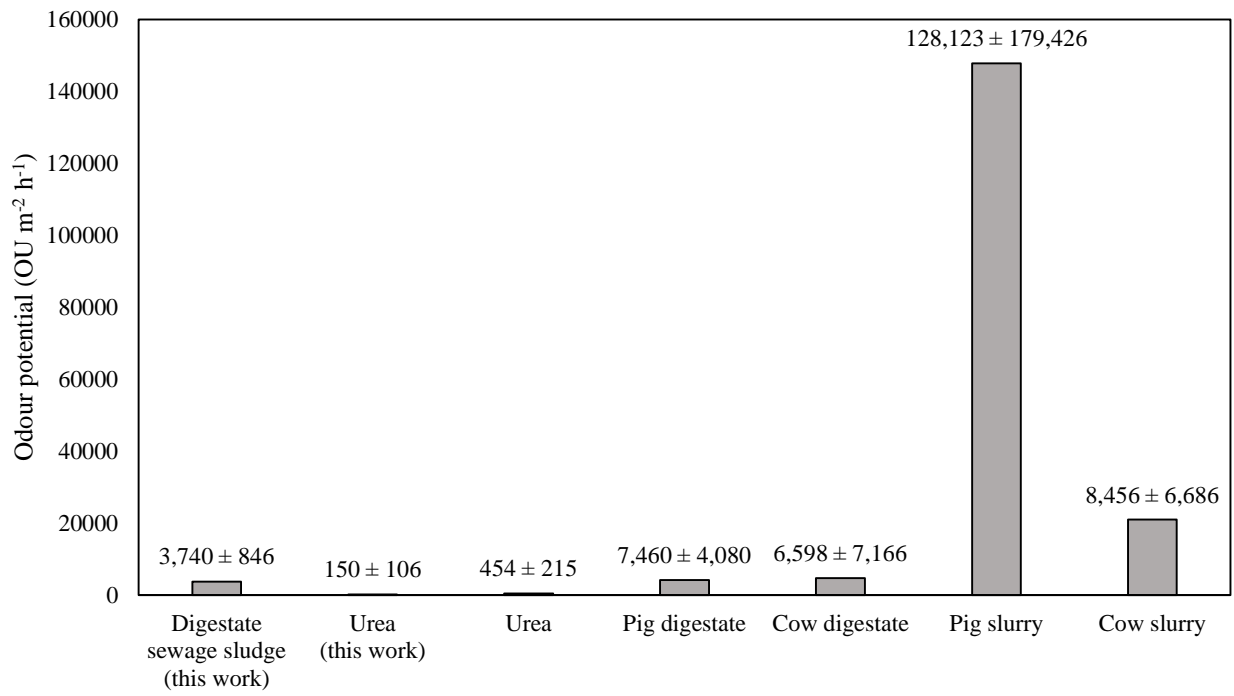




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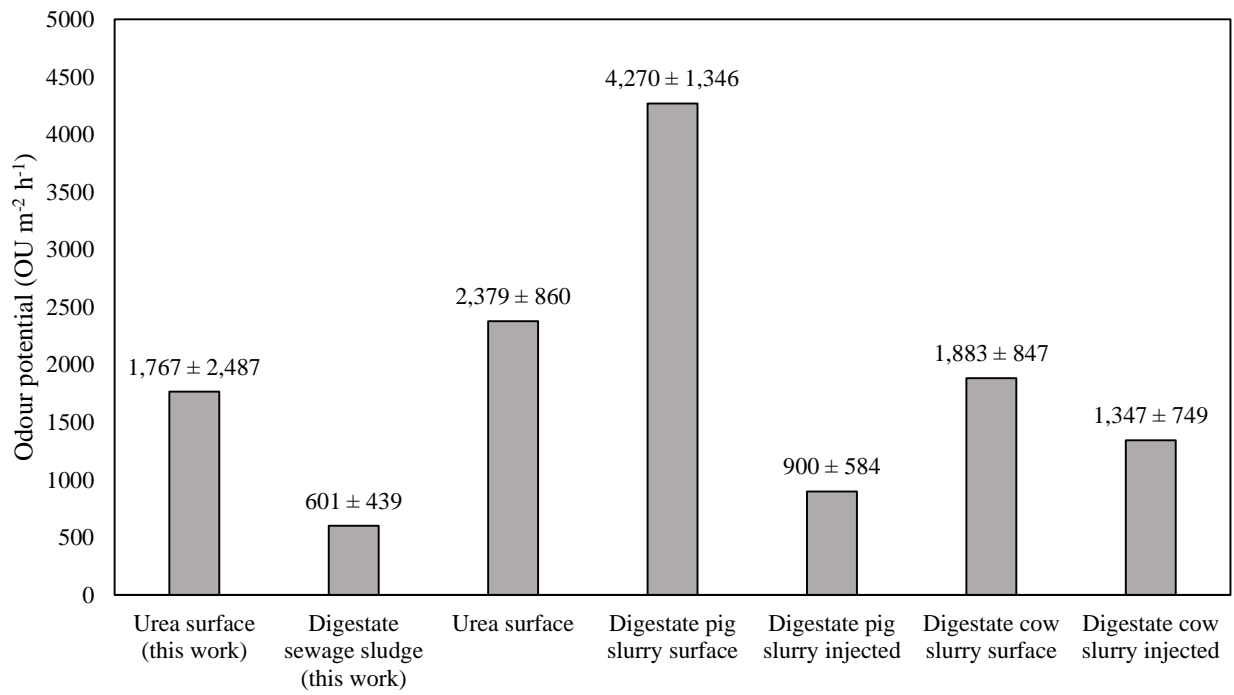
694 Fig. 2

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697 Fig. 3



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699 Fig 4.

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