Ammonia volatilization from native grasslands and forests of southwestern Montana
by Asa Lovisa Aradottir

Abstract:
Ammonia volatilization from unfertilized and fertilized plots on two native grassland Sites and two native forest sites in southwest Montana was measured with a closed system. Volatilization rates from unfertilized plots ranged from 2.5 to 25 μgN m^{-2} day^{-1}. Volatilization rates from fertilized plots averaged over the first week after fertilization (50 $kgNH_4^+$ -N ha^{-1}) were up to 2500 μgN m^{-2} day^{-1}. Both may have been underestimates of actual volatilization because (1) efficiency of the closed system as measured in the laboratory was only 50-70% for corresponding ammonia concentrations and (2) alteration of the microenvironment within the absorption chambers may have resulted in lower NH_3 -N volatilization rates within than outside of the chambers.

Ammonia volatilization from unfertilized plots in grasslands was highest in spring, nonsignificant to medium high during the summer, and was low but significant during the winter. In the two forest sites, significant losses were measured only in spring and summer. Rates of volatilization from fertilized plots where the process was not limited by availability of ammoniacal N showed that conditions were more favorable for the volatilization process in summer than winter; volatilization rates were high in summer and low in winter at all sites. Low volatilization from unfertilized plots in grassland sites in the summer was attributed tp low availability of ammoniacal N.

A crude estimate of annual NH_3-N volatilization gave 19, 26, 2,5, and 8 gN ha^{-1} yr^{-1} for sites in Stipa comata/Bouteloua gracilis, Agropyron spicatum/Bouteloua gracilis, Pseudotsuga menziesii/Carex geyeri, and Abies lasiocarpa/Vaccinium scoparium habitat types respectively. Declines in temperature and pH and increases in water availability, organic matter, and cation exchange capacity as one moves up an altitudinal gradient from the Stipa comata/Bouteloua gracilis habitat type to the Abies lasiocarpa/Vaccinium scoparium hgbitat type were correlated with NH_3 -N volatilization rates and might explain corresponding declines in volatilization. Such declines were especially marked in loss from fertilized plots.

AMMONIA VOLATILIZATION FROM NATIVE GRASSLANDS

AND FORESTS OF SOUTHWESTERN MONTANA

by

Asa Lovisa Aradottir

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26 may 1984.

Date

T. WEAVER

Chairperson, Graduate Committee

Approved for the Major Department

31 May 1984

Date

Robert Moore

Head, Major Department

Approved for the College of Graduate Studies

June 4, 1984

Date

Henry L Parsons

Graduate Dean

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ABSTRACT

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Ammonia volatilization from unfertilized plots in grasslands was highest in spring, nonsignificant to medium high during the summer, and was low but significant during the winter. In the two forest sites, significant losses were measured only in spring and summer. Rates of volatilization from fertilized plots where the process was not limited by availability of ammoniacal N showed that conditions were more favorable for the volatilization process in summer than winter; volatilization rates were high in summer and low in winter at all sites. Low volatilization from unfertilized plots in grassland sites in the summer was attributed to low availability of ammoniacal N.

A crude estimate of annual NH$_3$-N volatilization gave 19, 26, 2.5, and 8 gN ha^{-1} yr^{-1} for sites in *Stipa comata/Bouteloua gracilis*, *Agropyron spicatum/Bouteloua gracilis*, *Pseudotsuga menziesii/Carex geyeri*, and *Abies lasiocarpa/Vaccinium scoparium* habitat types respectively. Declines in temperature and pH and increases in water availability, organic matter, and cation exchange capacity as one moves up an altitudinal gradient from the *Stipa comata/Bouteloua gracilis* habitat type to the *Abies lasiocarpa/Vaccinium scoparium* habitat type were correlated with NH$_3$-N volatilization rates and might explain corresponding declines in volatilization. Such declines were especially marked in loss from fertilized plots.

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

The amount of nitrogen in an ecosystem depends on the initial concentration, additions to the ecosystem and losses. Additions include biological fixation of atmospheric N_2, inputs due to animal transfer, and deposition of atmospheric nitrogen oxides and ammonia. Losses include export by animals, leaching, runoff, denitrification, and volatilization of nitrogen oxides and NH_3. System inputs, system losses and the nitrogen cycle have all received scientific attention (e.g., Soderlund and Svensson 1976, Clark and Rosswall 1981). The study of gaseous losses of NH_3 from plant soil systems has, however, been limited to tilled systems (Terman 1979) and pasture systems (Floate 1981, Simpson and Steele 1983). There have apparently been no measurements of NH_3 volatilization from unfertilized native ecosystems (Dawson 1977, Freney et al. 1983).

The objectives of this study were:

1. To measure ammonia volatilization rates in unfertilized grassland and forest ecosystems.

2. To contrast seasonal volatilization rates and determine the effects of soil temperature and water availability on these.

3. To compare ammonia volatilization rates among grassland and forest ecosystems and relate differences to environmental differences between those systems.

Ammonia losses were measured at two native grassland sites and two native forest sites. Because ammonia volatilization from unfertilized ecosystems is the result of complex generative and escape processes, an attempt was made to isolate the escape (volatilization) processes by applying a constant amount of NH_4 to a separate series of plots in each sampling

period and determining the effects of season and site-specific factors upon loss of freely

available NH_3 as outlined in objectives 2 and 3 above.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

Fundamental Reactions of Ammonia Volatilization

A scheme of reactions that represents ammonia volatilization is:

$$\text{Adsorbed NH}_4^+ \rightleftharpoons \overset{\overset{\text{Source}}{\downarrow}}{\text{NH}_4^+(aq)} \rightleftharpoons \overset{\overset{\text{Source}}{\downarrow}}{\text{NH}_3(aq)} \rightleftharpoons \text{NH}_3 \text{ (gas in soil)} \rightleftharpoons \text{NH}_3 \text{ (gas in} \qquad (1)$$
$$\text{atmosphere)}$$
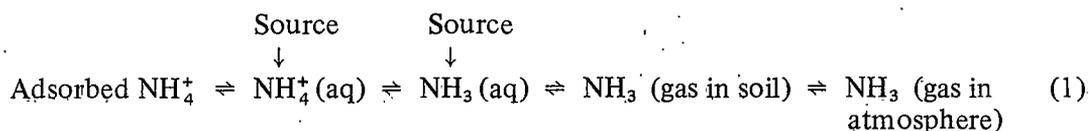
(Freney *et al.* 1983). The volatilization rate may be affected at any of the steps shown,

The equilibrium between NH_3 and ammonium in solution may be described by

$$NH_4^+ \underset{k_2}{\overset{k_1}{\rightleftharpoons}} NH_3 + H^+ \qquad (2)$$

(Avnimelech and Laher 1977). The reaction is dependent upon pH and temperature of the solution. There is an approximate tenfold increase in the relative concentration of $NH_3(aq)$ per unit increase in pH up to pH 9, and at pH $>$ 11 all soluble ammoniacal N is in the form of $NH_3(aq)$ (Vlek and Stumpe 1978). Because the dissociation 'constant' of ammonium (k_1) increases with temperature, a large proportion of ammoniacal N appears as $NH_3(aq)$ at high temperatures (Freney *et al.* 1983).

The partial pressure (p_a) of ammonia gas in the soil air follows Henry's law, i.e.,

$$p_a = H_e A \qquad (3)$$

where A is the concentration of dissolved NH_3 and H_e is the Henry's law coefficient which increases with temperature (Danckwerts 1970, pp. 17-18). The concentration of NH_3 in

the soil air remains constant at a given temperature and NH_3 concentration of the soil solution, but increases with high temperature and concentration of NH_3 in the soil solution. Volatilization of ammonia from solution is expected to occur in response to difference in vapor pressure between the solution and the ambient air (Denmead et al. 1982).

Sources of Volatilized Ammonia

Possible sources of ammonia for volatilization from natural ecosystems are recent additions, decomposition—by soil microbiota, plants and animals—and fires (Soderlund and Svensson 1976).

Microbial decomposition of soil organic nitrogen derived from plant litter, animal litter or residues of biological N_2-fixation, is an important source of the ammonia volatilized from natural ecosystems (Dawson 1977). The rate of such ammonification is primarily affected by temperature, water, and amount and nature of organic N present (Stanford and Smith 1972). The low temperature limit for most soil microbial activity is about $0°C$, and Q_{10} is close to 2 for the temperature range from 5 to $35°C$ (Stanford et al. 1973). Ammonification rate is positively related to soil water potential in the range from permanent wilting point to field capacity (Stanford and Epstein 1974).

Volatilization of ammonia from aboveground parts of vegetation has been demonstrated by Denmead et al. (1978) and Farquhar et al. (1980). Such losses are likely to occur whenever temperature and stomatal conductance are high, and ambient partial pressure of ammonia is low (Farquhar et al. 1980).

Ammonia volatilization from animal waste is readily observed in densely grazed pastures and cattle feedlots, where substantial losses of gaseous NH_3, up to one-fourth of N deposited, have been measured (Denmead et al. 1974, Hutchinson et al. 1982). Animal excreta may also contribute to N loss by ammonia volatilization from grazed systems with low animal densities (Woodmansee 1978).

Terman (1979) and Beauchamp (1983) have reviewed the literature on ammonia volatilization from manures and sewage sludges applied to agricultural lands. Losses varied from 5 to over 90% of the nitrogen supplied.

Volatilization losses from ammoniacal fertilizers, such as anhydrous ammonia, urea, and various ammonium salts, have been reviewed by Terman (1979). Losses measured are variable, from negligible up to 50-60% of the applied N, depending on type of fertilizer, method of application, soil properties, season, weather conditions, and methods by which they are measured. While most studies of ammonia loss are related to losses from agricultural systems, a few deal with forest ecosystems (e.g., Mahendrappa and Ogden 1973, Craig and Wollum 1982).

Ammoniacal N recently added to ecosytems in rainwater or by dry deposition might also be volatilized. Ammonium concentrations in rainwater over the United States ranged from 0.01 to 1 mg l^1 and showed both geographical and seasonal variation (Junge 1958). Wet deposition in a particular area depends therefore on the amount of precipitation and how that is distributed over the year. Dry deposition of ammonia on a global scale has been estimated by Soderlund and Svensson (1976) to be of a similar magnitude to total wet deposition, but 60-90% of that is confined to the Tropics.

Factors That Affect Ammonia Volatilization

Most studies on factors that affect the volatilization process have been related to losses after application of ammonia fertilizers, but the same general principles should apply to NH_3 losses from unfertilized natural ecosystems.

Soil Factors

Many workers have studied the effect of soil pH on NH_3 volatilization from ammoniacal fertilizers (e.g., DuPlessis and Kroontje 1964, Watkins et al. 1972, Ryan et al. 1981).

The general conclusion is that NH_3 losses increase as pH rises. This is to be expected because much ammoniacal N is in ammonia form at high pH.

A hydrogen ion is released with each conversion of NH_4^+ to NH_3 so the medium tends to be acidified as a consequence of NH_3 loss. This results in a reduced fraction of ammoniacal N in the volatile NH_3(aq) form. Thus, the ammonia volatilization capacity depends more on the presence of $CaCO_3$ or other soil buffers than on the initial pH of the soil solution (Avnimelech and Laher 1977, Vlek and Stumpe 1978).

Calcium carbonate has another effect on the loss of ammonia after ammonium salts are applied to soils (Fenn and Kissel 1973, 1975). Ammonium salts react with calcium carbonate to form calcium salts and unstable ammonium carbonate $((NH_4)_2CO_3)$ that decomposes readily to ammonia, water, and carbon dioxide. The importance of this mechanism for volatilization depends on the solubility of the calcium salt that is formed. If the solubility is low, as when ammonium sulfate, ammonium fluoride, and diammonium phosphate react with $CaCO_3$, the reaction is driven to formation of $(NH_4)_2CO_3$ and results in NH_3 volatilization. When soluble calcium salts are formed, as with ammonium nitrate, chloride, and iodide, equilibrium exists and there is little formation of $(NH_4)_2NO_3$ and therefore low rates of volatilization (Freney et al. 1983), i.e.,

$$2NH_4NO_3 + CaCO_3 \rightleftharpoons Ca(NO_3)_2 + (NH_4)_2CO_3 \tag{4}$$
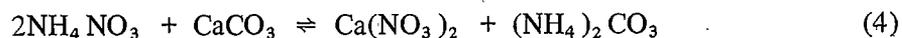
The NH_4^+ ion is adsorbed on cation exchange sites of soil particles. In soils with high cation exchange capacity (CEC), this results in reduced free ammonium and ammonia in the soil solution at a given pH and, consequently, less ammonia volatilization (Freney et al. 1983). A decrease in NH_3 as soil CEC increases has frequently been reported (e.g., Fenn and Kissel 1976, Daftarder and Shinde 1980, Ryan et al. 1981).

Climatic Factors

Soil moisture influences on ammonia volatilization are nonlinear. Volatilization is low in dry soils, high at intermediate moisture content and low again at high moisture levels (Fenn and Escarzaga 1976, Prasad 1976). Shimpi and Savant (1975) explain the low retention of ammonia in moist soils as a displacement of NH_3 molecules from sorption sites by water molecules. On the other hand, for a given amount of ammoniacal N in the soil, the concentration of NH_4^+ (aq) is lower at high than low moisture levels. Therefore in wet soils, since the partial pressure of NH_3 in the air is dependent on NH_3 (aq) concentration (Equation 3), a low NH_3 volatilization rate would be expected.

Simultaneous and contrary-wise capillary movement of water in wet soils helps transport ammoniacal N to the soil surface where it can be lost to the atmosphere (Fenn and Kissel 1976). A direct relationship between NH_3 loss and evaporation of water has been shown by Denmead *et al.* (1976) and Fenn and Escarzaga (1977).

Ammonia volatilization increases with temperature (Fenn and Kissel 1974, Prasad 1976, Vlek and Stumpe 1978). At high temperatures the ammonium-ammonia equilibrium in the soil solution (Equation 2) is shifted to the formation of ammonia and the solubility of ammonia in water is reduced (Equation 3). Evaporation of water and capillary transport rise with temperature. Temperature and moisture content also affect rates of biological uptake-release processes, which influence the amount of ammoniacal N present in the soil.

Wind affects the rate of ammonia volatilization by directly transporting NH_3 (aq) from the soil surface, lowering the partial pressure of the gas there, and, hence, promoting net upward diffusion (Freney *et al.* 1983, Simpson and Steele 1983). A positive relationship between wind velocity and ammonia loss was demonstrated by Watkins *et al.* (1972), Freney *et al.* (1981) and Denmead *et al.* (1982).

Biotic Factors

Biotic factors that influence the amount of ammoniacal N in the soil and therefore NH_3 volatilization may be positive (ammonification and urea hydrolysis) or negative (uptake of NH_4^+ by plants or soil microorganisms (Rosswall 1976) and nitrification).

Hydrolysis of urea is catalyzed by the enzyme urease which is widely distributed in plants, microorganisms, and soils. Urease activity is related to organic matter content, soil texture, soil temperature, soil moisture and soil pH (Freney *et al.* 1983).

In well-aerated soils most of the NH_4^+ derived from mineralization of organic matter is either immobilized by microorganisms or plants, or oxidized to NO_3 as rapidly as it is formed (Schmidt 1982). Under most tilled soil conditions, nitrification is limited by ammonium availability (Russell 1973, pp. 332-333), but it is more sensitive than ammonification to extreme temperatures, extreme moisture contents, or pH below neutral (Alexander 1965, Schmidt 1982, Tyler *et al.* 1959). Under conditions where nitrification rate is reduced more than the decomposition rate, as in soils that are wet and colder than 5-10°C, or in dry soils with water potential in the -15 to -30 bars range, an increase in ammoniacal N levels may result (Campbell *et al.* 1970, Russell 1973, Schmidt 1982, Tyler *et al.* 1959). The effect of nitrification on ammonia evolution has been demonstrated with measurements of much greater NH_3 volatilization when a nitrification inhibitor was applied with ammoniacal fertilizer than when the fertilizer was applied alone (Cornforth and Chesney 1971).

CHAPTER 3

MATERIALS AND METHODS

The Ammonia Absorbing Device

The ammonia absorption equipment used was modeled after equipment described by Volk (1959). The trap was a 75 ml bottle, with an inside diameter of 4.1 cm and an outside diameter of 4.8 cm, containing 10 ml of 0.1 N sulfuric acid. The trap was placed directly on the soil surface, with a wire-mesh screen on top to exclude insects. The bottle was covered with a 800 ml cylindrical, plastic chamber which was 11.1 cm in diameter and 11 cm high. The edges of the chamber were sealed to the ground with sand to reduce air exchange between its interior and the outside. A brick was placed on top to keep the assembly in place.

The absorption surface of the ammonia trap was 13.2 cm^2, and the emission surface, i.e., the area inside the plastic chamber, 96.8 cm^2. It was assumed that the area under the trap was an active emission surface. If none of it was, the calculated loss should be corrected upward by a factor of 1.23.

Ammonia traps were set out for seven day-periods. After that, the brick and the plastic container were carefully removed and the trap was closed with its lid. Samples were neutralized with 1 ml of 1 N NaOH immediately before determination of ammoniacal N by the phenate method (American Public Health Association 1980, pp. 360-361). The principle of the method is a formation of indophenol blue by a reaction of ammonia, hypochloride and phenol catalyzed with a manganous salt. The intensity of the blue color was measured with a Spectronic 20 spectrophotometer. A blank and a series of standards from

0.1 to 10 μg NH_4^+-N per 11 ml were carried through the procedure with samples from each collection period. Any samples that were visually contaminated with insects, sand, etc., were excluded from the results.

The bottles, their lids and all glassware used were soaked overnight in dilute sulfuric acid and rinsed with distilled water, just before each use, to prevent contamination with atmospheric ammonia. The plastic chambers were also washed with dilute acid and rinsed with distilled water prior to each use.

Site Descriptions

The four study sites chosen represent a range of habitats from semiarid grasslands to moist conifer forests. All the sites are in Gallatin County, Montana. Climatic data are listed in Table 1. Common species at all sites are listed in Appendix Table 11. Some soil characteristics are presented in Table 2. Soil reaction (pH) was measured in a paste with a soil:water ratio of 1:2; cation exchange capacity (CEC) was determined with an ammonium saturation method (Chapman 1965); calcium (Ca) was measured with ammonium acetate (Bower *et al.* 1952); and percent organic matter (OM) was determined with a simplified colorimetric method (Sims and Haby 1970). Soil classification for all the sites except the ABLA site (p. 12) are based on DeYoung and Smith (1931) and Montagne *et al.* (1982). Following is a brief description of each site.

The site designated as the BOGR site in this paper is in a *Stipa comata/Bouteloua gracilis* grassland habitat type (Mueggler and Stewart 1980). The site is 1.2 km west of Logan. The elevation is 1280 m and the site has a slight (1-2%) southern aspect. The soils are classified on a subgroup level as Typic Calciborolls. Ground cover as measured by a step-point method (Evans and Merton 1957) was: 10% bare ground, 17% cryptogam, 40% *Bouteloua gracilis*, 21% *Stipa comata*, 6% other grasses and 6% forbs and shrubs.

Table 1. The Monthly Average Temperature and Precipitation for Weather Stations Near the Study Sites.*

Month	Year	Trident (BOGR) T	Trident (BOGR) P	Belgrade Airport (AGSP) T	Belgrade Airport (AGSP) P	Bozeman 12NE (PSME & ABLA) T	Bozeman 12NE (PSME & ABLA) P
June	1982	16.2	89	14.2	109	9.6	108
July	1982	20.3	18	18.2	31	13.7	68
August	1982	20.9	20	19.8	30	14.7	57
September	1982	13.1	64	12.0	46	7.8	122
November	1982	−1.3	9	−4.9	9	−4.5	51
December	1982	−4.2	14	−8.4	22	−6.5	62
January	1983	−0.1	1	−2.0	2	−2.4	32
February	1983	2.2	3	0.3	7	−2.9	46
March	1983	4.1	11	2.9	18	0.4	68
April	1983	4.3	13	3.8	41	0.9	61
May	1983	11.6	36	9.4	44	5.3	100

*(USDC 1982-1983).
T = Mean monthly temperature (°C).
P = Cumulative precipitation per month (mm).
Sites were characterized by *Bouteloua gracilis* (BOGR), *Agropyron spicatum* (AGSP), *Pseudotsuga menziesii* (PSME), and *Abies lasiocarpa* (ABLA).

Table 2. Some Characteristics of Soil Samples Taken From 0-10 cm at the Study Sites,

Site		pH	CEC	Ca.	OM
			--------meq/100 g---------		% of soil
Grassland	BOGR	7.8	20.2	37.7	2.5
	AGSP	7.6	19.4	12.0	3.4
Forest	PSME	6.6	37.2	21.0	4.7
	ABLA	6.7	29.6	20.3	6.9

*Numbers are mean of 3 replicates for pH, Ca, and OM; 2 replicates for CEC.
Sites were characterized by *Bouteloua gracilis* (BOGR), *Agropyron spicatum* (AGSP), *Pseudotsuga menziesii* (PSME), and *Abies lasiocarpa* (ABLA).

The AGSP site is in an *Agropyron spicatum/Bouteloua gracilis* grassland habitat type (Mueggler and Stewart 1980). The site is 2.5 km southeast of Belgrade on level land at 1360 m elevation. The soils are Typic Argiborolls (Beaverton series). Ground cover measured by step-point method was: 9% bare ground, 11% cryptogam, 30% *Agropyron spicatum*, 15% *Bromus tectorum,* 12% other grasses and 24% forbs.

The site designated as the PSME site in this paper is in a *Pseudotsuga menziesii/Carex geyeri* forest habitat type (Pfister *et al.* 1977). It is 19 km northeast of Bozeman on Route 86 approximately 100 m north of the Bridger Bowl intersection of the Bridger Canyon highway. The site has 4% southwest aspect at 1870 m elevation. The soils are classified as Argic Cryoborolls. The understory at the site is dominated by *Carex geyeri* while the principle overstory vegetation is *Pseudotsuga menziesii* with some *Pinus contorta.* Climatic data for the PSME site, as for the other sites, are presented in Table 1. The Bozeman 12NE, the representative weather station for this site, is situated in a low area into which cold air can drain. Actual temperatures at the PSME site are likely to be higher than at 12NE because of PSME's southern aspect.

The ABLA site is in an *Abies lasiocarpa/Vaccinium scoparium* forest habitat type (Pfister *et al.* 1977). It is located 19 km northeast of Bozeman about 1.0 km north of the Bridger Bowl ski area. The elevation is 1870 m and the site is situated on a slight north facing slope (1%) at a valley bottom. The soils are classified as Mollic Cryoboralfs (Weaver and Forcella 1975). The understory is dominated by a patchwork of *Carex geyeri* and *Vaccinium scoparium*. The overstory is governed by *Abies lasiocarpa* but also contains a few *Pinus contorta*. The transects were placed in the *Vaccinium* dominated areas.

Field Procedure

The ammonium trapping devices were placed on two transects at each site. Each 30 m transect had ten traps at 3 m intervals. The fertilized treatment was applied on one of

the transects; the other was left undisturbed. The two treatments are called 'fertilized' and 'unfertilized' respectively. Fertilizing was done by dripping 1 ml of ammonium nitrate solution (0.048 gNH_4^+-N ml^{-1}) on the area under the plastic container when the traps were put out. The fertilization rate represented 50 kg of NH_4^+-N ha^{-1}. One site (PSME) had four 15 m long transects, since it was impossible to use 30 m long transects due to lack of level space. Controls used to estimate the 'background noise' of the method were placed at both ends of each line. Those were set up and run exactly as the ammonia absorbing devices, except that all contact with the soil surface was eliminated by putting a tight fitting lid on the plastic container. At the end of the seven day collection period, all the containers were removed. At each successive collection period the ammonia absorbing devices were moved along the transect approximately 30 cm from the last site, so the measurements would not be influenced by earlier measurements.

When there was snow on the ground, the snow cover of a small area was removed, the traps were placed on the ground and covered with snow.

Soil temperature was recorded with a maximum-minimum thermometer at 10 cm depth at each site. Soil potential was measured at two depths, 10 and 25 cm, at each site. This was done with porous gypsum (plaster) blocks, and three replicates were used at each site.

Efficiency of Method

Closed systems for measuring ammonia volatilization—like the one used in this study —probably underestimate the actual amount of ammonia that is evolved, due to alteration of the microenvironment and to inherent trap characteristics (Beauchamp *et al.* 1978, Denmead 1983). First, a microenvironment is created within the enclosures that is somewhat different from the natural microenvironment at the surface of the sites. The effects

of small differences in temperature and moisture are difficult to assess but the total elimination of wind could reduce volatilization (Nommik 1973). Second, because ammonia is highly reactive and readily soluble in water it could be retained in any condensates on walls of the enclosure (Denmead 1983). It is also possible that the uppermost layers of the acid in ammonia traps could become temporarily saturated with dissolved gas, thereby slowing their absorption rate, especially at subzero temperatures when the dilute acid in the ammonia traps is frozen. At low temperatures, absorption might also be reduced because of lowered diffusion rates.

No effort was made to estimate complex microenvironmental effects. However, the efficiency of the ammonia traps with regard to chemical and physical properties of traps and gas were estimated by measuring the percent of a known quantity of ammonia introduced which was absorbed by the traps under laboratory conditions. The experiment was carried out for 7 days over the entire temperature range experienced in the field (i.e., -14, 22, and 40°C). The apparatus was the same as for controls, i.e., there were tightly fitting lids on the plastic chambers which contained the acid bottle and a dish, 4.5 cm in diameter, holding 1 ml of an ammonium hydroxide-ethyl alcohol solution. Five concentrations of ammonium hydroxide were tested: 0, 3, 10, 100, 300, and 1000 μgN ml^{-1}. Five replications of each treatment were used. The mean amount of ammonia in controls for each temperature treatment was subtracted from ammonia in samples from that treatment before their recovery was calculated.

Data Analysis

To determine whether ammonia was emitted, the mean quantity of ammonia measured in samples was compared with the mean quantity measured in the controls for that site and collection period. The population variances of the controls and the treatments were, in most instances, significantly different, making an ordinary t-test not applicable. A similar

test not requiring equal variances was therefore applied instead (Snedecor and Cochran 1980, pp. 96-98).

To relate ammonia loss to seasonal conditions, ammonia loss was regressed against soil temperature, water potential, or season on a site-by-site basis.

To relate ammonia loss to site conditions, ammonia loss was regressed against water potential, soil temperature, organic matter content, soil reaction (pH), cation exchange capacity (CEC), and calcium (Ca) concentration, on data combined across all sites.

All ammonia losses discussed are ammonia measured in traps, minus mean ammonia in controls, for that site and collection period.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

Ammonia Losses From Unfertilized Plots

NH_3-N losses from undisturbed grasslands and forests tended to be greater in the spring and early summer than in late summer and winter (Fig. 1, Appendix Table 6).

At the BOGR grassland site, ammonia loss was not statistically significant during collection periods in July and late August, 1982, but was 8.2 μgN m^{-2} day^{-1} during the mid-August measurement. Losses were low (less than 5 μgN m^{-2} day^{-1}) but significant during the winter sampling periods—October 1982 to March 1983—and increased again during the April and May 1983 sampling periods with the highest losses of 15.7 μgN m^{-2} day^{-1} being measured in May.

Losses from the AGSP grassland site showed similar trends. Losses in July and mid-August 1982 were significant but low. During the October 1982 collection period there was a high loss of 12.2 μgN m^{-2} day^{-1}. Losses were low but usually significant between November 1982 and March 1983. Losses increased again in the spring with the highest loss rates being measured in May 1983, almost 25 μgN m^{-2} day^{-1}.

NH_3-N losses from the forest sites were generally lower than from the grassland sites. The only significant loss measured at the PSME site was recorded in late August 1982 (8.7 μgN m^{-2} day^{-1}).

The ABLA site showed significant loss during four collection periods: July, mid-August, and October 1982, and May 1983. The highest loss measured was 8 μgN m^{-2} day^{-1} in mid-August.
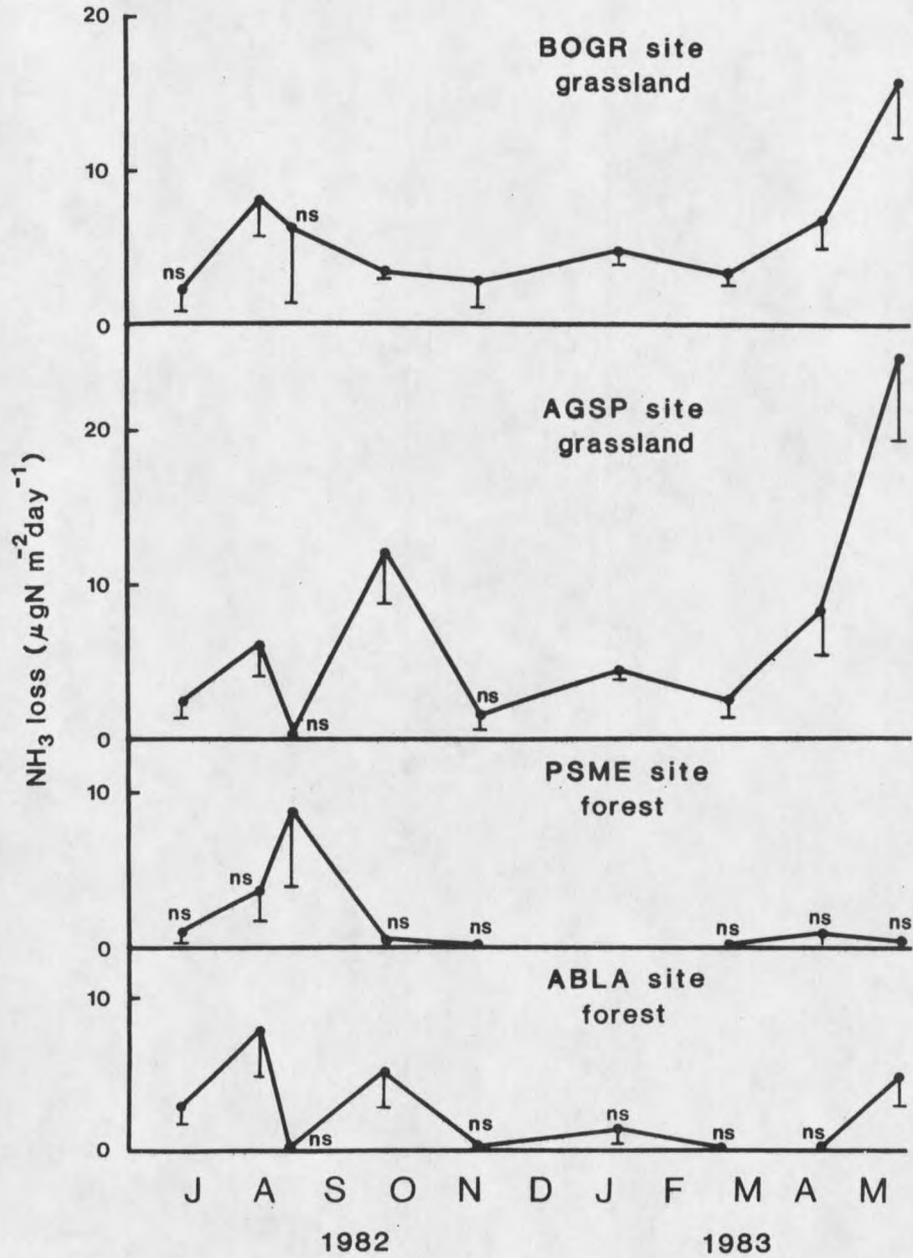
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Figure 1. Ammonia volatilization from unfertilized plots averaged over one week. Cases when volatilization was not significant at 0.1 level are indicated by ns. There was no sampling at the PSME site in January 1983. Vertical bars show S.E. Sites were characterized by *Bouteloua gracilis* (BOGR), *Agropyron spicatum* (AGSP), *Pseudotsuga menziesii* (PSME), and *Abies lasiocarpa* (ABLA).

Ammonia Losses From Fertilized Plots

Losses from fertilized plots were high in the summer and fall, low during the winter, and high again in the following spring.

At the grassland sites (Fig. 2 and Appendix Table 6) NH_3-N losses were always significant at the 0.1 level, but only a small proportion of the NH_4^+-N applied to each plot (corresponding to 50 $kgNH_4^+$-N ha^{-1}) was recovered during the week long sampling period. The maximum losses were 2476 μgN m^{-2} day^{-1} in late August 1982 at the BOGR site and 1189 μgN m^{-2} day^{-1} for the same sampling period at the AGSP site. Losses from fertilized plots were 2 to 3 orders of magnitude higher than from unfertilized plots in the summer. Differences were much smaller during the winter when losses from unfertilized plots were almost equal to losses from fertilized plots. In May 1983, losses from unfertilized actually exceeded losses from fertilized plots at the AGSP site. Losses from fertilized plots were always higher at the BOGR than at the AGSP grassland site; most often they were more than 2 times higher.

The pattern of loss from fertilized plots at the two forest sites was almost identical (Fig. 2 and Appendix Table 6). The highest loss rates were measured in mid-August 1982 and were 85 and 87 μgN m^{-2} day^{-1} for the PSME and ABLA sites, respectively. Losses of fertilizer nitrogen were low or not significant during the winter. Maximum losses from the forest sites were more than an order of magnitude lower than maximum losses from either grassland site.

Soil Water and Temperature Conditions

Measurements of water potential and soil temperature at 10 cm depth are presented in Figure 3 and Appendix Table 7. The temperature presented in Figure 3 is an average of the maximum and minimum temperature readings at a 10 cm depth. The average temperature ranged from −5 to 27.5°C with greater range observed for the grassland sites than the
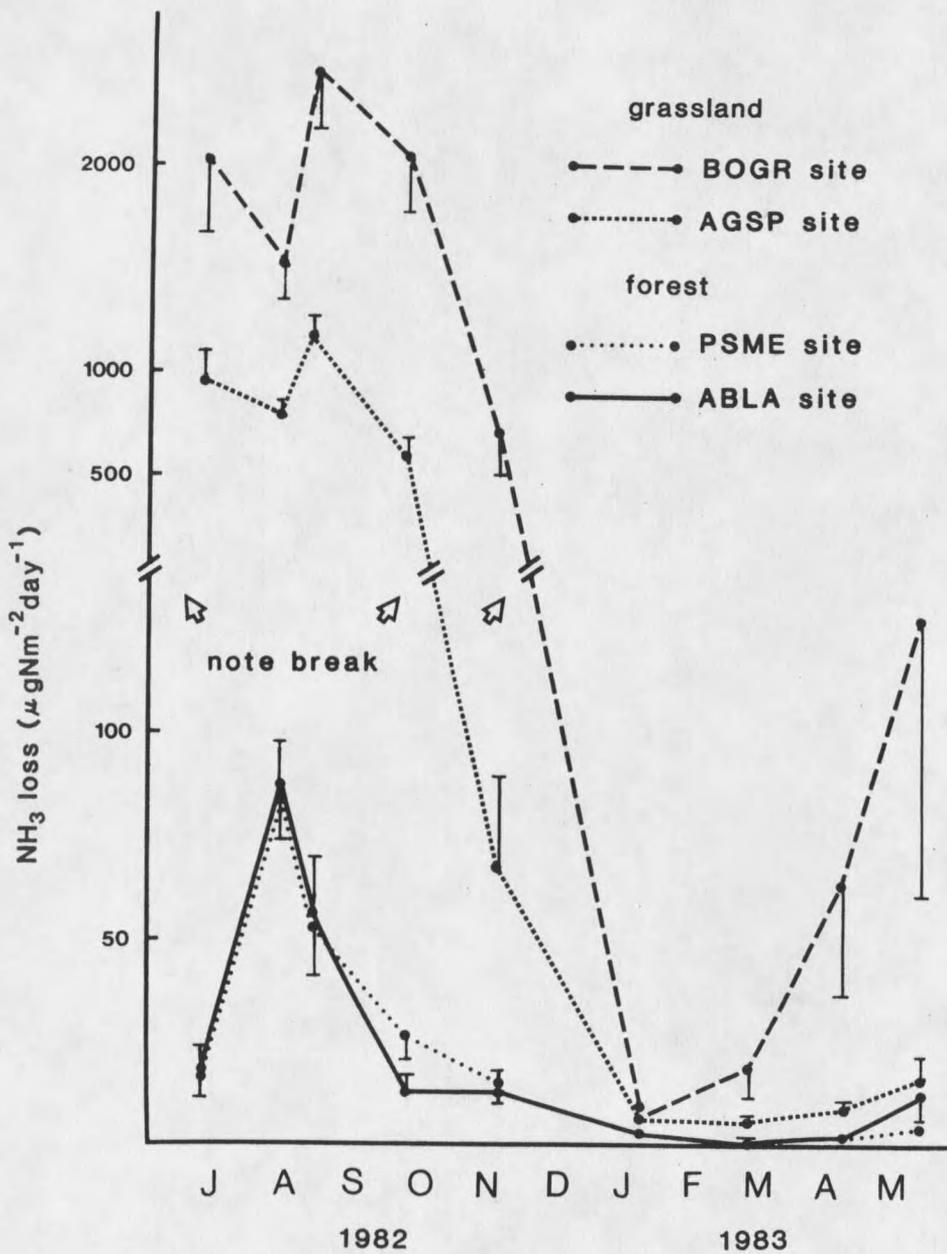
Figure 2. Ammonia volatilization from fertilized plots (50 kg NH_4^+-N ha^{-1} of $NH_4 NO_3$) averaged over the first week after application. Volatilization was significant at 0.1 level in all cases except for in April 1983 at the PSME site, and January and March 1983 at the ABLA site. There was no sampling at the PSME site in January 1983. Vertical bars show S.E. Note break and change in vertical scale. Sites were characterized by *Bouteloua gracilis* (BOGR), *Agropyron spicatum* (AGSP), *Pseudotsuga menziesii* (PSME), and *Abies lasiocarpa* (ABLA).