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Comparison of grain yields and N₂O emissions on Oxisol and Vertisol soils in response to fertiliser N applied as urea or urea coated with the nitrification inhibitor 3,4-dimethylpyrazole phosphate.

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1 **Comparison of grain yields and N₂O emissions on Oxisol and Vertisol soils**
2 **in response to fertiliser N applied as urea or urea coated with the**
3 **nitrification inhibitor 3,4-dimethylpyrazole phosphate**

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8

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14

15 Abstract

16

17 The potential for elevated N₂O losses is high in subtropical cereal cropping systems in northeast
18 Australia, where the fertiliser N input is supplied in one single application at or prior to planting due to
19 the unpredictability of in-season rainfall patterns. The use of urea coated with the nitrification inhibitor
20 3,4-dimethylpyrazole phosphate (DMPP) has been reported by several studies to substantially decrease
21 N₂O emissions and increase crop yields in humid, high-intensity rainfall environments. However, it is
22 still uncertain whether this product can be used with the same effectiveness in Vertisols and Oxisols,
23 two of the main soil types in the cropping region of northeast Australia. In this study the grain yield
24 response of sorghum (*Sorghum bicolor* L. Moench) to rates of fertiliser N applied as urea or urea coated
25 with DMPP were compared in crops grown on a Vertisol and an Oxisol in southern Queensland.
26 Seasonal N₂O emissions were monitored on selected treatments for the duration of the cropping season
27 and the early stages of a subsequent fallow period using a fully automated high frequency greenhouse
28 gas measuring system. On each soil the tested treatments included an unfertilised control (0N kg N ha⁻¹
29 ¹) and two fertilised treatments chosen on the basis of delivering at least 90% of seasonal potential grain
30 yield (160 kg N ha⁻¹ and 120 kg N ha⁻¹ on the Vertisol and Oxisol, respectively) or at a common
31 (suboptimal) rate at each site (80 kg N ha⁻¹). During this study DMPP had a similar impact at both sites,
32 clearly inhibiting nitrification for up to 8 weeks after fertiliser application, while differences in seasonal
33 moisture conditions and irrigation frequency had much smaller impacts on soil mineral N dynamics.
34 Despite the relatively dry seasonal conditions experienced during most of the monitoring period, DMPP
35 was effective in abating N₂O emissions on both soils and on average reduced seasonal N₂O emissions
36 by 60% compared to conventional urea at fertiliser N rates equivalent to those producing 90% of site
37 maximum grain yield.. The significant abatement of N₂O emissions observed with DMPP however did
38 not translate into significant yield gains or improvements in agronomic efficiencies of fertiliser N use.
39 These results may be due to the relatively dry growing season conditions prior to the bulk of crop N
40 acquisition, which limited the exposure of fertiliser N to large losses due to leaching and denitrification.

41 DMPP might be expected to increase the agronomic efficiency of urea in summer seasons with high
42 rainfall rates, such as during *la Niña* phases of the El Niño Southern Oscillation (ENSO) cycle.

43

44

45

46 **Keywords:** nitrogen response, grain yield, Vertosol, Oxisol, automated greenhouse gas measuring
47 system

48

49 Introduction

50 Vertisols and Oxisols are amongst the main soil types in subtropical regions (Buol and Eswaran
51 1999; Syers *et al.* 2001) and contribute significant amounts of global cereal production (Sant'Anna
52 1993; Webb *et al.* 1997; Fageria and Baligar 2008). Although characterised by high clay contents
53 (Eswaran and Cook 1988; von Uexküll and Mutert 1995), decreases in soil organic matter and
54 mineralisable nitrogen (N) stocks have often been observed in both soil types due to intensive cropping
55 (Dalal *et al.* 1997). This reduction in native soil fertility has led farmers to increase synthetic fertiliser
56 rates to achieve maximum yield potential. For example, fertiliser N rates in Australian cereal cropping
57 systems on Vertisols and Oxisols have been observed to increase from negligible to over 100 kg N ha⁻¹
58 ¹ over the last few decades (Bell *et al.* 1995; Lester *et al.* 2009).

59 The application of high fertiliser N rates can, however, lead to low plant N use efficiency and
60 increased risk of high N losses if the timing of those applications results in less synchrony between
61 plant N demand and fertiliser supply (Crews and Peoples 2005). The potential for N losses is further
62 exacerbated in subtropical cereal cropping systems in northeast Australia, where fertiliser N is typically
63 supplied in one single application at or prior to planting, due to the unpredictability of in-season rainfall
64 patterns (Bell *et al.* 2015).

65 N losses can pose severe threats to the environment, amongst which the emission of significant
66 amounts of nitrous oxide (N₂O) is arguably one of the most important. The environmental relevance of
67 N₂O emissions resides both in terms of its elevated global warming potential (298 times that of carbon
68 dioxide over a 100 year time horizon (Myhre *et al.* 2013)) and its contribution to the depletion of the
69 ozone layer in the stratosphere (Ravishankara *et al.* 2009). Importantly, numerous studies on
70 agricultural soils have proven a clear correlation between N₂O emissions and N fertilisation. Increasing
71 N₂O fluxes have been shown to correspond to increasing N fertilisation rates, with emissions typically
72 increasing exponentially where N rates exceed crop N requirements (McSwiney and Robertson 2005;
73 Hoben *et al.* 2011; Kim *et al.* 2013; Shcherbak *et al.* 2014; Scheer *et al.* 2016).

74 One of the most promising methods to reduce N₂O emissions and decrease overall N losses is the
75 addition of nitrification inhibitors to NH₄⁺-based fertilisers (Linzmeier *et al.* 2001b; Pasda *et al.* 2001;
76 Kawakami *et al.* 2012). Nitrification inhibitors are antibiotics that slow the activity of the *Nitrosomonas*
77 *sp.* bacteria, the genus responsible for the oxidation of NH₄⁺ to NO₂⁻. Maintaining fertiliser N in the
78 NH₄⁺ form reduces the chances of N being lost via leaching or denitrification when soil moisture
79 conditions are elevated. Nitrification inhibitor-coated urea has been reported by several studies to
80 substantially decrease N₂O emissions and increase crop yields in humid, high rainfall environments
81 (Prasad and Power 1995; Linzmeier *et al.* 2001a; Pasda *et al.* 2001; Hatch *et al.* 2005), which are the
82 environmental conditions that are prevalent during subtropical summers. Among nitrification inhibitors,
83 3,4-dimethylpyrazole phosphate (DMPP) has been reported by many authors as the most efficient in
84 slowing nitrification and reducing N₂O losses (Weiske *et al.* 2001b; Liu *et al.* 2013; Lester *et al.* 2016
85 in press).

86 While DMPP was shown to efficiently reduce N₂O emissions on Oxisol soils in subtropical
87 cropping systems in northeast Australia (De Antoni Migliorati *et al.* 2014), it is still uncertain whether
88 DMPP can be used with the same effectiveness in Vertisols – the dominant cropping soils in the region.
89 The overall aims of this study were therefore to determine whether: i) the different soil properties of
90 Vertisols and Oxisols can affect the potential of DMPP to reduce N₂O losses from urea applications and
91 ii) DMPP can increase grain yields through limiting fertiliser N losses or improving synchronisation
92 between fertiliser N supply and plant demand.

93 In this study, grain yields and N₂O emissions from a cereal crop (sorghum) grown on a Vertisol
94 and an Oxisol were monitored for the duration of the cropping season and for a portion of the subsequent
95 fallow period using a fully automated high frequency greenhouse gas measuring system. The results of
96 this study will help define fertilisation strategies that maximise the efficient use of fertiliser N while
97 minimizing environmental impacts in subtropical summer cereal cropping systems.

98

99 **Materials and Methods**

100 *STUDY SITES*

101 The study was conducted at two sites with contrasting soil types. One field trial was located at the
102 Kingsthorpe research station, situated in the Darling Downs region about 140 km west of Brisbane
103 (27°31'S, 151°47'E, 431 m above mean sea level). The soil at the site is classified as a self-mulching,
104 torrert Vertisol (USDA Soil Taxonomy, USDA (1998)) or as a haplic, black Vertisol (Australian Soil
105 Classification (Isbell 2002)). It has a heavy clay texture (67% clay) in the 1.5 m root zone profile, with
106 a distinct change in soil colour from brownish black (10YR22) in the top 90 cm to dark brown
107 (7.5YR33) deeper in the profile. The soil was formed in an alluvial fan of basalt rock origin with a
108 surface slope of about 0.5%, is slowly permeable and has a plant available water holding capacity
109 (PAWC) of 210-230 mm for wheat. Physical and chemical characteristics of the soil profile are shown
110 in Table 1.

111 The other field trial was located at the J. Bjelke Petersen Research Station at Taabinga (26°34'54.3''
112 S, 151°49'43.3'' E, altitude 441 m above mean sea level), near Kingaroy, in the southern inland Burnett
113 region of southeast Queensland, Australia. The soil is classified as Tropeptic Eustrtox Oxisol (USDA
114 Soil Taxonomy, USDA (1998)) or as a Brown Ferrosol (Australian Soil Classification, (Isbell 2002)),
115 is moderately permeable, with a high clay content (50-65% clay) in 1.2 m of effective rooting zone and
116 a PAWC of 100-110 mm in maize-peanut rotations. Physical and chemical soil properties are listed in
117 Table 1.

118 At both sites the climate is classified as subtropical, with warm, humid summers and mild winters.
119 Monthly mean minimum and maximum temperatures at the Vertisol site (Kingsthorpe) are 16.3 °C and
120 27.2 °C in summer, and 5.9 °C and 17.0 °C in winter, respectively. Mean annual precipitation is 630
121 mm (1990-2010), where most of the rainfall occurs between October and March, during the summer
122 crop growing season. At the Oxisol site (Kingaroy), monthly mean minimum and maximum
123 temperatures are 16.5 °C and 29.6 °C in summer, and 4.0°C and 18.9°C in winter, respectively. Mean
124 annual precipitation is 776.2 mm, with most also occurring in the spring-summer period, and varies

125 from a minimum of 28.6 mm in August to a maximum of 114.1 mm in January (Australian Bureau of
126 Meteorology).

127

128 ***EXPERIMENTAL DESIGN***

129 Experiments were sown to sorghum (*Sorghum bicolor* L.) during the 2013/14 summer season, with
130 cv. Pacific MR43 planted 10 December 2013 and machine-harvested 5 May 2014 at the Vertisol site,
131 while at the Oxisol site cv. Pioneer G22 was planted on 27 November 2013 and machine-harvested on
132 10 April 2014. The Vertisol site had been cropped to sorghum in 2012/13 with green manure winter
133 cereals (barley and wheat) grown during the 2012 and 2013 winter seasons and removed as a forage
134 crop to maintain low soil mineral N status. The Oxisol site had grown sorghum in 2011/12 season, with
135 a winter fallow, 2012/13 summer peanut (*Arachis hypogaea* L.) and 2013 winter forage barley crops,
136 respectively.

137 Briefly, treatments were organised in a randomized complete block design with four replicates at the
138 Vertisol site and in a split plot design (fertilizer products as main plots and N rates as sub plots) with
139 three replicates at the Oxisol site. The Vertisol site was direct sown into forage residue sprayed out after
140 forage removal, while the Oxisol site was prepared using conventional tillage (chisel plough (20 cm)
141 and two passes with offset discs (15 cm). Crop row spacing was 1 m and 0.9 m at the Vertisol and
142 Oxisol sites, respectively, with six plant rows in each treatment. Plots at the Vertisol and Oxisol sites
143 measured 6 m x 12 m and 5.4 m x 13 m, respectively, with buffer areas of 1-2 m between plots. Further
144 information on the experimental details is outlined in full in Lester *et al.* (2016 in press)

145 Both sites utilized supplementary irrigation using overhead sprinkler application. At the Vertisol site
146 this consisted of a 30 mm irrigation immediately after sowing, to ensure uniform crop establishment,
147 followed by two 25mm irrigations during the early stages of crop establishment. At the Oxisol site
148 however, lack of profile moisture and the low PAWC of this soil type necessitated more frequent
149 irrigations, with a total of 168 mm applied in five irrigation events from early January to mid-February
150 2014 (Table 2).

151 At each site, treatments consisted of a range of N rates supplied as either urea or DMPP urea, with
152 rates chosen to cover the full yield-N response surface at each location. In addition to an unfertilized
153 control (0N added), N rates supplied as urea or DMPP urea ranged from 40-160 kg N ha⁻¹ on the Vertisol
154 and 40-240 kg N ha⁻¹ on the Oxisol. Fertilizer was banded between 10 and 15cm away from the crop
155 row at sowing at both sites.

156 Crop growth and N accumulation was assessed by a total crop biomass sampling at physiological
157 maturity (two crop rows each 1m in length and at two locations in each plot) on 8 April 2014 at the
158 Vertisol site and 10 March 2014 in the Oxisol site, with samples oven dried (60°C for 72h) before
159 mulching and grinding and subsequent analysis for N concentration. Grain yields were determined by
160 a combine harvester after a 1m buffer area was removed from either end of the plot (2 crop rows by the
161 length of the experimental plot), with grain moisture determined and used to adjust yields and grain N
162 concentration to a dry weight basis.

163 Emissions were monitored from four treatments during the monitoring period, with treatments
164 chosen to both allow a direct comparison between soil types at a common N rate, and to also allow a
165 comparison between urea and DMPP urea at a rate estimated to deliver maximum crop yields on each
166 soil type. These were:

- 167 • Control (CNT)- no N fertiliser applied: to quantify background N₂O emissions and baseline yields
168 in each soil type;
- 169 • Urea (UREA) and DMPP urea (DMPP): the different fertilizer products were compared at N rates
170 estimated to produce maximum grain yields at each site. These were 160 kg N ha⁻¹ on the Vertisol
171 and 120 kg N ha⁻¹ on the Oxisol. These rates were *ca.* 30% higher than standard farmer practice
172 (approximately 120 kg N ha⁻¹ and 90 kg N ha⁻¹ on the Vertisol and Oxisol, respectively), but
173 considered appropriate due to the preceding very wet summer with large denitrification losses (see
174 De Antoni Migliorati *et al.* 2015; Scheer *et al* this issue) and the use of winter forage crops to ensure
175 low starting profile N.

- 176 • Urea (UREA-R): in both soils conventional urea was applied at a reduced rate (80 kg N ha⁻¹) that
177 was more comparable to standard farming practice in each region. The N rate was reduced to assess
178 crop response and N₂O emissions at sub-optimal N rates.

179

180 ***CONTINUOUS N₂O MEASUREMENTS***

181 At both sites N₂O fluxes were measured over 198 days, from 11 December 2013 to 26 June 2014 on
182 the Vertisol and from 6 December 2013 to 21 June 2013 on the Oxisol. N₂O measurements were taken
183 from every plot of the target treatments in the field trials using two fully automated measuring systems
184 similar to the one described in De Antoni Migliorati *et al.* (2015). Each system consisted of twelve
185 chambers, linked to a computerized sampling unit and an *in situ* gas chromatograph (SRI GC 8610C)
186 equipped with a ⁶³Ni electron capture detector (ECD) for N₂O concentration analysis.

187 Briefly, chambers were closed airtight with lids made of transparent acrylic panels operated by
188 pneumatic actuators. Chambers measured 50 cm x 50 cm x 15 cm and were attached via a rubber seal
189 to stainless steel frames inserted 10 cm into the ground. During a measurement cycle a set of four
190 chambers closed for 60 min with each chamber sampled 4 times for 3 min. A certified gas standard of
191 500 ppb N₂O (BOC – Munich, Germany and Air Liquide – Dallas, TX, USA) was pumped into the gas
192 chromatograph every 15 min. At the end of the cycle the chambers reopened and the next set of four
193 chambers closed for sampling. Measurements in one complete cycle of twelve chambers lasted 3 hours,
194 during which each chamber was sampling for 1 hour and then remained opened for 2 hours to restore
195 ambient conditions. This method enabled the determination of up to 8 single fluxes per chamber per
196 day. The detection limit of the system was approximately 1.0 µg N₂O-N m⁻² hour⁻¹ for N₂O; both
197 systems were regularly checked for leaks throughout the season, making sample dilution due to leakage
198 negligible.

199 All chambers were positioned next to the plant rows to account for N₂O emissions from a localized
200 source (banded fertiliser) with background emissions from residual soil N derived from unfertilized
201 plots. The measuring systems were deployed soon after fertilizer application and planting and retrieved
202 4-6 weeks after harvesting.

203

204 ***ANCILLARY MEASUREMENTS***

205 Chamber air temperatures and topsoil temperatures (buried at 10 cm in the proximities of three
206 chambers) were measured every 5 minutes using resistance temperature detectors (RTD, Temperature
207 Controls Pty Ltd, Australia). An electronic weather station recording rainfall was installed at each
208 research site.

209 At the beginning of the cropping seasons, soil samples (0-20 cm) were collected from every plot
210 with a manual open-faced bucket auger (10 cm diameter) and analysed for texture (hydrometer method
211 as described by (Kroetsch and Wang 2008)). Other soil analyses were conducted using standard
212 methodology described in Rayment and Higginson (1992), including total carbon (C%) and total
213 nitrogen (N%) by Dumas combustion pH (1:5 soil:water), Cation Exchange Capacity and NH₄-N and
214 NO₃-N. The latter were determined on extracts collected from the soil samples after adding 100 mL of
215 1M KCl to 20g of soil and shaking the solution for 1 hour. The solution was then filtered and stored in
216 a freezer until analysed colorimetrically for NH₄-N and NO₃-N using method 7c2 (Rayment and
217 Higginson, 1992).

218 Soil sampling was conducted at intervals of 3-4 weeks at each site by collecting topsoil samples (0-
219 20 cm) in each plot and analysing them for NH₄-N and NO₃-N. In each plot, soil samplings were
220 systematically collected to represent the chamber area on which emissions monitoring was conducted
221 in fertilised treatments, and in equivalent positions relative to the crop row in the Control treatment.
222 This represented three replicate samples collected 5 cm, 15 cm and 20 cm from the plant row, with
223 replicate samples thoroughly mixed and the sub-sample analysed.

224

225 ***FLUX CALCULATIONS AND STATISTICAL ANALYSIS***

226 Hourly N₂O fluxes were calculated with the method described by (Nguyen *et al.* 2014), determining
227 the slope of the linear increase or decrease of the four gas concentrations measured during the 60 minute
228 period of chamber closure. The obtained data were corrected for internal air temperature, atmospheric
229 pressure and ratio of chamber volume and soil area. Measurements were quality-checked using the

230 Pearson correlation and fluxes above the detection limit discarded if the regression coefficient (r^2) was
231 < 0.80 , while those below the detection limit were assumed to be zero.

232 To account for the spatial variability between two crop rows (0.9 m - 1 m) imposed by banding the
233 fertiliser, mean daily fluxes for each fertilised treatment were calculated with the methodology
234 established by Kusa *et al.* (2006) and Parkin and Kaspar (2006). Using this approach, hourly fluxes
235 from the three replicate chambers of each fertilised treatment (covering 50 cm on the side of the crop
236 row where the fertiliser was banded) were averaged. The obtained mean flux was then averaged with
237 the mean of hourly fluxes measured in the control treatment (covering 50 cm on the side of the crop
238 row without any fertiliser) for the Vertisol site. For the Oxisol site the weighted average consisted of
239 55% of the chamber over the fertilizer band and 45% of that with no applied fertilizer.

240 Cumulative N_2O fluxes [$kg\ N_2O-N\ ha^{-1}$] were determined by summing hourly fluxes to produce
241 daily flux totals and then summing daily N_2O fluxes measured during the study period. Emission factors
242 were corrected for background emissions (Kroeze *et al.* 1997) using the following:

243

$$244 \quad EF \% = \frac{N_2O (Fert) - N_2O (Unfert)}{N\ fertiliser\ input} \cdot 100$$

245

246 where $EF\ %$ is the emission factor reported as a percentage of $N\ fertiliser\ input$ ($kg\ N\ ha^{-1}\ season^{-1}$)
247 lost as N_2O-N , $N_2O (Fert)$ and $N_2O (Unfert)$ ($kg\ N\ ha^{-1}\ season^{-1}$) are the cumulative N_2O-N emissions
248 measured in the fertilised and non-fertilised treatments with the same cropping history, respectively.

249 Agronomic efficiency (AE) was calculated as:

250

$$251 \quad AE = \frac{Grain (Fert) - Grain (Unfert)}{N\ fertiliser\ input}$$

252

253 where AE is the agronomic efficiency ($kg\ grain\ kg\ N\ applied^{-1}$), $Grain\ Fert$ and $Grain\ Unfert$ (kg
254 ha^{-1}) are the quantities of grain harvested in the fertilised and unfertilised treatment, respectively, and
255 $N\ fertiliser\ input$ is the amount of fertiliser N applied ($kg\ N\ ha^{-1}$).

256 Daily N₂O fluxes missing due to occasional brief (< 4 days) failures of the measuring system were
257 estimated by linear interpolation. Statistical analyses were undertaken in the R environment (R Core
258 Team 2015). Benjamini and Hochberg (BH) adjustment (Benjamini and Hochberg 1995) was
259 performed to assess significant differences on total cumulative N₂O emissions within and across sites.
260 Tukey post hoc test was performed to determine the influence of N fertilisation rate or soil type on grain
261 yields and agronomic efficiency within and between sites. Post hoc tests were performed only when the
262 analysis of variance (ANOVA) yielded P values <0.05. The shape of the grain yield-N fertilizer rate
263 response surface was determined using linear (Vertisol) and Mitscherlich (Oxisol) regression functions in
264 Genstat (VSN International 2014) and the fitted response functions were used to estimate the N fertilizer
265 rate that was required to produce 90% of the site maximum yield.

266 **Results**

267 *ENVIRONMENTAL AND SOIL CONDITIONS*

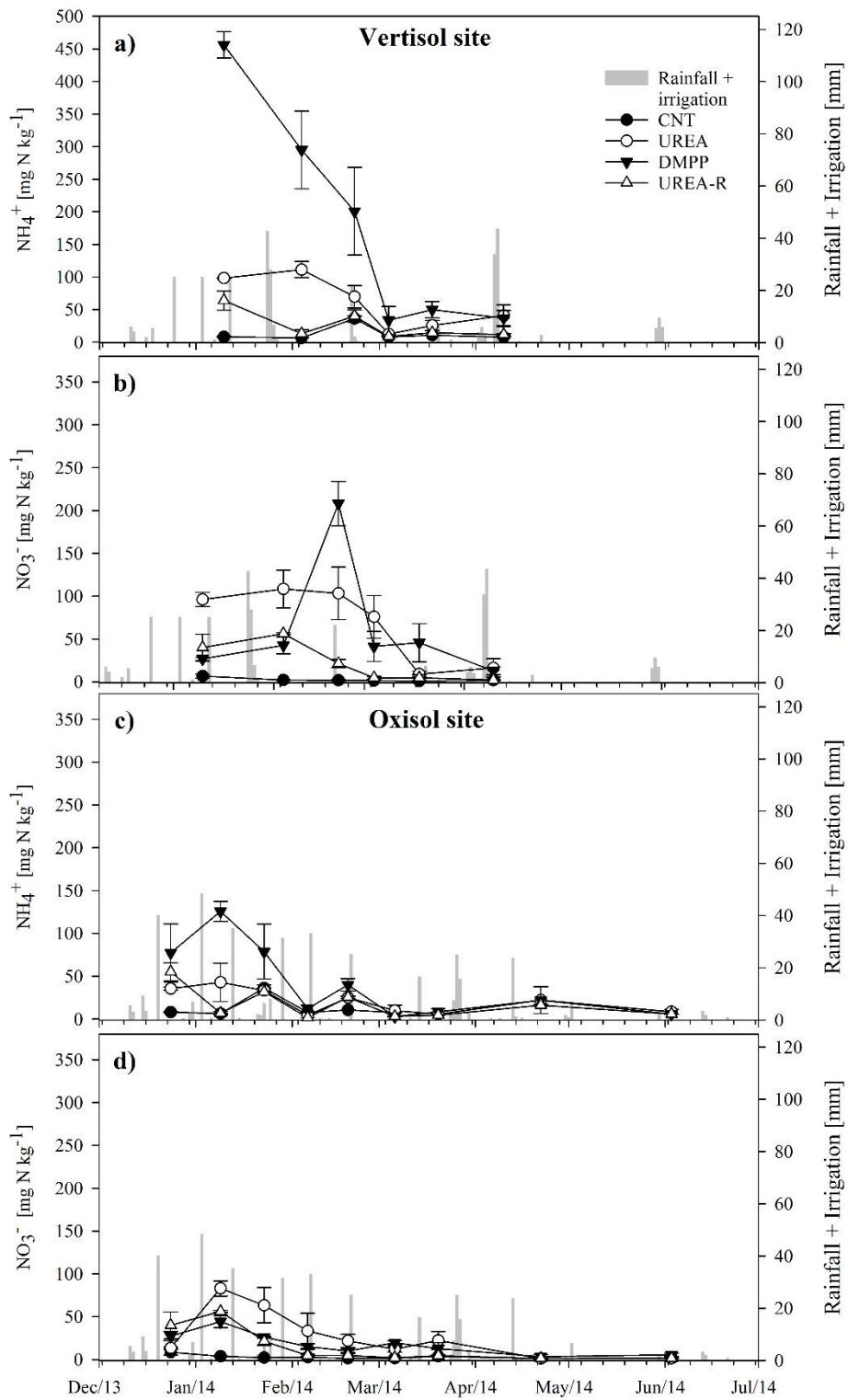
268 Seasonal precipitation measured during this study tended to be lower than the 30-year historic
269 summer averages (December to June) recorded at the Vertisol (493 mm) and Oxisol (464 mm) sites. At
270 the Vertisol site rainfall over the study amounted to 241 mm (with an additional 80 mm of early season
271 irrigation), however ~40% (90 mm) of the total rainfall occurred in a rainfall event that took place late
272 in the cropping season (27 and 30 March 2014) (Figure 1). Rainfall at the Oxisol site was more evenly
273 distributed (Figure 1) but amounted to only 212 mm, equal to less than 46% of the growing season
274 historic average. Accounting for irrigation, in-season total water supply at the Oxisol site amounted to
275 371 mm and at the Vertisol site it was 321 mm (Table 2).

276 Mean soil temperature (0-10 cm) at the Vertisol site was 20.7 °C and ranged between 4.8 °C (June
277 2014) and 29.7 °C (January 2014), while at the Oxisol site soil temperature averaged 21.4 °C and varied
278 from 10.8 °C (June 2014) to 30.3 °C (December 2013) (Figure 1).

279 Mineral N dynamics in the fertiliser band of the high N rate treatments varied substantially between
280 fertilizer products and, to a lesser extent, sites. At the Vertisol site soil NH₄⁺ concentrations in the
281 UREA treatment followed a relatively steady decline throughout the season, decreasing from an initial

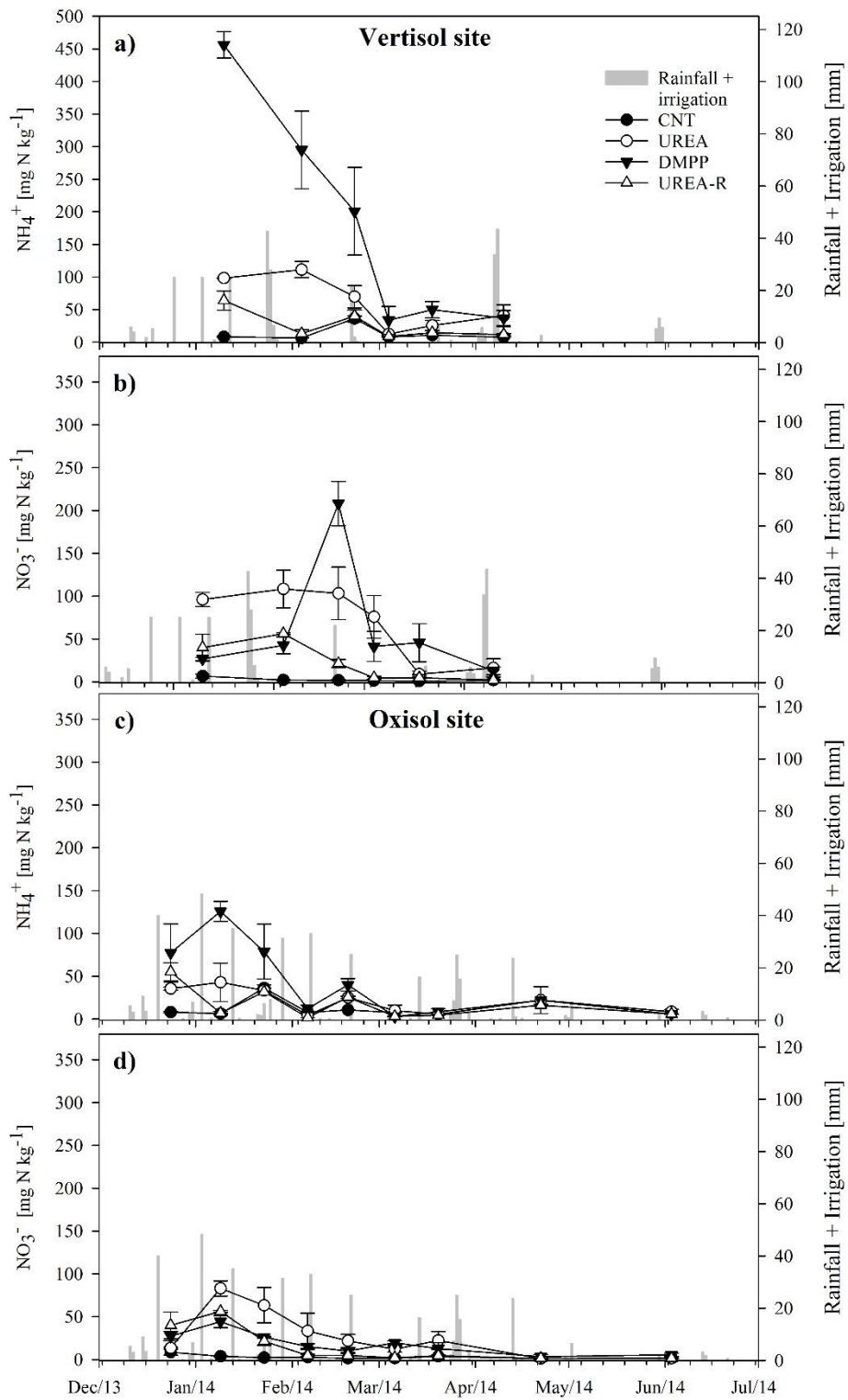
282 value of 100 mg N kg⁻¹ on 23 December 2013 to a low of 15-25 mg N kg⁻¹ during March 2014, although
283 there was a slight increase in the sample taken on 10 April 2014 (near harvest) to 40 mg N kg⁻¹. Soil
284 NO₃⁻ concentration in the top 20 cm increased until the first half of February (105-110 mg N kg⁻¹) and
285 then rapidly declined to a minimum of <10 mg N kg⁻¹ in March after 90mm mm of rain fell over the
286 trial in late March 2014. Soil NH₄⁺ and NO₃⁻ contents in the UREA-R treatment showed the same
287 temporal pattern of those in the UREA treatment, although declined to low concentrations by late
288 February 2014.

289 Different patterns were observed in the DMPP treatment. While NH₄⁺ concentrations declined
290 steadily to reach a minimum in the sampling in mid-March 2014, they remained much higher than in



293 Figure 2). Conversely, NO_3^- concentrations were constrained to between 25% and 50% of those
294 recorded in the UREA treatment until the inhibitor effect degraded in early February 2014. This then
295 resulted in a sharp increase in NO_3^- concentrations (reaching a maximum of 208 mg N kg^{-1} on 21
296 February 2014, 10 weeks after planting) followed by a rapid decline to values similar to that in the
297 UREA treatment for the rest of the season.

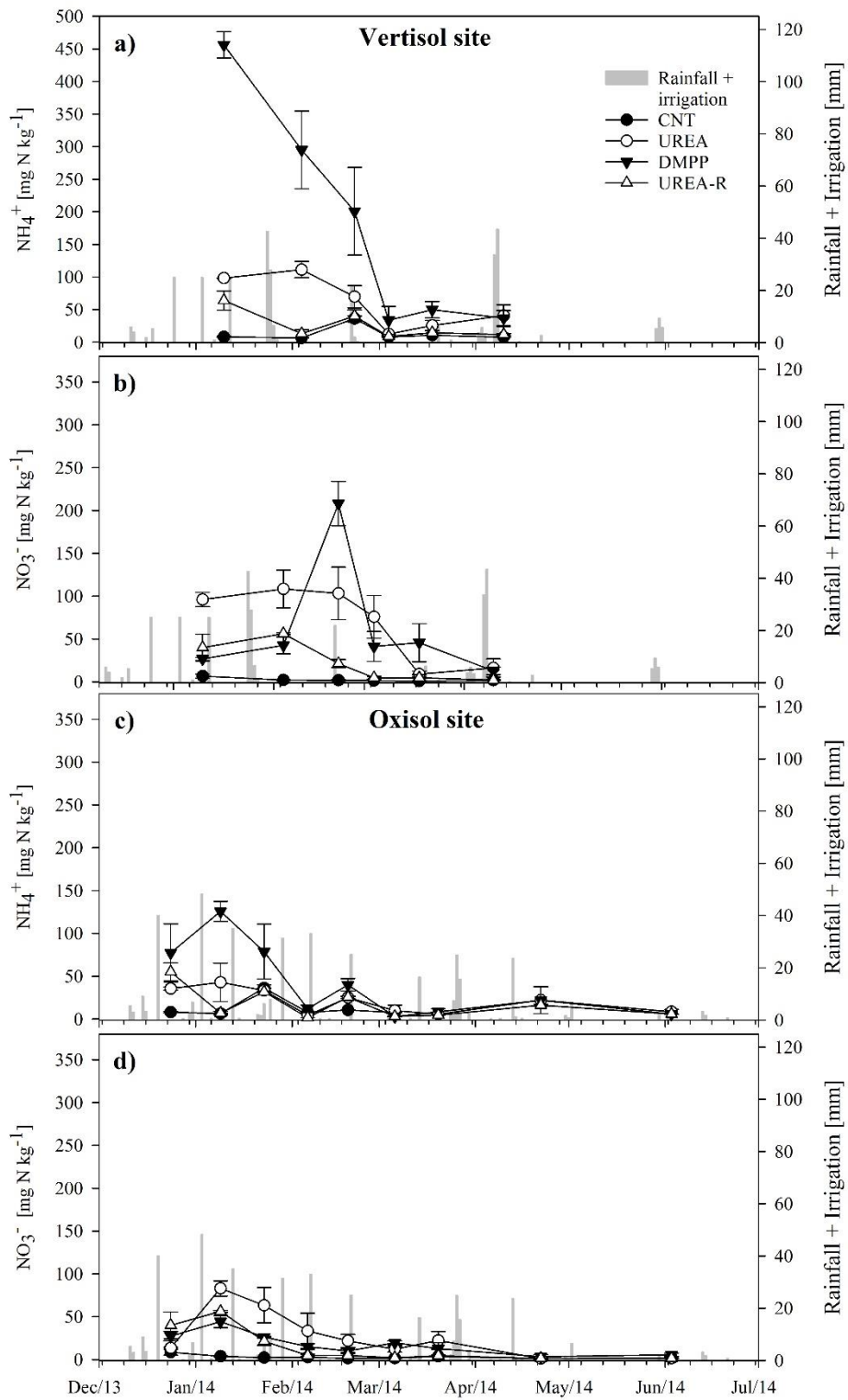
298 At the Oxisol site, a similar pattern of mineral N dynamics in the UREA and DMPP treatments
299 was observed during the period of nitrification inhibition, which was evident until early February
300 2014. Soil NH_4^+ levels peaked 6 weeks after planting (9 January 2014) in both the UREA (43 mg N
301 kg^{-1}) and DMPP (125 mg N kg^{-1}) treatments, when the UREA-R treatment showed soil NH_4^+ values
302 similar to CNT treatment. Soil NO_3^- concentrations followed a similar pattern, peaking 6 weeks after
303 planting (83 mg N kg^{-1} in UREA, 56 mg N kg^{-1} in UREA-R and 44 mg N kg^{-1} in DMPP) before



306 Figure 2). Unlike the Vertisol site, there was no sharp increase in NO_3^- concentrations once the
307 inhibitory effect in the DMPP treatment was eroded, possibly due to more extensive crop uptake and/or
308 leaching into deeper soil layers in response to the regular irrigation events.

309 Soil mineral N levels in the CNT treatments did not vary substantially at either site, although there
310 was evidence of a flush of N mineralization at each site in response to a rainfall event in mid-February

311 on the Vertisol and a combination of rainfall and an irrigation event in mid-January on the Oxisol (



312

313 Figure 2).

314

315 *N₂O EMISSIONS AND PLANT RESPONSE TO FERTILISATION TREATMENTS*

316 At both sites there were strong responses to applied N fertilizer (Fig. 3), with grain yield in the
317 unfertilized treatments ranging from 20% (Oxisol) to 40% (Vertisol) of the yields achieved with the
318 highest N rates at each site. The shape of the grain yield-N response relationship was clearly curvilinear
319 on the Oxisol, with a calculated maximum yield (Y_{max}) in response to applied N of 6900 and 6650 kg
320 ha^{-1} for the DMPP and UREA treatments, respectively. The response functions fitted to yield-applied
321 N relationship showed the fertilizer N rate needed to achieve 90% of the maximum grain yield ($Y_{90\%}$)
322 would have been 100 (DMPP) to 125 (UREA) kg N ha^{-1} - very similar to the rates chosen to compare
323 the emissions from these two fertilisers (120 kg N ha^{-1}).

324 Unfortunately at the Vertisol site the response to applied N was linear across the treatment range
325 (Fig 3), and so a derivation of Y_{max} or the fertilizer N rate required to achieve $Y_{90\%}$ was not able to be
326 undertaken. However data suggest that greater yields would have been achieved with higher fertiliser
327 N rates, and so the 160 kg N ha^{-1} rate chosen to compare emissions from UREA and DMPP would also
328 seem to be appropriate for this particular site and season.

329 On both soil types grain yields in the DMPP treatments tended to be higher than in UREA, although
330 differences were never statistically significant ($p < 0.05$) (Table 3). Similar results were obtained
331 analysing the agronomic efficiency of the two fertilisation treatments. Both grain yields and agronomic
332 efficiencies tended to be higher at the Oxisol site where UREA-R treatment showed the highest
333 agronomic efficiency value across sites (Table 3).

334 As with soil mineral N, N_2O emissions differed substantially across treatments while some
335 commonalities could be observed between sites. In both soil types, seasonal N_2O losses from the UREA
336 treatments were significantly higher than in the UREA-R, CNT and DMPP treatments (Table 3).
337 Compared to UREA, DMPP reduced seasonal N_2O emissions by 66.4% in the Vertisol and 61% in the
338 Oxisol. At the Vertisol site N_2O emissions from DMPP did not differ significantly from those in the
339 UREA-R and CNT. Emissions factors for UREA were 0.7% and 0.6% for Vertisol and Oxisol sites,
340 respectively, while much lower emissions factors were observed for DMPP on the Vertisol (0.1%) and

341 Oxisol (0.2%). Across treatments, seasonal N₂O emissions on the Vertisol tended to be higher than in
342 the Oxisol (Table 3).

343 The majority of N₂O emissions from the UREA treatments took place within three months from
344 fertiliser application, accounting for 63% and 95% of seasonal N₂O losses at the Vertisol and Oxisol
345 sites, respectively. In all treatments on the Vertisol over 30% of N₂O-N losses were due to the emission
346 pulses that took place in late March 2014 in response to a major rain event that delivered 90mm of rain
347 from 27 - 30 March (**Error! Reference source not found.**). On the Oxisol, N₂O emissions from the
348 DMPP treatments were concentrated in the first three months of the season, while in the Vertisol the
349 majority of N₂O from the DMPP plots was lost through the late-March emission pulse (**Error!**
350 **Reference source not found.**). On both soils N₂O emission pulses from the DMPP treatments lasted
351 for much shorter periods (< 6 days) compared to the UREA treatments

352

353

354 Discussion

355 *EFFECTS OF WEATHER EVENTS ON SEASONAL N DYNAMICS*

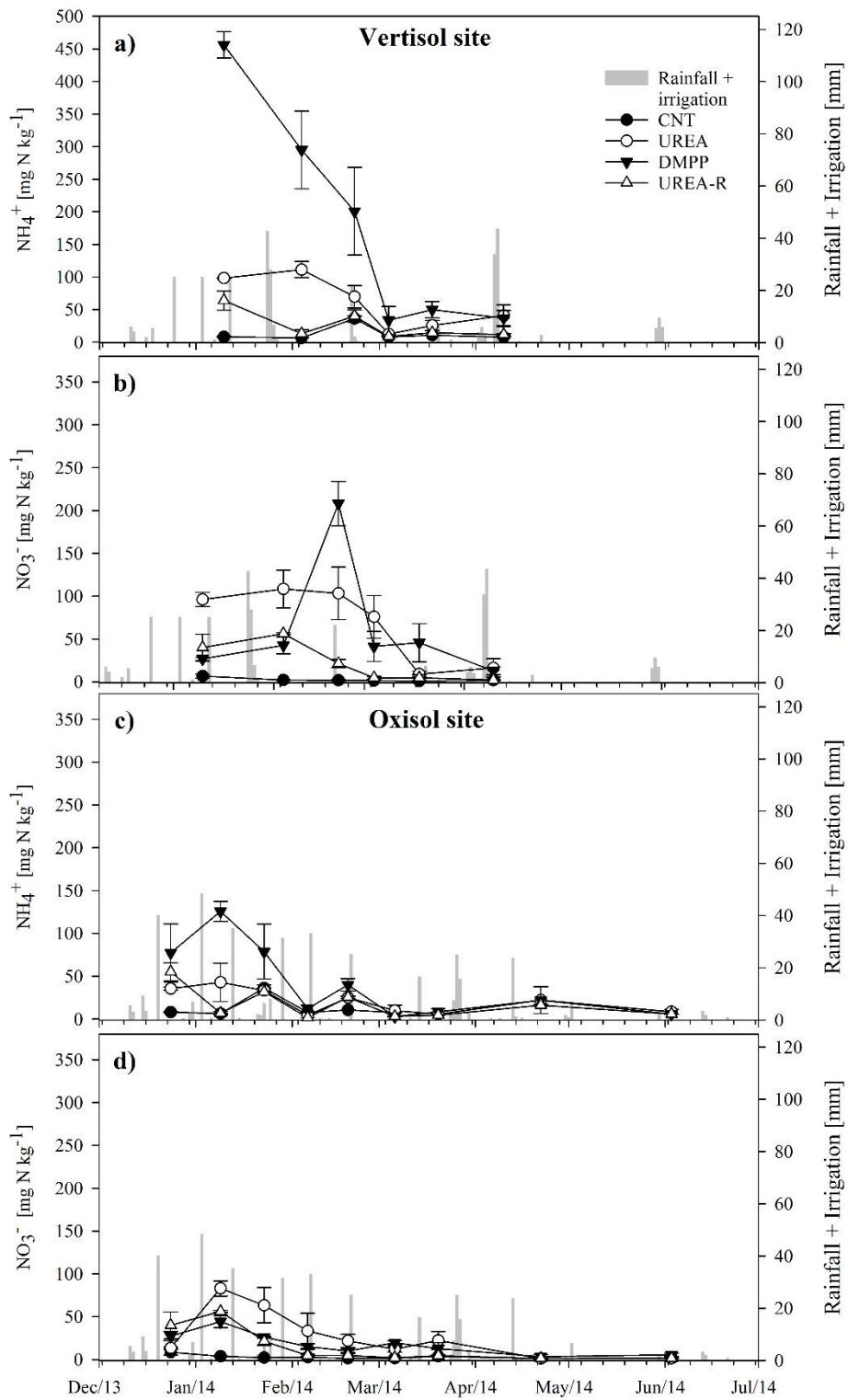
356 The results of this research highlight how the frequency and intensity of rainfall and irrigation events,
357 linked with intrinsic soil characteristics such as drainable porosity and hydraulic conductivity, can exert
358 a substantial influence on seasonal N dynamics and N₂O emissions in subtropical cereal cropping
359 systems.

360 Changes in soil mineral N concentrations, N₂O emissions and grain yields were largely influenced
361 by the substantially different rainfall patterns observed at the two sites. Accounting for irrigation, the
362 Oxisol site received a total of 240 mm uniformly distributed over the first three months of the cropping
363 season. While the Vertisol site received only slightly less (125 mm of rainfall and 80 mm of irrigation)
364 over the same three month duration, all the irrigation was applied in the first month to ensure good crop
365 establishment and 66% (78 mm) of the rain that fell occurred in a single rainfall event over two days in

366 late January (Figure 1). Subsequently, there was only a single fall of 23 mm in the latter half of February
367 to break the drying trend that persisted until the rain event in late March.

368 The uniform distribution of the rainfall/irrigation events, at the Oxisol site guaranteed a constant
369 water supply to soil microorganisms, which is likely to have promoted relatively rapid nitrification
370 rates (Bouwman 1998; Kiese and Butterbach-Bahl 2002). The rapid decline of NH_4^+ concentrations
371 and the concurrent increase of NO_3^- levels observed in both the UREA and DMPP, and to a lesser

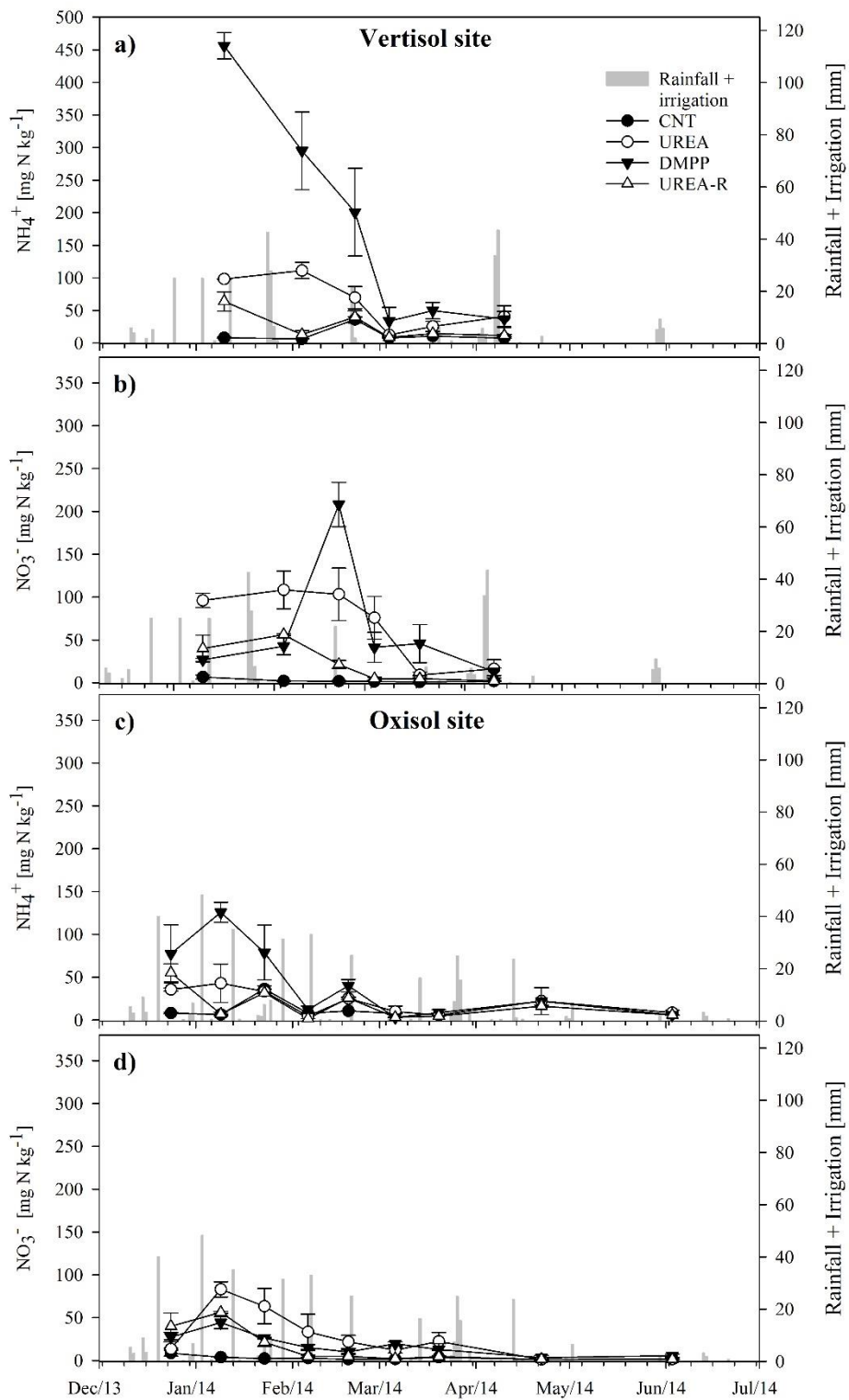
372 extent UREA-R, treatments support this hypothesis (



373

374 Figure 2).

375 As a result, the majority of NH_4^+ derived from the urea hydrolysis was transformed into NO_3^-
 376 within approximately eight weeks from fertilisation in the Oxisol (

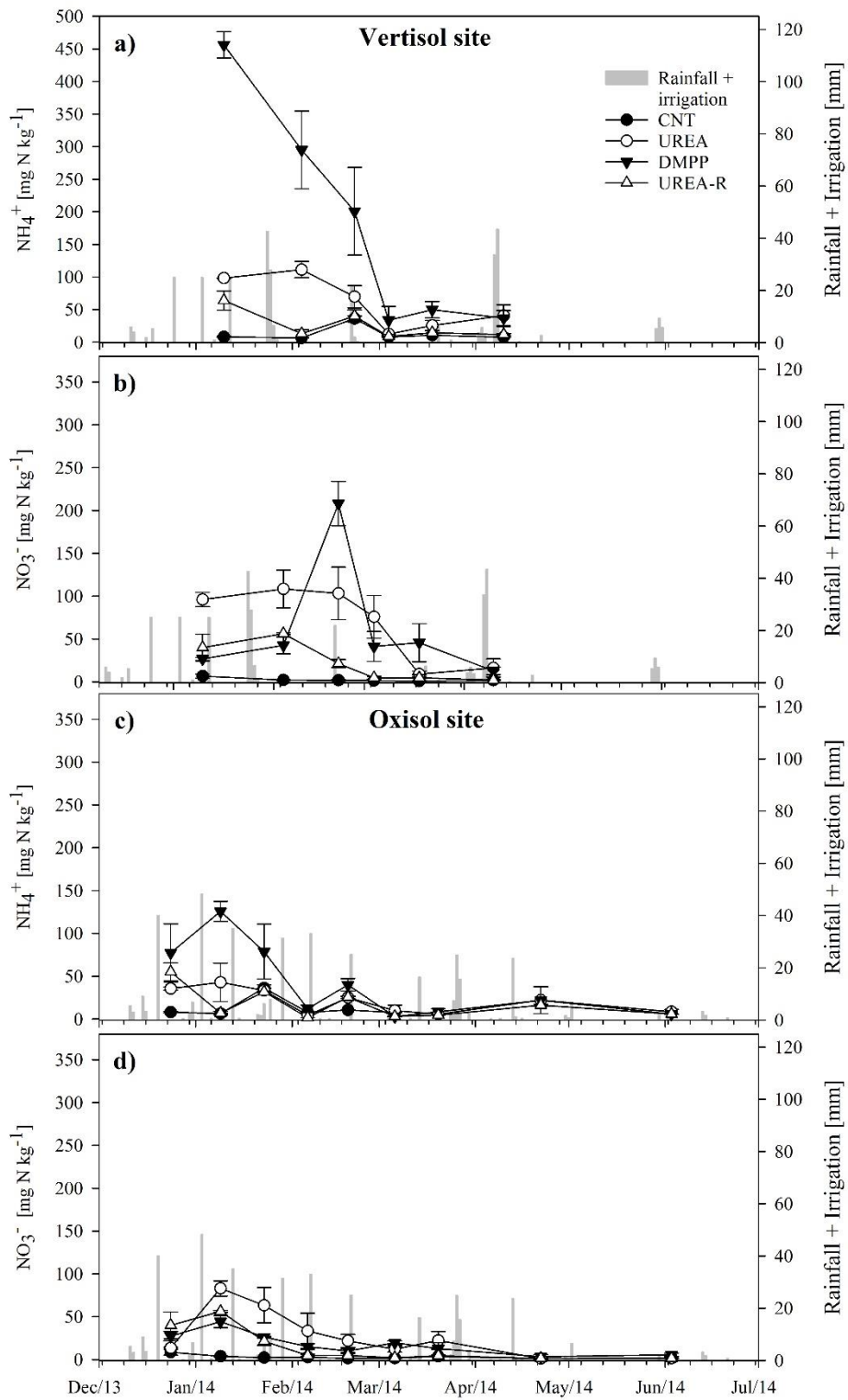


377

378 Figure 2), ensuring substantial amounts of NO_3^- available in the soil during the period of maximum
379 N uptake of sorghum (Blum 2004). The free-draining nature of this soil (Bell *et al.* 2005) was illustrated
380 by the rapid drainage after rainfall and irrigation events (Fig. 1), and combined with the frequent
381 irrigation events, was likely to have contributed to some leaching of that $\text{NO}_3\text{-N}$ into soil layers below
382 the top 20cm monitored during the growing season. This contributed to absence of sharp peaks in $\text{NO}_3\text{-}$
383 N accumulation at this site (Fig2a).

384 N_2O emissions pulses were triggered by rainfall or irrigation events in all N fertilised treatments
385 and were concentrated during the first three months after fertilisation (**Error! Reference source not**
386 **found.**4). Conditions during this period were characterised by high soil temperatures, moist soils and

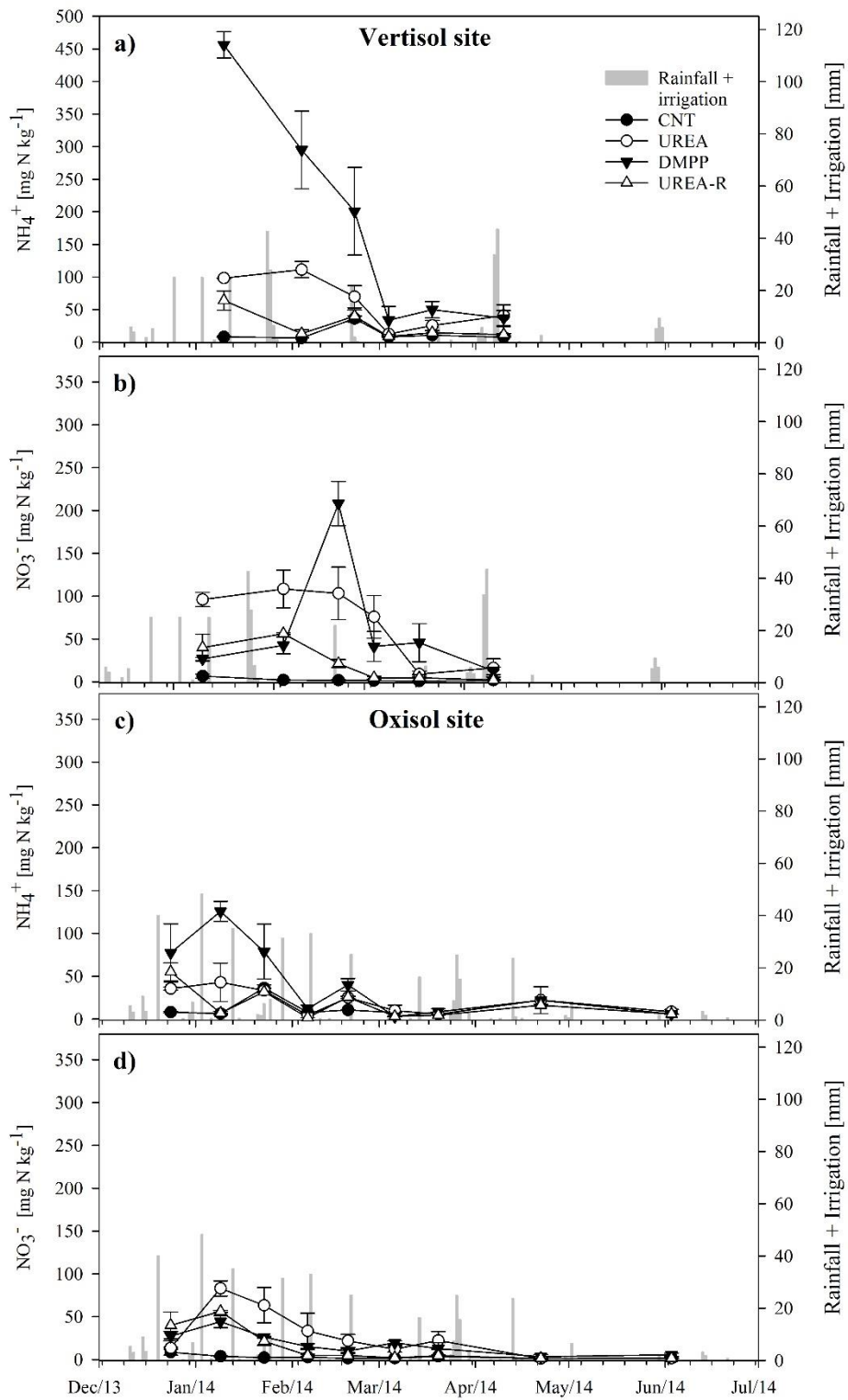
387 elevated mineral N levels in the top soil (Figure 1 and



388

389 Figure 2). Notably, substantial rainfall events that occurred later in the cropping season (a total of
390 178 mm fell from mid-February to mid-April 2014 at the Oxisol site) did not generate high N₂O
391 emissions, indicating that by then most of the applied N was probably taken by the plants, immobilized
392 by microbes, lost to the environment or deeper in the soil profile. These observations of the majority of
393 N₂O emissions being recorded within 90 days from fertilisation are in good agreement with the results
394 reported in other studies on Australian sub-tropical summer cropping systems on Vertisols and Oxisols
395 (Scheer *et al.* 2013; De Antoni Migliorati *et al.* 2014; Scheer *et al.* 2016 in press).

396 At the Vertisol site, the imbalance of the rainfall distribution over the first 3 months of the growing
397 season and the relatively dry soil conditions that persisted until the late season event at the end of
398 March 2014 were likely to have limited nitrification rates (Stark and Firestone 1995). This was
399 confirmed by the NH₄⁺ concentrations, which remained high in all fertilised treatments in the Vertisol
400 until late February 2014 (Fig. 2a, b), a substantially longer period compared to that observed at the



403 Figure 2c, d). Soil NO_3^- concentrations in the Vertisol increased and remained high until early March
404 2014, indicating that plant N assimilation from the top 20cm of the profile was probably limited by the
405 low water availability (Poorter and Nagel 2000).

406 The heterogeneous distribution of rainfall at the Vertisol site caused short periods of high soil water
407 availability and relatively long period of water limitation (Figs. 1, 4). Plant access to N was therefore
408 limited to short windows of opportunity and resulted in lower agronomic efficiency and higher N_2O
409 emissions when compared to the Oxisol site (Table 3, Fig. 3). This result is particularly significant when
410 comparing crop responses to applied N fertilizer (Fig. 3) between sites. Despite similar starting profile
411 mineral N contents at sowing (60-62 kg N ha⁻¹ – Table 2) the AE of fertiliser N use at suboptimal N
412 rates was consistently higher in the Oxisol than the Vertisol. Using the same N fertilizer rate across soil
413 types (UREA-R, or 80 kg N ha⁻¹) as an example, the AE on the Oxisol was 50 kg additional grain
414 produced kg of N applied⁻¹, compared to 19 kg additional grain produced kg of N applied⁻¹ on the
415 Vertisol (Table 3). Further evidence includes the linearity of the N response up to 160 kg N ha⁻¹ (the
416 highest rate tested) on the Vertisol, compared to the asymptotic response on the Oxisol with optimum
417 N rates to achieve $Y_{90\%}$ at 100-120 kg N ha⁻¹ (Fig. 3). Even though significant amounts of N_2O were
418 lost during the first months after fertilisation, the presence of substantial amounts of mineral N still left
419 in the Vertisol in the later stages of the season was confirmed by the significant N_2O emission pulse
420 recorded after 70 mm of rain fell on the trial on 27 and 30 March 2014 (**Error! Reference source not**
421 **found.**).

422 In summary, the nitrification inhibition was clearly effective in both soil types, with decreased NO_3^-
423 and elevated NH_4^+ concentrations in the DMPP compared to the UREA treatment for *ca.* 8 weeks.
424 However at the end of this period the breakdown of the inhibitory effect was demonstrated quite clearly
425 in the Vertisol, with NO_3^- concentrations in the DMPP treatment changing from half those in the UREA
426 treatment to more than double in the space of a two week period. The effects were not as evident at the
427 Oxisol site, where the more frequent and effective irrigations in the freely draining soil resulted in a
428 much shorter duration of high NO_3^- concentrations in the UREA treatment – presumably due to more

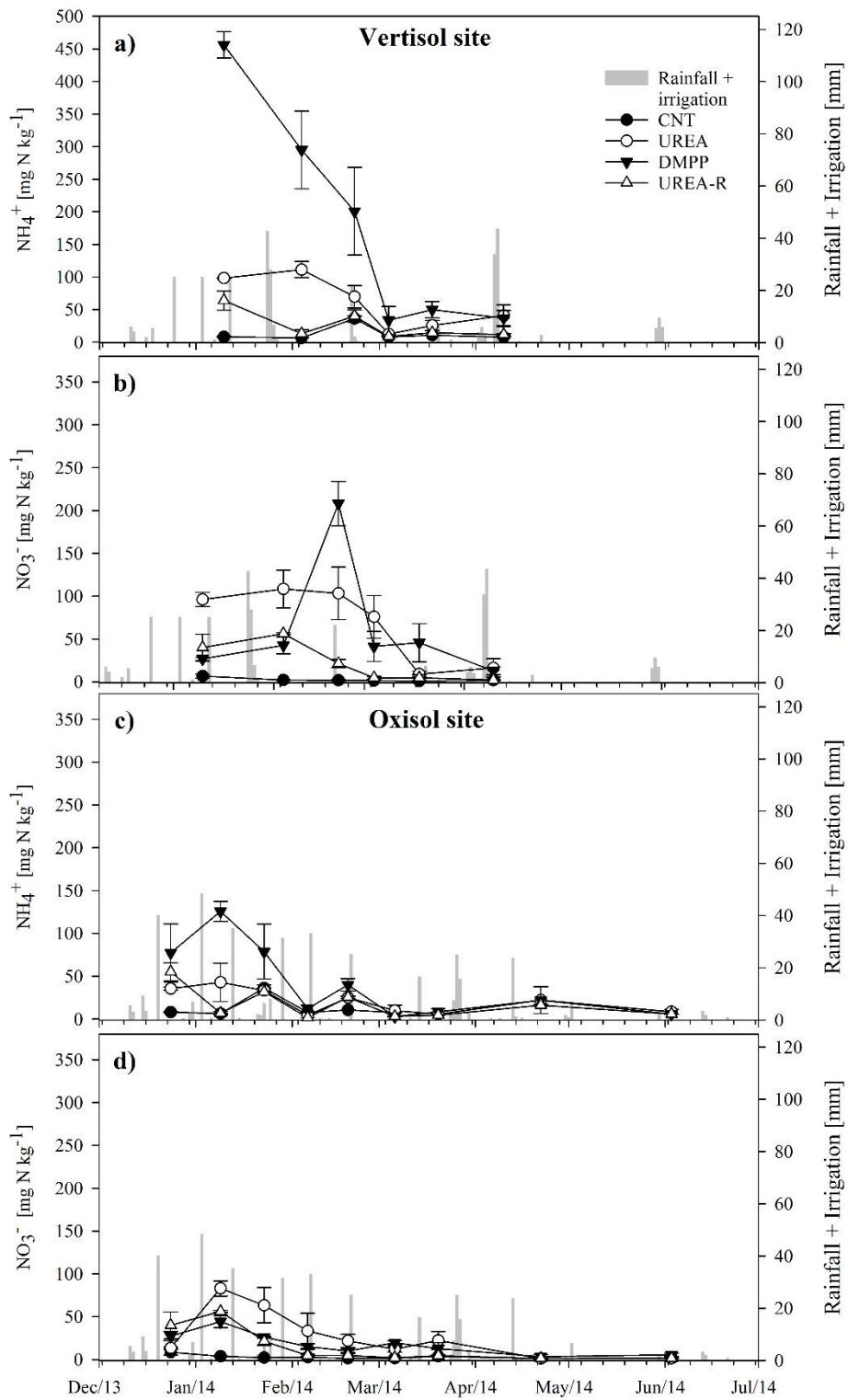
429 rapid crop uptake and some movement into deeper profile layers than those monitored and reported
430 here.

431

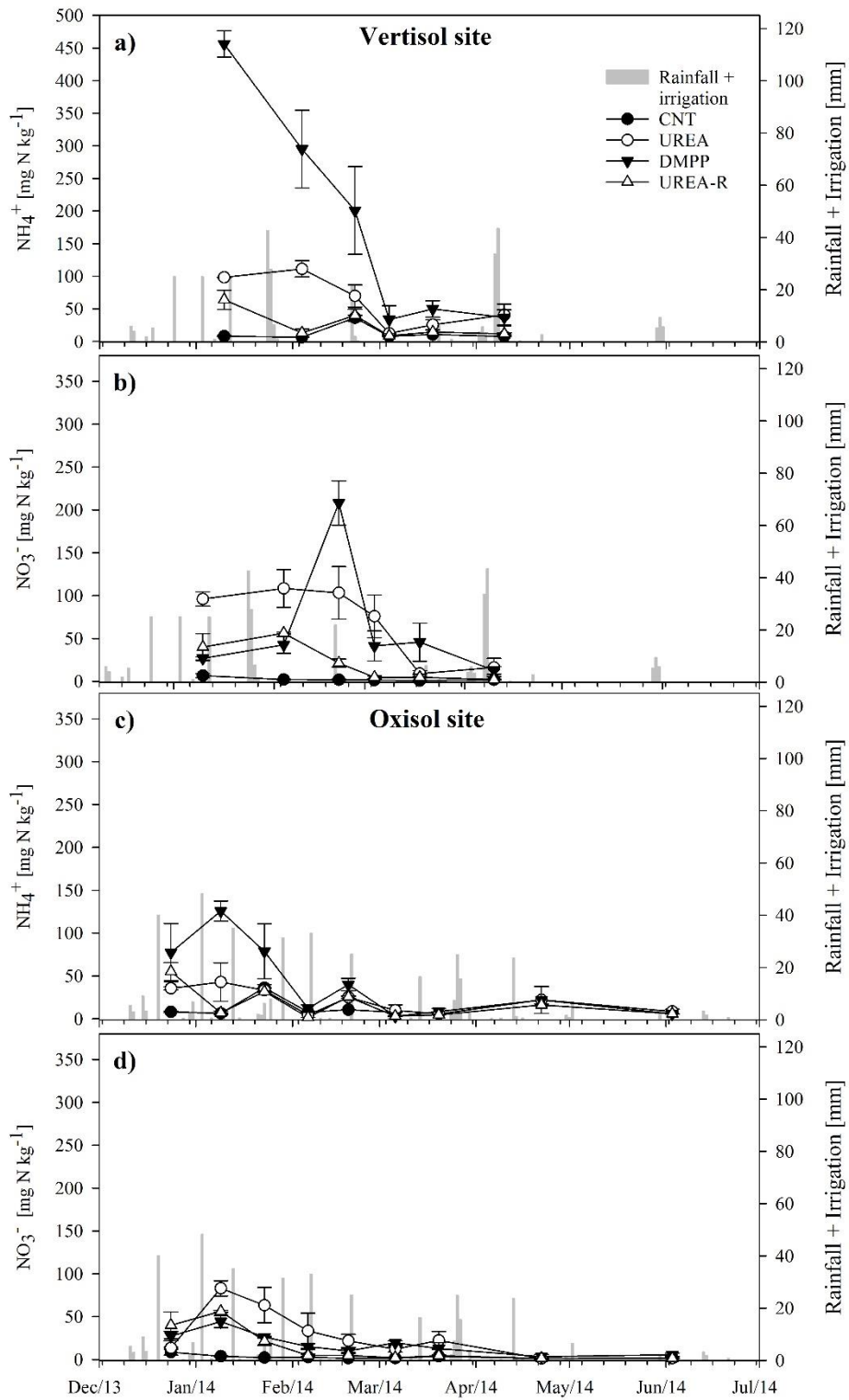
432 ***EFFECTS OF DMPP ON N₂O EMISSIONS AND GRAIN YIELDS***

433 In both soils the application of DMPP urea influenced the dynamics of mineral N in the top soil (0-
434 20 cm). DMPP was effective in inhibiting the oxidation of NH₄⁺ to NO₃⁻ and extended the longevity

435 of N fertiliser in the NH_4^+ form compared to conventional urea in both the Vertisol and Oxisol (



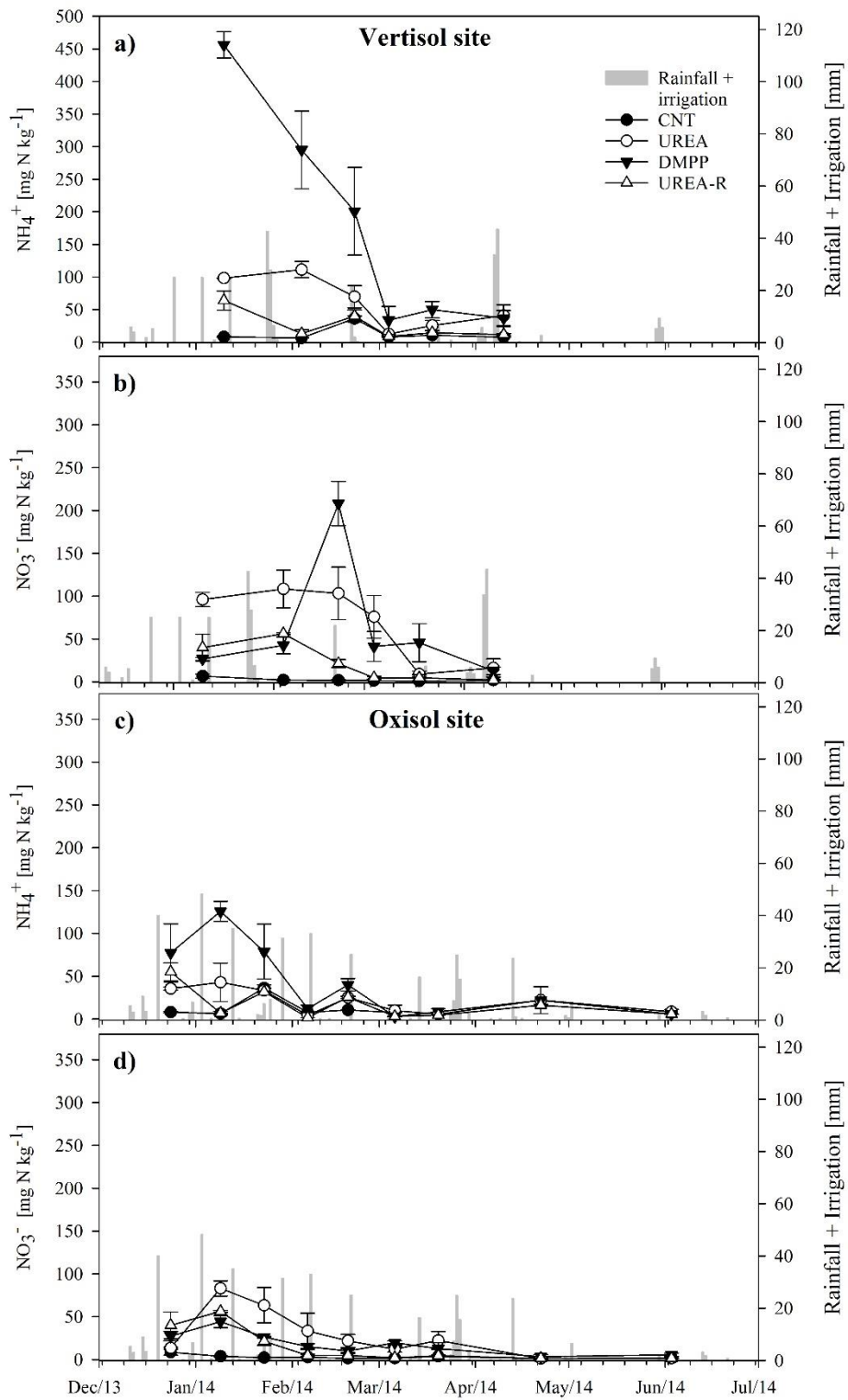
436



439 Figure 2c). Significantly, the results of this study indicate that the different rainfall conditions
440 measured at the two sites had little impact on the duration of the inhibitory effect, which lasted for
441 approximately eight weeks.

442 At both sites the NH_4^+ levels in the DMPP treatments started to decline from early January. The
443 increased nitrification rates after eight weeks from fertilisation were particularly evident on the
444 Vertisol, where the decrease in soil NH_4^+ concentrations was accompanied by a sudden spike in NO_3^-

445 concentrations in the samples collected in late February 2014 (



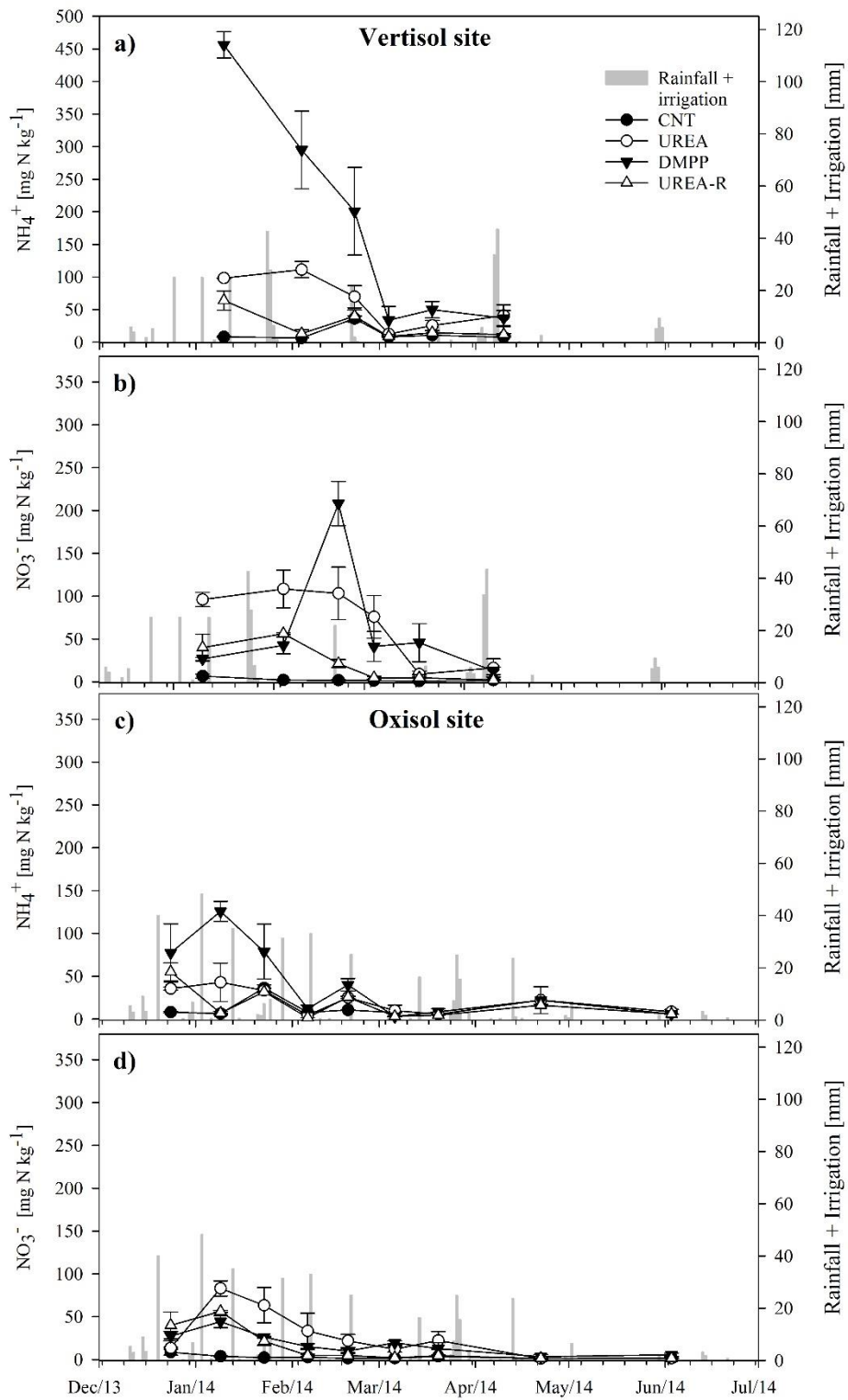
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447 Figure 2b). This dynamic was less obvious at the Oxisol site, where the delayed rise of NO_3^- levels
448 was likely to have been due to a combination of plant uptake and leaching into deeper profile layers.

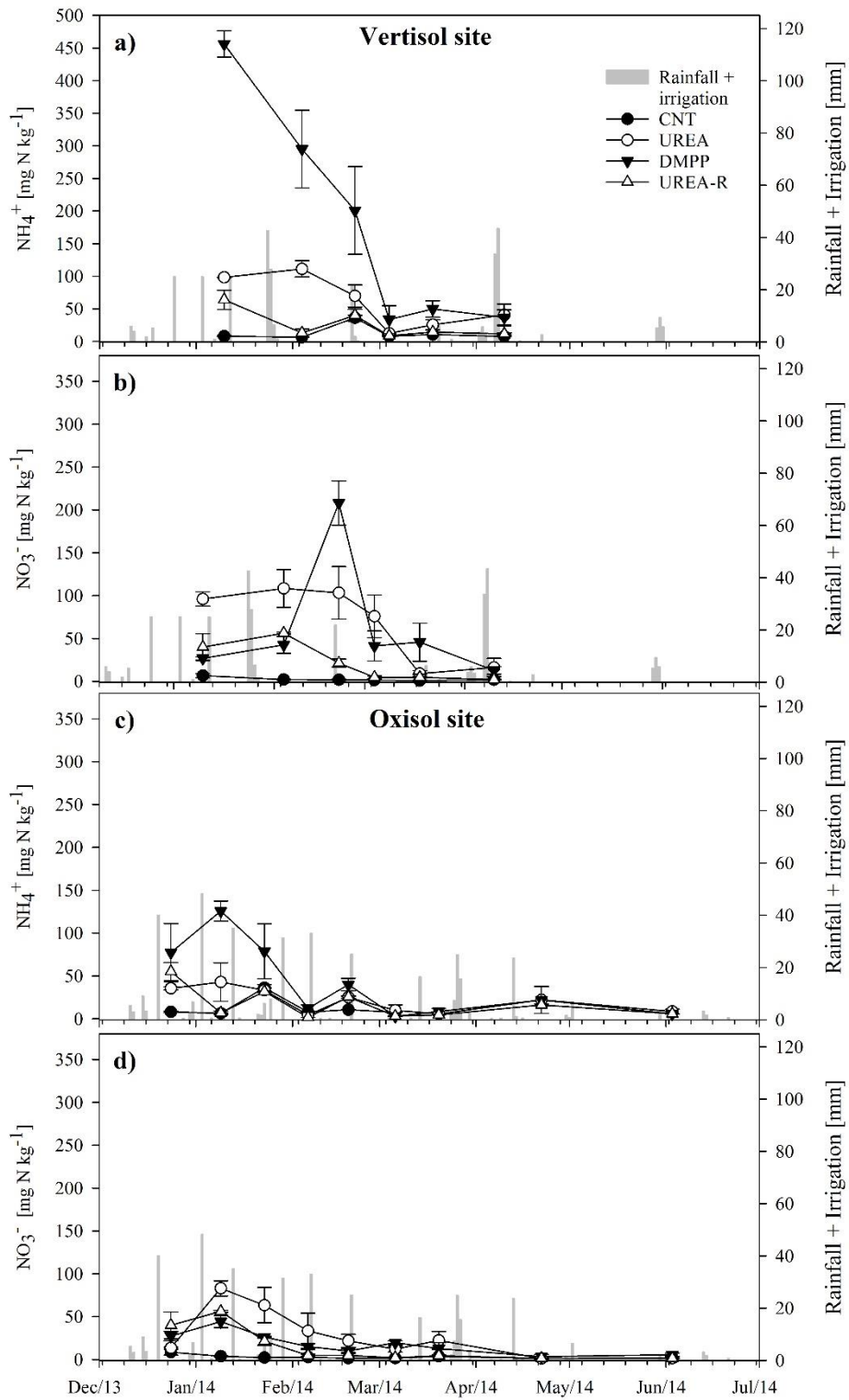
449 The longevity of DMPP was reflected also in the N_2O emissions patterns, with these effects
450 particularly evident on the Vertisol (Fig. 4). At this site the dry soil conditions that characterised the
451 beginning of the cropping season limited the potential for N losses and plant N uptake, but there was a
452 consistent pattern of higher emissions pulses in the UREA treatment during each of the irrigation and
453 rainfall events that occurred up until early-mid February 2014. The drier conditions resulted in relatively
454 high amounts of NO_3^- still present in the soil in early March, so that when the 90mm of rainfall event
455 occurred in late March a further emissions pulse was recorded. However by this stage the inhibitory
456 effect of DMPP was largely expired and the magnitude of the N_2O emission pulse measured in the
457 DMPP treatment on this occasion was comparable to that measured in the UREA treatment.
458 Significantly, this event alone caused the majority (64%) of seasonal N_2O losses in the DMPP treatment,
459 while it contributed a much lesser proportion (36%) to overall N_2O emissions in the UREA plots.

460 On the Oxisol, significant rainfall events during the first eight weeks triggered much shorter
461 duration, and generally lower, N_2O emissions pulses in the DMPP treatment than those measured in
462 the UREA treatment (**Error! Reference source not found.**4), again consistent with the lower NO_3^-
463 concentrations evident in the top 20cm of the profile at that time (Fig. 2d). In late February however,
464 when the trial was irrigated with 20 mm, the N_2O emission pulse from the DMPP treatment was
465 comparable to those in UREA. Even though the magnitude of these last emission pulses was limited

466 due to the low concentrations of mineral N left in the soil (



467



470 Figure 2d), the absence of substantial difference between the two N₂O peaks again suggests that by
471 this stage the inhibitory effect of DMPP had ended.

472 Our results were consistent with those reported from other studies using DMPP on similar soil types
473 in this region (De Antoni Migliorati *et al.* 2014; Scheer *et al.* 2014; Scheer *et al.* 2016 in press) and
474 from other climates and production systems (Pasda *et al.* 2001; Chaves *et al.* 2006; Benckiser *et al.*
475 2013). All have consistently reported effective nitrification inhibition periods varying between 60 and
476 90 days.

477 Overall, DMPP reduced the amount of N₂O losses by over 60% in both the Vertisol and Oxisol, a
478 result consistent with the 40-60% abatement rates reported in field trials and incubation studies by De
479 Antoni Migliorati *et al.* (2014), Chen *et al.* (2010); Suter *et al.* (2010) and Liu *et al.* (2013). The
480 efficiency of DMPP in inhibiting N₂O losses was reflected at both sites by the emission factors and
481 emission intensities, which on average were reduced by 70% compared to conventional urea (Table 3).
482 Emission factors from the UREA treatments (0.7% and 0.4% on the Vertisol and Oxisol, respectively)
483 were higher than values recorded in the sub-optimal UREA-R treatments (0.5% and 0.3%, respectively),
484 but tended to be lower than the default values of 1% of applied N suggested by the International Panel
485 on Climate Change (De Klein *et al.* 2006) and intermediate between the dryland (0.2%) and irrigated
486 (0.85%) default values adopted in the Australian Greenhouse Gas Inventory submission (Anon 2015).
487 This was consistent with the largely supplementary use of irrigation in these studies. The significant
488 reduction in N₂O emissions achieved through the use of DMPP showed that emissions factors can be
489 reduced to well below even the dryland standard of 0.2%, albeit in a season without large rainfall events
490 in the vulnerable early parts of the growing season. More research is advocated to investigate the
491 benefits of DMPP when combined with high fertilizer rates under varying climatic conditions.

492 Despite the significant abatement of N₂O emissions observed with DMPP, there did not appear to
493 have been substantial improvements in fertilizer NUE or the amount of fertilizer required to achieve a
494 given yield target (i.e. Y_{90%}). While there were suggestions of slight improvements in AE in the DMPP
495 compared to UREA treatments in Table 3 (by 6% and 19% on the Oxisol and Vertisol, respectively),
496 these differences were not statistically significant. Similarly, where the experiment was able to

497 adequately estimate a site yield potential in response to applied N (the Oxisol site – Fig. 3b) there was
498 a suggestion of a lower critical N rate for the DMPP (100 kg N ha⁻¹) compared to the urea (125 kg N
499 ha⁻¹) in order to achieve Y_{90%}. The consistency of these trends across a broader range of sites and
500 seasons is reported in Lester *et al.* (2016 in press), with this study also suggesting only small agronomic
501 benefits from use of DMPP in summer sorghum cropping.

502 These results, similar to those reported by Díez López and Hernaiz (2008), Weiske *et al.* (2001a)
503 and De Antoni Migliorati *et al.* (2014), are likely to be due to the absence of prolonged periods with
504 extremely wet soils in these environments, especially early in the growing season (e.g. Fig.1). These
505 conditions therefore limit the number of opportunities for fertiliser N to leach or denitrify, and so limit
506 the potential benefits from employing products like DMPP. In addition, while the fertiliser N rates at
507 which the UREA and DMPP treatments were compared were appropriate for the seasonal conditions
508 and soil N availability at both sites (Fig. 3), it is also worth noting the relatively low incremental AE
509 for additional N application on this part of the yield response curve. The incremental AE of increasing
510 N rates from 100 to 120 kg N ha⁻¹ on the Oxisol or from 120 to 160 kg N ha⁻¹ on the Vertisol (Fig. 3)
511 averaged 14-16 kg grain for each kg additional N applied. This relatively low incremental AE suggests
512 large amounts of N would need to be lost before a statistically significant yield penalty would be
513 detected from using urea rather than the DMPP-coated product.

514 As concluded by Lester *et al.* (2016 in press), DMPP might have a greater scope to increase
515 agronomic efficiency of urea in higher rainfall or irrigated production regions, or when high rates of N
516 fertilizer are required to meet seasonal yield potential under high-intensity cropping situations.
517 Examples of the latter would include double cropping from a winter cereal to summer sorghum in a
518 high rainfall year, where systems are characterised by high amounts of crop residues and low levels of
519 soil N - conditions that require high fertiliser N rates to prevent severe crop N deficiency.

520

521 **Conclusions**

522 Data gathered in this study illustrated the importance of rainfall patterns in affecting N dynamics
523 in subtropical cereal cropping systems. Even though the lack of extreme rainfall events early in the
524 growing season minimised the opportunities for differences in soil water holding and drainage
525 characteristics between the two soils to be expressed in terms of potential N losses, DMPP proved to be
526 a reliable tool to abate N₂O emissions from these systems. Importantly, DMPP displayed consistent
527 capacity to inhibit nitrification for a similar duration in different soil types, weather conditions, fertiliser
528 N rates and ranges of soil water availability.

529 Despite this effectiveness, the use of DMPP urea did not lead to significant yield increases
530 compared to conventional urea. Limited moisture availability during the study constrained crop growth,
531 especially at the Vertisol site, and at both sites conditions were not conducive to high leaching or
532 denitrification losses for extended periods, which is likely to have contributed to masking the potential
533 for DMPP to reduce N losses in these systems. DMPP might therefore have a greater scope to increase
534 the agronomic efficiency of urea in summer seasons expected to have high rainfall rates, such as in *la*
535 *Niña* phases of the El Niño Southern Oscillation (ENSO) cycle (Australian Bureau of Meteorology
536 2016) – especially under double crop situations where surface residue amounts from the previous crop
537 are high. Further research is required to clarify the conditions where DMPP might have a substantial
538 scope to increase grain yields in subtropical cereal cropping systems.

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544 Development Corporation (GRDC).

545

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704 years of repeated applications in field experiments. *Nutrient Cycling in Agroecosystems* **60**,
705 57-64.
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708 **List of Tables**

709

710 Table 1 - Main soil physical and chemical properties for the top 30 cm (means \pm SE, n=3) at
 711 the Kingsthorpe and Kingaroy research stations, Queensland, Australia. Respective soil types
 712 are reported within brackets. LL15, DUL and SAT are the volumetric water contents ($\text{m}^3 \text{m}^{-3}$)
 713 corresponding to the lower limit of crop water extraction, the drained upper limit and at
 714 saturation, respectively, for the research sites (Mielenz *et al.* 2016).

715

Soil Property (0-30 cm)	Kingsthorpe (Vertisol)	Kingaroy (Oxisol)
pH (H ₂ O)	7.1 \pm 0.2	5.00 \pm 0.7
Total C (%)	1.7 \pm 0.1	1.3 \pm 0.1
Total N (mg kg ⁻¹)	1150 \pm 80	980 \pm 63
Bulk density 0-30 cm (g cm ⁻³)	0.98 \pm 0.1	1.18 \pm 0.1
PAWC (mm)	210-230	100-110
LL15 ($\text{m}^3 \text{m}^{-3}$)	0.33	0.24
DUL ($\text{m}^3 \text{m}^{-3}$)	0.53	0.37
SAT ($\text{m}^3 \text{m}^{-3}$)	0.61	0.51
Texture (USDA)	Clay	Clay
Clay (%)	67	55
Silt (%)	22	14
Sand (%)	11	31

716

717

718 Table 2 – N fertilization rates on which N₂O emissions monitoring were undertaken, profile
 719 mineral N at sowing (kg ha⁻¹ to 120cm) and in-season rainfall and irrigation totals during the
 720 sorghum cropping seasons at the Vertisol and Oxisol sites in 2013 -2014.

Site	Fertilization [kg-N ha ⁻¹]				Profile mineral N (kg ha ⁻¹)	Rainfall [mm]	Irrigation [mm]
	CNT	UREA-R	UREA	DMPP			
Vertisol	0	80	160	160	62	241	80
Oxisol	0	80	120	120	60	203	168

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723

724 Table 3 - Cumulative N₂O fluxes, N₂O emission factors, grain yields (expressed as dry matter),725 agronomic efficiencies and N₂O intensities (mean ± SE, n=3) as a function of the six treatments.726 Numbers in the Treatment column indicate seasonal fertiliser N rates (kg N ha⁻¹). Means

727 denoted by a different lower-case letter indicate significant differences between treatments

728 (p<0.05) within the same site. Means denoted by a different upper-case letter indicate

729 significant differences between treatments (p<0.05) across the two sites.

730

Site	Treatment	N ₂ O emissions [kg N ₂ O-N ha ⁻¹]	Emission Factor [%]	Grain yield [t ha ⁻¹]	Agronomic Efficiency [kg extra grain kg N applied ⁻¹]	Emissions intensity [kg-N ₂ O-N t yield ⁻¹]
Vertisol	CNT	0.24 ± 0.17 ^{a, A}		1.91 ± 0.13 ^{a, BA}		
	UREA-R (80)	0.63 ± 0.05 ^{b, BC}	0.5	3.20 ± 0.36 ^{ab, CB}	18.54 ± 5.24 ^{a, A}	0.19
	UREA (160)	1.30 ± 0.13 ^{c, D}	0.7	4.19 ± 0.30 ^{b, DC}	15.94 ± 4.17 ^{a, A}	0.31
	DMPP (160)	0.44 ± 0.04 ^{ab, AB}	0.1	4.26 ± 0.58 ^{b, CDE}	16.94 ± 4.11 ^{a, A}	0.10
Oxisol	CNT	0.11 ± 0.02 ^{a, A}		1.08 ± 0.21 ^{a, A}		
	UREA-R (80)	0.33 ± 0.1 ^{a, AB}	0.3	4.71 ± 0.37 ^{b, CDE}	50.37 ± 2.50 ^{b, B}	0.07
	UREA (120)	0.81 ± 0.19 ^{a, C}	0.4	5.27 ± 0.07 ^{b, ED}	38.91 ± 3.0 ^{a, B}	0.15
	DMPP (120)	0.31 ± 0.09 ^{b, AB}	0.1	5.83 ± 0.15 ^{b, E}	46.20 ± 1.30 ^{ab, B}	0.05

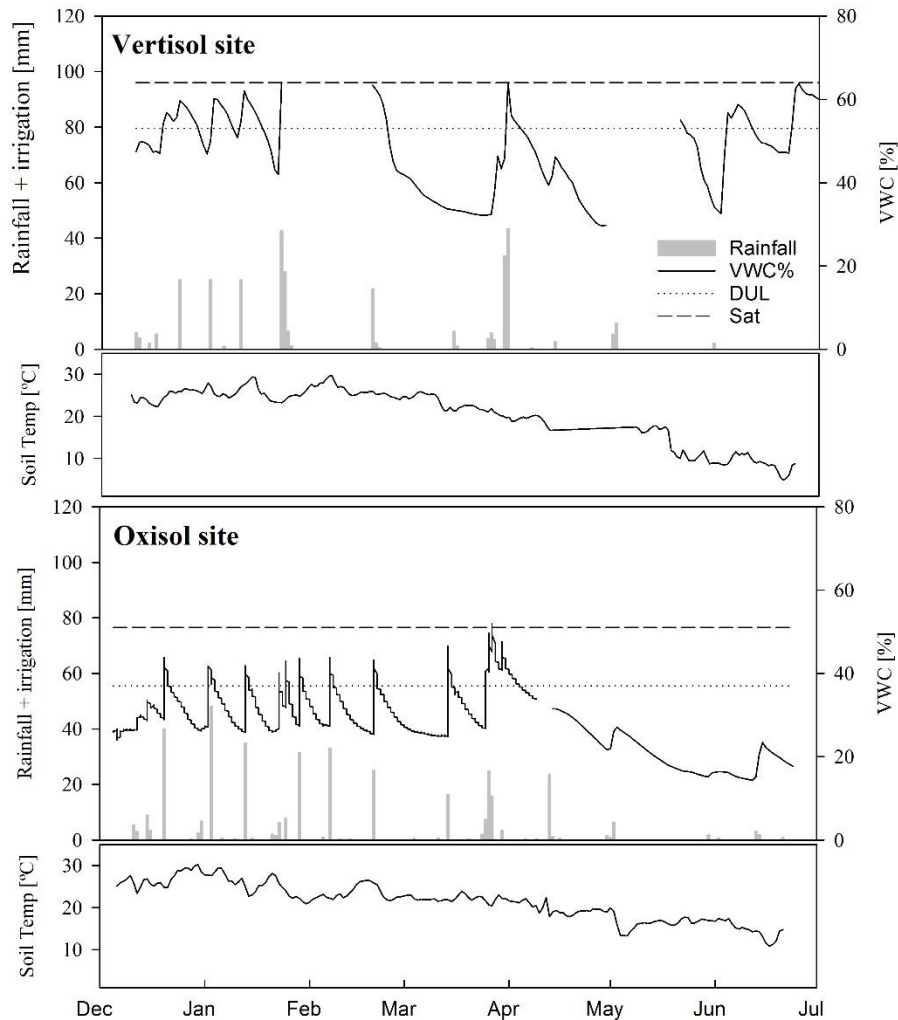
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734 **List of Figures**

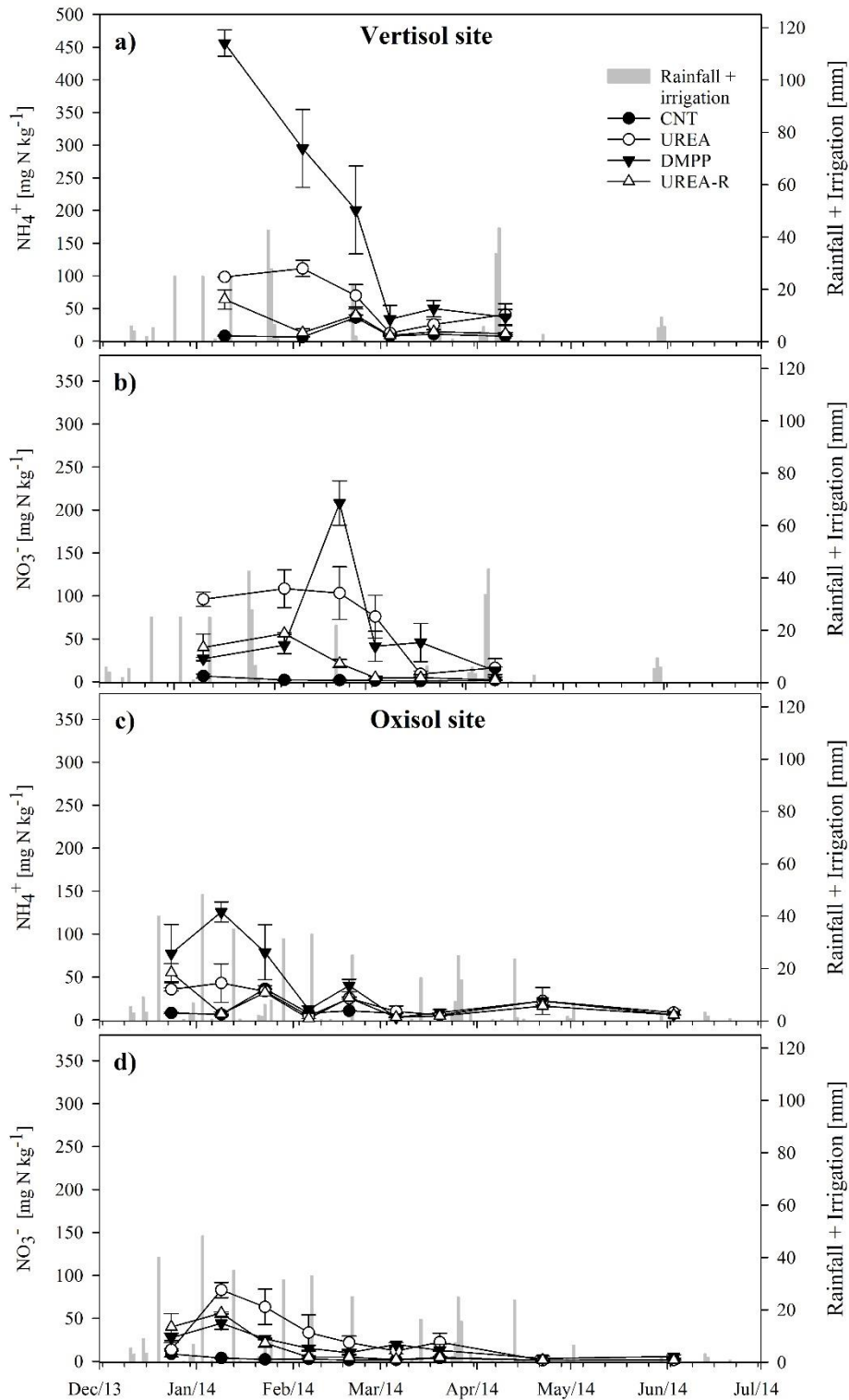
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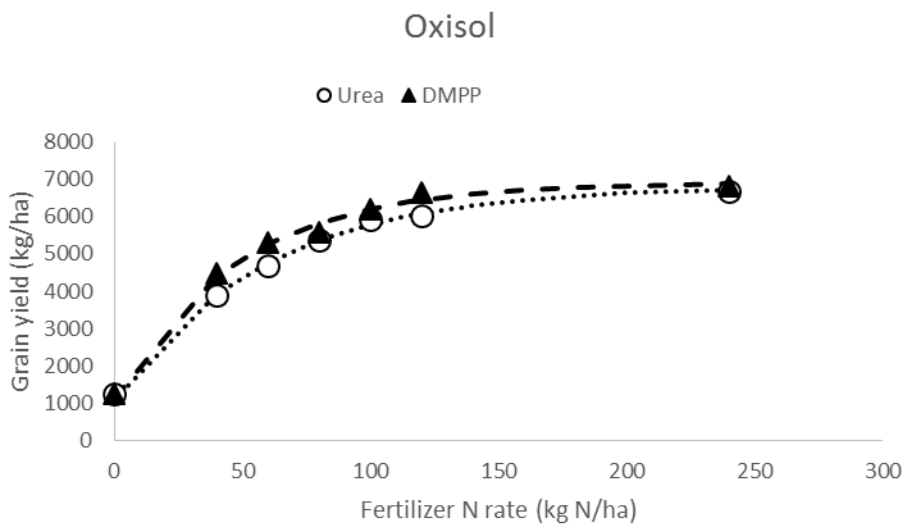
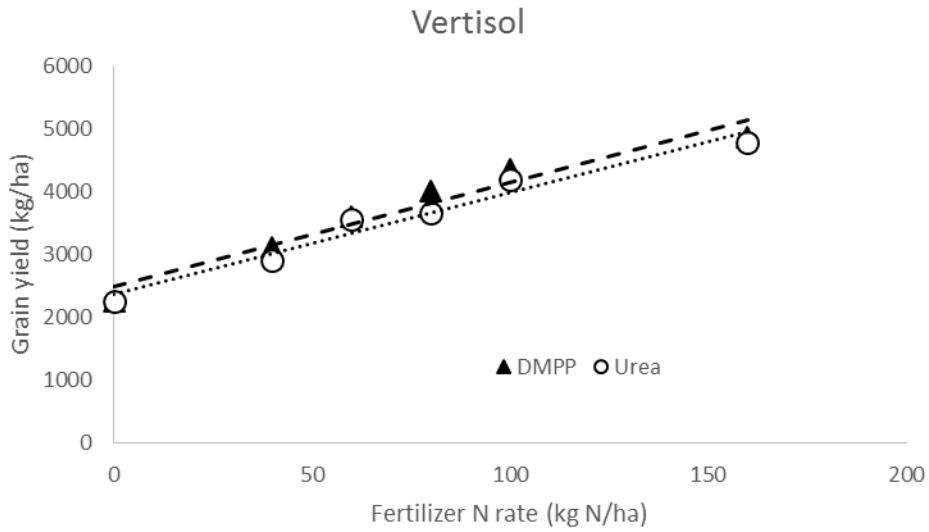
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738 Figure 1– Daily (rainfall + irrigation) and average daily volumetric soil water content (m^3m^{-3})
 739 3) and soil temperatures ($^{\circ}C$) in the top 10 cm at the Vertisol (top) and Oxisol (bottom) sites
 740 during the 2013/14 sorghum cropping season. The dotted and dashed lines represent the
 741 volumetric moisture contents pertaining to the Drained Upper Limit and Saturation,
 742 respectively. Soil moisture data were not available at the Vertisol site during the month of
 743 February 2014 due to equipment malfunction.



744

745 Figure 2 – Variation in soil ammonium and nitrate concentrations (0-20 cm) and daily rainfall
 746 and irrigation for the three treatments at the Vertisol (a, b) and Oxisol (c, d) sites during the
 747 2013/14 sorghum cropping season.

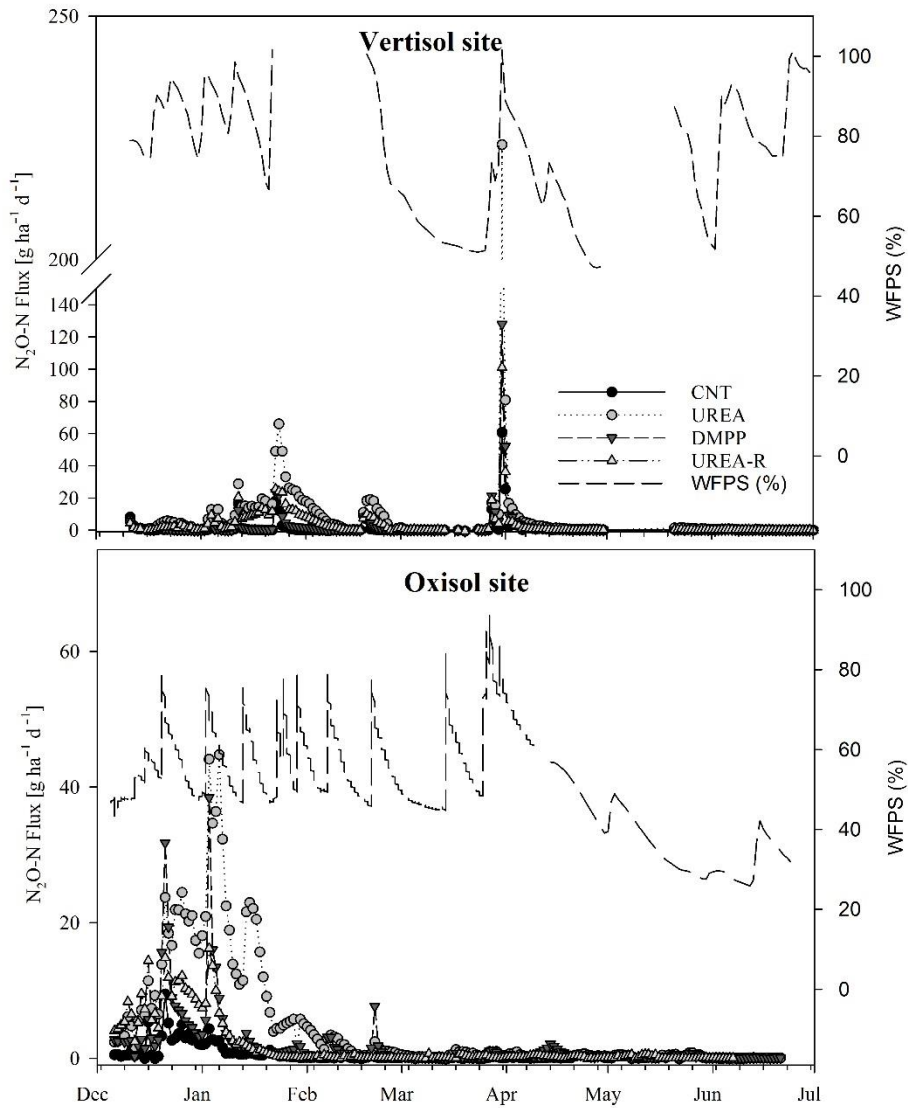


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749 Figure 3 - Relationship between applied fertilizer N (as urea or urea with DMPP) and grain yield at
 750 the Vertisol and Oxisol sites in 2013/14. The N rates to produce 90% of N-unlimited grain yields were
 751 100 (Entec) to 120 (urea) kg N/ha on the Oxisol and >160 kg N/ha for both products on the Vertisol.

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756

757 Figure 4 - Daily soil N₂O fluxes and water-filled pore space (WFPS, %) for the three
 758 treatments at the Vertisol (top) and Oxisol (bottom) sites during the 2013/14 sorghum
 759 cropping season. N₂O emissions in the two panels are reported using different scales.
 760