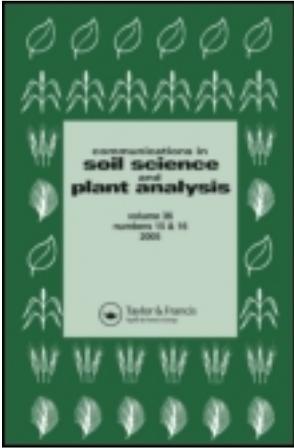


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# Applied Model for Estimating Potential Ammonia Loss from Surface-Applied Urea

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*Ammonia loss from urea fertilizer is a major concern to farmers all over the world. Various environmental factors such as temperature, soil water content, wind speed, pH, rainfall, relative humidity, cation exchange capacity (CEC), soil organic matter, and others influence ammonia volatilization loss. The objective of this work was to establish a model for estimating ammonia loss utilizing published data. Also, using current day inputs (temperature, wind speed, and known soil pH) estimates could relate risk to producers considering surface applications of urea fertilizer without incorporation. Linear models for soil pH and ammonia loss, ambient temperature and ammonia loss, and wind speed and ammonia loss were determined based on more than 40 published articles. Final estimates of ammonia loss from surface applications of urea employed an additive effects model using inputs for pH, temperature, and wind speed. Web access to this model can be located at [www.nue.okstate.edu/ammonia\\_loss.htm](http://www.nue.okstate.edu/ammonia_loss.htm).*

**Keywords** Ammonia loss, ammonia volatilization, urea, urea hydrolysis

## Introduction

A growing world population and increased food demand have led to increased demands for fertilizer. As a result, greater pressure on agricultural production has ensued, which in turn has resulted in an overall increase in fertilizer use. The Food and Agricultural Organization (FAO) projected that between 2007/2008 and 2011/2012 the global demand for nitrogen (N) fertilizer would have increased by 1.4%, which equals an increase of 7.3 million metric tons (Mt) for a total of more than 105 million tons (FAO 2008).

When discussing the increased demand for fertilizers, the contribution of urea cannot be underestimated. Urea is by far the most widely used fertilizer in crop production (Soh 2001; Stumpe, Vlek, and Lindsay 1984). The International Fertilizer Industry Association (IFA) projected the global urea demand to grow from 148.9 Mt in 2010 to 155.3 Mt in 2011 (Heffer and Prud'homme 2010). The United States of America and Canada represent approximately 20% of the global urea market, and urea comprises 30% of U.S. N fertilizer use (Glibert et al. 2006).

The growth in fertilizer use for food production has also increased fears of environmental pollution. If N is applied in quantities exceeding the amount used by the crop, it can be lost to the environment. One of the disadvantages of urea fertilizer is that when

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surface applied it can be lost to the environment as gaseous ammonia (Stumpe, Vlek, and Lindsay 1984), affecting the N-use efficiency and subsequently crop yields. Global ammonia emissions have been estimated to be around 50 million tons of N per year (Asman 1992; Schlesinger and Hartley 1992; Bouwman and Asman 1997). Ammonia emission in Europe alone has been estimated to be approximately 4.5 million tons N per year, mainly coming from animal husbandry and application of synthetic fertilizers (Asman 1992; ECETOC 1994). Literature reports ammonia emission of 7% (Goebes, Strader, and Davidson 2003; Roe, Strait, and Niederreiter 1998) and 9.5% (Goebes, Strader, and Davidson 2003; Batty et al. 1994) for the U. S. expressed as percentages of the total global ammonia emission.

When urea is applied to a soil, it is almost immediately hydrolyzed. The hydrolysis of urea produces ammonium carbonate  $[(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{CO}_3 \cdot \text{H}_2\text{O}]$ , which breaks down to carbon dioxide ( $\text{CO}_2$ ) and ammonia ( $\text{NH}_3$ ), producing high soil pH and ammonia loss (AL) (Eriksen and Kjeldby 1987; Fenn and Kissel 1973). Especially in the North Central region of the U. S. loss of N as ammonia seems to be a major concern because 50% of the N fertilizer used is applied as urea or urea-containing products (Oberle and Bundy 1987; Hargett and Berry 1985).

The subject of ammonia volatilization as it relates to environmental factors has also been extensively studied, and the results are presented in numerous reports. The objective of this article is to summarize some of the results of these studies specifically dealing with ammonia volatilization from surface-applied urea and to use this published data for the generation of an overall model that farmers can use to calculate AL.

## Review of Literature

### *Loss as a Function of pH*

There is general agreement among scientists that AL increases with increasing soil pH.

A high soil pH combined with high temperatures causes greater volatilization rates, resulting from greater concentrations of  $\text{NH}_3$  dissolved in soil water. When the pH rises above 7.5 there is a significant increase of dissolved  $\text{NH}_3$  in the soil solution (Jones et al. 2007).

Ernst and Massey (1960) reported increased losses of ammonia with increasing temperature and pH from urea applied to a Kentucky soil. Meyer, Olson, and Rhoades (1961) found that losses of urea and urea-containing products as ammonia are greatest on neutral to alkaline soils under conditions of a light rainfall. Volatilization can also occur on acidic soils because of the alkaline conditions that develop in the immediate proximity of the urea granules as urea dissolves and hydrolyses (Stevens, Laughlin, and Kilpatrick 1989; Volk 1959).

### *Loss as a Function of Relative Humidity*

Research in Denmark has shown that accumulated loss of ammonia from urea ranged from 18 to 30% of the total applied N when the humidity was sufficient for hydrolysis (Sommer and Jensen 1994). Reynolds and Wolf (1987) noted that the influence of relative air humidity between 25% and 85% was insignificant at a water potential of  $-0.033$  MPa. They found substantial ammonia volatilization at a relative humidity of 85% and a soil water potential of  $<-1.5$  MPa, indicating that the effect of relative humidity was greater at limiting soil water potential. In a study addressing the recovery of N by corn from both solid and liquid fertilizers, Terman, Parr, and Allen (1968) found lower ammonia volatilization losses at

a relative humidity of 70% as compared to a relative humidity of 100%. In contrast, another study shows a lower cumulative AL at 0 and 100% relative humidity as compared to relative humidity treatments of  $87.5 \pm 2.5\%$  and  $52.5 \pm 2.5\%$  (Ernst and Massey 1960).

### *Loss as a Function of Moisture Content*

Urea starts breaking down as soon as it is applied to a soil surface. As the moisture content of a dry soil increases, more urea is converted to ammonium carbonate. This compound may then remain near the soil surface until sufficient moisture is present to carry it deeper into the soil, thereby preventing further loss through volatilization (Trierweiler and Bishop 1983).

When urea is applied to a moist soil surface it reacts with water and the urease enzyme and is rapidly converted to ammonium. Stumpe, Vlek, and Lindsay (1984) showed that decreasing soil moisture content from 0.30 to 0.23 kg kg<sup>-1</sup> caused a significant reduction in the amount of ammonia lost from the soil. Denmead, Nulsen, and Thurtell (1978) found AL rates of as much as 27.6 g N ha<sup>-1</sup> h<sup>-1</sup> from the plant soil system when the soil surface was moist.

Kresge and Satchell (1960) found that most volatilization from urea applied to a fine sandy loam and a silt loam would occur at 20% moisture and when soils were drying out from a moisture content near field capacity.

Chin and Kroontje (1963) found less volatilization loss from urea applied to wet soils and attributed this to a larger water surface that is available for ammonia adsorption.

In two greenhouse experiments Stumpe and Mas Abdel (1986) found that losses of urea N increased with increased topsoil moisture at fertilizer application and with decreased depth of precipitation after fertilizer application. This same study shows an increase in urea N losses of 5% and 13% when applied to wet rather than dry Houston and Savannah soils respectively (Stumpe and Mas Abdel 1986).

### *Loss as a Function of Wind Speed*

Various studies reviewed for this article agree that increasing wind speed near the soil surface favors ammonia volatilization (Watkins et al. 1972; Bouwmeester and Vlek 1981; Fillery, Simpson, and De Datta 1984).

A study on AL from urea applied to forest soils showed an increase in AL with increased wind speed ranging from 0.0004 to 0.01 km h<sup>-1</sup> (Watkins et al. 1972). Bouwmeester, Vlek, and Stumpe (1985) observed from a wind tunnel experiment that increasing wind velocity from 6.1 to 12.2 km h<sup>-1</sup> resulted in a reduction in AL from 19 to 7.5%.

Data presented by Fillery, Simpson, and De Datta (1984) showed a linear increase in NH<sub>3</sub> loss with increased wind speed and partial pressure of NH<sub>3</sub> in floodwaters of a rice field. These findings are similar to what Bouwmeester and Vlek (1981) found in a study with wind tunnels simulating a floodwater system, where AL was found to increase linearly with wind speed.

Nathan and Malzer (1994) observed that the rate of NH<sub>3</sub> volatilization from manure and urea was greatest during 1200 and 1800 h and lowest between 2400 and 600 h. This fluctuation corresponded closely to the daily fluctuations in soil temperature, soil water potential, and wind speed.

### ***Loss as Function of Temperature***

It is well known that temperature influences many biochemical reactions, including urease production and activity. Hargrove (1988) listed a number of ways in which temperature affects AL. Several works seem to be in agreement that ammonia volatilization increases with increasing temperature.

In a laboratory experiment Watkins et al. (1972) found increasing  $\text{NH}_3$  losses from urea applied to forest floors, with increasing temperature. In a laboratory study where urea was surface applied to a Dickson silt loam soil, Ernst and Massey (1960) reported that each  $8^\circ\text{C}$  increase in temperature produced a significant increase in volatilized ammonia. In a comprehensive report, Volk (1961) noted that temperatures of  $7^\circ\text{C}$  and below retard urease production and activity but as temperatures rise above  $15^\circ\text{C}$  ammonia volatilization greatly increases.

Research in Brazil has shown that volatilization rates and cumulative losses were greatest in those years with low volumes of precipitation and high average temperatures (Fontoura and Bayer 2010).

Another study conducted in Canada observed an increase in AL from surface-applied urea from spring to summer, with air temperature as the most influential factor (Kunelius, Macleod, and McRae 1987).

However, the findings of Meyer, Olson, and Rhoades (1961) seem to contradict the notion that ammonia volatilization increases as temperature increases as this work reports greater losses from urea at a lower temperature in a greenhouse experiment. This was attributed to less microbial activity at lower temperatures, reducing the conversion rate of ammonium to nitrate, leading to a buildup of ammonium in excess of the soil's adsorption capacity and leaving more of this compound available for loss through evaporation.

### ***Loss as Affected by Plant Cover/Residue***

Several workers described the significance of plant residues on the soil surface in relationship to ammonia volatilization by indicating that plants and plant residues act as a source of urease and as a medium through which ammonia must pass (Freney and Black 1988; Nelson, Turgeon, and Street 1980; Frankenberger and Tabatabai 1982; Torello, Wehner, and Turgeon 1983; Vallis and Gardener 1984; Tomar, Kirby, and MacKenzie 1985; Bacon, Hault, and McGarity 1986).

Kresge and Satchell (1960) found that heavy and medium plant cover significantly reduced AL from urea, applied at a rate of  $112\text{ kg N ha}^{-1}$ . A study looking at AL from fields covered with sugarcane residue showed that the cane residue had no capacity to retain ammonia. This study found that the cycle of moistening and evaporation resulted in losses ranging from 30% to 40% over a period of 6 weeks (Freney et al. 1992). In a study conducted when Urea Ammonium Nitrate (UAN) was applied to straw residue, McInnes et al. (1986) found that  $\text{NH}_3$  loss peaked around noon, as straw temperatures were rising to a maximum, straw water content was decreasing, and wind velocity was high. Keller and Mengel (1986) found that  $50.9\text{ kg}$  (30.3%) of the total of  $168\text{ kg ha}^{-1}$  of urea applied to no-till corn was lost as ammonia.

Other research revealed losses ranging from 27% to 46% of urea applied to mineral soils covered with forest floor material compared to losses ranging from 6% to 30% for urea applied to bare mineral soil (Watkins et al. 1972).

Tomar, Kirby, and MacKenzie (1985) found an 11% increase in AL from urea solutions applied to soil covered with  $4600\text{ kg ha}^{-1}$  hay as compared to soil not covered with hay.

### ***Loss as Affected by Rainfall***

Several studies have recognized the significance of rainfall and its effect on ammonia volatilization (Craig and Wollum 1982; McInnes et al. 1986; Oberle and Bundy 1987; Stevens, Laughlin, and Kilpatrick 1989).

Stevens, Laughlin, and Kilpatrick (1989) reported that interaction between rainfall and the ammonia volatilization process will largely affect the efficiency of urea when applied to acidic soil. Research in the Netherlands has shown that 5 mm of precipitation in the 2 days following urea application is needed to prevent ammonia volatilization (Stevens, Laughlin, and Kilpatrick 1989; Van Burg, Dilz, and Prins 1982). Oberle and Bundy (1987) found that rainfall following N application significantly decreased ammonia volatilization.

Craig and Wollum (1982) found that light rainfall providing just enough moisture for hydrolysis, but not enough to leach urea resulted in the greatest  $\text{NH}_3$  losses.

A study conducted by McInnes et al. (1986) has shown that 25% to 30% of urea would be hydrolyzed if applied immediately following rainfall, but that hydrolysis would be nonexistent when the water content of the soil surface reached "air dryness" and AL would be around 4%.

Prasertak et al. (2001) reports limited initial loss of ammonia from urea applied to a dry soil until 3, 1.2, and 2.4 mm of rainfall within 2, 3, and 4 days after application respectively resulted in a more rapid loss of ammonia.

Numerous studies dealing with the loss of ammonia from surface-applied urea have been conducted. The complexity of the interactions among environmental factors such as soil pH, soil temperature, relative humidity, rainfall, wind speed, and others are beyond the scope of this paper. Nonetheless, AL is clearly an issue for surface applications of urea, demonstrated in the range of differing results found in the literature. However, the numerous research papers cited here provide sufficient evidence to conclude that ammonia volatilization from surface-applied urea increases with increasing pH, increasing temperature, and wind speed.

### **Materials and Methods**

A total of 159 records for AL were found in agricultural literature, collected from 1960 to 2010. From a combined 25 different references, relative humidity, surface moisture, surface air temperature, wind speed, presence/absence of surface residue, and ammonia volatilization losses were recorded. For the research journal articles included in this work, each article was unique in that they collected different types of data. However, and fortunately for this study, most articles documenting AL included data for wind speed, soil pH, and surface temperature. Because of this, wind speed, soil pH, and surface temperature were the input variables chosen that would be used for predicting AL over a large area and range of production conditions. Also, many states now have online weather sites where live wind speed and surface temperature can be accessed. For each journal article where a record was entered, data collected were converted to metric units if and when reporting was in another standard. Some journal articles included estimates of AL for multiple locations and/or years. In each case, by-year, by-location data were considered to be unique. Once the complete data set was compiled with 43 site-years, linear models from the combined data were generated for AL versus soil pH, AL versus wind speed, and AL versus surface air temperature (Table 1). Although the coefficients of determination ( $r^2$ ) were not high for any of the three linear models, intercept and slope components were highly significant for all three (Table 1). Multiple regression was also evaluated using data for all independent

**Table 1**  
Intercept, slope, coefficient of determination ( $r^2$ ) and number of observations for ammonia loss versus temperature, soil pH, and wind speed, from 25 independent research articles collected from 1960 to 2010

Equation	Intercept	Slope	$r^2$	n
Ammonia loss and temperature ( $^{\circ}\text{C}$ )	18.21**	0.33*	0.04	88
Ammonia loss and wind speed (m/s)	9.74*	3.85**	0.27	28
Ammonia loss and soil pH	-40.77*	8.43**	0.18	25

\*Model component significant at the 0.05 probability level.

\*\*Model component significant at the 0.01 probability level.

variables and where AL was also determined. However, sufficient data was not present that would allow sufficient degrees of freedom in the model to properly test soil pH, wind loss, and temperature. These results are thus not reported.

Slopes for the three linear regression equations (AL versus air temperature, AL versus wind speed, AL versus soil pH) were subsequently evaluated. The variable where the largest percentage change in AL over the range of data included was then selected, and that was used as a base model (soil pH, Table 1). To arrive at an overall equation that included all three (air temperature, wind speed, soil pH), excluding intercepts, effects were considered to be additive. As a result, the final estimate of AL used the base model, with added slope components for wind speed and air temperature.

The resulting model follows:

$$AL = b_{0_{\text{pH}}} + b_{1_{\text{pH}}}(\text{pH}) + b_{1_{\text{ws}}}(\text{WS}) + b_{1_{\text{AT}}}(\text{AT})$$

where AL is ammonia loss,  $b_{0_{\text{pH}}}$  is the intercept from the linear model of AL and pH,  $b_{1_{\text{pH}}}$  is the slope from the linear model of AL and pH,  $b_{1_{\text{ws}}}$  is the slope from the linear model of AL and wind speed, and  $b_{1_{\text{AT}}}$  is the slope from the linear model of AL and air temperature.

The final coefficients were -40.7, 8.43, 3.85, and 0.33 for  $b_{0_{\text{pH}}}$ ,  $b_{1_{\text{pH}}}$ ,  $b_{1_{\text{ws}}}$ , and  $b_{1_{\text{AT}}}$ , respectively.

To use the Ammonia Loss Calculator ([http://nue.okstate.edu/N\\_Fertilizers/Urea.htm](http://nue.okstate.edu/N_Fertilizers/Urea.htm)), knowledge of the presence and/or absence of surface residues is also needed.

## Conclusions

Because urea is the most popular commercial fertilizer used today, AL from this N source remains important. Increasing food demand and environmental concerns have made it necessary for producers worldwide to more efficiently manage N resources. The need for achieving greater yields with existing N sources, both indigenous and applied, calls for innovative nutrient management tools for producers worldwide.

Numerous laboratory, field, and greenhouse studies have been carried out to measure AL from urea and urea-containing products. The overall trend that can be derived from published research cited here is that ammonia volatilization from surface-applied urea increases with increasing pH, increasing temperature, and greater wind speeds. It is expected therefore that when fertilizer urea is applied on high pH soils, during warm humid weather and under windy conditions, AL will be high. Furthermore, what the literature

review clearly showed was that temperature, pH, and wind speed were the most common variables being used to estimate  $\text{NH}_3$  loss. This is not to say that the other variables measured in these studies were not important, but rather that these three contributed more toward accurate models for estimating  $\text{NH}_3$  losses in agriculture.

Using combined published research, a composite algorithm was developed to provide estimates of potential AL based on soil pH, wind speed, and air temperature. These variables are available for site-specific recommendations all over the world and can be input into an online calculator ([http://nue.okstate.edu/N\\_Fertilizers/Urea.htm](http://nue.okstate.edu/N_Fertilizers/Urea.htm)). Real-time estimates of AL from surface-applied urea will assist farmers in making better fertilizer management decisions and potentially avoiding days where AL from surface applied urea is expected.

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