

## THE EFFECT OF COPPER BIOAVAILABILITY ON NITRIFICATION RATE IN NEW ZEALAND PASTORAL SOILS

**Themba Matse, Paramsothy Jeyakumar, Peter Bishop and Chris Anderson**

*Farmed Landscapes Research Centre (FRLC), Massey University, Private Bag 11 222, Palmerston North 4442, New Zealand*

*Email: d.matse@massey.ac.nz*

### ABSTRACT

In New Zealand livestock industry urine patches contribute significantly to  $\text{NO}_3^-$  leaching and  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  emissions in grazed pastures. To mitigate the environmental impacts from grazed pastures, different approaches such as use of alternative forage species, and nitrification and urease inhibitors have been applied. However, to date there is no cost-effective and environmentally friendly mitigation strategy that is adopted. Therefore, this study is conducted to explore an alternative strategy that analyses the influence of bioavailable  $\text{Cu}^{2+}$  in controlling nitrification rate. A laboratory incubation study was conducted using two soils types; Allophanic soil (Waikato soil) and Pallic soil (Canterbury soil). The following treatments were applied; control (only water was added), urea ( $300 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$ ), DCD ( $10 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$ ) + urea, DMPP ( $5 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$ ) + urea, undisclosed product A ( $10 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$ ) + urea, undisclosed product B ( $120 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$ ) + urea, and undisclosed product C ( $10 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$ ) + urea and soil sample analysis were done at 3 and 7 days after incubation. The results showed that, in the Waikato soil, at 7 days after incubation, the high molecular weight organic acids (HMWOAs) had significantly ( $p < 0.05$ ) higher  $\text{NH}_4^+$  than the urea only applied. Further, in both Waikato and Canterbury soils,  $\text{Cu}^{2+}$  concentration was significantly lower ( $p < 0.05$ ) at urea only application when compared to the HMWOAs treatment at both day 3 and 7. In conclusion, management of bioavailable  $\text{Cu}^{2+}$  in soil is showing some potential glimpse in reducing nitrification rate through application of various HMWOAs.

**Key words:** Nitrification, Grazed pastures, ammonia monooxygenase (AMO),  $\text{Cu}^{2+}$  bioavailability and High molecular weight organic acids (HMWOAs)

### Introduction

Legume-ryegrass based pastoral farming is the dominant farming system in New Zealand agriculture. To meet livestock food demand, this system mostly relies on application of synthetic fertilizers ( $100\text{-}400 \text{ kg N ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ ) and some dairy effluent to promote pasture production. However, only 5-30 % of ingested N is converted into products, and a higher percentage (70-95 %) of the ingested N is excreted in urine and dung (Oenema et al. (2005). As a result, the N excreted by livestock onto grazed pastures provides highly localised concentrations of available N in soils. On average cows excrete around 21 L urine  $\text{day}^{-1}$  over 10.2 urine patches (Saggar et al., 2004). Each urine patch has an estimated area of around 0.2-0.4  $\text{m}^2$  and N concentration equivalent to 200-2000  $\text{kg N ha}^{-1}$  (Moir et al., 2011). Depending on the stocking rate urine patches are estimated to cover about 20-30% of grazed pastures (Moir et al., 2011). Therefore, urine patches are the main primary targets to combat  $\text{NO}_3^-$  leaching and  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  emissions in NZ grazing systems. Development of different technologies and

practices which manage the effect of urine patches have attracted much attention for the sustainable NZ farming system. The present study pinpoints the management strategy of soil bioavailable  $\text{Cu}^{2+}$  in controlling nitrification rate and narrates relevant research concepts and an ongoing laboratory study.

### **Nitrogen losses in agriculture**

The livestock industry has been shown to contribute a significant amount to environmental contamination through  $\text{NO}_3^-$  leaching and  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  emissions in grazed pastures (Davidson, 2009). Nitrate leaching is mostly high during late autumn, winter and early spring period (April to September) due to high rainfall and low plant nitrate uptake (Di et al., 2016), contributing to contaminating water resources. Silva et al. (2000) observed that  $\text{NO}_3^-$  concentrations in drainage water under the urine patch can reach a peak of  $120 \text{ mg NO}_3^- \text{ N L}^{-1}$  and equivalent to  $124 \text{ kg N ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ . New Zealand agriculture is responsible for 49 % of national GHG emissions and 22% of them are contributed by  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  emissions.

### **Existing mitigation strategies to reduce N losses in NZ**

In the last few decades different approaches and techniques have been implemented to mitigate N losses in pastoral soils such as use of nitrification and urease inhibitors, use of alternative forages (Judson et al., 2019; Mangwe et al., 2019), and restricted grazing (De Klein et al., 2006; Harty et al., 2016). Di and Cameron (2002) reported that application of DCD at  $15 \text{ kg ha}^{-1}$  resulted to a significant decrease (42 %) of  $\text{NO}_3^-$  leaching in urine applied at  $1000 \text{ N kg ha}^{-1}$  in spring, and 76 % in autumn which resulted to an average reduction of 89 % percent. Although inhibitors have proved effective and efficient in reducing N losses, residual toxic effect to the environment (Marsden et al., 2015) and inconsistent results (Vilarrasa-Nogué et al., 2020) are limiting their usage in NZ agriculture.

Another recently established approach is the use of alternative forages such as plantain (*Plantago lanceolata* L.), which increase nitrogen uptake, and therefore, reduce the nitrate losses. Byrnes et al. (2017) noticed that in order to realise plantain benefits in reducing N concentration in urine, more than 30 % plantain forage must be maintained in animal diet. Therefore, the use of alternative forages is costly, and still not yet provided conclusive results on the mechanism of how these forages reduce N losses

### **Functioning of $\text{Cu}^{2+}$ in the nitrification process**

Ammonia monooxygenase enzyme (AMO) encoded in the *amoA* gene of the ammonia oxidizing bacteria (AOB) and ammonia oxidizing archaea (AOA) is responsible for the first process of ammonia oxidation into hydroxylamine (Wood, 1990). This enzyme uses  $\text{Cu}^{2+}$  for the electron transfer during the oxidation process (Lees, 1946). Application of organic amendments complex with soil  $\text{Cu}^{2+}$  could hinder the nitrification rate ((Bédard & Knowles, 1989)

### **Copper complex with organic acids**

$\text{Cu}^{2+}$  is known to complex with functional groups of dissolved organic matter clay minerals, and iron, manganese, and aluminium oxyhydroxides. These materials contain different organic functional groups such as carboxyl's (-COOH), phenols (-OH), thiols (-SH), and amines (-NH<sub>2</sub>). All of these groups may play a significant role in the complexation of  $\text{Cu}^{2+}$  in soil. Organic acids such as HMWOAs can enhance  $\text{Cu}^{2+}$  complexing because of their enhanced functional

groups. In our agriculture system, the more critical aspect is to choose right organic amendments with high complexation with AMO-bound  $\text{Cu}^{2+}$  to affect the functioning of the AMO enzyme to manage nitrification rate.

## **Study Objective**

The main aim of the study is to analyse the effect of  $\text{Cu}^{2+}$  bioavailability on influencing nitrification rate in pastoral soils through application of different HMWOAs.

## **Laboratory incubation study**

### *Soil preparation*

An incubation study was undertaken to determine the influence of applying HMWOAs on  $\text{Cu}^{2+}$  bioavailability and related effect on nitrification rate at different rates of N fertiliser applied soil. Two soil types, contrast in their characteristics were used to conduct this experiment namely; Allophanic soil (Waikato soil) and Pallic soil (Canterbury soil). Briefly, field moist soil was sieved through 2 mm sieve and then 10 g was added into 50 ml centrifuge tubes.

### *Treatments*

The following treatments were used in the experiment; control (only water was added), urea ( $300 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$ ), DCD ( $10 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$ ) + urea, DMPP ( $5 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$ ) + urea, undisclosed product A ( $10 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$ ) + urea, undisclosed product B ( $120 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$ ) + urea, and undisclosed product C ( $10 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$ ) + urea. These organic acids material are not referred to their specific names in this paper as they are still waiting to be patented. A 0.5 ml of each treatment solution was added to soil contained centrifuge tubes and thoroughly mixed. The tubes were incubated for 7 days at  $25^\circ\text{C}$ .

### *Analysis*

Soil sampling and analysis were done 3- and 7-days after incubation. In each sample, 30 ml  $0.05 \text{ M CaCl}_2$  was added, extracted in an end-over-end shaker for two hours, and then centrifuged at  $1100 \times g$  for 10 min to determine the bioavailable Cu. Samples were then filtered through Whatman 42 filter papers. Using the remaining soil samples,  $\text{NH}_4^+$  was extracted by adding 30 ml of  $2 \text{ M KCl}$  and repeated the same procedure. Both bioavailable Cu and  $\text{NH}_4^+$  extractants were stored at  $< 4^\circ\text{C}$  before being analysed using the graphite furnace atomic absorption spectrophotometer for  $\text{Cu}^{2+}$  and Auto analyser for  $\text{NH}_4^+$ .

## **Results**

### *Effect of HMWOAs on $\text{NH}_4^+$ -N concentration after incubation period*

Waikato soil did not show any initial significant difference in  $\text{NH}_4^+$  concentration in all the treatments, however, at 7 days the HMWOAs had significantly ( $p < 0.05$ ) higher  $\text{NH}_4^+$  than the urea only applied (Table 1). Both, Product A + urea and Product B + urea in day 7 significantly minimized ammonium loss by 32.5 % when compared to urea only application. Urea only application in the Canterbury soil produced significantly higher  $\text{NH}_4^+$  than HMWOAs at day-3, however, reduced at day-7, except for DCD and DMPP treatments.

**Table 1: Effect of HMWOAs on NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>-N concentration after 3 and 7 days incubation period of the Waikato and Canterbury soil.**

Treatments	Allophanic soil (Waikato soil)		Pallic soil (Canterbury soil)	
	Day 3	Day 7	Day 3	Day 7
	(mg kg <sup>-1</sup> )		(mg kg <sup>-1</sup> )	
Urea only	88.2 ±9.0 <sup>a</sup>	58.7 ±3.2 <sup>c</sup>	104.7 ±8.3 <sup>b</sup>	72.8 ±3.3 <sup>b</sup>
Urea + DCD	98.1 ±9.8 <sup>a</sup>	104.9±6.8 <sup>a</sup>	119.6 ±4.8 <sup>a</sup>	112.7 ±9.5 <sup>a</sup>
Urea + DMPP	99.1 ±11.6 <sup>a</sup>	108.0±2.3 <sup>a</sup>	109.4 ±2.1 <sup>b</sup>	111.7 ±8.5 <sup>a</sup>
Product A + Urea	105.0±11.7 <sup>a</sup>	77.8 ±1.9 <sup>b</sup>	90.7 ±5.6 <sup>c</sup>	60.6 ±4.0 <sup>b</sup>
Product B + Urea	97.9 ±5.2 <sup>a</sup>	77.9 ±2.3 <sup>b</sup>	92.1 ±1.5 <sup>c</sup>	64.8 ±3.6 <sup>b</sup>
Product C + urea	97.3 ±1.1 <sup>a</sup>	83.5 ±13.7 <sup>b</sup>	89.2 ±0.6 <sup>c</sup>	59.6 ±9.2 <sup>b</sup>
Control	0	0	0	0

*Effect of HMWOAs on Cu<sup>2+</sup> bioavailability after incubation*

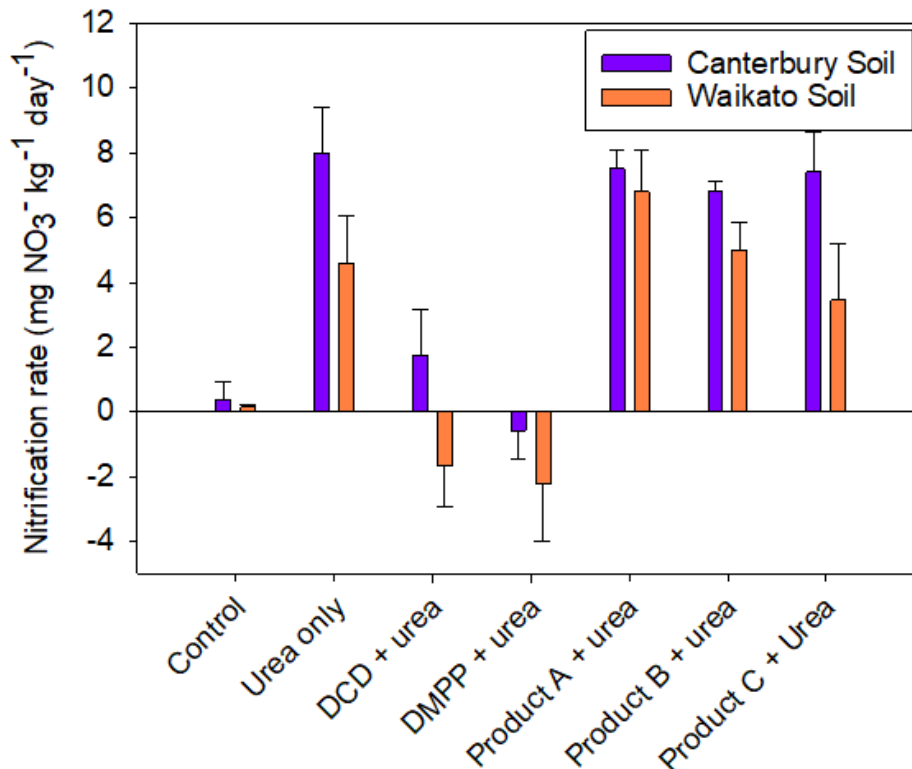
In both Waikato and Canterbury soils, Cu<sup>2+</sup> concentration was significantly lower (p<0.05) at urea only application when compared to the HMWOAs treatment at both day 3 and 7 (Table 2). The lower bioavailable Cu<sup>2+</sup> in the urea only treatment might be due to the sharp increase in pH due to urea fertilizer application which result to significant decrease in Cu<sup>2+</sup>. Sommer et al. (2004) observed that during the first few days of urea application, the pH can escalate above pH 8 which normally affect the Cu<sup>2+</sup> bioavailability. However, we cannot conclude with the available data.

**Table 2: Effect of HMWOAs on Cu<sup>2+</sup> after incubation for 3 and 7 days incubation period of the Waikato and Canterbury soil.**

Treatments	Allophanic soil (Waikato soil)		Pallic soil (Canterbury soil)	
	Day 3	Day 7	Day 3	Day 7
	(µg L <sup>-1</sup> )		(µg L <sup>-1</sup> )	
Control	55.0 ±3.0 <sup>a</sup>	53.0 ±3.2 <sup>a</sup>	57.8 ±1.2 <sup>a</sup>	51.6 ±1.9 <sup>a</sup>
Urea only	16.5 ±1.2 <sup>e</sup>	11.0 ±0.6 <sup>e</sup>	26.0 ±2.3 <sup>e</sup>	15.3 ±2.0 <sup>a</sup>
Urea + DCD	31.9 ±1.3 <sup>c</sup>	13.3 ±1.5 <sup>e</sup>	49.0 ±0.8 <sup>c</sup>	32.0 ±0.6 <sup>b</sup>
Urea + DMPP	44.8 ±2.0 <sup>b</sup>	31.3 ±1.5 <sup>b</sup>	52.3 ±1.8 <sup>b</sup>	22.6 ±1.2 <sup>c</sup>
Product A + Urea	45.1 ±1.1 <sup>b</sup>	26.6 ±1.0 <sup>c</sup>	36.6 ±1.7 <sup>d</sup>	26.1 ±1.8 <sup>c</sup>
Product B + Urea	30.6 ±1.0 <sup>c</sup>	22.1 ±1.0 <sup>d</sup>	36.9 ±2.0 <sup>d</sup>	24.7 ±1.2 <sup>c</sup>
Product C + urea	21.3 ±3.5 <sup>d</sup>	22.1 ±2.4 <sup>d</sup>	38.8 ±1.0 <sup>d</sup>	29.2 ±3.0 <sup>bc</sup>

*Effect of HMOWAs on nitrification rate after incubation*

Product C in the Waikato soil reduced nitrification rate by 26.1 % when compared to urea only application. However, product A + urea and product B + urea recorded 6.8 and 5.0 mg NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> kg<sup>-1</sup> day<sup>-1</sup> respectively which was non significantly higher than urea only treatment, which was recorded 4.6 mg NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> kg<sup>-1</sup> day<sup>-1</sup>. In the Canterbury soil, product A + urea, product B + urea, product C + urea recorded 7.5, 6.8 and 7.3 mg NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> kg<sup>-1</sup> day<sup>-1</sup> respectively compared to 8.0 mg NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> kg<sup>-1</sup> day<sup>-1</sup> in the urea only (Figure 1-1). Overall, product C + urea has a potential in reducing nitrification rate in both Canterbury and Waikato soil.



**Figure 1-1 The effect of HMWOAs on nitrification rate after 7 days incubation period in Canterbury (Pallic soil) and Waikato soil (Allophanic soil)**

## Conclusion

From the initial results, HMWOAs can alter nitrification rate, however, their effectiveness is mostly influenced by the soil type. The on-going research activities will critically analyse the effectiveness of these HMWOAs on influencing bioavailable Cu<sup>2+</sup> and nitrification rate.

## References

- Bédard, C., & Knowles, R. (1989). Physiology, biochemistry, and specific inhibitors of CH<sub>4</sub>, NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>, and CO oxidation by methanotrophs and nitrifiers. *Microbiology and Molecular Biology Reviews*, 53(1), 68-84.
- Byrnes, R. C., Núñez, J., Arenas, L., Rao, I., Trujillo, C., Alvarez, C., . . . Chirinda, N. (2017). Biological nitrification inhibition by Brachiaria grasses mitigates soil nitrous oxide emissions from bovine urine patches. *Soil Biology and Biochemistry*, 107, 156-163.
- Davidson, E. A. (2009). The contribution of manure and fertilizer nitrogen to atmospheric nitrous oxide since 1860. *Nature Geoscience*, 2(9), 659-662.
- De Klein, C., Smith, L., & Monaghan, R. (2006). Restricted autumn grazing to reduce nitrous oxide emissions from dairy pastures in Southland, New Zealand. *Agriculture, Ecosystems & Environment*, 112(2-3), 192-199.
- Di, H., & Cameron, K. (2002). The use of a nitrification inhibitor, dicyandiamide (DCD), to decrease nitrate leaching and nitrous oxide emissions in a simulated grazed and irrigated grassland. *Soil use and management*, 18(4), 395-403.
- Di, H. J., Cameron, K. C., Podolyan, A., Edwards, G. R., de Klein, C. A. M., Dynes, R., & Woods, R. (2016). The potential of using alternative pastures, forage crops and

- gibberellic acid to mitigate nitrous oxide emissions. *Journal of Soils and Sediments*, 16(9), 2252-2262. doi:10.1007/s11368-016-1442-1
- Harty, M. A., Forrestal, P. J., Watson, C., McGeough, K., Carolan, R., Elliot, C., . . . Lanigan, G. (2016). Reducing nitrous oxide emissions by changing N fertiliser use from calcium ammonium nitrate (CAN) to urea based formulations. *Science of The Total Environment*, 563, 576-586.
- Judson, H. G., Fraser, P. M., & Peterson, M. E. (2019). Nitrification inhibition by urine from cattle consuming *Plantago lanceolata*. *Journal of New Zealand Grasslands*, 81, 111-116.
- Lees, H. (1946). Effect of copper-enzyme poisons on soil nitrification. *Nature*, 158(4003), 97-97.
- Mangwe, M., Bryant, R., Beck, M., Beale, N., Bunt, C., & Gregorini, P. (2019). Forage herbs as an alternative to ryegrass-white clover to alter urination patterns in grazing dairy systems. *Animal Feed Science and Technology*, 252, 11-22.
- Marsden, K. A., Scowen, M., Hill, P. W., Jones, D. L., & Chadwick, D. R. (2015). Plant acquisition and metabolism of the synthetic nitrification inhibitor dicyandiamide and naturally-occurring guanidine from agricultural soils. *Plant and Soil*, 395(1), 201-214. doi:10.1007/s11104-015-2549-7
- Moir, J. L., Cameron, K. C., Di, H. J., & Fertsak, U. (2011). The spatial coverage of dairy cattle urine patches in an intensively grazed pasture system. *The Journal of Agricultural Science*, 149(4), 473-485.
- Oenema, O., Wrage, N., Velthof, G. L., van Groenigen, J. W., Dolfing, J., & Kuikman, P. J. (2005). Trends in global nitrous oxide emissions from animal production systems. *Nutrient Cycling in Agroecosystems*, 72(1), 51-65.
- Saggar, S., Bolan, N., Bhandral, R., Hedley, C., & Luo, J. (2004). A review of emissions of methane, ammonia, and nitrous oxide from animal excreta deposition and farm effluent application in grazed pastures. *New Zealand Journal of Agricultural Research*, 47(4), 513-544.
- Silva, R., Cameron, K., Di, H., Smith, N., & Buchan, G. (2000). Effect of macropore flow on the transport of surface-applied cow urine through a soil profile. *Soil Research*, 38(1), 13-24.
- Sommer, S. G., Schjoerring, J. K., & Denmead, O. (2004). Ammonia emission from mineral fertilizers and fertilized crops. *Advances in agronomy*, 82(557622), 82008-82004.
- Vilarrasa-Nogué, M., Teira-Esmatges, M. R., Pascual, M., Villar, J. M., & Rufat, J. (2020). Effect of N dose, fertilisation duration and application of a nitrification inhibitor on GHG emissions from a peach orchard. *Science of The Total Environment*, 699, 134042. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2019.134042>
- Wood, P. (1990). Autotrophic and heterotrophic mechanisms for ammonia oxidation. *Soil use and management*, 6(2), 78-79.