

Article (refereed) - postprint

Murphy, R.M.; Richards, K.G.; Krol, D.J.; Gebremichael, A.W.; Lopez-Sangil, L.; Rambaud, J.; Cowan, N.; Lanigan, G.J.; Saunders, M.. 2022. **Assessing nitrous oxide emissions in time and space with minimal uncertainty using static chambers and eddy covariance from a temperate grassland.**

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The definitive version was published in *Agricultural and Forest Meteorology*, 313, 108743. 14, pp. <https://doi.org/10.1016>

The definitive version is available at <https://www.elsevier.com/>

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1 **Assessing nitrous oxide emissions in time and space with**
2 **minimal uncertainty using static chambers and eddy**
3 **covariance from a temperate grassland**

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10 Keywords:

11 Methodology, Nitrous oxide, Agriculture, Grassland, Uncertainty

12 **ABSTRACT**

13 Where nitrogen input from fertilizer application exceeds plant demands, hotspots of
14 microbially produced nitrous oxide (N₂O) can exhibit disproportionately high rates of
15 emissions relative to longer periods of time, known as hot moments. Hotspots and hot
16 moments of N₂O are sensitive to changes in agricultural management and weather,
17 making it difficult to accurately quantify N₂O emissions. This study investigates the
18 spatial and temporal variability of N₂O emissions using both static chambers (CH) and
19 eddy covariance (EC) techniques, measured at a grassland site subject to four fertilizer
20 applications of calcium ammonium nitrate (CAN) in 2019. Daily mean CH emissions were
21 calculated using the arithmetic method and Bayesian statistics to explicitly account for
22 the log-normal distribution of the dataset. N₂O fluxes measured by CH and EC were most

23 comparable when flux measurements were $> 115 \text{ N}_2\text{O-N } \mu\text{g m}^{-2} \text{ hr}^{-1}$, and EC and CH
24 measurements showed spatial and temporal alignment when $\text{CH } n \geq 15$. Where $n \leq 5$, the
25 Bayesian method produced large uncertainties due to the difficulty of fitting an arithmetic
26 mean from a log-normally distributed data set with few flux measurements. Annual EC
27 fluxes, gap-filled using a multi-variate linear model, showed a strong correlation with
28 measured flux values ($R^2 = 0.92$). Annual cumulative fluxes by EC were higher ($3.35 [\pm$
29 $0.5] \text{ kg N ha}^{-1}$) than CH using the arithmetic ($2.98 [\pm 0.17] \text{ kg N ha}^{-1}$) and Bayesian
30 method ($3.13 [\pm 0.24] \text{ kg N ha}^{-1}$), which quantified emission factors of 1.46%, 1.30% and
31 1.36%, respectively. This study implies that a large sample size and frequent CH flux
32 measurements are necessary for comparison with EC fluxes and that Bayesian statistics
33 are an appropriate method for estimating realistic means and ranges of uncertainty for
34 CH flux data sets.

35

36 **INTRODUCTION:**

37 Nitrous oxide (N_2O) is a powerful greenhouse gas (GHG), with a global warming potential
38 (GWP) 265 times that of carbon dioxide (CO_2), and a lifespan of over 100 years (IPCC,
39 2013) The global average concentration of atmospheric N_2O reached 331.1 ± 0.1 ppb in
40 2018, 23% greater than pre-industrial levels (270 ppb) and is primarily associated with
41 the application of mineral or organic nitrogen (N) to soils (WMO, 2019). Nitrogen
42 fertilizers provide mineral N in the form of ammonium (NH_4^+) and nitrate (NO_3^-) for the
43 purpose of growing crops; however, soil microbes also consume this N to produce N_2O
44 through the processes of nitrification and denitrification (Luo *et al.* 2017). Where N is
45 applied to soil when conditions favour these microbial processes (water filled pore space
46 (WFPS) 70 – 80%, (Linn and Doran, 1984), substrate availability [nitrate (NO_3^-) and
47 ammonium (NH_4^+)] (Zanatta *et al.* 2010), temperature induced increases in soil

48 respiration (Butterbach-Bahl *et al.* 2013)), hotspots of N₂O can occur, releasing short-
49 lived, but excessively high rates of emissions (Hargreaves *et al.* 2015). Hotspots coincide
50 with changes in substrate availability, resources or the physical environment (Pickett and
51 White, 1985) for example, dry-wetting cycles of soils or increases in soil moisture
52 following fertilizer application where soil conditions become favourable for microbial
53 N₂O production (Fuchs *et al.* 2018). Pulses of N₂O from hotspots can exhibit rates of
54 emissions that are 15-30% higher relative to longer periods of time. These emission
55 events are known as hot moments (McClain *et al.* 2003), and typically last between 5-20
56 days (Groffman *et al.* 2009). The occurrence of N₂O hotspots and hot moments result in
57 extremely heterogeneous emissions across agricultural landscapes (Cowan *et al.* 2017)
58 and it is extremely difficult to accurately quantify N₂O emissions without large
59 uncertainties.

60 Micrometeorological techniques such as eddy covariance (EC) have been extensively
61 used to quantify fluxes of CO₂ and methane (CH₄) between the soil and the atmosphere
62 within grassland ecosystems (Felber *et al.* 2015; Soussana *et al.* 2010). One main
63 advantage of EC techniques is that it continuously measures the ecosystem to atmosphere
64 exchange of key gas scalars that are integrated at the ecosystem scale without disturbing
65 the soil or altering the microclimate (Wang *et al.* 2013). However, due to the lower
66 atmospheric concentrations of N₂O and the higher sensitivities needed to capture
67 baseline emissions (relative to CO₂), it is only in more recent years that the EC technique
68 has been capable of reliably measuring field-scale N₂O fluxes through the development
69 and deployment of fast, high precision absorption spectrometers such as quantum
70 cascade lasers (QCL) (Voglmeier *et al.* 2019). In contrast, static chambers (CH)
71 measurements are the most commonly used method for quantifying field fluxes of N₂O
72 (Bell *et al.* 2016; Maire *et al.* 2020; Rochette, 2011). Manually-operated CH are relatively

73 inexpensive to run, easy to deploy, have well-established standardised guidelines for GHG
74 measurements and are a highly cited method for investigating N fertilization effects on
75 soil N₂O fluxes (de Klein *et al.* 2015; Krol *et al.* 2017; Maire *et al.* 2020). However, CH flux
76 measurements provide lower spatial and temporal resolution when compared to EC
77 techniques, as single measurements are typically made at a daily time-step over an area
78 less than 1 m². Therefore, peak emissions, diurnal variation and decay patterns of N₂O
79 over time following rainfall or re-wetting of dry soils and/or management interventions
80 such as fertilizer application, are not always fully captured using CH methods (Jones *et al.*
81 2011). The peak and decay pattern which is commonly observed in CH N₂O fluxes over
82 time, typically display a log-normal distribution in space which is characterized by a small
83 number of high flux values (Levy *et al.* 2017). The probability density of a log-normally
84 distributed N₂O flux ($Flux_{N_2O}$) at a given time is Eq. (1):

$$85 \quad f(Flux_{N_2O}) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma_{log} Flux_{N_2O}} e^{-(\log(Flux_{N_2O}) - \mu_{log})^2 / 2\sigma_{log}^2}$$

86 where μ_{log} and σ_{log} are the mean and standard deviation of the log-transformed flux. The
87 mean distribution without log transformation is given by Eq (2):

$$88 \quad \mu = \exp(\mu_{log} + 0.5 \sigma_{log}^2)$$

89 Quantifications of the variables which make up the log-normal distribution, μ_{log} and σ_{log}
90 (and therefore the true μ) are often insufficient because of the large variability,
91 measurement error and small sample size (Levy *et al.* 2017). In order to improve
92 estimates of CH flux measurements and make localized field measurements more
93 comparable with ecosystem scale EC flux measurements over space and time, a method
94 is required, that accounts for the uncertainty in μ which arises from estimating field-scale
95 fluxes from a small, log-normally distributed sample. More recently, Bayesian statistics

96 have been utilized to analyse N₂O fluxes as a lognormal distribution and in doing so,
97 reduce the spatiotemporal uncertainty associated with CH flux measurements (Cowan *et*
98 *al.* 2020; Nishina *et al.* 2009)

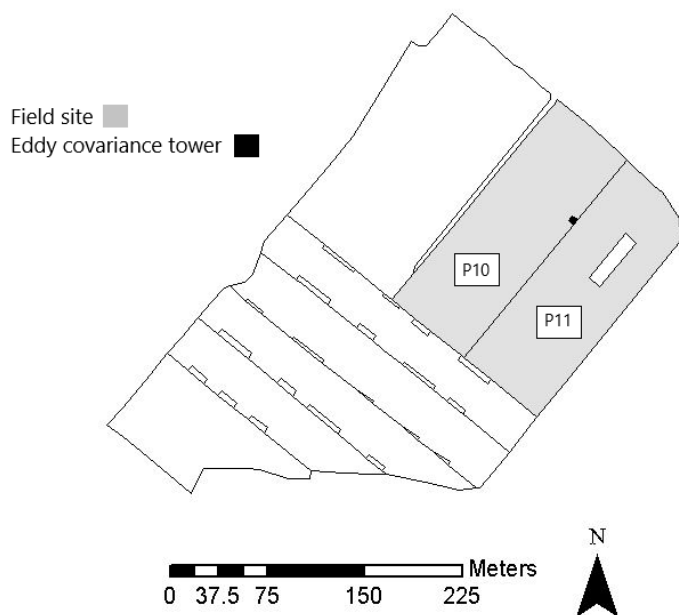
99 The objective of this paper was to investigate both technical disparities (spatially and
100 temporally) between EC and CH in measuring N₂O fluxes, as well as the methods used to
101 handling CH N₂O flux data (arithmetic and Bayesian) for a complete comparison between
102 methodologies. In this study we aim to (i) address the uncertainty in upscaling CH N₂O
103 flux measurements to the field scale by using a Bayesian approach to account for the log-
104 normal distribution of flux measurements and to provide realistic means (ii) compare
105 N₂O emissions quantified by both CH and EC methods in a temperate grassland under a
106 fertilized treatment and (iii) identify the influence of fertilizer application and the
107 environment in driving variability in N₂O emissions in space and time.

108 **2: MATERIALS AND METHODS**

109 *2.1 Site and experimental description*

110 The study was carried out between January and December 2019 at the Long Term Carbon
111 Observatory experimental field site at Teagasc Environmental Research Centre,
112 (Johnstown Castle, Co. Wexford) in the south-east of Ireland (52.30°N, 6.40°W, 67 m
113 above sea level). This area has a temperate oceanic climate with a mean annual
114 temperature and rainfall of 10.1°C and 1011mm respectively. The EC system was set up
115 in the northern part of the experimental field site (Fig. 1). The field site has clay loam
116 alfisols and consists of two paddocks (known as paddocks 10 and 11) with a collective
117 area of 2.67 ha⁻¹. The sward composition of the grassland is dominated by perennial
118 ryegrass (*Lolium perenne*) with white clover (*Trifolium repens*), herb-Robert (*Geranium*
119 *robertianum*) and broad-leaved dock (*Rumex obtusifolius*) (Maire *et al.* 2020).

120 In the year prior to measurements (2018), paddock 10 was managed for silage
121 production and paddock 11 was grazed by Holstein-Friesian dairy cows.
122 During the measurement year (2019), there were four fertilizer applications of CAN and
123 three silage cuts. N₂O flux measurements were performed using both CH and EC
124 techniques and both were compared over seven comparison periods during this time (see
125 Table 1). Six different methods were used to calculate summary N₂O flux statistics to
126 investigate spatial (CH inside or outside the half-hourly EC footprint (FP)) and temporal
127 differences (half-hourly EC measurements for the day or made at the same time as CH
128 measurements) in measurements (Table 2). Mean fluxes measured from CHs were
129 calculated using the arithmetic method and the Bayesian method (see section 2.6) to
130 account for uncertainties in the log-normal distribution of N₂O fluxes in time.



131
132 **Figure 1:** Map of the field site where boundaries represent paddocks (P), grey paddocks 10 and
133 11 represent the experimental field site (2.67 ha⁻¹) and the black square represents the eddy
134 covariance tower.

135 **Table 1:** A summary of comparison periods where N₂O fluxes were measured by eddy covariance and static chambers. The table provides information
 136 on the length of each comparison period (*N*), management interventions including silage cuts and fertilizer application (calcium ammonium nitrate
 137 [CAN]) dates and the N loading rates in addition to key meteorological variables including cumulative rainfall (mm), average air temperature (*T*_{air})
 138 and at 6.5cm depth soil temperature (*T*_{soil}), water-filled pore space (WFPS), electrical conductivity (EC), and at 10 cm depth organic C, pH, ammonium
 139 (NH₄⁺) and nitrate (NO₃⁻).

Comparison period	<i>N</i>	Management			Rain	<i>T</i> _{air}	<i>T</i> _{soil}	WFPS	EC	Organic C	pH	NH ₄	NO ₃
		Silage cut date	Fertilizer date	Application rate									
				[kg N ha ⁻¹]	[mm]	[°C]	[°C]	[%]	[mS m ⁻¹]	[%]		[kg ha ⁻¹]	[kg ha ⁻¹]
8/1/2019 - 7/2/2019	30				54.1	5.8	9	61.4	56.9			7.9	5.4
4/3/2019 - 26/3/2019	22		05/03/2019	40	67.9	7.5	10.4	70.7	60.2			8.8	4.4
1/4/2019 - 24/4/2019	23		01/04/2019	70	70.2	8.5	11.6	66	78.4	3	5.9	16.2	28.7
4/6/2019 - 27/6/2019	23	14/05/2019	05/06/2019	80	73.7	8.8	16.9	48.6	90	3.1	5.9	43.7	57.9
		04/07/2019											
7/8/2019 - 27/8/2019	20				100.9	15.4	20.7	44	70.3	3.2	6	2.5	19.3
2/9/2019 - 2/10/2019	30	05/09/2019	11/09/2019	40	79.3	13.7	17.8	42.9	85.1	3.2	5.9	20.4	47.5
10/10/2019 - 3/12/2019	54				247.3	8.1	12	49.7	54.1				
Total / Average	202			230	693.4	9.7	14.1	54.8	70.7	3.1	5.9	16.6	27.2

140

141

142 **Table 2:** Eddy covariance (EC) and static chamber (CH) N₂O fluxes were partitioned into six
 143 different methods to calculate summary N₂O flux statics to investigate spatial and temporal
 144 differences in measurements from both techniques.

Abbreviation	Method
EC _{All}	All EC measurements over the comparison period
EC _{CH}	EC measurements during the time of chamber measurements
CH _{All}	All CH flux measurements averaged using the arithmetic mean
CH _{Bayes}	All CH flux measurements averaged using the Bayesian mean
CH _{FP}	Daily averaged CH flux measurements within the footprint of the EC tower using the arithmetic mean
CH _{Bayes-FP}	Daily averaged CH flux measurements within the footprint of the EC tower using the Bayesian mean

145

146 2.2 Static chamber measurements

147 N₂O fluxes were measured using the closed CH method, as outlined in de Klein *et al.* Thirty
 148 square stainless-steel collars (40 cm wide, 15 cm height) were installed in September
 149 2018 across the field site to a depth of 5-10 cm depth following a sector randomization
 150 design (Chadwick *et al.* 2014). The CH lids were 10 cm high which created a headspace of
 151 approximately 20-22 L. CHs were closed during tractor spreading of CAN fertilizer,
 152 opened immediately afterwards and subsamples of CAN fertilizer were applied at the
 153 same rate homogeneously by hand within the chamber area. N₂O fluxes were measured
 154 between 10:00h and 14:00h (GMT) to best reflect daily average N₂O emissions (de Klein
 155 *et al.* 2015). Background N₂O fluxes were measured once a week. Following CAN fertilizer
 156 applications, the measurement frequency increased to 4 measurements per week (for the
 157 first 2 weeks) and 2 times per week (for the following 2 weeks) before returning to the
 158 background (weekly) measurement frequency.

159 Gas samples were taken from the CH headspace over a 40-minute period at 20 minute
 160 intervals (T₀, T₂₀ and T₄₀). Headspace gas measurements were extracted through a rubber

161 septum (Becton Dickinson, Oxford, UK) using a 10ml polypropylene syringe (BD
162 Plastiplak, Becton Dickinson) fitted with a hypodermic needle (BD, Microlance 3; Becton
163 Dickinson). Gas samples were injected into a pre-evacuated (to -1,000 mbar) 7ml screw-
164 cap septum glass vials (Labco, High Wycombe, UK). N₂O concentrations were analysed
165 using gas chromatography (GC) with a detection limit of 0.05 ppm (Scion 456-GC, Kirkton
166 Campus Livingston, UK), equipped with an electron capture detector with high purity
167 helium as a carrier gas. Hourly fluxes in $\mu\text{g N}_2\text{O m}^{-2} \text{ hr}^{-1}$ were calculated by linear
168 regression of changes in N₂O concentration within the chamber headspace between T₀ to
169 T₄₀ (Krol *et al.* 2017) Eq. (3)

$$170 F_{chamber} = \left(\frac{\Delta C}{\Delta T}\right) \times \left(\frac{M \times P}{R \times T}\right) \times \left(\frac{V}{A}\right)$$

171 Where ΔC is the change in headspace concentration of N₂O during the enclosure period
172 in ppbv, ΔT is the enclosure period in hours, M is the molecular weight of N₂O (44.01 g
173 mol⁻¹), P and T are the atmospheric pressure and temperature at the time of gas sampling,
174 respectively, R is the ideal gas law constant (8.314 J K⁻¹ mol⁻¹), V is the headspace volume
175 in a closed chamber (m³) and A is the area covered by the collar of the gas chamber (m²).
176 Linearity of N₂O accumulation within the chamber headspace was determined by
177 assessing the coefficient of determination (R²); where the R²<0.7 flux measurements
178 were removed from the dataset. In addition to this, CO₂ concentrations were measured
179 adjacent to N₂O by GC, and where CO₂ concentrations showed deviations from a linear
180 accumulation within the chamber headspace (i.e. a transition from plant respiration to
181 photosynthesis), it was assumed there was a leak within the chamber and N₂O flux
182 measurements were removed from the dataset.

183 2.3 Soil measurements

184 Soil temperature ($^{\circ}\text{C}$), electrical conductivity (mS m^{-1}) and volumetric water content
185 (VWC %) measurements (WET sensor, Delta-T Devices Ltd, Burwell, UK) were taken at
186 the same time as the CH flux measurements at 6.5 cm depth and 50cm from the CH
187 location. Topsoil cores were taken a meter away from CH locations 48 hours before and
188 24 hours after each fertilization event, using a 10 cm depth and 1.7 cm diameter soil corer.
189 Data derived from soil core analysis were used to characterize the key soil characteristics
190 across the field site over the annual sampling campaign (Table 1). Soil cores were kept
191 undisturbed and refrigerated at 4°C until thoroughly mixed and wet sieved (4 mm).
192 Composite subsamples were immediately taken to determine mineral N contents (NH_4^+
193 and NO_3^-), using 2M KCL as extractant (1:5 ratio), 1-h agitation and filtration (Whatman
194 No. 2) following recommendations from Jones and Willet (2006). Extracts were analysed
195 using an Aquakem 600 discrete analyser (Thermo Electron OY, Vantaa, Finland) for NH_4^+ -
196 N (Standing Committee of Analysts, 1981) and NO_3^- -N (Askew, 2012). The remainder of
197 the mineral N soil subsample was oven dried at 105°C over 24 hours to determine soil
198 moisture content. The rest of the composited sample was air-dried and analysed for pH
199 (Gilson 215 Liquid Handler, Middleton, USA) and soil organic carbon (SOC) contents
200 (infrared CN analyser after ball-milling; LECO TruSpec, USA). Sharpened cylindrical rings
201 ($n = 30$; 10cm depth; 3.7 cm diameter) were used to sample the soil bulk density (BD,
202 debris $> 2\text{mm}$ not considered) of surface topsoil across the field site prior to commencing
203 the experiment and subsequently, the water-filled pore space (WFPS) by dividing the
204 VWC by the total porosity of the BD sample (Linn and Doran, 1984).

205 *2.4 Micrometeorological measurements*

206 An EC mast was installed with a 3-D sonic anemometer (CSAT-3, Campbell Scientific
207 Ancillary, Logan, UT, USA) mounted at 2.2m to measure fluctuations in the 3-D wind

208 components at a frequency of 10 Hz. A 10 m long, 10 mm inner diameter perfluoroalkoxy
209 (PFA) tube was attached and placed 30 cm apart from the sonic anemometer in the same
210 horizontal axis. To minimize debris and pollution obstructing the PFA tubing, a 2 mm
211 fabric mesh was fitted approximately 2cm out from the tip of the inlet tubing. The air inlet
212 extended to a temperature controlled trailer (161 cm x 98 cm x 127 cm) where it was
213 connected to a quantum cascade laser (QCL) absorption spectrometer (LGR 23R N₂O/CO
214 analyser, Los Gatos Research, California, USA) for measuring N₂O fluxes at 10 Hz with a
215 detection limit of 0.03 ppb over a 30 minute period. The inlet tube was fitted with two in-
216 line 2 µm filters (SS-4FW4-2, Swagelok™) and the filter threads were wrapped in
217 polytetrafluoroethylene (PTFE) tape to minimize air leaks. Additional 2 µm and 10 µm
218 (Los Gatos Research, California, USA) filters were fitted within the QCL at the entrance of
219 the inlet tubing and upstream of the internal pump, respectively. A 2.4 m long and 2.5 cm
220 wide PDTE clear suction hose with steel spiral wired rings (Tec Industry, Dublin, Ireland)
221 connected the QCL to a dry scroll vacuum pump (XDS35i, Edwards, West Sussex, UK)
222 which was used to draw air into the inlet and cell of the QCL with an approximate flow
223 rate of 30 -35 standard L min⁻¹. The cell pressure was set at 85 torr and the replacement
224 rate of air within the cell was 0.097 s⁻¹.

225 Ancillary sensors at the EC site included an air temperature and relative humidity probe
226 (HMP155C, Campbell Scientific, Logan, UT, USA), two net radiation sensors (NR-Lite, Kipp
227 and Zonen, Delft, The Netherlands), two self-calibrating soil heat flux plates installed at 5
228 cm soil depth (HFP01SC, Hukseflux, Delft, The Netherlands), photosynthetic active
229 radiation (PAR) (PQS1, Kipp and Zonen, Delft, The Netherlands) and averaging soil
230 temperature probes (TCAV-L, Campbell Scientific, Logan, UT, USA) installed at 2 cm and
231 6 cm depth above the soil heat flux plates. Time domain reflectometers (CS616, Campbell
232 Scientific, Logan, UT, USA) measured soil VWC in the upper 15 cm of soil. Data from the

233 EC system was stored and collected from the CR3000 micrologger (Campbell Scientific,
234 Logan, UT, USA).

235 *2.5 Post-processing eddy covariance flux data*

236 Ecosystem scale N₂O fluxes were continuously measured over a 365-day period in 2019
237 with the exception of short equipment maintenance intervals that accounted for 45 days.
238 Raw EC data at 10 Hz was processed using the Eddypro software, version 7.0.4
239 (www.licor.com/eddypro). EC N₂O fluxes ($\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$) were calculated as the
240 covariance between the vertical wind speed (w) and the N₂O concentration (ρc) Eqn. (4)
241 (Burba, 2013). To compare EC N₂O fluxes to CH N₂O fluxes, units were converted from
242 $\mu\text{mol N}_2\text{O m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ to $\mu\text{g N}_2\text{O-N m}^{-2} \text{hr}^{-1}$.

$$243 F_{EC} = \overline{w' \rho c'}$$

244 Raw data was screened and statistically evaluated according to Vickers and Mahrt
245 (1997) for drop-outs, amplitude resolution, absolute limits, skewness and kurtosis tests
246 for de-spiking tests. Double rotation was performed to compensate for the anemometer
247 tilt by nullifying the average cross-stream and vertical wind components (Kaimal and
248 Finnegan, 1994). Block averaging was used to calculate turbulent fluctuations. The time
249 lag for N₂O was estimated using the covariance maximization procedure in two steps.
250 First, the maximization of covariance of data over six hour chunks of sequential data was
251 determined over a large window of 10 seconds. Second, once a steady time lag was
252 identified throughout the measurement period, a second covariance of maximization of
253 the same six hour data chunk was re-run over a narrower window of 0.3 seconds, using
254 the median running timelag over a 7 day period as the mid-point. Finally, the mixing ratio
255 data was re-paired with the wind data at a fixed timelag of 0.5 seconds based on the
256 previous maximisation of covariance, and eddy pro was run with a fixed timelag, with

257 fluxes calculated over a 30 minute period. Spectral attenuation effects following analytic
258 methods described in Fratini *et al.* (2012) and Moncrieff *et al.* (2004) determined low and
259 high-pass spectral correction factors for the data, respectively. A 5-step quality control
260 protocol was applied for filtering bad quality N₂O fluxes. Flux data was removed from the
261 data set if (1) less than 70% of the flux contribution came from inside of the boundaries
262 of the field site, as determined by the analytical footprint model described by Kormann
263 and Mexiner, (2001), (2) if flux quality control flags by Foken (2003) were category 6 or
264 above; (3) where low turbulent conditions were present, defined as the friction velocity
265 (u^*) < 0.1 m⁻¹ s⁻¹ (Lognoul *et al.* 2019); (4) where the flux random uncertainty integrated
266 over a fixed 10s correlation period was > 0.001 μmol N₂O m⁻² s⁻¹ as estimated by the
267 method of Finkelstein and Sims (2001); and (5) where flux values were < -0.1 μmol N₂O
268 m⁻² s⁻¹ as such values were deemed unrealistic for this field site and similarly managed
269 grasslands (Wecking *et al.* 2020) . After filtering, 46% of measured fluxes passed the
270 quality control procedure. N₂O flux measurements were partitioned into two dataset (1)
271 fertilizer events, defined as the first 30 days following fertilizer application, and (2)
272 background, defined as 30 days outside of a fertilizer event. Each dataset was gap-filled
273 separately using a simple multivariate process based model that included: (1) rolling
274 averages of T_{air}, T_{soil}, WFPS and rolling sums of rainfall over 6 hr⁻¹, 12 hr⁻¹, 24 hr⁻¹, 48
275 hr⁻¹, 100 hr⁻¹ periods (Mishurov and Kiely, 2011) where data correlated significantly with
276 log(N₂O-N flux) as determined from a subsets regression model performed in R studio
277 (RStudio Team, 2020); (2) days since fertilizer application; and (3) the previous and next
278 measured flux in the dataset. The gap-filled fertilizer events and background datasets
279 were merged, creating a gap-filled EC N₂O flux data set for the experimental year.

280 2.6 Data analysis

281 The coefficient of variation (CV) was used to describe the variability of N₂O fluxes over
282 each comparison period for each subset of EC and CH data Eq (5):

$$283 \quad CV = \left(\frac{\sigma}{\mu} \right) * 100$$

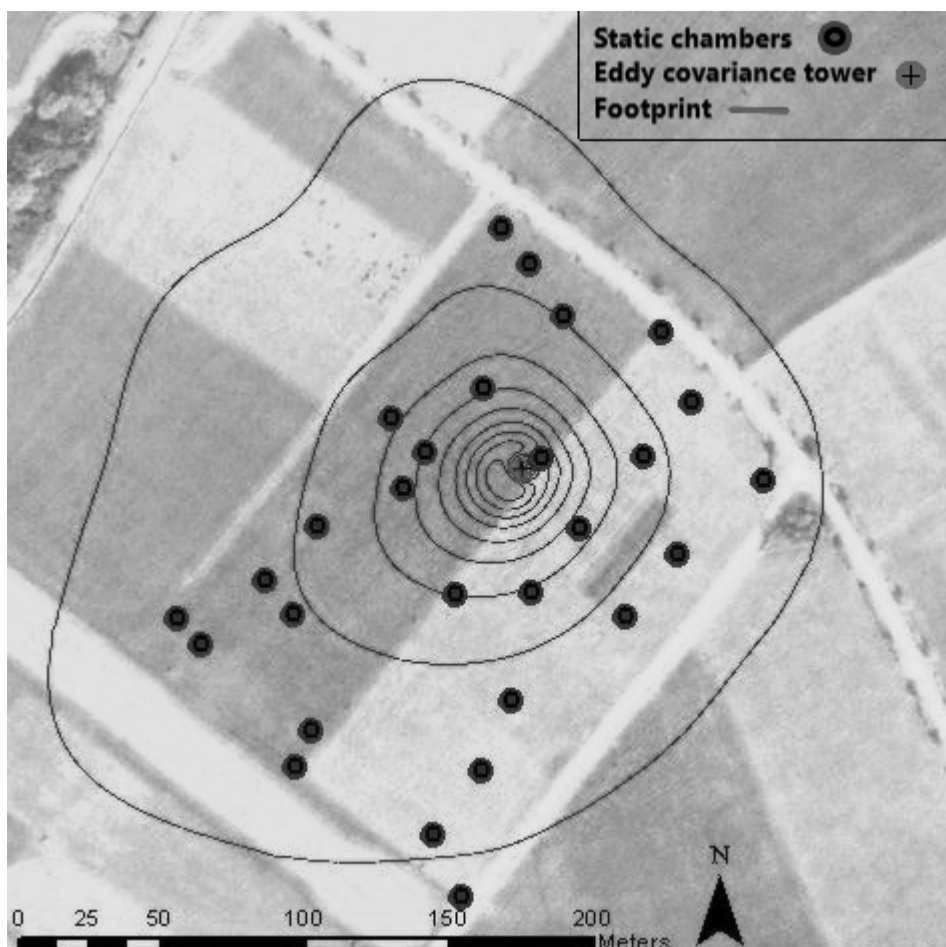
284 where σ is the standard deviation and μ is the arithmetic mean, expressed in percentage.
285 An overlay analysis was performed on ArcMap (ESRI, 2011) to identify which CH
286 measurements were within the footprint of the EC. Using a hand-held GPS device
287 (GPSMAP 64, Garmin, Shaffhausen, Switzerland), GPS coordinates of CH locations within
288 the field site were measured and overlaid on images of the EC footprint (Kljun *et al.* 2015)
289 during the time of CH measurements (Fig. 2). Comparisons between EC and CH flux
290 measurements were made using orthogonal regression in order to avoid biases between
291 methodologies (Jones *et al.* 2011). CH hourly fluxes were assumed to be representative
292 of daily emissions and were used to calculate the daily mean N₂O flux. In order to
293 approximate the total N₂O produced from CAN, cumulative fluxes by CH and EC were
294 calculated by linear interpolation between daily mean fluxes. Cumulative fluxes were
295 used to derive emission factors (EFs) from CAN Eq. (6). EFs represent the % of N₂O-N
296 emitted from CAN applied.

$$297 \quad EF = \left(\frac{[N_{2O} \text{ CAN} - N_{2O} \text{ Control}]}{N \text{ applied}} \right) * 100$$

298 Where N₂O_{CAN} is the cumulative N₂O emissions (kg N₂O-N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹) from CAN, N₂O_{Control}
299 is the cumulative N₂O emission (kg N₂O-N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹) from a control (in this study, defined
300 as 0), N applied is the rate of CAN applied (kg N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹). In order to compare field scale
301 CH flux measurements with ecosystem scale EC flux measurements, daily mean CH
302 measurements were upscaled using a Bayesian approach (Wild *et al.* 1996). Markov
303 Chain Monte-Carlo (MCMC) simulations were performed using Gibbs sampling to

304 estimate the posterior distribution of μ by combining the prior data with this study's data.
305 MCMC simulations were run on the freely-available JAGS software (Plummer, 2015). The
306 prior dataset selected for this study was from Cowan *et al.* (2017) as log-normal
307 distributions from both datasets overlapped well. The posterior distribution is primarily
308 influenced by the data, except where the data does not possess a log-normal distribution
309 and therefore cannot constrict the fit of μ_{\log} and σ_{\log} variables. The prior prevents the
310 range of μ from expanding into unrealistic ranges by reducing the influence high, outlier
311 values have on μ . The Bayesian method was used to estimate μ and the 95% confidence
312 intervals of the posterior distribution from CH measurements (see Table.3).

313



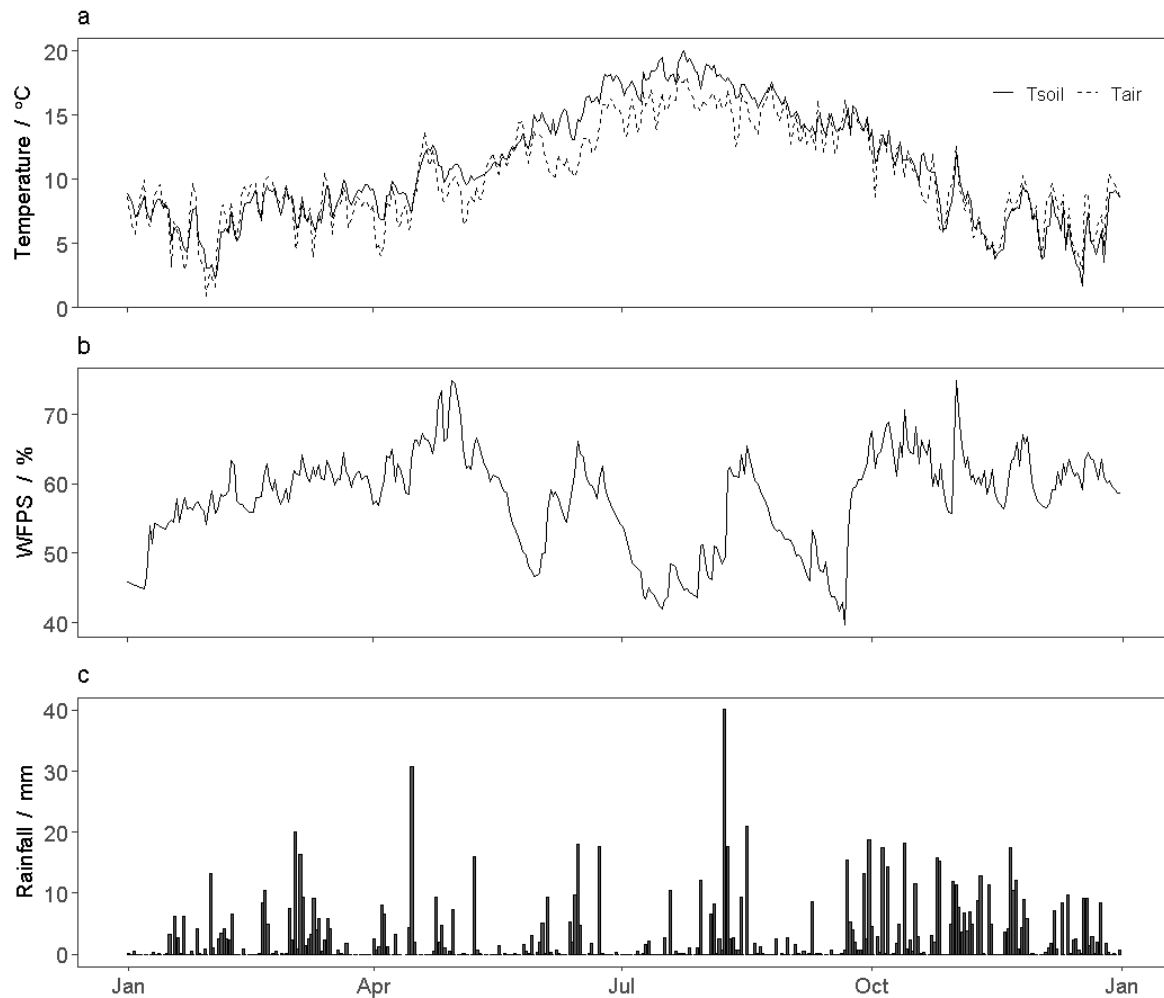
314

315 **Figure 2:** Static chamber (CH) locations within the eddy covariance (EC) footprint for 2019 (Kljun
316 *et al.* 2015) where black circles with rings represent CH, the grey circle with a cross is the EC
317 tower and grey contour lines represent the footprint of the EC where the outer to inner contour
318 line represents 90 % – 10 % of the footprint, respectively

319 **3: RESULTS**

320 *3.1 Meteorological data*

321 Meteorological data measured at the EC station can be seen in Fig. 3. Mean daily air
322 temperature ranged from 0.9°C in January to 18.2°C in July, with an annual mean
323 temperature of 10.3°C (Fig. 3a). Soil temperature at 6cm depth was greatest in July and
324 lowest in December with values of 20.0°C and 1.7°C, respectively. WFPS measured in the
325 upper 15 cm of the soil, peaked in November at 74.9% and was lowest in September at
326 39.6% (Fig. 3b). Prolonged dry periods (greater than 14 consecutive days at <50% WFPS)
327 were observed in July and September. The total annual rainfall for the experimental
328 period was 958.4 mm (Fig. 3c), with heavy rainfall events of 40.1 mm and 30.7 mm
329 occurring in August and April, respectively.



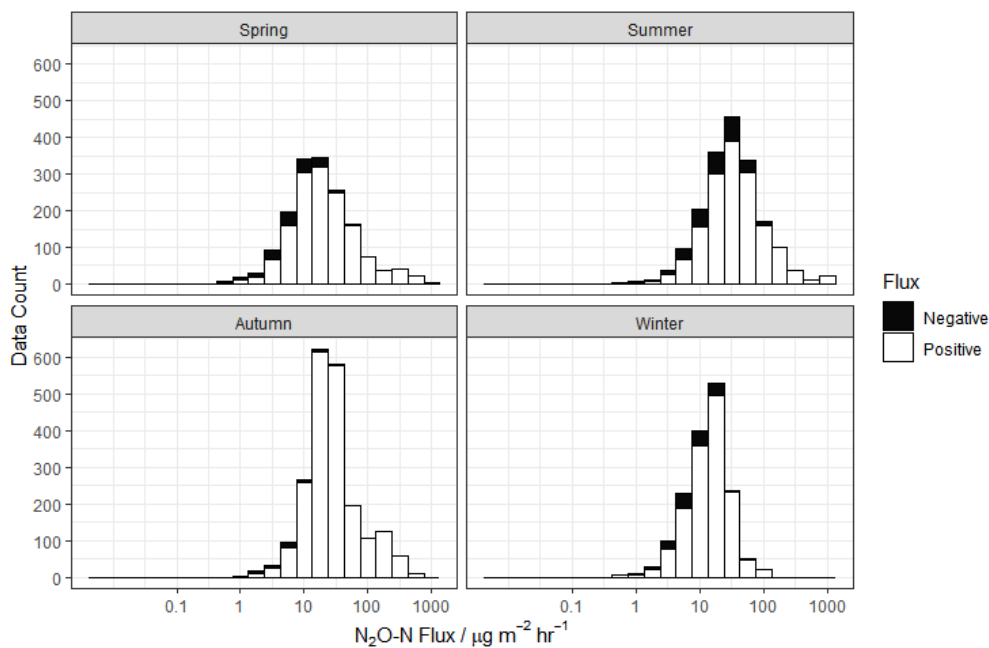
330

331 **Figure 3:** Meteorological data measured at the field site from January 2019 to December 2019
 332 where panels (a), (b) and (c) show mean daily, soil temperature (°C) (Tsoil) (solid line) , and air
 333 temperature (°C) (Tair) (dashed line), water-filled pore space (WFPS %), and rainfall (mm)
 334 respectively.

335 *3.2 Observed fluxes of N₂O using chamber and eddy covariance methods*

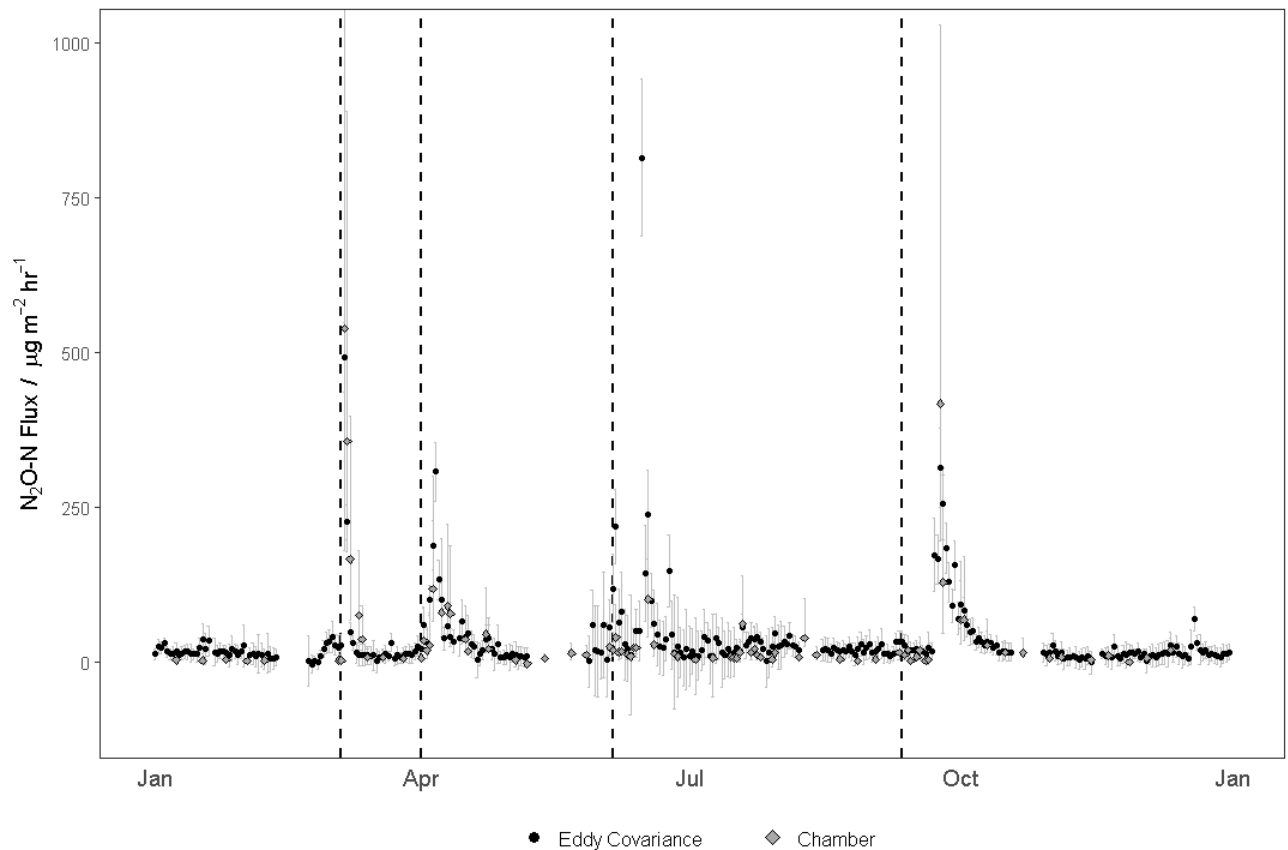
336 All N₂O-N fluxes measured by both CH and EC exhibited a log-normal distribution
 337 throughout the year (Fig. 4). Measured N₂O-N emissions from both techniques increased
 338 exponentially in the days immediately following fertilizer application (Fig. 5). Fluxes
 339 returned to background magnitude (defined as 48 N₂O-N μg m⁻² hr⁻¹ which represents the
 340 85% quantile for flux measurements made 30 days post fertilizer application) between 4

341 and 29 days. The maximum mean daily N₂O-N fluxes observed were 814.76 μg N₂O-N m⁻² hr⁻¹ using EC technique and occurred 18 days post- summer fertilizer application and
 342 ² hr⁻¹ using EC technique and occurred 18 days post- summer fertilizer application and
 343 was preceded by a heavy rainfall event (17.6 mm). Maximum mean daily N₂O-N fluxes
 344 measured by CH were observed in spring at 538.89 μg N₂O-N m⁻² hr⁻¹, also coinciding
 345 with a heavy rainfall event (20.9 mm). Delayed peaks in N₂O-N emissions were also
 346 measured during autumn, with peak emissions of 417.14 μg N₂O-N m⁻² hr⁻¹ (CH) and
 347 313.22 μg N₂O-N m⁻² hr⁻¹ (EC) occurring 31 days post application, during which the WFPS
 348 increased from 48.77% to 63.85% (Fig. 3b). Minimum daily averaged N₂O flux
 349 measurements represented a zero flux from the system and were observed in winter at -
 350 0.14 μg N₂O-N m⁻² hr⁻¹ and -0.40 μg N₂O-N m⁻² hr⁻¹ for EC and CH techniques, respectively.



351

352 **Figure 4:** Frequency distribution of collective N₂O fluxes measured from both chambers and eddy
 353 covariance in 2019 for each season where spring fluxes were measured in February, March and
 354 April, summer fluxes were measured in May, June and July, autumn fluxes were measured in
 355 August, September and October and winter fluxes were measured in November, December and
 356 January. N₂O fluxes are shown on a log-transformed axis but real values on the axis. Negative
 357 fluxes are shown on a positive scale but coloured black.



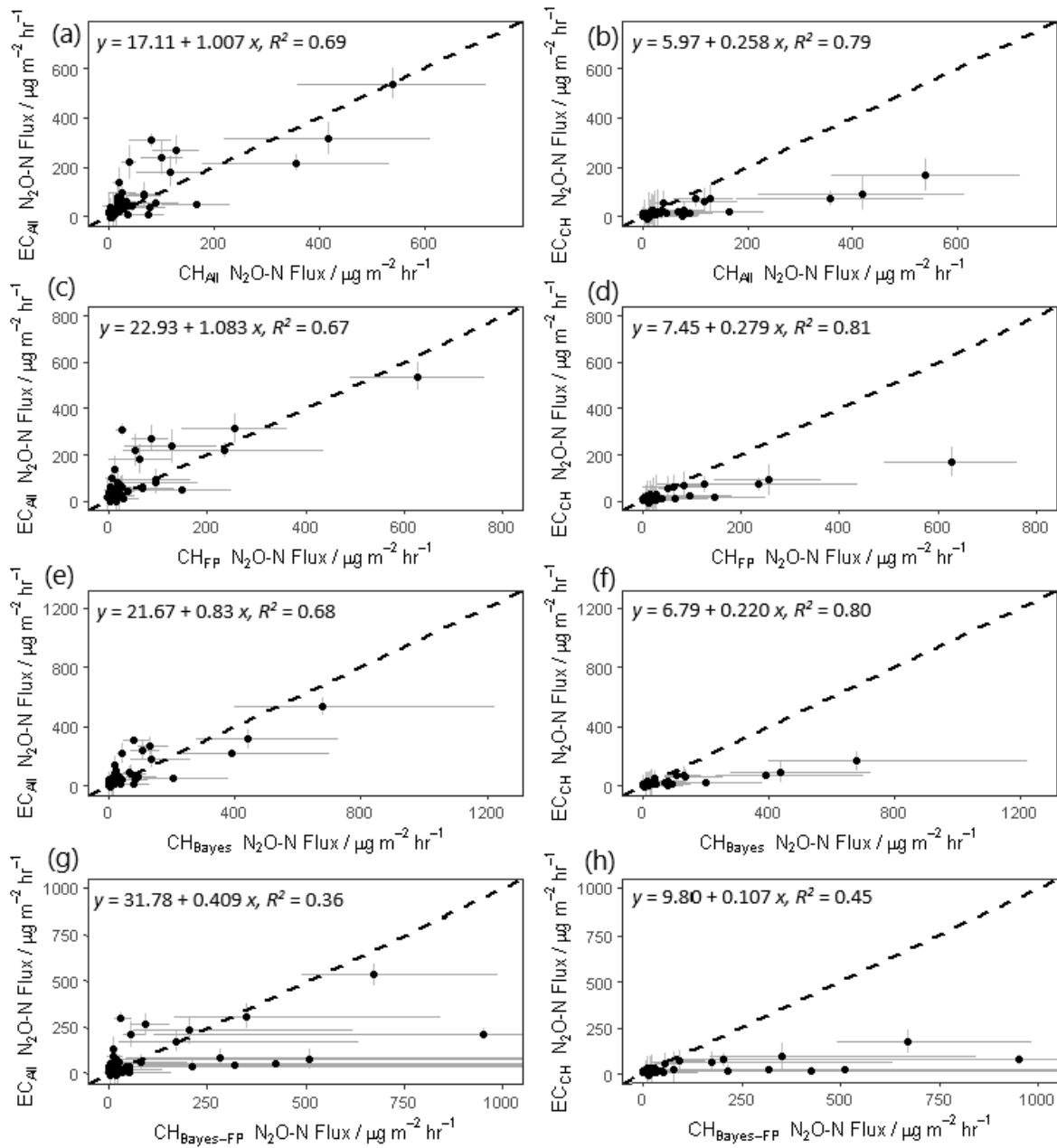
358

359 **Figure 5:** 2019 N₂O-N fluxes where black circles represent mean daily eddy covariance flux
 360 measurements, grey diamonds represent mean daily chamber flux measurements, grey lines
 361 represent the 95% confidence interval of flux measurements, and broken lines mark the date of
 362 fertilizer application.

363 3.3 Comparison of chamber and eddy covariance fluxes

364 Linear comparisons between subsets of daily averaged EC and CH (see Table 1) N₂O flux
 365 measurements from the comparison periods (see Table 2 for dates) are shown in Fig. 6.
 366 Summary statistics on flux measurements for each subset for each comparison period are
 367 shown in Table 3. Over the individual comparison periods, CH measurements were within
 368 the range of EC measurements. The most robust relationship between CH and EC
 369 measurements was for EC_{CH} and CH_{FP} ($R^2 = 0.81$) (Fig. 6d), where both methods were
 370 measuring N₂O fluxes over the same space and time, EC_{CH} and CH_{All} ($R^2 = 0.79$) (Fig. 6b)

371 and EC_{CH} and CH_{Bayes} ($R^2 = 0.80$) (Fig. 6f) where EC measurements made during the time
372 of CH measurements are in close agreement with CH measurements where the sample
373 size was large ($n \approx 30$) and the log-normal distribution of the sample size was accounted
374 for. This suggests that temporal alignment between techniques was more important than
375 spatial alignment for comparable flux measurements. The weakest relationships involved
376 smaller subsets of CH data calculated by the Bayesian method (EC_{All} vs $CH_{Bayes-FP}$ $R^2 = 0.45$
377 [Fig. 6g]; EC_{CH} vs $CH_{Bayes-FP}$ $R^2 = 0.36$ [Fig. 6h]). Agreement between subsets of CH and EC
378 fluxes, was primarily driven by a few high flux measurements following fertilizer
379 applications, which made up only a small portion of the dataset (15%). For smaller
380 subsets for daily averaged CH measurements inside the footprint of the EC tower, the
381 Bayesian method produced asymmetrical error bars. Where flux values were greater
382 than $115 \mu\text{g N}_2\text{O-N m}^{-2} \text{hr}^{-1}$, error bars were often several orders of magnitude larger than
383 the estimated flux, due to the inability to constrain an arithmetic mean from a log-
384 normally distributed data set with a low number of measurement points. In general,
385 variability in $\text{N}_2\text{O-N}$ flux measurements (CV %) was greater for $\text{N}_2\text{O-N}$ fluxes measured
386 by CH compared to EC over the comparison periods (Table 3).



387

388 **Figure 6:** Comparison plots for (a) all half-hourly eddy covariance (EC) N₂O-N fluxes (EC_{All}) and
 389 all daily averaged chamber (CH_{All}) N₂O-N fluxes and (b) EC measurements during the time of
 390 chamber measurements (EC_{CH}) and CH_{All}, (c) EC_{All} and daily averaged chamber flux measurements
 391 within the footprint of the EC tower (CH_{FP}), (d) EC_{CH} and CH_{FP}, (e) EC_{All} and all chamber flux
 392 measurements daily averaged using the Bayesian mean (CH_{Bayes}), (f) EC_{CH} and CH_{Bayes}, (g) EC_{All} and
 393 daily averaged chamber flux measurements within the footprint of the EC tower using the
 394 Bayesian mean (CH_{Bayes-PP}) and (h) EC_{T.ch} and CH_{Bayes-PP}. Black bars represent the 95% confidence

395 interval error of half-hourly EC N₂O-N flux measurements, grey bars represent the 95%
 396 confidence interval error of daily averaged chamber N₂O-N flux, and the broken grey line
 397 represents the 1:1 ratio. Ranges on the error bars have been curtailed for showing clearer
 398 comparisons between both techniques. See Table A.1 and Table A.2 in the Appendix for full values.

399 **Table 3:** Summary statistics of N₂O flux measurements from chambers (CH) and eddy covariance
 400 (EC) for seven comparison periods. No. of samples represents the number flux measurements
 401 made during the measurement period. Methods used for calculating N₂O fluxes for each
 402 comparison period included all daily averaged chambers flux measurement (CH_{All}) and daily
 403 averaged chamber flux measurements from chambers that were located within the EC footprint
 404 (CH_{FP}), calculated using both arithmetic and Bayesian methods, all half-hourly EC flux
 405 measurements (EC_{All}) and half-hourly EC flux measurements that were made during the time of
 406 chamber measurements (EC_{CH}). The Coefficient of Variation (CV%) is averaged over all flux
 407 measurements (either daily arithmetic averages or half-hourly flux measurements).

Comparison period	#	Method	N no. of samples	N ₂ O-N flux $\mu\text{g m}^{-2} \text{hr}^{-1}$						
				Arithmetic			Bayesian			
				95% C.I.		mean	95% C.I.		mean	CV%
			min	max	mean	min	max	mean	CV%	
8/1/2019-7/2/2019	1	CH _{All}	105	1.77	2.58	2.18	1.77	2.60	2.18	97.57
		CH _{FP}	43	1.62	2.69	2.15	1.61	2.72	2.16	82.54
		EC _{All}	94	59.89	62.01	13.89				118.25
		EC _{CH}	12	1.72	46.48	15.74				74.29
4/3/2019-26/3/2019	2	CH _{All}	295	79.04	139.71	109.38	67.67	100.60	82.77	243.02
		CH _{FP}	87	56.94	147.98	102.46	54.82	120.56	82.03	211.41
		EC _{All}	367	20.07	1088.96	96.29				202.40
		EC _{CH}	31	1.08	640.27	97.25				191.77
1/4/2019-24/4/2019	3	CH _{All}	353	35.05	43.91	52.77	33.19	44.32	38.46	160.96
		CH _{FP}	59	12.49	23.37	34.24	15.21	30.14	22.04	125.63
		EC _{All}	341	34.48	345.85	86.17				99.25
		EC _{CH}	39	15.53	304.51	70.82				76.86
4/6/2019-27/6/2019	4	CH _{All}	390	20.83	29.39	25.11	21.03	25.81	23.34	171.60
		CH _{FP}	94	22.56	48.47	35.51	26.30	39.49	32.36	180.28
		EC _{All}	321	81.07	418.44	104.15				92.43
		EC _{CH}	43	58.38	329.71	80.72				109.07
7/8/2019-27/8/2019	5	CH _{All}	150	6.71	11.56	16.41	8.14	13.04	10.50	184.70
		CH _{FP}	39	6.12	9.63	13.14	6.43	13.48	9.73	90.06
		EC _{All}	99	12.10	51.02	18.11				53.36
		EC _{CH}	14	12.10	35.69	18.09				79.29
2/9/2019-2/10/2019	6	CH _{All}	388	38.24	55.89	73.54	35.65	48.07	41.48	241.23
		CH _{FP}	123	29.90	46.13	62.35	31.18	51.53	40.46	147.25
		EC _{All}	339	29.85	539.44	102.59				126.31
		EC _{CH}	58	2.68	403.32	79.56				139.07
10/10/2019-3/12/2019	7	CH _{All}	299	8.36	10.79	13.22	8.63	12.02	10.29	162.31
		CH _{FP}	69	9.42	14.57	19.72	10.25	19.46	14.53	110.61
		EC _{All}	283	46.48	61.30	17.17				90.33
		EC _{CH}	34	46.48	41.44	15.29				129.07

409 *3.4 N₂O fluxes and environmental variables*

410 Diurnal patterns in N₂O emissions were not observed suggesting that changes in
411 temperature between day and night and potential root exudation of carbon during
412 photosynthesis (and therefore changes in soil carbon availability), did not have a
413 significant control on N₂O production. Mean daily log(N₂O-N) emissions showed the
414 greatest variability within a temperature range of 7°C and 15°C, across WFPS values of
415 55% to 65% and with increasing cumulative rainfall. Rolling averaged data presented in
416 Table 5 best explained the variability in log(N₂O-N) fluxes from the respective
417 environmental factor, as determined by a subset regression model. The full output of this
418 model can be seen in Table A.3. Correlations with background log(N₂O-N) fluxes (30 days
419 outside of fertilizer events) and WFPS, rainfall, air and soil temperature were weak but
420 improved in the 30 days following fertilizer application. Environmental variables in Table
421 5 were significantly correlated ($p < 0.05$) with log(N₂O-N) flux measurements.

422 **Table 5:** Variance in log(N₂O-N) fluxes explained by a subset regression model on water-filled
423 pore space (WFPS%), rainfall (mm) air temperature (T_{air} °C) and soil temperature (T_{soil} °C)
424 over rolling averages of 48hrs⁻¹ and 100 hrs⁻¹ periods in the 30 days following fertilizer
425 application (Fertilizer) and in the 30 days outside of fertilizer applications (Background).

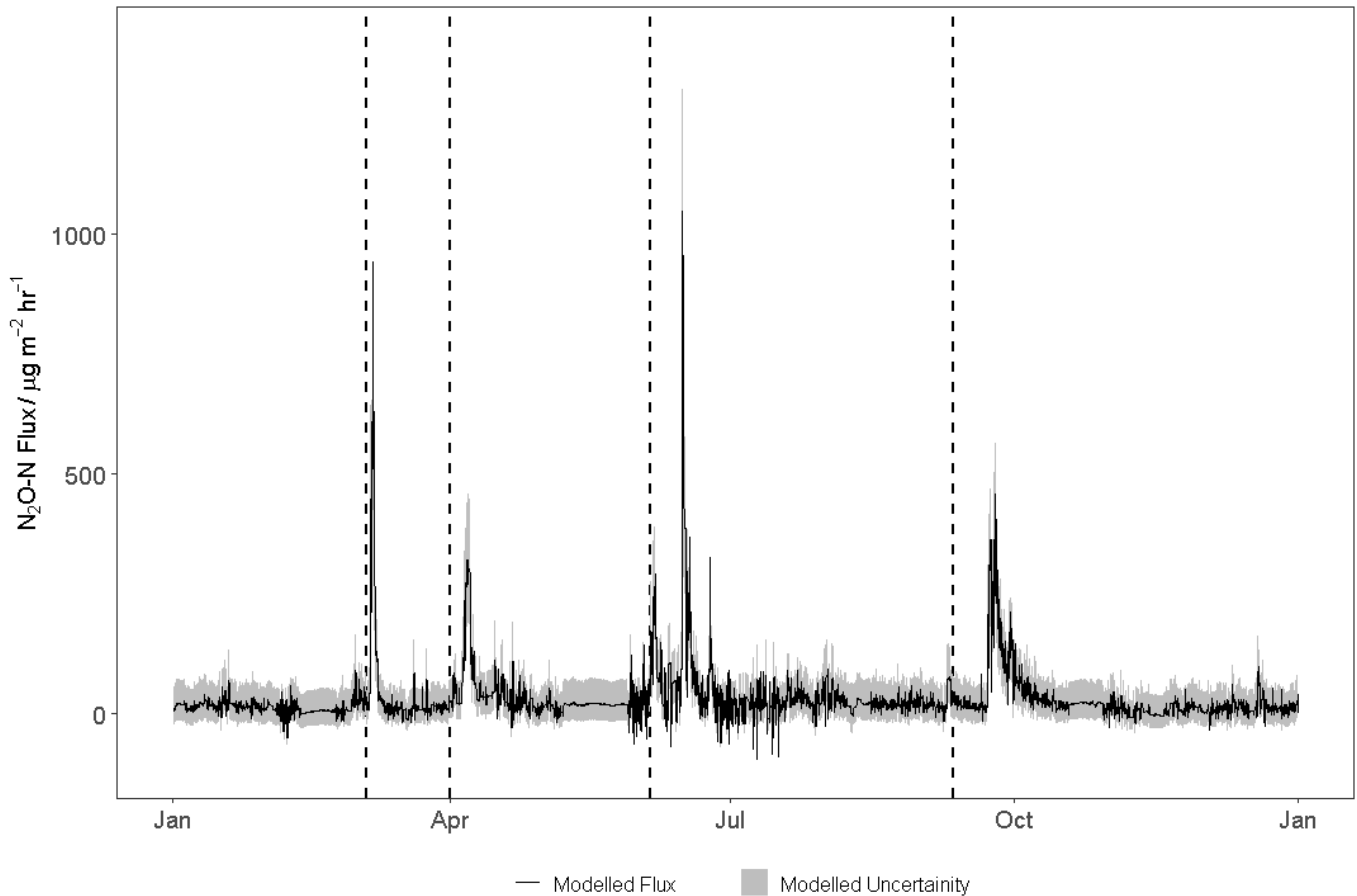
Variable	Treatment	R ²
WFPS 48 hr ⁻¹	Fertilizer	0.50
Rainfall 100 hr ⁻¹	Fertilizer	0.50
T _{soil} 100 hr ⁻¹	Fertilizer	0.48
T _{air} 100 hr ⁻¹	Fertilizer	0.43
WFPS 100 hr ⁻¹	Background	0.31
Rainfall 48 hr ⁻¹	Background	0.31
T _{soil} 48 hr ⁻¹	Background	0.31
T _{air} 100 hr ⁻¹	Background	0.27

426

427 *3.5 Modelled eddy covariance N₂O emissions*

428 A linear multivariate regression model consisting of (1) WFPS, rainfall, air and soil
429 temperature over 6 hr⁻¹, 12 hr⁻¹, 24 hr⁻¹, 48 hr⁻¹ and 100 hr⁻¹ periods (Table. A.3); (2) time
430 since fertilizer application; and (3) the previous and next available measured flux value
431 between the gap in the dataset, was used to gap-fill EC flux measurements, and calculate
432 the associated uncertainty. Where correlation between environmental variables and
433 fluxes were found to be significant ($p < 0.05$), these were included in the gap-filling model
434 (see Table A.4 for a summary of the model output). Modelled and measured flux values
435 showed a strong correlation ($R^2 = 0.92$) (Fig. A.1). The upper and lower uncertainty
436 surrounding modelled N₂O-N flux values was expressed as the 2.5% and 97.5%
437 confidence intervals (Fig. 7). Uncertainty was greatest for high N₂O flux values
438 (particularly around fertilizer events) compared to flux measurements outside of
439 fertilizer events.

440



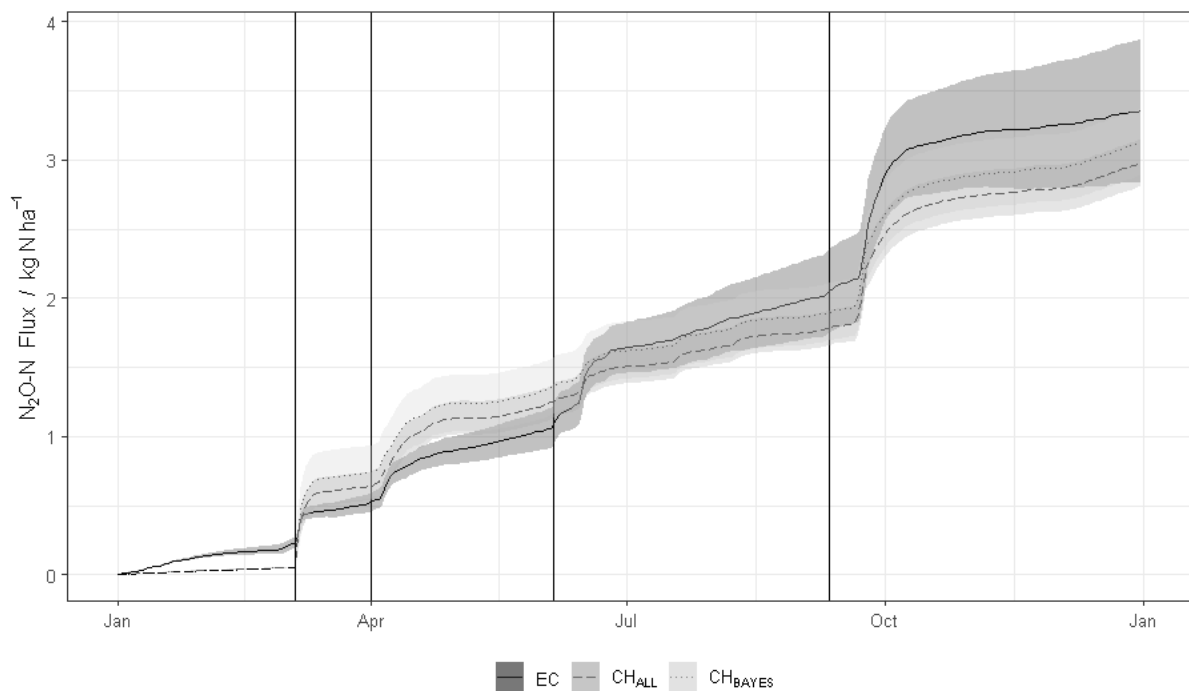
441

442 **Figure 7:** Linearly modelled half-hourly N₂O-N flux values (black line) and uncertainty (shaded
 443 areas), which represents the upper (97.5%) and lower (2.5%) limits of the modelled flux value.
 444 The dashed lines represent fertilizer applications (see Table 2 for dates).

445 3.6 Measured Cumulative fluxes

446 Cumulative N₂O fluxes were calculated for each subset of EC and CH data over each
 447 comparison period (see Table A.5 for a summary). Cumulative N₂O emissions measured
 448 by EC were greater than cumulative emissions measured by CH. Cumulative N₂O
 449 emissions for EC_{All}, CH_{All} and CH_{Bayes} were lowest in the winter (comparison #1) and
 450 greatest in the autumn (comparison #6). Cumulative emissions from CH_{Bayes-FP} were
 451 consistently higher than other CH methods due to the small sample size and high variance
 452 in the data. Modelled flux values were used to gap-fill measured EC flux values in order

453 to calculate cumulative emissions for the field site for 2019. Cumulative annual N₂O-N
 454 fluxes from January to December were 3.35(± 0.5) kg N ha⁻¹, 2.98 (± 0.17) kg N ha⁻¹ and
 455 3.13 (± 0.24) kg N ha⁻¹, which translated to EFs of 1.46%, 1.30% and 1.36% for EC, and
 456 CH fluxes by the arithmetic and Bayesian method, respectively (Fig. 8). Cumulative fluxes
 457 between CH (both arithmetic and Bayesian) and EC were quite similar overall, with both
 458 methods showing four distinct emission events following fertilizer applications. EC
 459 cumulative emissions were consistently lower than CH emissions from March to mid-
 460 June but following the June fertilizer application, higher cumulative flux values were
 461 observed by EC compared to CH for the duration of the year.



462

463 **Figure 8:** Cumulative daily averaged N₂O-N fluxes (black line) and uncertainty (shade)
 464 (expressed as the least squares) from January to December 2019 by eddy covariance (solid line)
 465 and chambers by the arithmetic (dashed line) and Bayesian method (dot-dashed line) and the
 466 solid vertical lines represent fertilizer applications.

467 **4. DISCUSSION**

468 *4.1 Drivers of N₂O fluxes observed*

469 The range of N₂O fluxes observed in this study from CH and EC methods are
470 comparable with those at other fertilized temperate grassland sites (e.g., Cowan *et al.*
471 2020 for EC, Rafique *et al.* 2011 for CH). N₂O emissions were greatest in the summer
472 and autumn following fertilizer application where extended dry periods (< 50%
473 WFPS) were followed by heavy rainfall events (≥ 17 mm) and which led to higher
474 WFPS values (> 60%). Similar temporal trends in N₂O emissions following fertilizer
475 application have been documented in cropland sites (Waldo *et al.* 2019), restored
476 grasslands (Merbold *et al.* 2020) and at various soil systems (Scherbak and
477 Robertson, 2019). While N₂O emission events often coincided with the climatic
478 conditions described above, peak emission events were driven by management. The
479 variability in N₂O emissions was better explained by WFPS, air and soil temperature
480 and rainfall following fertilizer application ($R^2 \leq 0.50$) compared to outside of
481 management ($R^2 \leq 0.31$). Similar drivers of variability in N₂O emissions were
482 identified in Krol *et al.* (2016) and Maire *et al.* (2020). N inputs from fertilizer in excess
483 of plant demands can result in N losses of up to 50% (Fageria and Baligar, 2005),
484 where residual N accumulates in soils. N-fertilizers create peak N₂O emission events
485 by creating hotspots of N₂O through the introduction of substrates for denitrification
486 (NH₄⁺ and NO₃⁻) into the soil, where by emissions of N₂O increase with greater soil
487 NO₃⁻ (Zanatta *et al.* 2010). Increases in soil NH₄⁺ and NO₃⁻ were observed following
488 fertilizer application (Table 1), with the highest mineral N content following the June
489 fertilizer application (43.7 kg ha⁻¹ NH₄⁺ and 57.9 kg ha⁻¹ NO₃⁻), which coincided with

490 the greatest emission event of the entire experimental period at $814.76 \mu\text{g N}_2\text{O-N m}^{-2} \text{ hr}^{-1}$.
491

492 *4.2 Comparison of chamber and eddy covariance flux measurements*

493 CH and EC flux measurements were most comparable when flux measurements were
494 high ($>115 \mu\text{g m}^{-2} \text{ hr}^{-1}$), the CH sample size was large for a given day ($n \geq 15$) (for both
495 the arithmetic and Bayesian approach) and when EC and CH measurements were
496 taken over the same area and time (i.e CH flux measurements made in the EC footprint
497 and EC flux measurements made during the time of CH measurements). This
498 agreement between EC and CH fluxes has been observed in previous studies
499 (Christensen *et al.* 1996; Jones *et al.* 2011; Laville *et al.* 1997). Using the arithmetic
500 mean when all CH measurements were considered ($n \approx 30$) was sufficient in
501 estimating the sample mean and comparable with daily mean EC flux values (EC_{CH} and
502 CH_{All} ($R^2 = 0.79$) (Fig. 6b)). This is because the arithmetic sample mean will not deviate
503 systemically from the population mean where the sample size is large and variance is
504 low. However, as a large sample size is required (which is not always the case in CH
505 flux studies - Hyde *et al.* 2016; Krol *et al.* 2017; Maire *et al.* 2020; Wecking *et al.* 2020),
506 the arithmetic mean is considered an unreliable estimator of the true flux mean within
507 a sample (Levy *et al.* 2017). Where the sample size is small and the variance is large
508 (as is typical of N_2O flux data), the arithmetic method will typically underestimate the
509 sample mean as infrequent, high flux values will often be absent from the sample.
510 Where high flux values are included in the sample, the arithmetic mean will typically
511 overestimate the sample mean. The Bayesian approach on the other hand, reduces
512 some of the bias in N_2O flux measurements by accounting explicitly for the log-normal
513 distribution and as a result providing realistic ranges of uncertainty within flux

514 measurements. Where the CH sample size was small on a given day ($n \leq 5$) (i.e. when
515 selecting CH flux measurements that are only in the EC footprint), the Bayesian
516 approach produced larger, more asymmetrical uncertainties compared to the
517 arithmetic method. In this instance, N₂O flux measurements did not meet the
518 expectations based on the Bayesian model (i.e flux measurements showing a peak and
519 decay pattern or multiple peaks or a large sample size with low variance) (Levy *et al.*
520 2017) and therefore, the N₂O flux data collected was not sufficient for accurately
521 capturing the existing variability of N₂O fluxes.

522 Over the 86 days where both EC and CH measurements were compared, mean daily
523 EC flux measurements were greater than CH flux measurements for a total of 63 days.
524 Similar to the findings in this study, Wang *et al.* (2013) showed that CH N₂O flux
525 measurements were lower than EC flux measurements by 17-20% from a cotton field.
526 However, numerous studies have reported contrasting results. For example, Philate
527 *et al.* (2005) found CH N₂O flux measurements were consistently greater than EC
528 measurements and Jones *et al.* (2011) found that 70% of N₂O fluxes measured by EC
529 were within the range of CH N₂O measurements in a grassland system, although this
530 varied seasonally. Likewise, disagreement between EC and CH flux measurements
531 have also been observed for CO₂ respiration rates, both in agri-ecosystems (Schrier-
532 Uikl *et al.* 2010) and peatland sites (Cai *et al.* 2010). Disparities in flux measurements
533 from both CH and EC can be the product of the limitations of the methods themselves.
534 The CV was frequently greater in CH measurements compared to EC measurements
535 due to the small scale variability detected in CH measurements. CH flux
536 measurements represent single point measurements in space and time and, as a
537 result, sudden dynamic variations in emissions due to either management or weather
538 events for example, are not always quantified (Kroon *et al.* 2008). However, EC

539 provides continuous, high frequency measurements and is therefore capable of
540 capturing high emission events derived from hotspots and hot moments of N₂O. For
541 example, two days post fertilizer application in March and in conjunction with a
542 cumulative rainfall event of 27.3 mm over this period, daily average EC emissions
543 were 219.02 µg N₂O-N m⁻² hr⁻¹, while CH fluxes measured at midday and integrated
544 as a daily average were 36.63 µg N₂O-N m⁻² hr⁻¹. Moreover, the footprint of the EC
545 tower may not always overlap with the location of where CH measurements are made
546 and therefore take measurements over different sources of N₂O emissions, for
547 example, in Fig. 2 70% of the EC flux footprint contribution does not encompass CH
548 locations in the far South-West region of the field site.

549 In addition, EC measurements are completely *in situ* and thus, avoid artefacts caused
550 by enclosure within a CH which are prone to under or over estimating the soil derived
551 flux (Davidson *et al.* 2002). Such artefacts are caused by a) pressure differentials
552 (Venturi effect) when lids are closed or in windy conditions, b) alterations in the
553 boundary layer conditions and disturbance of diffusion gradients which can affect
554 canopy coupling to the atmosphere within the CH, c) increases in temperature which
555 can impact on both microbial processes and increase N₂O dilution via increased
556 humidity (Davidson *et al.* 2002, Rochette & Hutchinson 2005, Bain *et al.* 2005, Bertora
557 *et al.* 2018, Clough *et al.* 2020).

558 *4.3 Gap-filling N₂O flux data*

559 Unlike CO₂ fluxes, there are no robust, validated process-based models available for
560 gap-filling N₂O fluxes (Moffat *et al.* 2007). Emissions of N₂O are primarily controlled
561 by N inputs (in the form of NH₄⁺ and NO₃⁻) into the system (Harty *et al.* 2016), as well
562 as soil physical and microclimatic properties such as WFPS (Davidson *et al.* 2000),

563 temperature (Butterbach-Bahl and Dannenmann, 2011), texture (Tan *et al.* 2009) and
564 porosity (Choudhary *et al.* 2002). While repeated measurements of these variables
565 are feasible, in many cases continuous high frequency measurements (both spatially
566 and temporally) are too costly or logistically not viable. Commonly used methods for
567 gap-filling N₂O fluxes include linear interpolation (Mishurov and Kiely, 2011), 30-day
568 running medians (Merbold *et al.* 2020) and general additive models (Cowan *et al.*
569 2020). While these methods have been accepted within the flux community, they
570 should be used with due consideration for any potential limitations. Such gap-filling
571 approaches for N₂O measurements are either too simplistic in approach, prone to
572 large uncertainties or where a model is applied, are subject to overfitting and
573 multicollinearity, which can reduce the sensitivity of model predictions by
574 underestimating the variance of the fitted modelled parameters (Dorich *et al.* 2020).
575 Here we proposed a multi-variate linear model that incorporates environmental data
576 where the temporal pattern in the data is retained in order to account for 'emission
577 events' over time and in doing so, provides an empirical method for interpolating
578 between data points. The relatively high data coverage, with limited gaps exceeding a
579 few hours and not during fertilization events (or the 30 days after), helped to reduce
580 the uncertainties in this study. Though it is important to note that while this model
581 was successful in gap-filling N₂O flux measurements in this study, it incorporates
582 environmental and management data which are site-specific, and therefore may not
583 be as successful where the experimental site is under a different management, climate
584 and where the gaps in the data are more common. In order to further reduce
585 uncertainties in gap-filling N₂O fluxes, we need to enhance our understanding of
586 microbial communities and their role in N₂O production (Thompson *et al.* 2016) and
587 implement methods that can facilitate this at high resolutions, both spatially and

588 temporally. As flux datasets become larger, the use of neural networks (NN) for data-
589 driven predictive modelling of N₂O will become more viable (Dorich *et al.* 2020).

590 *4.4 Cumulative N₂O fluxes and emission factors*

591 Cumulative CH N₂O fluxes are derived from non-continuous measurements
592 commonly made during the daytime, expressed as a daily average and linearly
593 interpolated between days (Dorich *et al.* 2020). Where the frequency of
594 measurements are low, the uncertainty in the integration of measurements for
595 cumulative flux estimates increases. As N₂O is highly variable in space and time,
596 reducing the uncertainty in interpolating between measurement points requires
597 many and frequent flux measurements (Lammirato *et al.* 2018).

598 In this study, cumulative N₂O emissions by CH were greater than EC cumulative fluxes
599 prior to the June fertilization event, but following this event, cumulative emissions
600 measured by EC were consistently greater than CH. Daily emissions of N₂O measured
601 by EC peak following the June fertilizer event at 814.76 $\mu\text{g N}_2\text{O-N m}^{-2} \text{hr}^{-1}$ following a
602 rainfall event of 17.6 mm. Daily emissions captured by CH during this period were
603 considerably lower at 7.74 $\mu\text{g N}_2\text{O-N m}^{-2} \text{hr}^{-1}$, suggesting that both frequency and the
604 time of CH measurements (midday) were not sufficient to capture the N₂O emission
605 event observed in the EC measurements. Similarly, cumulative EC emissions from the
606 time of CH emissions (EC_{CH}) (typically between 10:00am and 2:00pm) were 19% -
607 38% (depending on the comparison period [Table 6]) lower than cumulative EC
608 emissions from the entire day (EC_{All}). While studies have shown higher N₂O emissions
609 in the midday (Liáng *et al.* 2018; Shurpali *et al.* 2016), our results suggest that only
610 considering midday flux measurements could under-estimate the cumulative flux,
611 and the magnitude of this under-estimation could be greater following fertilizer

612 application. We recommend that daily CH flux measurements should be made at least
613 twice a day (mid-day and night), with increasing frequency following N-inputs into
614 the system and rainfall events. Ideally, an automated chamber system should be used
615 for comparison with EC flux measurements, where continuous flux measurements are
616 available over high temporal resolutions. Annual cumulative N₂O fluxes measured by
617 EC (3.35 kg N ha⁻¹) were more similar to CH cumulative fluxes determined using the
618 Bayesian method (3.13 kg N ha⁻¹) compared to the arithmetic method (2.98 kg N ha
619 ⁻¹). The Bayesian method captures the post-fertilization temporal pattern of peak and
620 decay that is commonly observed in N₂O flux measurements (Cowan *et al.* 2019; Levy
621 *et al.* 2017) by accounting for the log-normal distribution of the data. In doing so, the
622 Bayesian mean will not attribute equal weight to all data points, as the arithmetic
623 method does, and is therefore less likely to over or under-estimate the sample mean
624 and will provide a more robust mean for a log-normally distributed dataset. EFs from
625 this study for EC and CH derived using arithmetic and Bayesian methods were 1.46%,
626 1.30% and 1.36%, respectively which is higher than the Intergovernmental Panel on
627 Climate Change (IPCC) Tier 1 default value of 1% (0.03 –3%) EF for all fertilizers
628 (IPCC, 2014). EFs reported are within a similar range for EFs calculated by Harty *et al.*
629 (2016) in a permanent pasture in Ireland (0.58 - 3.1%), Cowan *et al.* (2020) in
630 managed grasslands across the British Isles (0.7 – 1.3%) and Smith *et al.* (2012) in
631 grassland and arable sites across the United Kingdom (0.9 - 3.93%). While a control
632 treatment was not used in this study, we estimate that EFs with the inclusion of a
633 cumulative control N₂O-N flux (Krol *et al.* 2016) would be 1.25%, 1.09% and 1.16%
634 for EC and CH by the arithmetic and Bayesian methods respectively. Our study
635 suggests that a default EF value for mineral fertilizer is too simplistic to account for
636 the variability of N₂O at different spatial and temporal scales. The Tier 1 approach

637 does not incorporate changes in emissions due to agricultural management or
638 environmental variability (Dobbie and Smith, 2003). When considering the
639 development of national and regional level EFs for N₂O (Tier 2), it is essential that
640 management data (e.g. fertilizer rates) is available over different spatial and temporal
641 scales in order to produce robust estimates of N₂O emissions (Skiba *et al.* 2012).

642 **5. CONCLUSIONS**

643 Fluxes of N₂O measured by CH and EC were most comparable when (1) N₂O fluxes
644 were high (>115 µg N₂O-N m⁻² hr⁻¹); (2) both methodologies were measuring fluxes
645 over the same space and time; and (3) when the number of CH replicates were ≥ 15
646 on a given sampling day. Measurements of N₂O emissions using the EC technique
647 were greater than CH flux measurements (arithmetic or Bayesian) 76% of the time
648 over the outlined comparison periods. The Bayesian method was useful in upscaling
649 CH N₂O flux measurements and providing reliable means and confidence intervals by
650 accounting for the log-normally distributed nature of the data. Where the CH sample
651 size was ≥ 15, the arithmetic and the Bayesian method showed similar daily averaged
652 fluxes over the comparison periods. Where $n \leq 5$, uncertainties in CH flux
653 measurements calculated by the Bayesian method were large and asymmetrical due
654 to the inability to fit an arithmetic mean from a log-normally distributed data set
655 where the sample size is low. A multi-variate linear model that incorporates
656 environmental data was used to gap-fill annual N₂O fluxes measured by EC and
657 showed a strong correlation with measured flux values ($R^2 = 0.92$). Annual
658 cumulative N₂O fluxes from January to December 2019 from gap-filled EC fluxes and
659 CH fluxes derived from the arithmetic and Bayesian method, were 3.35 (± 0.5) kg N
660 ha⁻¹, 2.98 (± 0.17) kg N ha⁻¹ and 3.13 (± 0.24) kg N ha⁻¹ respectively. EFs from EC and

661 CH by the arithmetic and Bayesian method were 1.46%, 1.30% and 1.36%,
662 respectively. N₂O emissions were greatest following CAN fertilizer application when
663 conditions for denitrification were favourable (WFPS > 60%). In order lower EFs from
664 mineral N fertilizer application, applications should be made where conditions for
665 denitrification are limited, such as low soil moisture content and rainfall. Where
666 potential hotspots of N₂O are present on agricultural landscapes (Cowan *et al.* 2017),
667 N fertilizer application should be avoided on these hotspot areas or nitrification and
668 urease inhibitors should be used to reduce the availability of N for N₂O production
669 (Luo *et al.* 2016)

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673 **Declaration of competing interest**

674 The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or
675 personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in
676 this paper.

677 **Acknowledgements**

678 The authors gratefully acknowledge A. Lawless for facilitating the research on the
679 Johnstown Castle Dairy Farm and G. Gillen for gas chromatography analysis. This
680 research was financially supported under the National Development Plan, through
681 the Research Stimulus Fund, administered by the Department of Agriculture, Food
682 and the Marine, Manipulation and Integration of Nitrogen Emissions (MINE) grant
683 number 15S655.

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979 **APPENDICES**

980 **Table A.1:** Chamber (CH) flux measurements ($N_2O-N \mu g m^{-2} hr^{-1}$) derived from the arithmetic
 981 and Bayesian method where FP refers to CH measurements inside the footprint of the eddy
 982 covariance footprint.

Date	Arithmetic Method						Bayesian Method					
	mean	95% C.I.		mean	95% C.I.		mean	95% C.I.		mean	95% C.I.	
		lwr CH _{All}	upr		lwr CH _{FP}	upr		lwr CH _{Bayes}	upr		lwr CH _{Bayes-FP}	upr
8/1/2019	2.67	1.69	3.66	2.82	1.87	3.77	2.69	1.63	3.81	2.84	1.72	3.98
17/1/2019	1.82	1.1	2.53	1.24	0.31	2.17	1.83	1.05	2.64	1.26	0.16	2.42
25/1/2019	3.04	2.09	3.99	3.07	1.68	4.46	3.05	2.02	4.15	3.14	1.25	5.26
1/2/2019	1.52	0.64	2.4	1.16	-0.39	2.72	1.54	0.55	2.55	1.3	-1.02	4.12
7/2/2019	1.97	1.06	2.88	2.38	1.42	3.35	1.98	1	3.01	2.42	1.12	3.89
4/3/2019	1.89	0.64	3.14	4.14	0.59	7.68	1.91	0.66	3.23	4.71	-0.25	11.47
5/3/2019	1.9	0.11	3.69	0.31	-1.19	1.81	1.95	0.24	3.79	0.37	-1.39	2.24
6/3/2019	538.89	359.79	717.99	626.7	490.93	762.47	677.88	400.25	1223.65	670.86	491.66	985.96
7/3/2019	356.28	178.38	534.17	234.11	30.5	437.72	391.46	232.66	701.46	949.89	113.9	25944.48
8/3/2019	165.66	99.28	232.05	147.1	44.64	249.57	202.68	111.35	380.34	318.16	74.1	1211.42
11/3/2019	74.75	44.07	105.43	28.68	-5.46	62.83	80.56	49.22	130.54	33.95	9.53	86.26
12/3/2019	36.27	18.05	54.49	10.77	1.81	19.72	36.8	22.14	57	11.54	3.73	22.31
14/3/2019	7.37	1.86	12.88	1.48	-7.84	10.79	8.06	2.33	15.41	14.76	-7.93	61.6
19/3/2019	7.43	3.99	10.87	2.71	1.75	3.67	7.46	4.59	10.72	2.73	1.6	3.9
26/3/2019	5.62	2.65	8.58	1.93	0.78	3.08	5.65	3.15	8.44	1.98	0.25	3.83
1/4/2019	5.67	1.45	9.89	1.9	-2.45	6.25	5.65	2.45	9.17	3.34	-4.12	15.66
2/4/2019	33.99	15.39	52.6	3.2	2.04	4.36	33.89	20.27	52.36	3.43	0.54	7.24
3/4/2019	18.05	2.97	33.13	-0.2	-1.95	1.54	17.19	8.49	28.67	0.1	-3.8	5.28
4/4/2019	26.19	-0.54	52.92	5.29	-4.55	15.13	22.37	11.82	36.93	9.75	-3.59	36.72
5/4/2019	117.92	53.07	182.77	63.54	0.22	126.87	134.64	70.71	258.17	171.12	24.86	634.1
8/4/2019	79.57	38.65	120.5	26.73	14.52	38.93	81	48.97	132.2	30.3	14.73	58.3
10/4/2019	89.67	46.23	133.12	67.51	1.81	133.22	93.08	56.52	153.62	424.98	24.85	6218.68
11/4/2019	77.84	46.81	108.87	39.48	25.05	53.91	82.2	52.83	127.82	46.14	23.14	89.87
16/4/2019	36.46	19.27	53.65	8.44	4.62	12.27	36.77	23.67	55.03	19.06	2.06	25.26
17/4/2019	16.64	5.06	28.23	8	-9.42	25.41	17.25	8.02	29.85	211.1	-7.43	2405.36
23/4/2019	44.68	13.62	75.74	13.02	5.11	20.94	41.93	23.26	70.38	21.11	2.51	54.37
24/4/2019	20.5	-10.03	51.04	7.01	3.24	10.77	14.67	5.68	26.74	50.58	0.43	34.83
4/6/2019	24.06	14.05	34.07	24.13	14.8	33.46	24.25	16.35	34.25	25.22	15.69	37.79
5/6/2019	18.98	9.56	28.39	10.78	5.53	16.04	18.91	11.87	27.58	12.08	3.52	25.71
6/6/2019	39.63	25.55	53.7	52.76	32.52	73	39.86	28.98	53.88	56.81	35.46	92.08
7/6/2019	15.51	12.07	18.95	18.35	10.46	26.23	15.64	12.28	19.38	19.52	10.51	32.31
8/6/2019	16.49	11.32	21.65	16.92	9.07	24.77	16.64	12.11	21.82	20.53	7.97	39.2
10/6/2019	11.5	9.16	13.85	12.84	9.11	16.56	11.57	9.27	14.09	13.11	8.67	18.27
11/6/2019	8.28	5.82	10.74				8.32	6.1	10.73			
12/6/2019	23.02	15.62	30.43	25.66	12.62	38.71	23.29	16.76	31.02	28.95	13.46	55.17
13/6/2019	22.69	14.67	30.71	21.59	13.49	29.68	22.83	16.52	30.36	22.86	13.44	36.8
17/6/2019	101.03	60.55	141.51	126.67	33.92	219.42	106.14	69.37	164.17	203.53	64.29	620.08
19/6/2019	27.83	18.74	36.92	26.4	5.4	47.4	28.09	20.56	37.16	80.44	8.31	198.83
26/6/2019	12.95	9.79	16.12	21.14	12.41	29.87	13.06	10.02	16.37	23.2	11.75	40.66
27/6/2019	8.56	6.47	10.66	13.95	9.42	18.48	8.62	6.53	10.85	14.57	8.3	22.28
7/8/2019	6.81	3.17	10.44	8.29	-1.22	17.79	7.07	3.24	11.5	13.56	-0.93	37.75
9/8/2019	38.64	14.63	62.64	17.86	6.92	28.79	37.52	23	58.43	20.49	7.73	42.6
13/8/2019	10.96	8.15	13.76	13.56	8.34	18.78	11.01	8.43	13.78	14.01	8.6	20.84
21/8/2019	3.86	2.18	5.54	6.68	0.7	12.66	3.88	2.27	5.56	7.96	0.15	19.91
28/8/2019	1.52	-0.24	3.28	1.28	-3.01	5.58	1.6	-0.23	3.58	1.8	-3.12	8.28
2/9/2019	4.12	2.15	6.09	5.37	1.51	9.23	4.16	2.25	6.27	5.83	0.79	12.43
10/9/2019	14.73	11.09	18.37	14.46	9.19	19.73	14.82	11.34	18.65	14.76	9.78	20.69
12/9/2019	11.44	8.11	14.76	12.13	4.34	19.93	11.6	8.3	15.3	13.26	4.65	25.31
13/9/2019	18.55	14.06	23.03	18.01	7.13	28.9	18.78	14.39	23.73	19.79	8.52	36.58
14/9/2019	1.23	-2.73	5.19	5.22	-4.24	14.67	1.4	-2.15	5.51	6.95	-2.77	22.43
16/9/2019	7.69	4.47	10.91	7.91	3.37	12.45	7.79	4.79	11.19	8.41	3.28	14.95
17/9/2019	17.86	13.71	22	18.61	10.2	27.01	18.03	14.16	22.44	19.49	11.36	30.5
19/9/2019	2.12	-0.9	5.13	-0.42	-6.24	5.41	2.47	-1.07	6.59	1.15	-6.59	13.64
20/9/2019	3.28	0.4	6.17	7.51	-0.91	15.93	3.43	0.54	6.63	9.98	-1.26	30.24
24/9/2019	417.14	221.24	613.04	255.44	147.27	363.61	438.86	279.03	727.07	349.62	167.12	843.77
25/9/2019	127.98	82.16	173.8	84.9	48.31	121.5	131.64	93.19	189.39	92.51	56.63	155.62
1/10/2019	66.95	38.75	95.15	95.42	24.7	166.13	67.24	46.49	96.73	282.22	46.41	1265.31
2/10/2019	67.99	34.56	101.43	94.83	8.46	181.2	71.35	41.91	118.69	510.06	37.71	6100.45
10/10/2019	26.55	10.76	42.34	24.03	7.06	41.01	26.37	15.16	41.41	26.62	11.79	51.1
16/10/2019	15.14	10.43	19.84	19.95	7.42	32.49	15.27	11.07	20.1	22.53	9.23	45.23
22/10/2019	14.07	4.6	23.54				13.75	7.59	21.25			
31/10/2019	5.72	2.31	9.12	10.14	1.88	18.4	5.94	2.44	9.94	11.77	2.14	26.52
4/11/2019	7.65	3.41	11.89	12.54	-8.55	33.64	7.71	4.28	11.71	53.89	-2.67	161.41
14/11/2019	2.5	1.09	3.91	4.04	1.35	6.72	2.53	1.15	4	4.38	0.4	9.38
20/11/2019	9.95	6.46	13.45	14.3	6.36	22.25	10.07	6.9	13.75	15.23	7.2	26.51
27/11/2019	-0.4	-4.19	3.38	-2.62	-13.34	8.09	-0.01	-3.96	4.81	2.68	-11.32	35.51
3/12/2019	5.83	1.86	9.8	15.67	0.99	30.35	5.79	2.77	9.11	19.79	4.02	50.31

983

984 **Table A.2:** Eddy covariance (EC) flux measurements ($N_2O-N \mu g m^{-2} hr^{-1}$) where EC_{CH} are EC flux
 985 measurements made during the time of chamber measurements

Date	mean	lwr	95% C.I.		mean	lwr	95% C.I.	
			upr	EC_{CH}			upr	EC_{CH}
8/1/2019	16.4	10.38	23.67		4.82	3.92	5.46	
17/1/2019	39.22	20.32	59.34		9.12	5.51	12.72	
25/1/2019	13.44	4.52	20.01					
1/2/2019								
7/2/2019	4.1	-33.88	17.44		2.03	0.53	4.59	
4/3/2019	25.1	5.89	53.12		7.2	1.75	9.82	
5/3/2019	25	5.31	116.41		4.18	1.67	10.73	
6/3/2019	537.74	162.79	1021.16		168.7	160.6	177.36	
7/3/2019	218.07	115.45	441.38		71.14	71.14	71.14	
8/3/2019	48.03	22.47	76.69		19.56	17.1	22.48	
11/3/2019	10.06	-17.68	28.79		4.16	0.55	6.45	
12/3/2019	9.92	-7.72	30.55					
14/3/2019	9.72	-5.9	27.45					
19/3/2019	9.99	-14.34	28.85		3.49	0.9	6.33	
26/3/2019	9.68	1.39	26.98		2.52	2.52	2.52	
1/4/2019	21.05	2.53	86.79					
2/4/2019	61.17	26.91	93.3		14.56	12.91	17.57	
3/4/2019	25.41	11.96	55.64					
4/4/2019	98.95	88.17	110.28					
5/4/2019	180.98	70.84	278.95		60.62	45.7	82.95	
8/4/2019	307.41	234.05	344.38					
10/4/2019	133.34	98.68	168.46					
11/4/2019	101.08	56.79	136.32		27.66	24.47	31.96	
16/4/2019	57.3	32.11	79.06		13.93	12.23	16.39	
17/4/2019	39.83	28.1	57.91		10.47	8.61	12.54	
23/4/2019	41.08	-19.44	126.04		26.37	20.4	34.53	
24/4/2019	46.91	25.19	86.82		13.74	7.15	24.45	
4/6/2019	40.54	-1.02	103.26		15.06	13	17.12	
5/6/2019	40.36	12.9	71.04		8.77	4.48	17.45	
6/6/2019	65.89	12.66	178.47		14.98	4.3	22.05	
7/6/2019	138.33	57.21	269.42		24.13	21.82	30.59	
8/6/2019	219.31	83.01	325.55		53.5	46.33	60.43	
10/6/2019	63.42	63.42	63.42		17.62	17.62	17.62	
11/6/2019	81.14	20.24	148.9		27.91	19.83	35.99	
12/6/2019	21.41	-42	90.34		1.42	-9.83	6.78	
13/6/2019								
17/6/2019	51.12	-0.36	94.35		13.16	11.17	17.72	
19/6/2019	237.28	142.7	412.34		71.93	49.83	90.86	
26/6/2019	63.74	29.74	96.32		16.8	8.61	22.32	
27/6/2019	14.58	-64	65.86		6.57	-7.36	16.95	
7/8/2019	17.14	-60.08	80.02		-9.84	-15.78	-5.93	
9/8/2019	19.06	7.73	31.66		8.78	8.18	9.83	
13/8/2019								
21/8/2019								
28/8/2019	16.71	6.61	28.21		6.04	4.73	7.73	
2/9/2019	19.2	-8.12	50.88		11.11	6.09	14.77	
10/9/2019	16.17	-0.91	37.41		7.28	3.82	10.25	
12/9/2019	29.92	12.09	49.92		5.14	3.7	9.85	
13/9/2019	17.57	6.11	37.25		5.82	1.17	10.44	
14/9/2019	19.71	8.43	35.66		4.46	2.96	6.17	
16/9/2019	19.99	7.16	35.56		4.96	2.92	8.9	
17/9/2019	17.04	9.22	28.97		5.09	3.05	7.98	
19/9/2019	13.94	6.11	25.15		2.68	1.49	4.38	
20/9/2019	17.92	-13.88	80.08		15.32	5.14	36.02	
24/9/2019	315.1	127.22	510.38		90.86	66.6	110.8	
25/9/2019	270.17	159.41	354.39		70.02	58.71	80.96	
1/10/2019	90.16	53.72	135.19					
2/10/2019	82.88	52.05	111.01		21.31	18.01	24.6	
10/10/2019	32.1	12.74	59.02		9.61	6.78	11.37	
16/10/2019	17.08	5.21	28.5		4.55	3.77	4.95	
22/10/2019								
31/10/2019	11.26	-21.39	27.59					
4/11/2019	13.59	-2.36	40.82					
14/11/2019	-1.21	-1.21	-1.21					
20/11/2019	10.39	-7.97	21.21		5.11	4.3	5.92	
27/11/2019	15.39	5.76	30.62					

3/12/2019	-3.14	-42.78	20.88	-3.26	-12.75	5.5
11/12/2019	26.27	9.83	45.88	7.17	6.76	8.01

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987 **Table A.3:** The full output from a regression subset model explaining the variance in log(N₂O-N)
 988 fluxes by water-filled pore space (WFPS%), rainfall (mm) air temperature (T_{air} °C) and soil
 989 temperature (T_{soil} °C) over rolling averages of 6 hrs⁻¹, 12 hrs⁻¹, 24 hrs⁻¹, 48hrs⁻¹ and 100 hrs⁻¹
 990 periods in the 30 days following fertilizer application (Fertilizer) and in the 30 days outside of
 991 fertilizer applications (Background).

Variable	Treatment	R ²
WFPS 48 hr ⁻¹	Fertilizer	0.50
WFPS 100 hr ⁻¹	Fertilizer	0.50
WFPS 6 hr ⁻¹	Fertilizer	0.50
Rainfall 100 hr ⁻¹	Fertilizer	0.50
Rainfall 48 hr ⁻¹	Fertilizer	0.50
Rainfall 24 hr ⁻¹	Fertilizer	0.49
Rainfall 12 hr ⁻¹	Fertilizer	0.49
Rainfall 6 hr ⁻¹	Fertilizer	0.49
Tsoil 100 hr ⁻¹	Fertilizer	0.48
Tair 100 hr ⁻¹	Fertilizer	0.43
Tair 48 hr ⁻¹	Fertilizer	0.40
WFPS 100 hr ⁻¹	Background	0.31
Rainfall 48 hr ⁻¹	Background	0.31
Rainfall 24 hr ⁻¹	Background	0.31
Tsoil 48 hr ⁻¹	Background	0.30
Tsoil 12 hr ⁻¹	Background	0.29
Tair 100 hr ⁻¹	Background	0.27

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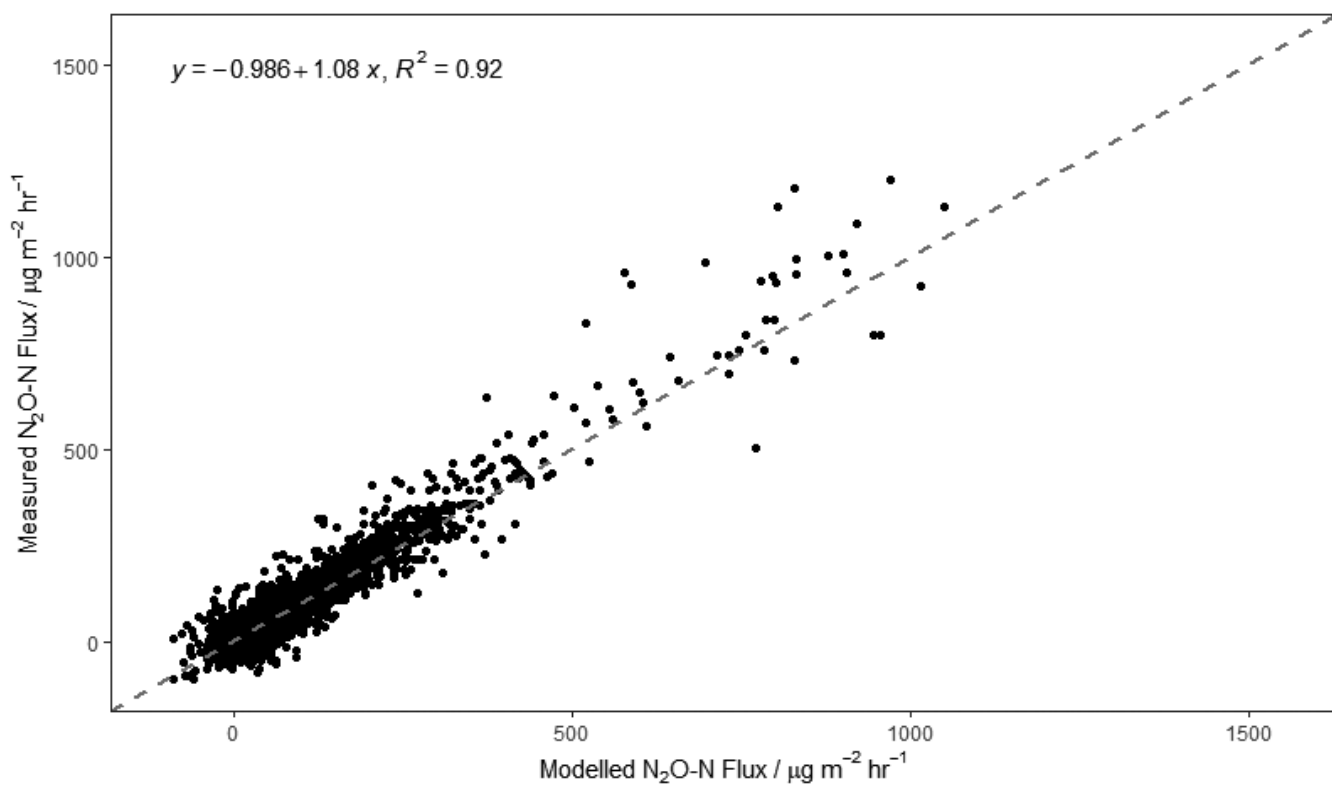
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998 **Table A.4:** Output from a linear multivariate model for log(N₂O-N) emissions measured by eddy
999 covariance 30 days post fertilizer application (Fertilizer) and 30 days outside of the fertilizer
1000 application (Background) using rolling averages of air (T_{air}) and soil temperature (T_{soil}), water
1001 filled pore space (WFPS %) and rolling sums of rainfall over 6 hrs⁻¹, 12 hrs⁻¹, 24 hrs⁻¹, 48 hrs⁻¹ and
1002 100 hrs⁻¹ periods

Treatment	Parameter	Estimate	Standard Error	t Value
Fertilizer	Intercept	-1.99	0.51	-3.91
	T _{air} 48 hr ⁻¹	0.24	0.02	10.96
	(T _{air} 48 hr ⁻¹) ^2	-0.01	0.00	-7.22
	T _{air} 100 hr ⁻¹	-0.85	0.04	-23.21
	(T _{air} 100 hr ⁻¹) ^2	0.03	0.00	19.96
	T _{soil} 100 hr ⁻¹	0.68	0.03	25.86
	(T _{soil} 100 hr ⁻¹) ^2	-0.02	0.00	-23.81
	(Rainfall 6 hr ⁻¹) ^2	0.00	0.00	-8.04
	Rainfall 12 hr ⁻¹	-0.03	0.00	-5.27
	(Rainfall 12 hr ⁻¹) ^2	0.00	0.00	7.80
	Rainfall 24 hr ⁻¹	0.02	0.00	5.35
	(Rainfall 24 hr ⁻¹) ^2	0.00	0.00	2.12
	(Rainfall 48 hr ⁻¹) ^2	0.00	0.00	-12.95
	Rainfall 100 hr ⁻¹	0.00	0.00	22.62
	WFPS 6 hr ⁻¹	0.11	0.02	6.91
	(WFPS 6 hr ⁻¹) ^ 2	0.00	0.00	-6.08
	WFPS 48 hr ⁻¹	0.29	0.03	9.48
	(WFPS 48 hr ⁻¹) ^2	0.00	0.00	-8.68
	WFPS 100 hr ⁻¹	-0.18	0.03	-5.60
	(WFPS 100 hr ⁻¹) ^2	0.00	0.00	3.61
Days Since Fertilizer App. 24 hr ⁻¹	-0.01	0.00	-6.70	
(Days Since Fertilizer App. 24 hr ⁻¹) ^2	0.00	0.00	4.07	
Background	Intercept	4.04	0.27	14.71
	T _{air} 100 hr ⁻¹	-0.05	0.02	-2.99
	(T _{air} 100 hr ⁻¹) ^2	0.01	0.00	7.25
	(T _{soil} 12 hr ⁻¹) ^2	0.00	0.00	11.50
	T _{soil} 48 hr ⁻¹	0.05	0.01	4.12
	(T _{soil} 48hr ⁻¹) ^2	-0.01	0.00	-11.64
	Rainfall 24 hr ⁻¹	0.02	0.00	6.42
	(Rainfall 24 hr ⁻¹) ^2	0.00	0.00	-4.54
	Rainfall 48 hr ⁻¹	-0.01	0.00	-8.91
	WFPS 6 hr ⁻¹	0.15	0.01	10.71
	(WFPS 6 hr ⁻¹) ^ 2	0.00	0.00	-9.33
	WFPS 48 hr ⁻¹	-0.13	0.02	-8.30
	(WFPS 48 hr ⁻¹) ^ 2	0.00	0.00	11.68
	(WFPS 100 hr ⁻¹) ^ 2	0.00	0.00	-20.99
Days Since Fertilizer App. 100hr ⁻¹	0.00	0.00	-5.01	
(Days Since Fertilizer App. 100 hr ⁻¹) ^ 2	0.00	0.00	3.37	

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1005 **Figure A.1:** The correlation between measured and linearly modelled N₂O-N flux values where
1006 the broken line represents the 1:1 ratio.

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1014 **Table A.5:** Cumulative N₂O fluxes from mean daily chamber and half-hourly eddy covariance (EC) flux measurements from seven comparison periods
1015 (see Table 3 for dates) where EC_{All} is all measured EC measurements over the comparison period, EC_{CH} is measured EC measurements during the time
1016 of chamber measurements, CH_{All} and CH_{Bayes} are all chamber flux measurements daily averaged using the arithmetic and the Bayesian mean,
1017 respectively and CH_{FP} and CH_{Bayes-FP} are daily averaged chamber flux measurements within the footprint of the EC tower using the arithmetic mean
1018 and the Bayesian mean, respectively.

Comparison #	EC _{All}			EC _{CH}			CH _{All}			CH _{FP}			CH _{Bayes-All}			CH _{Bayes-FP}								
	N	95% C.I.		N	95% C.I.		N	95% C.I.		N	95% C.I.		N	95% C.I.		N	95% C.I.							
		mean	upr		lwr	mean		upr	lwr		mean	upr		lwr	mean		upr	lwr	mean	upr	lwr			
N ₂ O-N kg ⁻¹ ha ⁻¹ comparison ⁻¹																								
1	94	0.127	0.090	-0.085	12	0.026	0.019	-0.018	105	0.016	0.009	-0.009	43	0.015	0.009	-0.008	105	0.017	0.009	-0.009	43	0.016	0.009	-0.009
2	367	0.257	0.178	-0.168	31	0.079	0.055	-0.054	295	0.366	0.247	-0.221	87	0.303	0.218	-0.200	295	0.430	0.296	-0.261	87	0.582	0.423	-0.351
3	341	0.483	0.265	-0.224	39	0.107	0.048	-0.046	353	0.295	0.141	-0.127	59	0.127	0.059	-0.056	353	0.305	0.148	-0.132	59	0.511	0.217	-0.174
4	321	0.444	0.215	-0.192	43	0.119	0.053	-0.051	390	0.172	0.067	-0.063	94	0.199	0.075	-0.069	390	0.176	0.068	-0.064	94	0.319	0.110	-0.095
5	99	0.064	0.022	-0.021	14	0.025	0.009	-0.008	150	0.054	0.032	-0.031	39	0.049	0.026	-0.025	150	0.054	0.032	-0.031	39	0.056	0.030	-0.029
6	339	0.579	0.180	-0.134	58	0.150	0.050	-0.047	388	0.473	0.157	-0.122	123	0.375	0.119	-0.101	388	0.491	0.163	-0.126	123	0.699	0.192	-0.134
7	283	0.153	0.084	-0.082	34	0.029	0.019	-0.019	299	0.141	0.083	-0.081	69	0.166	0.084	-0.081	299	0.142	0.083	-0.082	69	0.290	0.138	-0.129

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