

Dear Dr. Guenther,

First of all, we would like to thank you and the reviewers for the valuable comments. We appreciate their time and contribution. We have made revisions to reflect all of the comments. We have added more analysis and revised some parts of the manuscript to make it clearer and more accurate.

The revised manuscript is attached, and the responses to the reviewers' comments are listed below.

Responses to comments

Reviewer 1:

There are some revisions suggested mainly to address the uncertainties in the results.

The authors report long term averages of N₂O fluxes, including daytime and nighttime averages. However, these averages have very large standard deviations (factor of three larger than the mean) which show that the frequency distribution of the measured fluxes are highly skewed with a small number of high fluxes and a large number of low fluxes. In this case, the uncertainty should be expressed in terms of a 90 or 95% confidence limit derived from the analysis.

We used the nonparametric boot-strapping procedure to obtain the 95% confidence intervals and presented the results in Table 3.

We also added case studies for five selected days for day and night flux comparisons:

Diurnal variations of the N₂O flux were detected (Figures 7 and 8). Figure 7 contains nearly complete diurnal data for each day for five selected days (>20 hours data per day and $u_* \geq 0.2 \text{ m s}^{-1}$). The peak flux commonly appeared during the daytime, whereas the flux was low at night except for the third sub-period in Figure 8 when soil moisture was high during the night time. The average daytime and night time N₂O fluxes during the five days were $96.4 \pm 11.7 \text{ } \mu\text{g N}_2\text{O-N m}^{-2} \text{ hr}^{-1}$ and $59.0 \pm 13.0 \text{ } \mu\text{g N}_2\text{O-N m}^{-2} \text{ hr}^{-1}$, respectively. The flux was about 63% higher during the daytime than during the night time (Figure 7). The average daytime and night time N₂O fluxes during the whole season were 278.8 ± 47.5 and $99.9 \pm 29.8 \text{ } \mu\text{g N}_2\text{O-N m}^{-2} \text{ hr}^{-1}$, respectively. This diurnal response was most likely a temperature response.

The collected data only represented a small fraction of the total measurement period due to filtering of low turbulence and precipitation periods. Regression equations were used to gap-fill the data. Some discussion of the uncertainty in gap-filling is warranted and, in particular, how do uncertainties in gap-filling compare to the other EC measurement uncertainties. Further, how do the uncertainties in gap-filling affect the overall

accumulated N₂O fluxes and the conclusion that the N₂O flux represents 1.43% of N applied.

We added the following discussion section:

4.5 Uncertainty in the gap-filling

The gap-filling method used in this study may bring uncertainty to the total N₂O flux estimating. However, it is a common practice that regression model is developed using "good" data (with $u_* \geq$ a threshold value); then the regression model is used to gap-fill the missing data and estimate the total value.

We evaluated the uncertainty of the regression equations used in the gap-fillings by comparing the regressed and the measured flux data when ($u_* \geq 0.2 \text{ m s}^{-1}$) and found the average error ratio was 14%. The regression equations were from the "good" eddy-covariance data ($u_* \geq 0.2 \text{ m s}^{-1}$). The "good" data may have been overestimated about 12-16% (Table 2). Therefore, the total N₂O may be overestimated from the gap-filling by about 27% to 32% [e.g., $27\% = (1+14\%)(1+12\%) - 1$].

Based on the equation on Figure 11, the seasonal released N₂O should be 3.76 kg N₂O-N Ha⁻¹. However, from this study, it was 6.87 kg N₂O-N Ha⁻¹. Therefore, the gap-filling and the EC measurement uncertainties may have partially contributed to the overestimated N₂O release.

In the same way, since 93% of the good data were collected during daytime, can anything substantive really be said about daytime vs nighttime fluxes? Comparison of the averages with their large uncertainties seems misleading. Perhaps some case study periods where there is more complete data would be useful for addressing day-night changes.

We agree with the reviewer. We did some case studies as mentioned in the response above.

Reviewer 2

Suggestions for technical corrections or reasons for rejection

whether or not the apparent difference between day and nighttime N₂O fluxes is actually significant given the large variances for them both and the scarcity of nighttime data that are kept.

We agree with the reviewer. Please see our response to reviewer 1's comment above.

I'd like to see the data used for defining the u^* cutoff instead of just using a value from a range in the literature. The approach presented by Barr et al, AGRICULTURAL AND

FOREST METEOROLOGY, 2013, 171 DOI: 10.1016/j.agrformet.2012.11.023) ought to be mentioned and could be included to quantify the uncertainty associated with selecting a cutoff for low-turbulence.

We revised our manuscript and provided the specific values of u^* in the revised manuscript as the following:

:

Mammarella (2010) summarizes the appropriate range of the u_* threshold as 0.1 for grassland to 0.3 for forest. In this study we used 0.2 as the threshold for the cornfield. A u_* threshold value (0.15 m s^{-1}) was obtained using the method in Barr et al., 2012. That value was similar to and slightly smaller than our threshold value of 0.2 m s^{-1} . Therefore, our data processing using 0.2 m s^{-1} threshold value was conservative and warranted to exclude all the low-turbulence data and even excluded some data just around the low-to-normal turbulence transition zone (u_* from 0.15 to 0.2 m s^{-1}).

Reviewer #3:

Specific comments

I suggest you re-write the abstract: in its present form it is a dry list of some facts that are reported throughout the paper: it doesn't need to contain any references to other work, but it should synthesise the hypothesis and outcome of your work.

We rewrote the Abstract as instructed synthesizing the outcome of our work.

In the abstract, you mention the fertilisation rate of the field is 217 kg N ha^{-1} . Then in the table, the total N is reported to be 118 kg N ha^{-1} ($39+79$). Which one is true?

We clarified this in the revision. 217 kg N ha^{-1} is true. Table 1 only showed the URAN-32-0-0 N during the growing season (April 4 to August 8). An additional 39 kg N ha^{-1} of chicken litter before the growing season was applied on March 10, as presented in the table caption.

Why do you think there is such an abrupt change in N₂O concentrations in the period at the beginning of June? (Fig.6). The average shift from the plot seems to be of a bit less than 10 ppb in the level of N₂O in the surface layer: this is quite a significant step in concentration, especially looking at the step from one day to the other (roughly on first days of June?): how do you explain it? How did you calibrate the instrument for concentrations? (how regularly, what was used in all instances of calibration). Before the first fertilisation, the levels of N₂O seem to be quite consistent with the levels after the fertilisation events (both first and second).

These may have been caused by the high application rates of fertilizer on March 10, April 8, and May 17, and less nitrogen use by the establishing crop before June, which resulted in higher soil N availability and more N₂O emissions during that period, as shown in Figures 5 and 6. In addition, the frequent rain events before June may have leached the nitrogen in deep water and reduced N availability for N emission.

The N₂O analyzer has a standard N₂O chamber inside. We calibrated the instrument to that standard every two weeks and after rainfall events.

I'm not sure of the value of the regression in Fig.10. While it is very useful to show a comparative and summarising plot of other studies combined with this, I am not sure the regression is adding any value. However, I see the authors' point of presenting an overall emission factor.

We basically wanted to show the overall emission factor as the reviewer pointed out.

Generally, the authors report figures with too many digits, regardless of significant figures: albeit this comment may seem pedantic, there is no point in reporting figures that suggest a level of precision that is not actually achieved. Could you modify this throughout?

We modified all these for all the figures.

L440: do you think that the daytime fluxes were higher consistently through the whole season? My impression is that the first two periods did have this behaviour, but afterwards it doesn't look like it from Fig.7. I think it is likely that the first two periods are pushing the overall averages in that direction.

Yes, the reviewer is right. We added one sentence to reflect this fact (after Line 437): "The daytime fluxes were not always higher through the whole season, as shown on Figure 7; i.e., the daytime fluxes were not higher during the third and the fourth periods because the soil moisture was a predominant factor ($r_{sm} > 0.4$)."

We also conducted case studies to compare day and night flux differences (see our response to reviewer 1's comments above).

Technical corrections: typing errors, etc.

Please revise all references (especially with regards to names), as there are a few spelling errors.

Revised accordingly.

L61-62: remove nitrogen use; "consequently": I think it's wrong, as these are the reason why you get inefficient N use, not the other way round. Correct the sentence.

Removed "nitrogen use" and "consequently" as suggested.

L63: these are some of the forms through which N is lost, not the only ones, so add "e.g."

Revised.

L77: oxygen supply within the soil strata.

Revised.

L93: before the references in brackets, put "e.g.", as the articles are all referring to the original source of the Reynolds theory.

Revised.

L97: remove "fluctuations". The covariance is between the variables themselves, not their fluctuations.

Removed.

L99: the vertical wind speed seems an omega; it should be "w" (also in L183).

Revised.

L102: "previous" to when? The laser spectrometers have been available since the early 90s.

Removed "Previous N₂O analyzer instruments lacked the necessary precision and their response times were too slow for use in EC measurements."

L106: The reference needs correction, the author is Di Marco. Correct also in the reference section.

Revised.

L137: it's a wave number.

Revised.

L151: Do you mean NH₄⁺ here?

Yes, revised to NH₄⁺.

L152: can you specify here the working principle of such equipment? Just briefly, but it is useful for the reader who does not normally deal with such system, to identify what detector type is used.

We briefly explained the principle:

The Auto-analyzer mixes sample (liquid state) homogeneously with reagents; the sample and reagents are merged to form a concentration gradient that yields analysis results.

L155: same as line 97.

Removed 'fluctuations'.

L189: add "applied to trace gas measurements".

Added.

L192: insert "e.g." before Ferrara.

Added.

L198-199: cospectrum

Revised.

L208: the star in ustar is a subscript, not superscript. correct throughout.

Revised all.

L238: it's not clear here on what you made the regression/correlation. Does this refer to a figure? If so, include it. If not, then explain more in words what you've done, or where you explain it.

Lines 228 to 237 explained some of the regression. We also added the following after Line 237:

"In the regression analysis, soil moisture and temperature were independent variables and N₂O flux was the dependent variable."

Table 5 shows the regression equations.

L270-1: swap "units" with "points".

Swapped.

L278-280: this sentence is unclear. Add "that" after "continuous corn canopy", delete "with".

Revised.

L280-281: With "these" do you mean the differences? Spell it out, as the sentence is unclear.

We revised "These" to "These differences".

L287: using different units of measure through the paper does not help: can you be consistent throughout? You used ng N₂O-N m⁻² s⁻¹; ug m⁻² hr⁻¹; ug ha⁻¹ hr⁻¹. Just settle on one and change throughout.

Changed all flux units to ug m⁻² hr⁻¹ except seasonal cumulative emission, which was changed to kg ha⁻¹.

L315: availability of N

Revised.

L334: what do you mean with N+?

Revised N+ to N.

L363-364: this is a repetition of an earlier sentence.
Removed the repetition.

L368: Delete "a" before vapour cospectra.
Revised.

L375: I don't understand here: how do you apply the correction?
All the corrections were conducted using the calculated factors by Eddypro using the methods in Ibrom et al. (2007), Horst and Lenschow (2009), and Di Moncrieff et al. (2004).
The corrections were compared with frequency loss calculated from cospectra analysis (Table 2).

L389: delete the comma after Figure 10.
Deleted.

L409-410: you are comparing figures with different units of measure, change that, and as before keep it as much as possible in the same unit.
Revised.

L421: amount is singular in this case
Revised.

L424: change in N₂O flux.
Revised.

L426-429: I don't understand these sentences "monitoring these events.." onwards. Perhaps you can synthesise them in one simpler sentence. How do you mean "apparently caused"? Justify this.

We revised to:

The difference of N₂O emission response after the first and second applications of fertilizer showed the trigger effect of precipitation on the N₂O emission. The other notable feature of Figure 5 was the remarkable increases of N₂O for the days with precipitation. The variations in the increases may have been mainly caused by the changes in soil moisture content due to precipitation.

L430: is it not better to say "is not correlated"?
Revised.

L433: table 4 does not contemplate N application rates, so it is difficult to conclude what you say, perhaps add the information on N application so it is easier to see.
Added the information in Table 4.

L435: delete the double comma. replace "during the diurnal cycles" with "when looking at the diurnal cycles".
Revised.

L442: delete the double dot.

Revised.

L471: N₂O-N, not just N.

Revised.

L479-81: i don't fully agree with this, if you specify during the first and second periods it's more correct. The soil T has a diurnal cycle (more or less pronounced) through the year, and this is not driving N₂O emissions at all times (see my comment before).

We removed the following: "although a diurnal variation in flux was in response to the diurnal soil temperature wave. Average daytime emissions were much higher than night emissions (278.8 vs. 100.0 $\mu\text{g N}_2\text{O-N m}^{-2} \text{hr}^{-1}$)."

Fig4. Caption. "a" and "b" are not visible in the charts, perhaps add them to the plots inside the chart area, otherwise specify in the text what's right/left. Correct "Obukov". Replace "outputted" with "output".

Revised.

Fig 5-6: replace the fertilization asterisk symbols with vertical lines for example, to make it easier to read. These symbols are not easily seen together with the rest of the charts content.

Revised.

Fig 7: the legends, axis, text in the plot areas are too small to be readable. I understand the advantage of having all charts nearby, but I think it would be better to change the format of the written words within the plot areas. I take the regression coefficients are referring to daily values

Revised all accordingly.

In the caption, added 30-min to show the data frequency.

Fig8: again, change the marker for fertilizer events to vertical lines or something that is easier to see. The caption is unclear, you mention data from March were shown, but the graph shows from april onwards?

Added the following in the caption:

"24 days before the experiment (March 10) chicken litter was applied at a rate of 99 kg N ha⁻¹ (not shown on the figure)."

Fig.9: need to change the size of the text within the plots, they're difficult to read. Also, in the caption, specify the values time resolution (hourly?). Add in all plots when the fertilisation events occurred (maybe a vertical line).

Revised accordingly. In the caption, added 30-min to show the data frequency.

Fig.10: I suggest to replace the red square with a filled square (red or not) as it will be more visible in the final format.

Revised.

TABLES:

Tab4: In the headers of the table, repeat the units and what does $r(p)$ mean? Also, $S \times N$, it's an index of some nature, but what information does it add to the paper? If you want to keep it, you need to explain it.

Revised.

Tab6: double parenthesis in the caption, delete it. Replace "swiss" with Switzerland.

Revised.

We thank you and reviewers again for the constructive comments and hope the above mentioned changes are satisfactory for final acceptance of the manuscript.

Sincerely,

Junming Wang

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Nitrous oxide emissions from a commercial cornfield (*Zea mays*) measured using the eddy-covariance technique

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28 **ABSTRACT**

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30 Increases in observed atmospheric concentrations of the long-lived greenhouse gas, nitrous oxide
31 (N_2O), have been well documented. However, information on event-related instantaneous
32 emissions during fertilizer applications is lacking. With the development of fast-response N_2O
33 analyzers, the eddy covariance (EC) technique can be used to gather instantaneous measurements
34 of N_2O concentrations to quantify the exchange of nitrogen between the soil and atmosphere. The
35 objectives of this study were to evaluate the performance of a new EC system, to measure the
36 N_2O flux with the system, and finally to examine relationships of the N_2O flux with soil
37 temperature, soil moisture, precipitation, and fertilization events. An EC system was assembled
38 with a sonic anemometer and a fast-response N_2O analyzer (quantum cascade laser spectrometer)
39 and applied in a cornfield in Nolensville, Tennessee during the 2012 corn growing season (April
40 4–August 8). Fertilizer amounts totaling 217 kg N ha^{-1} were applied to the experimental site.
41 Results showed that this N_2O EC system provided reliable N_2O flux measurements. The
42 cumulative emitted N_2O amount for the entire growing season was $6.87 \text{ kg } N_2O\text{-N ha}^{-1}$.
43 Seasonal fluxes were highly dependent on soil moisture rather than soil temperature. This study
44 was one of the few experiments that continuously measured instantaneous, high-frequency N_2O

45 emissions in crop fields over a growing season of more than 100 days.

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51 **1. INTRODUCTION**

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53 As the largest corn producer in the world, the United States produces about one-third of the
54 world's corn crop (about 84 million ha in 2011)

55 (<http://www.epa.gov/agriculture/ag101/cropmajor.html>). Corn is a nitrogen- (N) intensive crop.

56 Every year, large amounts of N are applied to cornfields, but its efficiency is low (30% – 59%)

57 (Halvorson et al. 2005). A large proportion of applied N can be leached to groundwater (e.g.,

58 NO_3^-) and/or emitted to the atmosphere (e.g., nitrous oxide, N_2O ; nitric oxide, NO ; or

59 nitrogen dioxide, NO_2).

60 N_2O is one of the longest lived greenhouse gases (GHGs) and has an estimated radiative forcing

61 of 0.15 Wm^{-2} , compared to carbon dioxide (CO_2) at 2.43 Wm^{-2} and methane (CH_4) at 0.48

62 Wm^{-2} (Forster et al. 2007). In addition to its contribution to global warming, N_2O also plays an

63 important role in stratospheric ozone depletion through O (1D) oxidation (Ravishankara et al.

64 2009). The volume concentration of N_2O in the atmosphere has increased from 273 parts per

65 billion dry air mole fraction (ppbv) in 1950 to 319 ppbv in 2005 (Forster et al. 2007). The major

66 source of anthropogenic N_2O in the atmosphere is believed to be N fertilization accounting for up

67 to 80% of anthropogenic N₂O emissions (Kroeze et al. 1999; Mosier et al. 1998). N₂O emitted
68 from soil is produced by bacterial processes, mainly through nitrification and denitrification
69 (Davidson and Swank 1986). These processes may be affected by several factors, including the
70 percentage of water-filled pore spaces in soil (WFPS) (Dobbie and Smith 2003; Davidson 1991),
71 mineral N concentrations in the soil (Ma et al. 2010; Bouwman et al. 2002; Bouwman 1996),
72 crop type, soil type, soil moisture, air/soil temperature, and oxygen supply within the soil strata.
73 Therefore, N₂O emissions are typically highly variable both in time and space, and are difficult to
74 quantify.

75 Significant efforts have been invested in developing reliable tools for measuring
76 instantaneous N₂O emissions from soil to the atmosphere. The two major measurement methods
77 currently available for N₂O fluxes are the chamber method and the eddy covariance (EC) method
78 (Denmead 2008; Molodovskaya et al. 2011). The chambers, either closed (static) or open
79 (dynamic flow), are the traditional tools that have been used in different land management
80 systems (farmland, forest, and grassland) (Tao et al. 2013; Liu et al. 2012; Arnolda et al. 2005;
81 Klemedtsson et al. 1996). The chamber method is simple in concept and operation, as well as
82 low in cost. However, several limitations may affect the data quality, such as small area
83 coverage, called the footprint, ($\leq 1 \text{ m}^2$), disturbance of the soil environment, and low sampling
84 frequency (Molodovskaya et al. 2011; Denmead 2008). The EC method calculates the spatial
85 averaged flux from a larger “field scale footprint ($10 \text{ m}^2 \sim 1 \text{ km}^2$) (Denmead 2008). Unlike the
86 chamber method, the EC method does not disturb the soil and crop ecosystem and provides a
87 continuous and real-time flux measurement.

88 The EC method is based on the Reynolds decomposition theory that a turbulent variable (x) can
89 be represented by a time-averaged component (\bar{x}) and a fluctuation component (x') (e.g.,

90 Famulari et al. 2010; Kaimal and Finnigan 1994; Stull 1988):

91
$$x = \bar{x} + x' \quad . \quad (1)$$

92 In the EC method, the vertical flux of a gas is expressed as the covariance between the vertical
93 wind velocity and gas concentration:

94
$$J = \overline{w'c'} \quad (2)$$

95 where J is the gas vertical flux, w' and c' are the deviations of vertical wind velocity (w) and gas
96 concentration (c), respectively, and the overbar represents a time average. The EC method
97 requires rapid, simultaneous (or near- simultaneous) measurements of gas concentration and
98 wind velocity at the same point in space. With the developments of fast-response N₂O analyzers
99 in recent years, the EC method has become more common (Jones et al. 2011; Mammarella et al.
100 2010; Eugster et al. 2007; Pihlatie et al. 2005; Di Marco et al. 2004; Edwards et al. 2003). In
101 this project, an EC system for N₂O measurement was assembled in a commercial cornfield in
102 Nolensville (TN) with a newly available fast-response N₂O analyzer. It was a quantum cascade
103 laser (QCL) spectrometer (model CW-QC-TILDAS-76-CS, Aerodyne Research Inc., Billerica
104 MA).

105 The objectives of this study were to evaluate the performance of the new N₂O
106 spectrometer in the EC system, to measure the N₂O flux with the system, and finally to examine
107 relationships between the N₂O flux and soil temperature, soil moisture, precipitation, and
108 fertilization events.

109

110 **2. MATERIALS AND METHODS**

111 *2.1. Site description*

112 The experimental site was located in a commercial cornfield in Nolensville, Tennessee, 35 km
113 south of Nashville (Figure 1). The field was 300 m (east-west) by 500 m (south-north) with a 2%
114 slope facing west. The soil type was Talbott silty clay loam (fine, mixed, semi-active, thermic
115 Typic Hapludalfs; 32.5% sand, 53.8% silt, 13.8% clay)
116 (<http://websoilsurvey.nrcs.usda.gov/app/WebSoilSurvey.aspx>). Soybeans were planted in the
117 previous year's rotation. Corn seeds (Roundup Ready BT Hybrid Corn, P1412 HR, Pioneer Hi-
118 Bred International Inc., Johnston, IA) were sown on April 9, 2012. Measurements were
119 continuous from April 4 to August 8, 2012, covering the entire corn-growing season.

120 The agricultural practice was no-till. A weather station (Vantage PRO2 Plus, Davis
121 Instruments, Vernon Hills, IL) was used to record 30-min precipitation, temperature, pressure,
122 wind speed and direction, relative humidity (RH), and solar radiation. The prevailing wind
123 direction was from the southwest during the growing season.

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125 2.2. *The EC instruments*

126 A sonic anemometer (CSAT3-A, Campbell Sci, Logan, UT) located in the middle of the field
127 measured three-dimensional wind velocities and virtual air temperatures at a sampling rate of 10
128 Hz. It was positioned 1.3 m above the canopy, and was raised as the corn plants grew taller. N₂O
129 concentrations were measured by a quantum cascade laser (QCL) spectrometer (model CW-QC-
130 TILDAS-76-CS, Aerodyne Research Inc., Billerica, MA). The N₂O analyzer was housed in a
131 trailer where a stable working temperature (293-303 K) was maintained. The pressure of the
132 spectrometer sample cell was 4 kpa (30 Torr). The laser was operated at a wave number of 2193
133 cm⁻¹.

134 The N₂O analyzer was located 50 m from the sonic anemometer. Following the specifications
135 of Eugster et al. (2007), a sampling Teflon tube (6 mm inner diameter, 50 m length) was used to
136 sample the air at the EC sonic anemometer location in the middle of the field and was connected
137 to the N₂O analyzer. The tube intake was 20 cm from the sonic anemometer. Sample air was
138 drawn into the tube intake at a rate of 14 STD L min⁻¹. The analyzer provided 10 Hz
139 measurements of N₂O and water vapor (H₂O) concentrations. The analyzer automatically
140 corrected the H₂O effects on N₂O measurements (WPL and cross-sensitivity of H₂O on N₂O) in
141 real time (Nelson 2002). A Campbell Scientific CR3000 data logger was used to record all the
142 data collected at 10 Hz. The EC measurement footprint ranged from 25 to 90 m upwind, and was
143 calculated using the software EddyPro (version 3.0, LI-COR Biosciences, Lincoln, NE). Soil
144 moisture and soil temperatures were measured with a water content reflectometer (CS616) and an
145 averaging soil thermocouple probe (TCAV, Campbell Sci, Logan, UT), which were buried
146 vertically at a depth of 0-10 cm underground. The mineral NO₃⁻ and NH₄⁺ concentrations in the
147 top 10 cm of soil were measured using a Lachat Flow Injection Auto-analyzer (Loveland, CO).
148 (The Auto-analyzer mixes the sample (liquid state) homogeneously with reagents; the sample and
149 reagents are merged to form a concentration gradient that yields analysis results.)

150 2.3. N₂O flux calculation and data corrections

151 The EddyPro version 3.0 was used to process and correct the N₂O flux. EC fluxes were
152 calculated as the covariance of the vertical wind velocity and N₂O concentration over an
153 averaging period:

$$154 \quad J_{N_2O} = \overline{w'c'_{N_2O}} \times \frac{\rho_a}{M_a} \times 3600 \times 28 \times 10^3 \quad , \quad (3)$$

155 where J_{N_2O} is the N_2O flux ($\mu\text{g } N_2O\text{-N m}^{-2} \text{ hr}^{-1}$), c_{N_2O} is the N_2O concentration in air (ppbv), the
156 component prime (') indicates a deviation from the mean, and the overbar denotes a time average,
157 ρ_a is the density of air (kg m^{-3}) and M_a is the molar mass of air ($0.028965 \text{ kg mol}^{-1}$), 3600
158 represents 3600 seconds per hour, and 28 is the molar mass of two N atoms in N_2O (g mole^{-1}).

159 The averaging period to determine eddy fluxes must be sufficient to adequately sample all the
160 motions that contribute to the fluxes, but an overly long averaging period might affect
161 measurements with irrelevant signals. According to Moncrieff et al. (2004), an averaging period
162 of 30 to 60 minutes is appropriate for gas flux calculations. In this study, a commonly used
163 averaging period of 30 minutes was chosen (Mammarella et al. 2010; Eugster et al. 2007; Aubinet
164 et al. 2000).

165 EC measurements need several corrections before and after performing a flux calculation.
166 Data spikes can be caused by random electronic spikes in the measuring or recording systems.
167 The de-spike procedure was applied to the raw data (10 Hz) before the calculation of flux. The
168 spike detection and removal method used in this study was similar to that of Vickers and Mahrt
169 (1997). A spike was identified as up to 3 consecutive outliers with respect to a plausible range
170 within a certain time range, and the spike was replaced with the linear interpolation between
171 adjacent data points. The rationale is that if more consecutive values are found to exceed the
172 plausibility threshold, they might be a sign of an unusual yet physical trend (not an outlier). The
173 threshold was set to 3 to 8 times the standard deviation for a given averaging period (3 times for
174 wind velocity and air temperature, and 8 times for N_2O concentrations; these parameters represent
175 the default values in EddyPro).

176 The vertical axis of the sonic anemometer was not always aligned with the local normal to the
177 surface. Therefore, there could be cross-contamination among components of the flux divergence.
178 In order to avoid cross-contamination, an axis rotation was necessary. The EddyPro used a
179 double rotation scheme, in which the u-component was aligned with a local streamline for each
180 30-min interval, and the v-component and w-component were forced to be zero on average.

181 The physical separation of the sonic anemometer and the N₂O analyzer caused a time lag (τ)
182 between the sonic data and N₂O data. Compensation for τ before the covariance calculation is
183 required in the EC technique. In this study, the τ for each 30-min averaging period was obtained
184 by searching for the maximum cross covariance between sonic variables and analyzer
185 measurements.

186 All EC systems applied to trace gas measurements tend to underestimate the true atmospheric
187 fluxes due to physical limitations of the instruments which cause flux losses at high (e.g.,
188 damping effects from long intake tube) and low frequencies. The commonly used methods of
189 addressing spectral attenuation have been described (e.g., Ferrara et al., 2012, and Moncrieff et al.
190 2004). The EddyPro software program provides several options for spectral correction. In this
191 study at the low frequency range, the analytic correction proposed by Moncrieff et al. (2004) was
192 used, and at the high frequency range, the spectral loss was corrected following Ibrom et al.
193 (2007) and Horst and Lenschow (2009).

194 The frequency loss ratio ($\frac{\Delta\phi}{\phi}$) was calculated as:

$$195 \quad \frac{\Delta\phi}{\phi} = 1 - \frac{\int_0^{+\infty} CO_M df}{\int_0^{+\infty} CO_T df} \quad (4)$$

196 where the CO_T is the theoretical N₂O flux cospectrum following Kaimal et al. (1972), CO_M is the
197 N₂O flux cospectra from the measured data, and f is the spectral frequency.

198 The EddyPro software outputs a frequency correction factor for N₂O (N₂O-cf) as the ratio
199 of the frequency-corrected flux divided by the flux before the frequency correction. Therefore the
200 frequency correction ratio by EddyPro ($\frac{\Delta\phi}{\phi}(EP)$) is:

$$201 \quad \frac{\Delta\phi}{\phi}(EP) = 1 - \frac{1}{N_2O-cf} \quad (5)$$

202

203

204 *2.4. Data for weak turbulence and precipitation conditions*

205 It has been found that under weak wind conditions with no surface heating, turbulence may not
206 develop. Friction velocity (u_*) was used to measure the turbulent state of the atmosphere:

$$207 \quad u_* = (\overline{\omega'u'^2} + \overline{\omega'v'^2})^{\frac{1}{4}}, \quad (6)$$

208 where u' and v' are the fluctuations in horizontal downwind and crosswind components.

209 The determination of an adequate u_* threshold for sufficient turbulent mixing was crucial. The
210 common method to determine the u_* threshold is to examine the scatter plot of night time flux
211 versus u_* , and the threshold is located at the point in which the flux begins to level off as u_*
212 increases (Gu et al. 2005). There are also many statistic-based algorithms used to determine u_*
213 thresholds (Papale et al. 2006; Gu et al. 2005; Saleska et al. 2003). Mammarella (2010)
214 summarizes the appropriate range of the u_* threshold as 0.1 for grassland to 0.3 for forest. In this

215 study we used 0.2 as the threshold for the cornfield. A u_* threshold value (0.15 m s^{-1}) was
216 obtained using the method in Barr et al., 2012. That value was similar to and slightly smaller than
217 our threshold value of 0.2 m s^{-1} . Therefore, our data processing using 0.2 m s^{-1} threshold value
218 was conservative and warranted to exclude all the low-turbulence data and even excluded some
219 data just around the low- to normal-turbulence transition zone (u_* from 0.15 to 0.2 m s^{-1}).
220 During precipitation conditions, the sonic anemometer sensor heads could be wet, causing errors
221 in the instantaneous measurements. Therefore in this study the N_2O flux data were excluded in
222 low turbulence, $u_* < 0.2 \text{ m s}^{-1}$, and during rainfall.

223 2.5 *Measurement periods*

224 As noted above, continuous measurements were carried out from April 4 to August 8, 2012. The
225 corn was harvested one week after the study period ended. On August 8, the moisture content of
226 the kernels was less than 25%; therefore the study period covered the entire growing season.
227 Prior to planting and before the EC measurements were initiated, chicken litter (99 kg N ha^{-1}) was
228 applied to the field on March 10. Two applications of fertilizers were subsequently supplied on
229 April 10 (URAN-32-0-0 liquid nitrogen, 39 kg N ha^{-1}) and May 14 (URAN-32-0-0 liquid
230 nitrogen, 79 kg N ha^{-1}). The experimental period was divided into four specific periods based on
231 fertilization or precipitation events (Table 1). The first period started 24 days after the application
232 of chicken litter, and the first liquid fertilizer application (URAN-32-0-0, at a rate of 39 kg ha^{-1})
233 was within this period. The second period was characterized by the second fertilizer application
234 and high precipitation. The third period was without fertilization and significant precipitation,
235 and the fourth period had high relative precipitation but no fertilization. The data were further
236 divided into two groups according to the measurement time: daytime (7 a.m. to 7 p.m.) and night

237 time (7 p.m. to 7 a.m.). Mean and standard deviations of the N₂O flux, soil moisture, and soil
238 temperature were obtained and regression and correlation analysis were conducted for day and
239 night for different temporal periods. In the regression analysis, soil moisture and temperature
240 were independent variables and N₂O flux was the dependent variable. The regression equations
241 were used for filling gaps at the missing data points. The N₂O flux was then integrated for the
242 whole season to obtain the overall N₂O emission.

243

244 **3. RESULTS**

245 3.1 The performance of the N₂O analyzer

246 The precision of the N₂O concentration measurements was characterized under field
247 sampling conditions by the Allan variance technique (Figure 2). In the log-log plot, the
248 measurement variance decreased with the integration time (t) with a slope of -1 when $t \leq 10$ s,
249 indicating that there were no correlations between noise sources (pink noise) at time scales of 0.1
250 to 10 s. The variance had a broad minimum between 10 and 100 s with a minimum corresponding
251 to 0.006 ppbv of standard deviation. The standard deviation was 0.066 ppbv for 10 Hz
252 (integration time 0.1 s), 0.020 ppbv for 1 Hz (integration time 1 s), and 0.006 ppbv for 0.1 Hz
253 (integration time 10 s).

254 Figure 3 shows the frequency distribution of time lags during the experimental period. The
255 peak value of the distribution appeared at $\tau = 6.3$ s, which represents the air flow time in the
256 sampling tube between the field collection location and the QCL N₂O analyzer.

257 Figure 4 shows sample cospectra of sensible heat and N₂O and the theoretical N₂O
258 cospectra obtained during a windy day (Figure 4.a) and a windy night (Figure 4.b). A rather good
259 performance of the N₂O cospectrum in the low frequencies was demonstrated. The N₂O
260 cospectrum fell off faster at higher frequencies than the theoretical cospectrum and the sensible
261 heat cospectrum. The N₂O flux frequency loss ratios during the daytime and night time were low
262 (1% and 2%). The frequency correction ratios by EddyPro for the daytime and night time were 18
263 and 19%, respectively.

264 Table 2 shows the variation of the frequency loss ratio of N₂O flux under weak to strong
265 wind conditions (u^* is linearly related to wind speed). In general, the mean of flux frequency loss
266 ratios (including all ratios: ≥ 0 and < 0) increased with increased wind speed (u_*) when $u_* \geq 0.2$ m
267 s^{-1} . When $u_* \leq 0.2$ m s^{-1} , the eddies may not have been well enough developed for the
268 measurements to be accurate. Under the night time condition, the frequency loss ratio was larger
269 than under the daytime condition when the u_* values were in the same category. The average
270 EddyPro frequency correction ratio was 15% to 18%.

271 *3.2 Seasonal variations*

272 A total of 5,197 30-min data points were collected. After applying the two filters ($u_* \geq 0.2$,
273 precipitation free), 1,390 data points remained. In general, the concentration and the flux of N₂O
274 had higher values during and after the fertilizer application but gradually decreased with time, as
275 shown in Figure 5 and Figure 6. However, rainfall (soil moisture) was a trigger for N₂O
276 emissions, which is the reason the flux reached peak values on the day of the largest application
277 of URAN-32-0-0 (May 14), and the lack of peak values of N₂O flux just after the first application

278 with no rainfall. The growing season was characterized by a number of precipitation events which
279 appeared to increase the N₂O concentration as well as the N₂O flux.

280 Note the two general seasonal concentration levels in Figure 6. One was before a
281 continuous corn canopy was established in early June, and the second, a continuous canopy that
282 extended from mid-June to August 8. These differences may have been caused by the high
283 applications of the fertilizer and less nitrogen use by the establishing crop before June which
284 resulted in higher soil N availability and more N₂O emissions during that period as shown in
285 Figure 5.

286 *3.3 Diurnal variations*

287 Diurnal variations of the N₂O flux were detected (Figures 7 and 8). Figure 7 contains nearly
288 complete diurnal data for each day for five selected days (>20 hours data per day and $u_* \geq 0.2 \text{ m s}^{-1}$).
289 The peak flux commonly appeared during the daytime, whereas the flux was low at night
290 except for the third sub-period in Figure 8 when soil moisture was high during the night time. The
291 average daytime and night time N₂O fluxes during the five days were $96.4 \pm 11.7 \mu\text{g N}_2\text{O-N m}^{-2}$
292 hr^{-1} and $59.0 \pm 13.0 \mu\text{g N}_2\text{O-N m}^{-2} \text{hr}^{-1}$, respectively. The average flux was about 63% higher
293 during the daytime than during the night time (Figure 7). The average daytime and night time N₂O
294 fluxes during the whole season were 278.8 ± 47.5 and $99.9 \pm 29.8 \mu\text{g N}_2\text{O-N m}^{-2} \text{hr}^{-1}$, respectively
295 (All the 'mean \pm number' in this paper are 95% confidence intervals unless otherwise noted).
296 This diurnal response was most likely a temperature response.

297

298 *3.4 Result statistics*

299 The N₂O concentrations and fluxes were highly variable with time. The concentration was 322.8
300 ± 0.3 ppbv with a coefficient of variation (CV) of 1.24%. The N₂O flux ranged from 0.0 to
301 event-related emissions as high as 11,100 μg N₂O-N m⁻² hr⁻¹ with a CV of 317.6% and a mean of
302 257.5 ± 42.9 μg N₂O-N m⁻² hr⁻¹. As shown in Table 3, nearly 90% of the data were obtained
303 during the daytime. Fluxes were higher during the daytime than during the night (Table 3 and
304 Figure 7). For the whole experimental period, the total emission was 6.87 kg N₂O-N ha⁻¹ (Figure
305 9).

306

307 *3.5 Effects of soil moisture, temperature, and N availability on N₂O emissions*

308 Figure 10 presents an overview of the measured concentration and flux for the whole
309 experimental period, together with soil temperature and soil moisture. Generally, the variations of
310 N₂O concentration and flux followed most closely the pattern of variation of soil moisture. As
311 expected, concentrations and fluxes were usually elevated immediately after precipitation events.
312 As shown in Table 1, there was no fertilization event or significant precipitation in the third
313 period, and thus the N₂O flux was constantly low.

314 In previous studies it has been difficult to generalize and interpret the relationships of N₂O
315 emissions with soil temperature or soil moisture quantitatively because in each specific study the
316 determinants are different. In this study, for the entire experimental period, the N₂O flux was
317 positively correlated to soil moisture with a Pearson correlation coefficient *r* of 0.42 (*p* < 0.001),
318 while the correlation with soil temperature was poor (*r* = -0.079, *p* = 0.003). Table 4 shows the
319 Pearson correlation coefficients for the periods defined in Table 1. The N₂O flux was significantly
320 correlated with soil moisture except for S1N, which was probably limited by the small sample

321 size. These correlations indicate that on this site the dominant driver of N₂O emissions was soil
322 moisture in addition to substrate N availability.

323 Although the soil temperature did not positively correlate to the seasonal N₂O emission, it
324 was significantly and positively correlated to the diurnal (hourly) N₂O emission during the first
325 and second sub-periods (correlation coefficient $r_{st}=0.76$ and 0.56 , $p<0.001$) when soil moisture
326 was not strongly predictive ($r_{sm}<0.36$, $p>0.05$) (Figure 8). Therefore, the peak flux during these
327 sub-periods appeared most often during the day when the soil temperature was relatively high
328 compared to the night. However, during times of significant effects of soil moisture ($r_{sm}>0.45$,
329 $p<0.05$) during the third and fourth sub-periods, the temperature effects on the N₂O flux was not
330 significant ($r_{st}<0.2$, $p>0.05$).

331 Several studies have found that N₂O flux increased exponentially with soil temperature
332 (Dinsmore et al. 2009; Schindlbacher et al. 2004; Smith et al. 2003). At first we regressed the
333 observed N₂O flux with soil temperature and soil moisture following the exponential functions
334 given by Luo et al. (2013). However, for some periods the coefficients of determination (R^2)
335 were low (<0.4). Then we regressed the N₂O flux with soil temperature and soil moisture using
336 exponential or polynomial functions (Table 5). The values of R^2 ranged from 0.45 to 0.70. For
337 most of the periods, soil moisture explained a significant amount of the variation in N₂O
338 emissions.

339 N availability was an important factor in N₂O emissions. The fertilizer amount of the
340 second application was more than twice that of the first application; the large amount of fertilizer
341 provided sufficient N. The volume concentration of NO₃⁻ in the top 10 cm of soil was 5.5 parts
342 per million (ppmv) on April 15, and was 8.5 ppmv on May 16. The concentrations of NH₄⁺ were

343 16 ppmv and 19.5 ppmv for these two days, respectively. The higher mineral N concentration
344 most likely contributed to the dramatic increase in N₂O concentration and flux after the second
345 application.

346

347 **4. DISCUSSION**

348 *4.1. N₂O analyzer performance*

349 Several studies have been performed for N₂O measurements using QCL spectrometers over
350 grassland or forest (Neftel et al. 2010, 2007; Eugster et al. 2007; Kroon et al. 2007; Nelson et al.
351 2004). Besides experimental locations, seasons, and/or crop types, the instruments utilized in
352 these studies differed from each other in terms of absorption line and precision. For example, in
353 the studies of Kroon et al. (2007) and Neftel et al. (2010), N₂O was measured at wavelengths of
354 1271.1 cm⁻¹ and 1275.5 cm⁻¹, respectively, while in Neftel et al. (2007) and Eugster et al. (2007),
355 N₂O was measured at 2241.0 cm⁻¹ and 2243.1 cm⁻¹, respectively. The precision of the
356 instruments in these four studies, at a sampling rate of 1 Hz, was 0.5, 0.7, 0.3, and 0.3 ppbv,
357 respectively. In our study, the precision was 0.02 ppbv at 1 Hz.

358 The detection limits of the EC flux were calculated as the standard deviations of the cross
359 covariances between vertical wind fluctuations and gas concentration fluctuations far outside of
360 the true time lag ($-200 \text{ s} \leq \tau \leq -50 \text{ s}$, and $50 \text{ s} \leq \tau \leq 200 \text{ s}$) (Neftel et al., 2010, Wienhold et al.,
361 1995). Thus the EC detection limits derived from this method was not a constant value and was
362 dependent on the instruments and atmospheric conditions. The mean detection limit in this study
363 was 7.56 ug N m⁻² hr⁻¹, which was less than half of the N₂O flux detection limit of 17.13 ug N
364 m⁻² hr⁻¹ as reported in Neftel et al. (2010) and 21.60 ug N m⁻² hr⁻¹ in Kroon et al. (2007).

365 It has been shown that the sensible heat cospectrum calculated from sonic temperatures
366 experiences almost no damping (Neftel et al. 2010; Kroon et al. 2007) (Figure 4.a and 4.b).
367 Therefore, an empirical correction approach can be used, based on a comparison of the sensible
368 heat cospectrum and N₂O cospectrum to correct the high frequency loss (Neftel et al. 2010; Kroon
369 et al. 2007).

370 Neftel et al. (2010), under a wind speed of 0.8 to 2 m s⁻¹, reported a 14 to 30% frequency
371 loss correction ratio compared to a mean correction ratio of 16% by EddyPro in this study
372 (corresponding to $u_* = 0.2$ to 0.5 m s⁻¹). Neftel et al. (2010) used vapor cospectra to correct the
373 frequency loss, whereas, this study used the methods in Ibrom et al. (2007), Horst and Lenschow
374 (2009), and Moncrieff et al. (2004), which may account for the difference in frequency loss
375 correction ratios.

376 About 93% of the valid data ($u_* \geq 0.2$ m s⁻¹) in this study were under wind conditions of
377 $0.4 \text{ m s}^{-1} > u_* \geq 0.2 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ and were in the daytime, when the corresponding mean frequency loss
378 ratio was low, between 2% and 4%. Therefore, the flux may have been overestimated because the
379 mean frequency correction ratio was 16-18% (Table 2).

380 The mean of the positive frequency loss ratios was greater than 22% and the mean of the
381 negative loss ratios was smaller than -37% (for $u_* \geq 0.2$ m s⁻¹) (Table 2). The negative and the
382 positive ratios cancelled out each other and resulted in the mean 2% to 4% frequency loss ratios.
383 Therefore, for long-term N₂O flux measurements, the mean frequency loss may be low.

384 *4.2. N₂O emission compared with the literature*

385 A number of studies have been carried out to investigate N₂O emissions from soil to the
386 atmosphere, and the results reported in the literature show tremendous variation (Table 6).
387 Previous studies have shown that the N₂O emission depends on several factors, including
388 precipitation, fertilization, tillage, crop type, soil factor, and instrumentation (Ussiri et al. 2009;
389 Wagner-Riddle et al. 2007). Fertilizer application was a prime factor causing a different N₂O
390 emission in previous studies. Generally, the measured flux and cumulative emission were larger
391 with a larger amount of fertilizer application (Table 6). In order to obtain a gross synthesis of
392 these previous studies, shown in Table 6, and how this study fits into them, we plotted those
393 which reported both fertilizer applied and the integrated amount of N₂O emissions. Figure 11
394 presents a simple linear plot of emissions (Kg N₂O-N Ha⁻¹) (Table 6, column 9) as a function of
395 fertilizer applied (Kg N Ha⁻¹) (Table 6, column 6). The graph demonstrates a general linear trend
396 ($R^2=0.48$, $p<0.001$) of increasing emissions with increased amounts of N fertilizer, without regard
397 to soil moisture, crop type, tillage, crop management, measurement techniques, or length of time
398 of the study. The simple linear regression shows the ratio of N₂O emissions to N fertilizer to be
399 0.0143. Thus, in general, it appears that 1.43% of each unit of N fertilizer applied is emitted to
400 the atmosphere as N₂O.

401 Corn crops were reported in nine of the studies listed in Table 6. They fit the trends described
402 above. Similar amounts of fertilizers were applied in Lee et al. (2009) and Laville et al. (1999) as
403 in this study; and similar orders of N₂O emission were observed in all three. Where lower
404 applications of fertilizer were reported for corn fields (Molodovskaya et al. 2011, Phillips et al.
405 2009, Ussiri et al. 2009, Wagner-Riddle et al. 2007, and Grant and Pattey 2003), lower N₂O
406 emissions were measured.

407 In addition to fertilization, tillage also has played a role in governing N₂O emissions. Lee and
408 colleagues (Lee et al. 2009) showed that with the same amounts of fertilizers for corn, sunflower,
409 and chickpea, different tillage could cause differences in N₂O emissions. And fully tilled fields
410 tended to release less N₂O.

411 In general, forest N₂O emissions have been lower than those from agriculture, which was
412 probably due to the large amount of fertilizers applied to farmland. For example, compared to the
413 flux rate $257.5 \pm 42.9 \mu\text{g N}_2\text{O-N m}^{-2} \text{ hr}^{-1}$ in this study, Mammarella et al. (2010) measured an
414 averaged flux of $\sim 10 \mu\text{g N}_2\text{O-N m}^{-2} \text{ hr}^{-1}$ during May 2 to June 5, 2003 in a beech forest of
415 Denmark. They showed $\sim 5 \mu\text{g N}_2\text{O-N m}^{-2} \text{ hr}^{-1}$ flux during the spring of 2007 in a forest
416 with pine, small-sized spruce, and birch in southern Finland, using both the EC and chamber
417 methods. Eugster et al. (2007) measured N₂O from a forest mixed with beech and spruce using
418 the EC method. The reported flux was $22.4 \pm 11.2 \mu\text{g N}_2\text{O-N m}^{-2} \text{ hr}^{-1}$.

419

420 4.3 Effects of soil moisture, temperature, and N availability on N emissions

421 Soil moisture is a major factor for N₂O emissions (Table 4). As indicated by Dobbie and Smith
422 (2003) and Davidson (1991), N₂O emitted from soil is caused principally by the microbial
423 nitrogen transformations during both nitrification and denitrification. These processes are closely
424 related to WFPS since denitrification is an anaerobic process, which depends on the balance
425 between the amount of water entering and leaving the soil. Several studies have confirmed that
426 there are connections between increased N₂O emissions and precipitation (Zona et al. 2011;
427 Jungkunst et al. 2008; Neftel et al. 2007, e.g.). In this study, after the first application of fertilizer,
428 precipitation did not occur immediately and there was no significant change in N₂O flux. On the

429 day of the second application, the total precipitation was 3.02 mm and peak values of N₂O fluxes
430 occurred immediately after the precipitation event (Figure 5). The difference of N₂O emission
431 response after first and second applications of fertilizer showed the trigger effect of precipitation on the
432 N₂O emission. The other notable feature of Figure 5 was the remarkable increases of N₂O for the days with
433 precipitation. The variations in the increases may have been mainly caused by the changes in soil moisture
434 content due to precipitation.

435

436 During the whole season, soil temperature was not positively correlated to N₂O flux ($r=-0.084$,
437 $p<0.01$). Apparently soil temperature generally increased with time during the season, while the
438 N₂O flux did not. Therefore the N₂O flux was correlated mainly with soil moisture (Figure 10
439 and Table 4). Thus compared to the factor of soil moisture, soil temperature had rather weak
440 effects on N₂O emissions at this specific site (Table 4).

441 However, when looking at the diurnal cycles, when soil moisture was not a predominant factor ($r_{sm}<$
442 0.4 , $p>0.05$ in the first and second sub-periods), soil temperature was significantly and positively
443 correlated to N₂O emissions ($r_{sm}\geq 0.56$, $p<0.001$) (Figure 8). This indicates if soil moisture is not
444 changed and other factors remain constant, the N₂O emission during the daytime is higher than
445 during the night time. The soil microorganisms were more active during the warmer daytime and
446 produced more N₂O emissions, as pointed out in Maljanen et al. (2002). However, the daytime
447 fluxes were not always higher through the whole season as shown on Figure 7; i.e., the daytime
448 fluxes were not higher during the third and the fourth periods because the soil moisture was a
449 predominant factor ($r_{sm}> 0.4$).

450 As expected, mineral nitrogen availability was an important factor in N₂O emissions. The
451 fertilizer applications before June may have caused higher soil N availabilities and higher N₂O
452 concentrations than after June (Figure 6). The fertilizer amount of the second application was

453 more than twice that of the first application; it most likely contributed to the dramatic increase in
454 N₂O concentration and flux after the second application (Figure 5).

455 *4.4 Response of N₂O emission to precipitation*

456 Soil moisture was strongly dependent on precipitation events. For most precipitation events
457 during the experimental period, the sonic anemometer sensor heads were wet and could not
458 measure the instantaneous wind velocities precisely. Consequently, estimates of the reaction
459 time of emissions to precipitation are lacking. However, there were two events with low rainfall
460 amounts (< 5 mm for each 30-min measurement period) when the sensor heads were not affected
461 (the diagnostic record from the datalogger showed the instruments functioned normally). During
462 these events, the N₂O emissions increased within 30 minutes after rainfall, indicating soil N₂O
463 emission likely responds to rainfall and a change of soil moisture very quickly, as noted
464 previously by Phillips, et al. (2013) using dynamic chambers. Large emissions immediately after
465 rain events have been shown in emission studies of other gases and vapors, for example, Mercury
466 (Bash and Miller, 2009; Gillis and Miller, 2000), and have been attributed to the evacuation of
467 high concentration gas in soil pores as they fill up with water. The same mechanism may be
468 occurring here. In any case, further examination is necessary because the spikes are large and
469 significant emissions during active rainfall may be missed in this and most other field studies.

470 *4.5 Uncertainty in the gap-filling*

471 The gap-filling method used in this study may bring uncertainty to the total N₂O flux
472 estimating. However, it is a common practice that regression model is developed using "good"
473 data (with $u_* \geq$ a threshold value); then the regression model is used to gap-fill the missing data
474 and estimate the total value.

475 We evaluated the uncertainty of the regression equations used in the gap-fillings by
476 comparing the regressed and the measured flux data when ($u_* \geq 0.2 \text{ m s}^{-1}$) and found the average
477 error ratio was 14%. The regression equations were from the "good" eddy-covariance data ($u_* \geq 0.2$
478 m s^{-1}). The "good" data may have been overestimated about 12-16% (Table 2). Therefore, the
479 total N_2O may be overestimated from the gap-filling by about 27% to 32% [e.g.,
480 $27\% = (1+14\%)(1+12\%)-1$].

481 Based on the equation on Figure 11, the seasonal released N_2O should be $3.76 \text{ kg N}_2\text{O-N}$
482 Ha^{-1} . However, from this study, it was $6.87 \text{ kg N}_2\text{O-N Ha}^{-1}$. Therefore, the gap-filling and the EC
483 measurement uncertainties may have partially contributed to the overestimated N_2O release.

484

485

486

487 5. CONCLUSIONS

488 A new N_2O analyzer (quantum cascade laser spectrometer, model CW-QC-TILDAS-76-
489 CS, Aerodyne Research Inc., Billerica, MA) was operated continuously for EC flux
490 measurements of N_2O in a cornfield in Nolensville, TN during the period of April 4–August 8,
491 2012. Based on Allan Variance analysis, the precision of the instrument was 0.066 ppbv for 10
492 Hz measurements. The seasonal mean detection limit of the N_2O flux measurements was 7.56 ug
493 $\text{N}_2\text{O-N m}^{-2} \text{ hr}^{-1}$. The mean frequency loss ratio of the flux measurements was between 0.02 to
494 0.04 under the conditions of $0.4 \text{ m s}^{-1} > u_* \geq 0.2 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ during the day and 0.42 under the conditions
495 of $0.3 \text{ m s}^{-1} > u_* \geq 0.2 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ during the night. We conclude that this N_2O EC system can be used to
496 provide reliable N_2O flux measurements.

497 The cumulative N₂O emission from the experimental site during the entire growing season
498 was 6.87 kg N₂O-N ha⁻¹. This study showed that in addition to N availability in soil, the seasonal
499 and diurnal N₂O emission was highly dependent on soil moisture, and extremely high fluxes
500 appeared after an N fertilization event combined with precipitation. Soil moisture variation was a
501 dominant factor affecting N₂O emissions compared to soil temperature.

502 Combining these results with 9 previous studies in the literature allowed some preliminary
503 synthesization. It appears that approximately 1.43% of each unit of N fertilizer was emitted to the
504 atmosphere as N₂O.

505

506 **6. FUTURE RESEARCH**

507 We recommend that future studies focus on developing precision methods of minimizing N₂O
508 emissions by careful spatial and temporal control of fertilization amounts, water availability, and
509 tilling practices. These should include “mechanism” studies quantifying the N₂O flux rates from
510 various interactions of water and N levels in soils. The effects of reducing the episodic nature of
511 fertilization and water availability should be quantified and methods developed to make such
512 reductions. Complete field-scale experiments designed to test application rates and application
513 timing and yields will likely produce more usable results than even complete monitoring of
514 commercial field operations.

515

516

517 **ACKNOWLEDGMENTS**

518

519 The authors gratefully acknowledge financial support for this research from USDA- Capacity
520 Building Grant (2011-38821-30971), Evans-Allen grant, and the support from the Illinois State
521 Water Survey at the University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign. The authors thank Dr. Roger
522 Sauve (Tennessee State University) for helping arrange the commercial farm for the experiment.
523 We also thank Eddie Williams, Daniel Doss, and Emeka Nwaneri for field experimental
524 assistance. Opinions expressed are those of the authors and not necessarily those of the Illinois
525 State Water Survey, the Prairie Research Institute, or the University of Illinois.

526

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835 also given.
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- 837 5. Daily average N₂O flux ($\mu g N_2O-N m^{-2} hr^{-1}$) with rainfall and N fertilizer applications from April 4
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- 843 7. Diurnal variation of 30-min N₂O flux of five 4.5 days when day and night data were nearly complete
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854 11. Regression of cumulative N₂O emission on the total applied fertilizer N in 10 different studies
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 856 result of this study is indicated by the red square.
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864 Table 1. Overview of four measurement periods characterized by precipitation and fertilization. Two
 865 fertilizer application events were on April 10 and May 14, 2012 respectively. Before the experiment 99 kg
 866 N ha⁻¹ chicken litter was applied on March 10, total precipitation was calculated as the sum of precipitation
 867 of each period.

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Index	Date	Fertilization kg N ha ⁻¹	Total precipitation (mm)
S1D	Apr 4 -- Apr 25, day	39 (URAN-32-0-0)	15.73
S1N	Apr 4 -- Apr 25, night	-	28.68
S2D	Apr 26 -- May 26, day	79 (URAN-32-0-0)	69.82
S2N	Apr 26 -- May 26, night	-	96.23
S3D	May 27 -- Jun 24, day	-	20.32
S3N	May 27 -- Jun 24, night	-	8.62
S4D	Jun 25 -- Aug 8, day	-	74.38
S4N	Jun 25 -- Aug 8, night	-	53.56

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877 Table 2. Variation of frequency loss ratio $\frac{\Delta\phi}{\phi}$ and frequency loss correction ratio by EddyPro $\frac{\Delta\phi}{\phi}(EP)$
878 with friction velocity (u^* , $m\ s^{-1}$) for May 2012. N/A: not available. Numbers in the cells are mean \pm
879 standard deviations.
880

u^*	$0 \leq u^* < 0.1$			$0.1 \leq u^* < 0.2$			$0.2 \leq u^* < 0.3$			$0.3 \leq u^* < 0.4$			$0.4 \leq u^* < 0.5$		
Rang of Loss ratio	≥ 0	< 0	all	≥ 0	< 0	all	≥ 0	< 0	all	≥ 0	< 0	all	≥ 0	< 0	all
Daytime															
# of samples	16	18	34	84	65	149	113	140	253	27	22	49	2	N/A	2
$\frac{\Delta\phi}{\phi}$	0.43 \pm 0.48	-0.42 \pm 0.48	0.02 \pm 0.64	0.33 \pm 0.55	-0.45 \pm 1.10	0.01 \pm 0.91	0.43 \pm 1.29	-0.39 \pm 1.64	0.02 \pm 1.54	0.22 \pm 0.22	-0.37 \pm 0.67	0.04 \pm 0.55	0.31 \pm 0.29	N/A	0.31 \pm 0.29
$\frac{\Delta\phi}{\phi}(EP)$	0.16 \pm 0.01	0.16 \pm 0.01	0.16 \pm 0.01	0.16 \pm 0.00	0.15 \pm 0.00	0.16 \pm 0.01	0.16 \pm 0.01	0.16 \pm 0.01	0.16 \pm 0.01	0.18 \pm 0.01	0.17 \pm 0.01	0.18 \pm 0.01	0.16 \pm 0.01	N/A	0.16 \pm 0.01
Nighttime															
# of samples	145	91	236	47	12	59	4	N/A	4	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
$\frac{\Delta\phi}{\phi}$	0.76 \pm 1.35	-0.84 \pm 1.66	0.14 \pm 1.67	0.90 \pm 1.09	-0.23 \pm 0.26	0.66 \pm 1.08	0.42 \pm 0.27	N/A	0.42 \pm 0.27	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
$\frac{\Delta\phi}{\phi}(EP)$	0.16 \pm 0.01	0.16 \pm 0.01	0.16 \pm 0.01	0.16 \pm 0.01	0.16 \pm 0.00	0.16 \pm 0.01	0.16 \pm 0.01	N/A	0.16 \pm 0.01	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A

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Table 3. Descriptive statistics for 30-min N₂O concentration and flux for the period of experiment, April 4 - August 8, 2012 ($u_* \geq 0.2 \text{ m s}^{-1}$). Nonparametric boot-strapping procedure was used to obtain the 95% confidence interval.

	Number of samples	Concentration (ppbv)		Flux ($\mu\text{g N}_2\text{O-N m}^{-2} \text{ hr}^{-1}$)	
		Mean	95% Confidence interval	Mean	95% Confidence interval
Daytime	1224	322.9	± 0.2	278.8	± 47.5
Nighttime	166	322.5	± 0.6	99.9	± 29.8
Total	1390	322.8	± 0.3	257.5	± 42.9

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 908 Table 4. Statistical results of 30-min soil temperature (°C), soil moisture (%) and N₂O flux (µg N₂O-N m⁻²
 909 hr⁻¹) (mean ±95% confidence interval), as well as Pearson correlation coefficients and p value [r(p)] of
 910 N₂O flux with soil temperature or soil moisture ($u_* \geq 0.2 \text{ m s}^{-1}$). N/A: not available.

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Date	Fertilizer application	Number of samples	Soil temperature	Soil moisture	Flux	Soil temperature r (p)	Soil moisture r(p)
	kg N ha ⁻¹		°C	%	µg N ₂ O-N m ⁻² hr ⁻¹		
March 10	99 (chicken litter)	N/A					
Apr 4 -- Apr 25, day	39 (URAN-32-0-0)	274	18.0 ±0.4	11.8±0.3	173.3±27.9	0.18 (0.00)	0.61 (0.00)
Apr 4 -- Apr 25, night		48	18.9 ±0.6	9.1±0.4	62.7±20.1	0.45 (0.00)	0.07(0.65)
Apr 26 -- May 26, day	79 (URAN-32-0-0)	392	23.2 ±0.2	15.0±0.4	602.5±141.9	-0.20(0.00)	0.49 (0.00)
Apr 26 -- May 26, night		35	21.9 ±0.9	12.0±1.1	173.5 ±69.9	0.50 (0.00)	0.64(0.00)
May 27 -- Jun 24, day		326	24.9±0.2	11.1 ±0.5	60.8±5.6	-0.19(0.00)	0.78 (0.00)
May 27 -- Jun 24, night		36	26.1 ±0.4	12.0 ±1.7	88.4 ±49.6	0.15 (0.39)	0.61(0.00)
Jun 25 -- Aug 8, day		232	27.1±0.2	10.5 ±0.5	162.2±34.5	-0.25(0.00)	0.57 (0.00)
Jun 25 -- Aug 8, night		47	28.8 ±0.4	8.2 ±1.1	92.3±75.4	-0.49 (0.00)	0.53 (0.00)
Whole experimental period, day		1224	23.2 ±0.2	12.4 ±0.3	279.0±48.1	-0.08 (0.00)	0.42 (0.00)
Whole experimental period, night		166	23.9±0.7	10.2±0.6	100.1±36.4	0.05 (0.56)	0.50 (0.00)

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Table 5. Thirty-min N₂O flux ($\mu\text{g N}_2\text{O-N m}^{-2} \text{ hr}^{-1}$) regression equations ($p < 0.01$) with soil moisture (SM, %) and soil temperature (ST, °C) ($u_* \geq 0.2 \text{ m s}^{-1}$).

Date	Day Equation	R ²	Night Equation	R ²
April 4 - April 25	$20.16e^{19.398SM}$	0.45	$-137.74 + 5.64SM + 564.48ST$	0.62
April 26 - May 26	$209037600SM^4 - 11612160SM^3 + 2360304SM^2 - 191720SM + 66185.28$	0.68	$18e^{16.48SM}$	0.45
May 27 - June 24	$66154.68SM^3 - 137696.28SM^2 + 967.68SM + 10.08$	0.71	$6.048e^{16.31SM}$	0.70
June 25 - August 8	$20.16e^{18.35SM}$	0.54	$0.5e^{23.11SM}$	0.54

933 Table 6. Summary of N₂O measurements in literature [mean flux (or flux range) and cumulative emission],
 934 EC indicates eddy covariance method, '-' indicates data or information is not available directly from the
 935 reference.

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Reference	Location	Period	Plant	Tillage	Fertilizer, kg N ha ⁻¹	Method	Flux, µg N ₂ O-N m ⁻² hr ⁻¹	Cumulative emission, kg N ₂ O-N ha ⁻¹
this study	Williamson, USA	04-08.2012	Corn	No till	217	EC	257.5 ±817.7 ^a	6.9
Wang et al. (2013)	Shanxi, China	01--10.2009	Cotton	Till	75	Chamber	1.2--468.8	1.43
		01--12.2009	Cotton	Till	75	EC	-10.8—912.0	3.15
Molodovskaya et al. (2011)	Hardford, New York	06--07.2008	Corn	Till	125	Chamber	30.0±48.0	-
			Alfalfa	Till	750	Chamber	66.0±42.0	-
			Between corn and Alfalfa	-	-	EC	78.0±420.0	
Neftel et al. (2010)	central Switzerland	06--09.2008	Grass	Till	230	Chamber	121.0	3.1
						EC	56.5	1.5 ^b
Mammarella et al.(2010)	Sor ø Denmark	05.2003	Beech	-	-	Chamber	9.9±0.12 ^a	-
						EC	7.2±0.40 ^a	-
	Kalevansuo, Finland	04--06.2007	Pine, spruce, birch	-	-	Chamber	4.5±0.03 ^a	-
						EC	4.6±1.0 ^a	-
Lee et al. (2009)	Yolo, California	04--09.2004	Corn	Standard till	244	Chamber	0- 100.8 ^b	3.8
				minimum tillage	244	Chamber	0- 412.0 ^b	8.5
Phillips et al. (2009)	Mandan, North Dakota	04--08.2008	Corn	No till	70 (early spring)	Chamber	210.0 ^c	0.6±0.31 ^a

					70 (late spring)	Chamber	270.0 ^c	0.7±0.22 ^a
Ussiri et al. (2009)	Clarleston, USA	11.2004-11.2005	Corn	No till	200	Chamber	12.1	0.9
				Chisel till	200	Chamber	30.8	2.0
				Moldboard till	200	Chamber	27.9	1.8
Li et al. (2008)	Luancheng China	1995--1998	Corn		320.5	Gradient	-4410.0— 4840.0	-
			Wheat	-	247	Gradient	-2820.0— 3590.0	-
Eugster et al. (2007)	Lägeren mountain, Switzerland	10--11.2005	Beech, spruce	-	-	EC	22.4±11.2 ^a	-
Kroon et al. (2007)	Reeuwijk, Netherlands	08--11.2006	Grass	-	337	EC	187.2±284.4 ^a	-
Wagner-Riddle et al. (2007)	Ontario, Canada	2000--2001	Corn	Till	150	Gradient	24.0 ^d	1.2±0.08 ^a
				No till	110	Gradient	17.8 ^d	1.0±0.07 ^a
		2001-2002	Soybean	Till	-	Gradient	15.0 ^d	0.7±0.06 ^a
				No till	-	Gradient	10.0 ^d	0.5±0.01 ^a
		2002--2003	Wheat	Till	90	Gradient	17.4 ^d	3.0±0.39 ^a
				No till	60	Gradient	8.1 ^d	0.7 ± 0.11 ^a
		2003--2004	Corn	Till	150	Gradient	39.1 ^d	1.8±0.20 ^a
				No till	110	Gradient	10.1 ^d	1.6±0.16 ^a
		2004--2005	Soybean	Till	-	Gradient	5.9 ^d	0.3±0.08 ^a
				No till	-	Gradient	3.6 ^d	0.3±0.01 ^a
Kitzler et al. (2006)	North Tyrol Limestone Alps, Austria	05.2002--04.2003	Spruce, fir, beech	-	-	Chamber	4.5	0.3±0.11 ^a
		05.2003--04.2004	Spruce, fir, beech	-	-	Chamber	4.4	0.4±0.09 ^a
Zou et al. (2005)	Nanjing, China	05.2002—10.2002	Rice	-	0	Chamber	48.2	1.38±0.01 ^a

					150	chamber	100.0 ^b	2.67±0.07 ^a
					300	chamber	170.0 ^b	4.44±0.16 ^a
					450	chamber	215.9	6.17±0.42 ^a
		11.2002— 06.2003	Winter wheat	-	0	chamber	53.8	2.84±0.03 ^a
					100	chamber	91.5	4.83±0.06 ^a
					200	chamber	110.0 ^b	6.44±0.08 ^a
					300	chamber	137.8	7.27±0.43 ^a
Grant and Pattey (2003)	Ottawa, Canada	05--07.1998	Corn	Till	155	EC	-	2.2
					99	EC	-	1.2
Laville et al. (1999)	Landes de Gascogne, France	06.1999	Corn	Till	200	Chamber	90—990	-
						EC	72—1440	-
Simpson et al. (1997)	Saskatchewan, Canada	04--09.1994	Aspen	-	-	Gradient	5.04±2.5	-

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938 a. Standard deviations.

939 b. Values are not given directly, calculated from known variables.

940 c. The measurements were taken at 10:00-12:00 daily, and used as the daily flux.

941 d. Median, instead of mean.

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