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Additional Information

1 Ammonia and greenhouse gas emissions from an enriched cage laying hen facility

2 O. Alberdi^{1*}, H. Arriaga¹, S. Calvet², F. Estellés², P. Merino¹

3 (1) NEIKER-Tecnalia, Environment Quality Department, Parque tecnológico de Bizkaia, parcela 812. 48160,

4 Derio (Bizkaia), SP

5 (2) Universitat Politècnica de Valencia, Institute of Animal Science and Technology, 46022, Valencia, SP

6 *Corresponding author: E-mail: oalberdi@neiker.eus

7 ABSTRACT

8 Ammonia, methane, nitrous oxide and carbon dioxide emissions were measured during a
9 complete productive cycle in an enriched cage laying hen facility under typical oceanic
10 conditions. Continuous monitoring of gas concentration, ventilation rate and environmental
11 parameters were conducted from April 2012 to September 2013. The diurnal and seasonal
12 pattern of gas emissions was analyzed.

13 Seasonality effect was found for NH₃ emission, showing an average emission of 144.9 mg d⁻¹
14 hen⁻¹ and 90.3 mg d⁻¹ hen⁻¹ in summer and winter respectively. An NH₃ emission factor of
15 7% of total N in manure was defined for this system. Greenhouse gases also showed a
16 diurnal pattern differing in each case. For CO₂, even if averaged emission values (80.2 –
17 95.9 g d⁻¹ hen⁻¹) do not answer to seasonality, a distinct pattern was observed between winter
18 and summer related to ventilation rate. On the contrary, in the case of both CH₄ and N₂O,
19 averaged values varied between winter and summer, showing the opposite diurnal pattern
20 among seasons for each gas. These results show that on-farm emission monitoring studies
21 are necessary to identify gas emission patterns and define proper farm-scale mitigation
22 measures.

23 **Keywords:** diurnal variation; emission factor; gas concentration; hen manure; seasonality;
24 ventilation rate.

25 **1. Introduction**

26 Livestock intensification is associated to concerns on animal welfare and environmental
27 issues such as air pollution. The need to improve the welfare and the productivity together
28 with the mitigation of air pollution has led either governments or producers to the adoption
29 of several international agreements. Regarding egg production sector in EU, intensified
30 laying hen farms had to adopt Directive 1999/74/EC on animal welfare in 2012. According
31 to this regulation, conventional cages (CC) are prohibited across EU since then. Despite
32 alternative production systems have been implemented at varying levels in different EU
33 countries, most CC farms have switched into enriched cage (EC) production system. In this
34 sense, Spain, which is the 3rd egg producer country in EU (MAGRAMA, 2013), has
35 currently more than 85% of its laying hen population producing through EC production
36 system. From an environmental perspective, EU state members are obliged to reduce NH₃
37 and GHG losses by adopting Kyoto and Gothenburg protocols together with Directive
38 2001/81/EC concerning national emission ceilings (NEC). In order to reduce these
39 emissions, EU created Directive 2010/75/EU, known as Industrial Emission Directive (IED).
40 Laying hen farms with more than 40,000 hens are obliged to comply with IED Directive by
41 implementing best available techniques to reduce gaseous losses.

42 Ammonia (NH₃) is one of the main pollutant gases associated with poultry operations,
43 which also lead to poor indoor air quality that affects on the health of animals and workers
44 (Portejoie, Martinez, Landmann, 2002). It also has an impact on vegetation, water and
45 atmospheric environment (Henry & Aherne, 2014). It has been reported that NH₃
46 concentrations and emissions in poultry houses are usually higher than those from other
47 livestock categories, e.g., dairy cattle and swine (Groot Koerkamp et al., 1998). In this
48 sense, Nicholson, Chambers, and Walker (2004) concluded that strategies to reduce NH₃
49 emissions from poultry farming would be most effective if focused on housing and land

50 spreading practices, where the greatest losses occur. On the contrary, methane (CH₄) and
51 nitrous oxide (N₂O) emission from these facilities are lower if compared to other livestock
52 productions, although according to IPCC (2013) both are greenhouse gases with a higher
53 warming potential than carbon dioxide (CO₂).

54 The emission of NH₃ from poultry houses has been widely investigated although most of the
55 studies on laying hen units have been carried out in Central and Northern European
56 countries, and USA, where either the environmental conditions or production systems may
57 differ with respect to South European countries. In contrast to NH₃, fewer data on the
58 emissions of CH₄ and N₂O from animal houses are available (Fournel, Pelletier, Godbout,
59 Lagacé, Feddes, 2012a; Shepherd et al., 2015; Wathes, Holden, Sneath, White, Phillips,
60 1997 and Zhu, Dong, Zhou, Xin, Chen, 2011). Moreover, most of the research on air quality
61 in laying hen houses in Europe has been conducted based on short-time measurements
62 (Nimmermark, Lund, Gustafsson, Eduard, 2009), thus not covering seasonal variations,
63 which have a known key effect on ventilation rates that directly affect pollutant
64 concentrations in the barn. Long term and continuous monitoring is therefore needed to
65 obtain deeper knowledge on gaseous emissions driving factors. This is a key element when
66 proposing mitigation strategies that would better adapt to specific conditions.

67 The main objective of this paper was to report a sound baseline characterization of NH₃,
68 CH₄, CO₂ and N₂O concentrations and emissions from a commercial farm of laying hens
69 under oceanic climatic conditions, located in the Basque Country. A second objective was to
70 analyze the effect of factors such as ventilation, temperature, feeding or manure
71 management on gaseous losses.

72 **2. Material and methods**

73 ***2.1. Animals and housing***

74 Approximately 52,000 Lohmann-Brown hens were housed in a commercial laying hen unit
75 in a vertical tiered EC system adapted to Directive 1999/74/EC.

76 The house (Figure 1) was 17 m wide and 66 m long and enriched cages were arranged in 6
77 rows of 9 tier cages. The lighting period was 17:7 (light:dark) hours per day. The farm was
78 selected to be representative of the current egg production facilities in the Basque Country in
79 terms of management practices.

80 The hens were fed on a phase feeding system composed of three phases differing in crude
81 protein content (Table 1).

82 Animal live weight (LW) was estimated from data provided by the supplier for a Lohmann
83 Brown hen (Lohmann Tierzucht GMBH, 2013) according to animals' age. Bird mortality,
84 laying rate, egg production, feed intake and feed conversion ratio was recorded on a daily
85 basis by the producer and used to calculate bird inventory and productive parameters.

86 Productive parameters of the laying hens during the experiment for different feeding phases
87 are presented in Table 2.

88 The rate of lay reached 90% at week 23, remaining at 90.8% during the first feeding phase,
89 and then, it decreased gradually until the end of the cycle (78.1 %). The feed conversion
90 ratio in contrast, did not changed throughout the cycle and follows the ratios detailed by the
91 animal supplier.

92 ***2.2.Environmental conditions***

93 Outside weather conditions of the location during the study were: average air temperature of
94 10.7°C and 20.0°C, air relative humidity of 76.0% and 86.3% and rainfall rate of 618 and
95 101mm (Euskalmet, 2014) for winter and summer respectively. These climate parameters
96 are within the values recorded during the last 20 years for the Atlantic region, being
97 representative of the oceanic conditions.

98 Five temperature and relative humidity (RH) sensors (Onset, HOBO U12-013, USA,
99 precision $\pm 0.35^{\circ}\text{C}$ and $\pm 2.5\%$, respectively) were installed at the facility. One sensor was
100 placed outside the house, two at the air inlets and the other two close to the fans.
101 Temperature and RH were monitored and recorded every 15 min. An automated system
102 (Tecno Poultry Equipment, Macronew 3, Italy) regulated inside temperature through
103 windows opening, cooling system and the activation of 18 fans (EM50n, Munters, Sweden,
104 air flow rate $42.125\text{ m}^3\text{ h}^{-1}$ at differential pressure = 0 Pa) set up within a tunnel ventilation
105 system (Figure 1).

106 Ventilation rate (VR) was measured under the usual rearing conditions of the farm following
107 the methodology described by Calvet, Cambra-López, Blanes-Vidal, Estellés, and Torres
108 (2010). The average percentage of operation of each fan was obtained every 5 minutes. An
109 electronic data logger system (Binary Devices S.L., Datalogger 244, Spain) converted every
110 second the electric signal from each fan into digital data on fan status. All on-line sensors
111 were downloaded every 10 days.

112 The airflow rate of each fan was individually calibrated at different static pressures. Air was
113 ducted 30 cm and the velocity measured by a hot wire anemometer (Testo 425, Germany,
114 accuracy $\pm 0.03\text{ m s}^{-1}$) at 25 locations in the section (ASHRAE, 2001). Static pressure was
115 continuously measured and recorded every 5 min by a pressure drop meter (Veris, PX, USA,
116 accuracy $\pm 0.5\text{ Pa}$). The resulting average airflow rate of fans, associated to each pressure
117 drop recorded in the building during calibration events, were used to create the
118 corresponding linear relationship (Eq.1)

$$119 \quad y = -0.4405x + 43.909 \quad (\text{Eq.1})$$
$$R^2 = 0.7378$$

120 where,

$$121 \quad y = \text{Airflow rate } (10^3\text{ m}^3\text{ h}^{-1})$$

122 $x = \text{Pressure Drop (Pa)}$

123 Total ventilation rate for each hour was calculated by integrating the number of operating
124 fans and the individual airflow rate as given in Eq.1 for each pressure drop recorded.

125 ***2.3.Manure characterization***

126 Manure was accumulated on belts under the cages from 2 to 4 days before being discharged.
127 The producer recorded the time of each manure removal. A representative sample of manure
128 from the belt (approximately 2 kg) was collected fortnightly and analyzed for dry matter
129 (DM), total nitrogen (N_{tot}), ammonium nitrogen (NH₄⁺-N), organic matter (OM) and pH.
130 The amount of manure removed from the building was weighed at the farm after each
131 manure removal.

132 ***2.4.Gas concentrations and emissions***

133 Gas concentrations (NH₃, CH₄, CO₂ and N₂O) were measured continuously over 18 months
134 between April 2012 and September 2013 by using a factory calibrated INNOVA 1412
135 Photoacoustic multi gas analyzer (PAMGA) coupled with an INNOVA 1309 multipoint
136 sampler (LumaSense, Denmark). According to the technical specification of the INNOVA
137 1412, the detection limit of the measurement is 0.2 ppm for NH₃, 0.4 ppm for CH₄, 0.03
138 ppm for N₂O and 1.5 ppm for CO₂. A standard gas containing certified concentrations (CO₂:
139 15,000 ppm, CH₄:100 ppm, N₂O: 25 ppm) was used to verify the response of PAMGA over
140 a set of automatically diluted reference concentrations. Besides, air from the barn was
141 sampled in 10L Tedlar bags and measured by gas chromatography (Agilent, 7890A,USA) -
142 and a second PAMGA (Brüel&Kjaer, 1302, Denmark). In this sense, when concentrations
143 are confirmed with another measuring method, the uncertainty due to unexpected
144 interferences can be neglected (Hassouna, Robin, Charpiot, Edouard, Meda, 2013).

145 Readings fell within 5 % RSD, thus it was not necessary to remove the analyser for
146 recalibration.

147 Each gas sampling cycle was composed of 12 gas samples from different locations (4 at the
148 air inlet opening and 8 sampling points next to the extraction fans). Each cycle interval
149 lasted 20 minutes. The air was pumped from the sampling locations to the analyser through
150 Teflon tubing (6 mm outside diameter, and 4 mm inside diameter) to avoid NH₃ adsorption
151 to the sampling lines. Each tube was equipped with PFT-Filters (nSpire Health Ltd.,
152 Hertford, UK) to protect from dust. Sampling lines run completely inside the building. Thus,
153 they were kept under a stable temperature, which prevented any in-line moisture
154 condensation. Besides, all the air sampling and analysing equipment (PAMGA, multipoint
155 sampler and external pump) were kept inside an air conditioned outdoor rack enclosure
156 placed in a clean room to prevent them from excessive heat, dust and moist.

157 According to Equation 2, gas emissions were calculated in an hourly basis:

158
$$E = (C_{outlet} - C_{inlet}) \times V \quad (\text{Eq.2})$$

159 where E is the emission (mg h⁻¹), C_{outlet} and C_{inlet} is the outlet and inlet gas concentration,
160 respectively (mg m⁻³), and V is the VR in the building (m³ h⁻¹).

161 Emission was also expressed both per hen (hens present in the hen house on the
162 measurement day) in mg d⁻¹hen⁻¹ or per animal mass as g h⁻¹ 500 kg⁻¹ LW (considering the
163 number of hens present in the building and the corresponding weight).

164 ***2.5.Data analysis***

165 Considering the high number of gas concentration and emission data collected during the
166 experiment, an analysis of variance led to a high significance in the parameters considered.
167 This kind of statistical analysis was not able to identify the effect of independent variables

168 on gas emissions and concentrations. Therefore, average values and standard deviations are
169 presented for results analysis.

170 The relationship among continuous variables (VR, temperature and relative humidity) and
171 gas emissions was explored through a correlation analysis using PROC CORR of the
172 statistical package SAS 9.3 (SAS, 2013). To analyze the effect of phase feeding in manure
173 composition, one-way analysis of variance (PROC GLM) was performed using the same
174 statistical package.

175 The diurnal variation of gas emissions was explored for the 2 extreme seasons (winter and
176 summer). Daily average emissions were calculated to this aim. Data were modelled using
177 the PROC NLIN of SAS, following a regression equation based on the Fourier Transform
178 (Estellés, Calvet, Ogink, 2010):

$$179 \quad X_h = T + \left[A \cos \left(\frac{h2\pi}{24} - \frac{D2\pi}{24} \right) \right]$$

180 where, (Eq.3)

181 X = Variable target

182 T = Mean value

183 A = Amplitude

184 D = Time at which the maximum occurred

185 h = target time

186 Significant differences are expressed at $P < 0.05$.

187 **3. Results and discussion**

188 ***3.1. Environmental conditions and ventilation rates***

189 Daily average outside temperature during the measurement period ranged from 4.0°C to
190 27.1°C, reflecting typical weather conditions in the region. Inside the farm, temperature
191 ranged from 18.0°C to 25.4°C with an average value of 22.4°C. The daily mean indoor
192 temperatures showed variations corresponding to seasonal variations of outdoor
193 temperatures. Outside relative humidity presented a low variation (77.3 ± 11.8 %) during the
194 measurement period (Table 3) due to the rainfall registered in the location along the year
195 (1240 mm), which is characteristic of oceanic climate. Despite being slightly lower than
196 those from outside, inside relative humidity remained more stable (66.1 ± 8.9) during the
197 experimental period. In some occasions, when inside temperature was higher than 25 °C,
198 also the cooling refrigeration system was activated. This system operated 18 % of days, with
199 an average activation of 12 h d⁻¹. The higher relative humidity values recorded at summer
200 2012 and 2013 may be related to the activation of the cooling system.

201 Daily average VR ranged from 1.1 10⁶ m³ d⁻¹ to 16.6 10⁶ m³ d⁻¹. As expected, VR were
202 closely related to outdoor ambient temperatures (Figure 2), being higher in summer due to
203 higher outdoor temperatures (Table 3, Figure 3). Despite the exponential relationship
204 between temperature and VR, a saturation point would be expected for VR at higher
205 temperatures.

206 ***3.2. Manure characteristics***

207 Manure composition and production are presented in Table 4. The mean DM content of
208 manure was 27.2 %, which was slightly lower than values reported for manure belt systems
209 by previous studies (Fabbri, Valli, Guarino, Costa, Mazzotta, 2007; Fournel et al., 2012a).
210 Nonetheless, the observed DM content was within the range reported by EC (2003) for
211 manure belt systems without manure drying tubes (25%-35%). No seasonality effects were
212 observed on manure DM content during the experimental period ($P > 0.05$). The lack of a
213 seasonality effect was attributed to the high RH values observed throughout the year (Table

214 3). As mentioned above, RH higher than 70% was typical for the humid oceanic weather
215 conditions. Despite the higher VR measured in summer, the high RH of the incoming air
216 would not have favoured water evaporation from manure as Kroodsma, Arkenbout, and
217 Stoffers (1985) stated. In addition, the activation of the cooling system during the hottest
218 days increased the air RH by 7% in comparison to summer RH values without cooling
219 activation.

220 Total nitrogen content in the manure ($5.3\pm 0.8\%$) was influenced by the feeding phase. A
221 significant decrease ($P<0.05$) on manure N_{tot} content was observed during the second and
222 third phases compared to the first one (Table 4). Fournel et al. (2012a) and Fabbri et al.
223 (2007) reported higher N content in the manure (6.5 and 7.1% of DM) in manure belt system
224 than the values obtained in this study. On the contrary of N_{tot}, no relationship among
225 feeding phase and NH_4^+ -N content was observed.

226 The average value for manure pH was 7.6 (± 0.5), which was in the range of the values
227 reported by other authors. Fournel et al. (2012a) observed values of 6.7 while Fabbri et al.
228 (2007) and Chepete, Xin, and Li (2011) recorded pH values of 8.3 and 8.6, respectively. A
229 pH below 7 would have kept ammonia bound as NH_4^+ -N, reducing NH_3 volatilization. Uric
230 acid represents around 70% of the N_{tot} in poultry faeces. The pH recorded in this study,
231 could have favoured around 60% uric acid degradation as described by Groot Koerkamp
232 (1994).

233 ***3.3. Gas Concentrations and Emissions***

234 ***3.3.1. Ammonia***

235 Average inside NH_3 concentration measured in this study was 2.0 mg m^{-3} (± 1.4), which was
236 within the range reported by Zhao, Shepherd, Li, and Xin (2015) for a similar EC facility.
237 On the other hand, Ni et al. (2012) recorded higher mean NH_3 concentration (9 mg m^{-3}) in a
238 CC facility with manure belt system. This difference was attributed to factors such as VR,

239 flock density and manure management. Ventilation rate reported by Ni et al. was half of VR
240 observed in the current study. Stocking rates reported by Ni et al. were 1.6 times higher
241 (13.8 kg LW m⁻³). Finally, despite manure removal frequency was similar between both
242 studies, Ni et al. did not totally remove manure from the belts.

243 The maximum NH₃ concentration in the building was found during the first month of the
244 flock (April 2012), which could be related to the combination of the low VR (Figure 3E) and
245 the early laying stage period. Maximum NH₃ in our study was 12.1 mg m⁻³, which is lower
246 than the threshold of 17.4 mg m⁻³ as aversive to laying hens reported in previous studies
247 (Kristensen, Burgess, Demmers, Wathes, 2000). Variations in seasonal NH₃ concentrations
248 were closely related to differences in outdoor temperatures and VR. Thus, at higher outdoor
249 temperatures and VR, reduced NH₃ concentrations in the exhaust air were recorded (Table
250 3).

251 Average NH₃ emission in this study was 115.7±85.6 mg d⁻¹ hen⁻¹ (Table 3). Our results were
252 slightly higher than those cited in EC (2003) for EC system with belt manure, being 95.9 mg
253 d⁻¹ hen⁻¹. Other authors, such as Liang et al. (2005) and Fournel, Pelletier, Godbout, Lagacé,
254 and Feddes (2012b), reported 94 mg d⁻¹hen⁻¹ and 87 mg d⁻¹hen⁻¹, respectively, for cage
255 systems with belt manure removal system. This difference could be attributed to hen
256 commercial strains, as when we referred emissions to 500 kg LW, values were similar, with
257 1.21 g h⁻¹ 500 kg⁻¹LW reported by Fournel et al. and 1.22 g h⁻¹ 500 kg⁻¹LW for our study.
258 We attributed this difference to the commercial strain which weighed 1.5 kg LW hen⁻¹ in the
259 case of Fournel et al. as VR (4.0 and 4.2 m³ h⁻¹ hen⁻¹), manure removal frequency and pH
260 were similar. Likewise, our results were consistent with those reported by Liang et al. (2005)
261 with 1.28 g h⁻¹500 kg⁻¹LW. In this case, pH of the manure (7.4) and manure removal
262 frequency (3-4 days) were similar among both studies.

263 However, emission rates may also range from 54.0 mg d⁻¹ hen⁻¹ to 169.9 mg d⁻¹ hen⁻¹ as
264 Shepherd et al. (2015) and Fabbri et al. (2007) reported. These variations were mainly
265 attributed to different VR of each experiment, which were 2.2 m³ hen⁻¹ h⁻¹ and 6.2 m³ hen⁻¹
266 h⁻¹, respectively. In this sense, NH₃ emission did not differ between our study and data
267 reported by Fabbri et al. (2007) at similar VR in summer 2012 (Table 3). It is well known
268 the influence of air velocity over the manure surface promoting NH₃ volatilization (Groot
269 Koerkamp, 1994). Besides ventilation, other factors such as pH and manure DM content
270 affecting NH₃ emissions (Elliot & Collins, 1982; Groot Koerkamp, 1994) were also more
271 favourable in that study (pH = 8.3 and 37% DM, Fabbri et al., 2007).

272 The highest NH₃ emissions (11.9±3.3 mg h⁻¹ hen⁻¹) happened in summer conditions (weeks
273 28 and 83, Figure 3A). Several factors could explain these peak emissions, such as a 5-day
274 manure accumulation inside the building in week 28 and a higher inside temperature (25°C)
275 and VR with 6.0 and 9.8 m³ h⁻¹ hen⁻¹ in weeks 28 and 83 respectively. Other NH₃ emission
276 peaks found in summer (weeks 34, 35, 39) or early autumn (week 44) could also be
277 attributed to high temperature, ventilation and manure accumulation time inside the
278 building. On the contrary, low emissions were found from end November 2012 to beginning
279 of May 2013 (Figure 3A). During this period, average outside temperature was below 10°C,
280 which together with a low VR and an average of 3 day manure accumulation time could
281 have contributed to lower emissions. Data collected during week 25 and week 28 suggested
282 a potential effect of manure extraction frequency. For similar temperature, ventilation and
283 RH conditions, lower emissions were registered in week 25 with a daily removal, whereas
284 highest emissions occurred after 5 day accumulation period in week 28. The effect of
285 manure removal frequency should therefore be further explored (Figure 3A).

286 Seasonal differences in NH₃ emission were observed in this study, in consistency with other
287 authors (Da Borso & Chimenti, 1999; Nicholson et al., 2004). Mean NH₃ emission reached

288 90.3 mg d⁻¹ hen⁻¹ in winter 2013, 165.4 mg d⁻¹ hen⁻¹ in summer 2012 and 136.3 mg d⁻¹ hen⁻¹
289 in summer 2013, similar results to those obtained by Da Borso and Chiumenti in summer in
290 a similar production system in the north of Italy, with 134 mg d⁻¹ hen⁻¹. However, they
291 obtained lower values in winter (27 mg d⁻¹ hen⁻¹), possibly due to lower temperatures in the
292 area. This is the case of Nimmermark et al. (2009), who reported low NH₃ emissions in
293 winter (75 mg d⁻¹ hen⁻¹) due to the low temperatures registered in Sweden (-6.1°C), even
294 with a 5-day manure removal frequency. In this sense, Groot Koerkamp, Keen, Van
295 Niekerk, and Smit, (1995) found that less than 5% of uric acid is degraded under 15°C.
296 Nicholson et al. (2004) also reported higher NH₃ emission rates in summer than in winter
297 (mean 3.2 gh⁻¹ 500 kg⁻¹LW and 1.4 g h⁻¹ 500 kg⁻¹LW respectively), in response to the
298 different VR in summer (8.9 m³ s⁻¹) and winter (1.4 m³ s⁻¹). Shepherd et al. (2015) also found
299 higher emission rates with ambient temperatures above 20°C and greater velocities in the
300 barn. This seasonal pattern was also observed by Wathes et al. (1997), who reported an NH₃
301 emission rate of 192 g d⁻¹AU⁻¹ in winter and 290 g d⁻¹AU⁻¹ in summer from four deep-pit
302 layer houses in England (AU = 454kg LW equivalent).

303 Deep-pit houses, generally show higher emissions than cage systems, with values of 1,065
304 mg d⁻¹ hen⁻¹ (Fournel et al., 2012b), 870 mg d⁻¹ hen⁻¹ (Da Borso & Chiumenti, 1999) and
305 446 mg d⁻¹ hen⁻¹ (Fabbri et al., 2007) . The manure management in these installations,
306 together with their building design, ventilation and temperature ranges would explain this
307 variability. In aviary systems, emissions can be three times higher than in cage systems
308 (Groot Koerkamp et al., 1995) and vary from 353 to 463 mg d⁻¹ hen⁻¹ (Dekker, Aarnink, de
309 Boer, Groot Koerkamp, 2011), which suggests that a modification in the manure
310 management system could reduce NH₃ emissions. Nevertheless, the highest NH₃ emissions
311 were derived from floor production systems, with 2,100 mg d⁻¹ hen⁻¹ (Nimmermark et al.,
312 2009) and free range housing systems, with 1,342 mg d⁻¹ hen⁻¹ (Dobeic & Pintarič, 2011).

313 Apart from housing characteristics, other factors such as feeding and manure management
314 affect NH₃ emissions. During the period of study, feed crude protein ranged from 16.0 to
315 16.7%, resulting significantly different (P<0.05) N_{tot} content of manure (Table 2).
316 Nevertheless this effect was not clearly observed on NH₃ emission, probably due to the
317 existence of several interacting factors that explain in house NH₃ concentrations and
318 emissions. In relation to manure management, both NH₃ concentration and emission showed
319 short-lived peaks in an interval of 2-4 days, in coincidence with belt cleaning frequency. It
320 has been previously described that belt cleaning operations lead to a decrease on NH₃
321 emissions (Dekker et al., 2011; Liang et al., 2005).

322 The parameters discussed in this paper related to density of hen population, housing type,
323 ventilation regime and manure management had a significant impact on emissions. Thus,
324 results from this study gave sound information to produce NH₃ emission factor (EF) for
325 laying hen installations with belt cleaning systems. Ammonia EF for laying hen facilities are
326 currently established by EMEP-Corinair guidebook (2013) based on excreted NH₄⁺-N and
327 uric acid. This guidebook considers that 41% of TAN is volatilized as NH₃, which would be
328 equivalent to 29% of N_{tot}. Our results showed that 7% of N_{tot} was lost as NH₃ in EC
329 system, in which manure was on average removed every 3 days. Ammonia EF given by
330 EMEP-Corinair is based on a slurry whose TAN content accounts for 70% of N_{tot}. This
331 guidebook assumes that all uric acid becomes NH₄⁺-N. However, mean TAN content in our
332 research represented about 30% of N_{tot}. This result suggests that not all the uric acid is
333 converted into NH₄⁺-N in belt system with frequent manure removals.

334 **3.3.2. Methane**

335 Average CH₄ concentration was 3.4 mg m⁻³ (±1.9). Methane concentration followed the
336 similar pattern as CH₄ emissions, mainly from week 18 to 40 and 73 to 93 showing the
337 opposite pattern to CO₂ (Figure 3B, 3D). Average CH₄ emission in this study was 90 mg d⁻¹

338 hen⁻¹. No clear effect of season was observed, similarly to Zhu et al. (2011). Nevertheless,
339 CH₄ emissions increased in summer, when the highest water content in air was recorded.
340 Thus, these data should be taken with caution as the combination of high air water content
341 and CH₄ concentration lower to 20 ppm has been found to lead to CH₄ overestimation by
342 PAMGA (Cortus, Jacobson, Hetchler, Heber, Bogan, 2015). Methane emission referred to
343 animal mass (0.96 g h⁻¹ 500 kg⁻¹ LW) was in the same range than values reported by Fournel
344 et al. (2012a), who found an average emission rate of 0.95 g h⁻¹ 500 kg⁻¹ LW. Fabbri et al.
345 (2007) reported higher values (2.14 g h⁻¹ 500 kg⁻¹ LW).

346 The presence of manure on the belt did not affect emissions of CH₄ as described by Dekker
347 et al. (2011) for aviary systems, where bedding exists as a mixture of faeces and bedding
348 material. Theoretically, in this study, the absence of bedding, together with the frequent
349 removal of manure would have favoured lower CH₄ emissions in comparison to aviary
350 systems. However, Dekker et al. reported higher and lower CH₄ emission from three
351 different types of aviary systems (1.70, 0.37, 0.64 g h⁻¹ 500 kg⁻¹ LW).

352 3.3.3. *Nitrous oxide*

353 Low concentrations were registered for N₂O, similarly to results reported by other authors
354 for a variety of laying hen production systems (Fabbri et al., 2007; Jungbluth, Hartung,
355 Brose, 2001). Further, denitrification is of minor importance in hen manure as it contains
356 few nitrate or nitrite. Inside N₂O concentrations were not always higher than outside
357 concentrations, resulting, on some occasions, in negative emissions.

358 Average N₂O emission was 4.5 mg d⁻¹ hen⁻¹ (Table 3) in our study, in the range of values
359 registered by Fournel et al. (2012a) for cage systems, with 7.1 mg d⁻¹ hen⁻¹. The emission
360 pattern of N₂O was similar to that of NH₃. In contrast, the N₂O emission rate was affected
361 negatively by VR (P<0.001) as reported Dobeic and Pintarič (2011). This effect could be the
362 reason that explains the lowest emission in summer (P<0.05).

363 **3.3.4. Carbon dioxide**

364 Average indoor concentration was $1,984 \text{ mg m}^{-3} \pm 588$. Carbon dioxide concentration was
365 indicative of the barn VR, with lower CO_2 concentration corresponding to higher VR
366 (Figure 3D). This relationship was also observed by Nimmermark et al. (2009) and Zhao et
367 al. (2015), who found higher CO_2 concentrations with values up to $4,497 \text{ mg m}^{-3}$ and $3,985$
368 mg m^{-3} , respectively, along with very low ventilation (0.9 and $2.2 \text{ m}^3 \text{ h}^{-1} \text{ hen}^{-1}$). Dekker et al.
369 (2011) reported an average CO_2 concentration of $2,734 \text{ mg m}^{-3}$ for aviary system, probably
370 due to the lower VR and the contribution of manure from bedding.

371 The VR might also partly explain the seasonal CO_2 concentration pattern. In fact, the mean
372 CO_2 concentration in winter was $2,511 \text{ mg m}^{-3}$. Lower outside temperatures and VR led to
373 higher daily mean CO_2 concentration (Table 3).

374 Carbon dioxide in poultry houses is originated by hen exhalation and manure release, which
375 in on site studies can not be partitioned. Both effects must be taken into account when
376 estimating the VR with CO_2 balance method (Liang et al., 2005; Pedersen, Blanes-Vidal,
377 Joergensen, Chwalibog, Haeussermann, 2008). Pedersen et al. estimated that 8.3% of CO_2
378 emissions measured in a laying hens house comes from manure. Also, Ni, Heber, Hanni,
379 Lim, and Diehl (2011) suggested that manure is a significant source of CO_2 release in
380 commercial layer barns. In our study it was observed a slight significant increase in CO_2
381 emission during the days between manure removals, is suggested due to manure
382 accumulation.

383 **3.4. Gas emission diurnal patterns**

384 A clear diurnal variation pattern was found for gas emissions, temperature, relative humidity
385 and VR. These variations were expressed in hourly average terms for summer and winter

386 separately (Figure 4). Regression parameters obtained for measured parameters were
387 presented in Table 5. All models were statistically significant at least at $p < 0.001$ (Table 5).
388 Relative humidity in bird houses is inversely related to temperature (Seedorf et al., 1998).
389 Ventilation rate followed the same pattern as outdoor temperature, showing a higher
390 difference between day and night in summer, with peak values between 12 and 17 h (Figure
391 4J). It was observed that maximum VR in winter were similar to the lowest VR in summer,
392 with $3.1 \text{ m}^3 \text{ h}^{-1} \text{ hen}^{-1}$ and $3.2 \text{ m}^3 \text{ h}^{-1} \text{ hen}^{-1}$, respectively. Gas emission patterns differed
393 among gases under the same ventilation regime for each season, suggesting other factors
394 could be affecting emission processes.

395 In the case of CO_2 , apart from the previously described effect of VR on those emissions,
396 bird respiration affected CO_2 diurnal emission pattern (Figure 4C). Thus, the activation of
397 light and consequent activity of laying hens caused a sudden increase at morning and quick
398 drop at night (Figure 4C). In this sense, Von Wachenfelt, Pedersen, and Gustafsson, (2001)
399 observed a large diurnal variation in CO_2 production, closely correlated with layer hen
400 activity. Carbon dioxide emission pattern showed a higher difference between day and night
401 in winter than in summer (Table 5), suggesting that low VR found in winter during night
402 ($1.3 \text{ m}^3 \text{ h}^{-1} \text{ hen}^{-1}$) allowed for CO_2 accumulation in the building. This fact was not observed
403 in summer, when CO_2 emissions were quite similar between day and night, not being
404 affected by the twofold increase in VR in summer.

405 The opposite effect between season and diurnal emission patterns was found for NH_3 , when
406 the lowest NH_3 emission rate in summer was similar to the highest emission in winter, with
407 0.24 g h^{-1} and 0.26 g h^{-1} (Figure 4A). That is, NH_3 emissions were higher in response to VR
408 in summer, but maintained the same difference between day and night as in winter. When
409 tested how VR affected NH_3 emissions on an hourly basis, weak relationship was obtained,
410 suggesting that the effect of ventilation was masked by other factors. There is little

411 information on diurnal emission patterns in the literature for laying hen installations
412 (Estellés, Calvet, Ogink, 2010). Other authors (Calvet, Cambra-López, Blanes-Vidal,
413 Estellés, Torres, 2011) have also found opposite behaviours for CO₂ and NH₃ in broiler
414 systems.

415 Methane emission values were similar in winter and summer around 15 h, decreasing
416 steeply in winter after this time, while emissions persisted in summer. It was observed a
417 higher difference between day and night in winter than in summer, indicating, like in the
418 case of CO₂, that the low ventilation recorded in winter during night induced a certain
419 accumulation of CH₄ that was emitted when ventilation reaches around 2 mg m⁻³.

420 Although low N₂O emissions are reported in the literature from cage systems, it was
421 observed that emissions tended to be higher in winter than in summer. Nevertheless, as
422 found in the other gases considered, the response along the day was higher in winter than in
423 summer, supporting the hypothesis that a minimum VR was always used to avoid
424 accumulation of gases in the building. The characteristics of this experiment, carried out in
425 commercial running operations, made it difficult to establish strong relationships due to the
426 confluence of different factors such as climatic conditions and management operations
427 which were beyond the experimental control.

428 **4. Conclusion**

429 Gaseous concentrations and emissions were monitored in a laying hen facility during a
430 complete laying cycle in relation to manure composition, management and environmental
431 parameters. Ammonia EF was 7% of total N in manure in EC facility with belt cleaning
432 system. Seasonal and diurnal variation was observed in NH₃ emissions, linked to VR and
433 manure management.

434 Greenhouse gas emissions showed a diurnal pattern differing in each case. For CO₂, even if
435 averaged emission values did not answer to seasonality, a distinct pattern was observed
436 between winter and summer related to VR. On the contrary, in the case of both CH₄ and
437 N₂O, averaged values varied between winter and summer, showing the opposite pattern.
438 Nitrous oxide emissions were low throughout the study, making it difficult to detect
439 differences in diurnal pattern between winter and summer. On-farm emission monitoring
440 studies are necessary to identify gas emission patterns and define proper farm-scale
441 mitigation measures.

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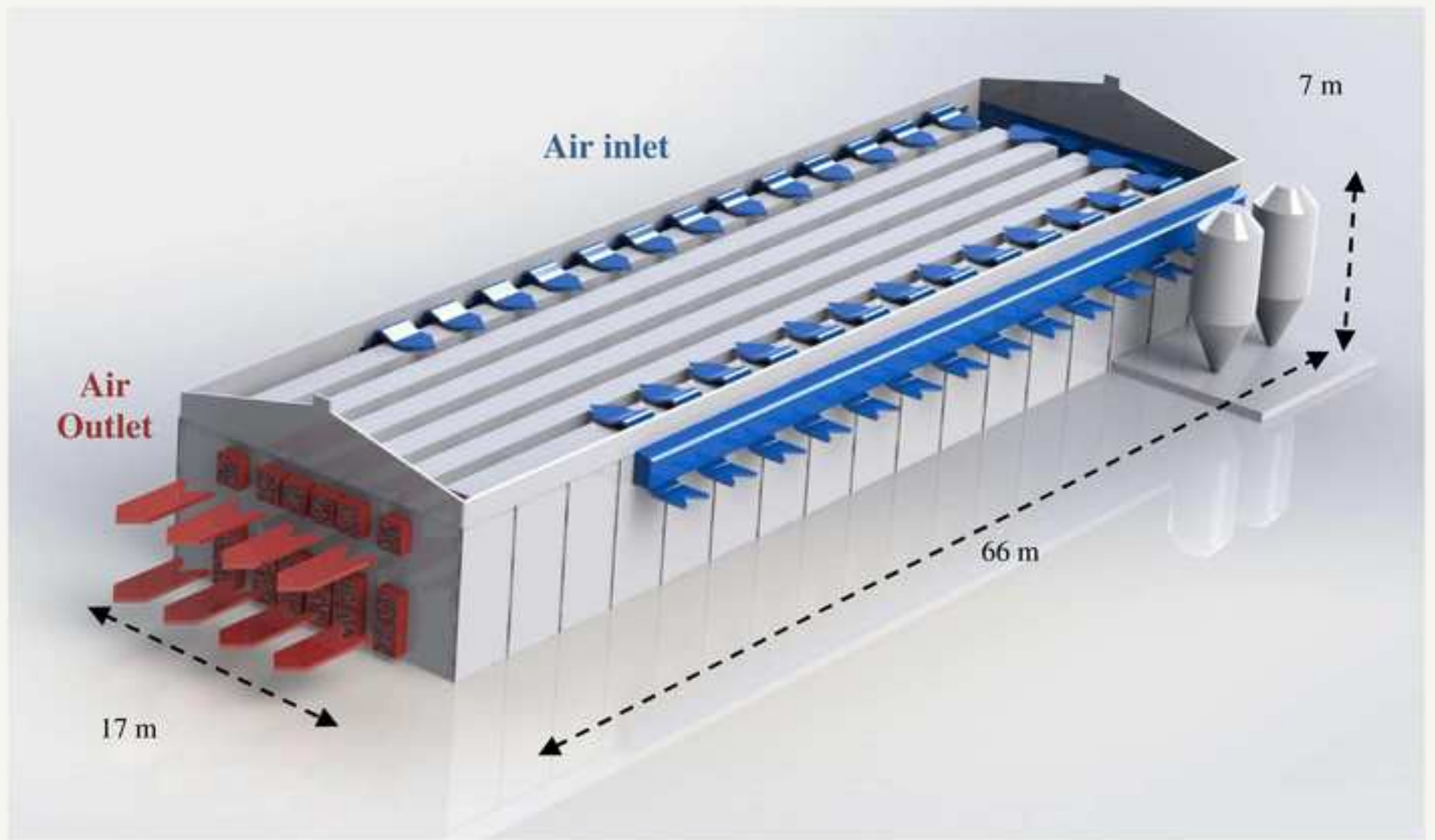


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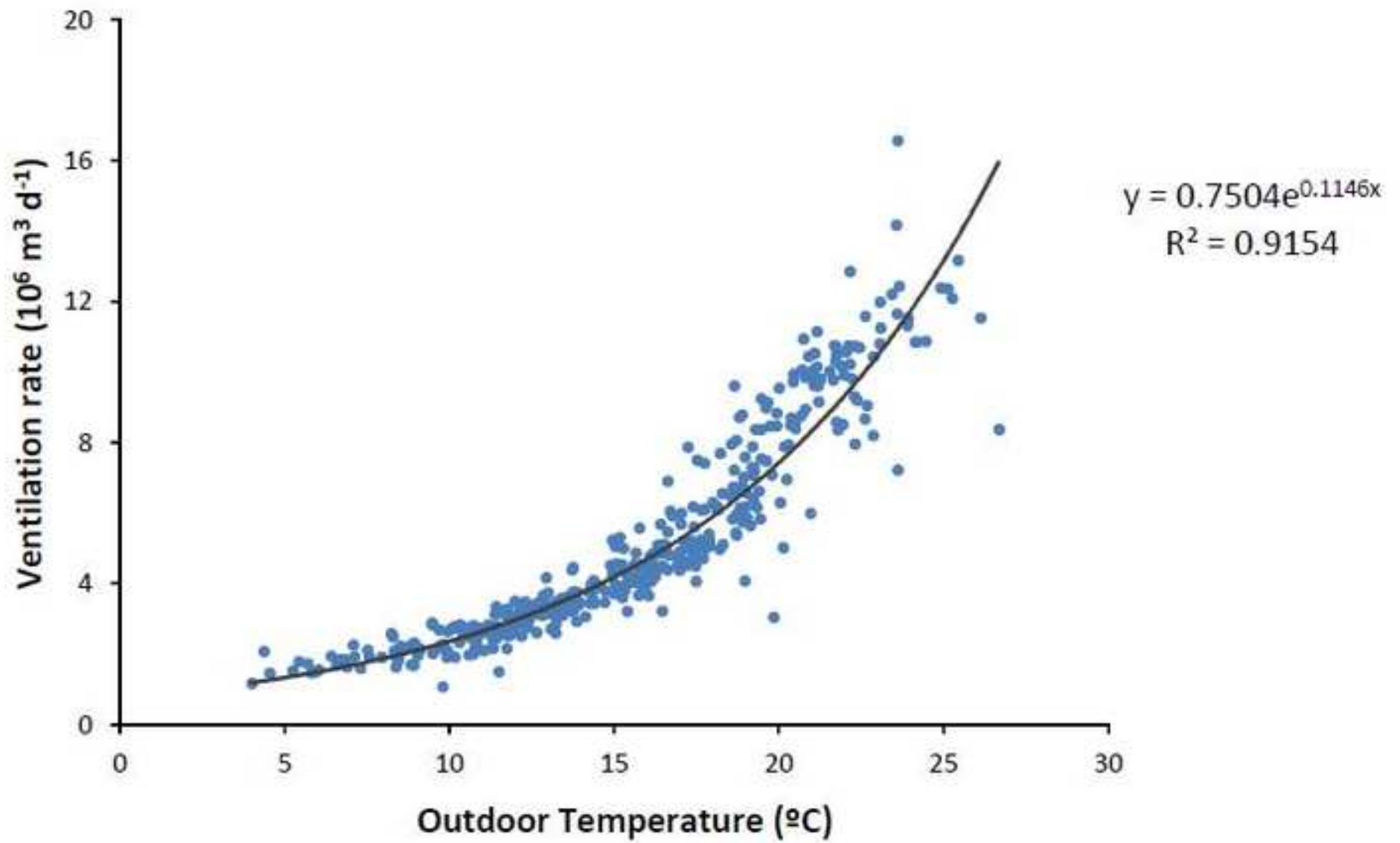
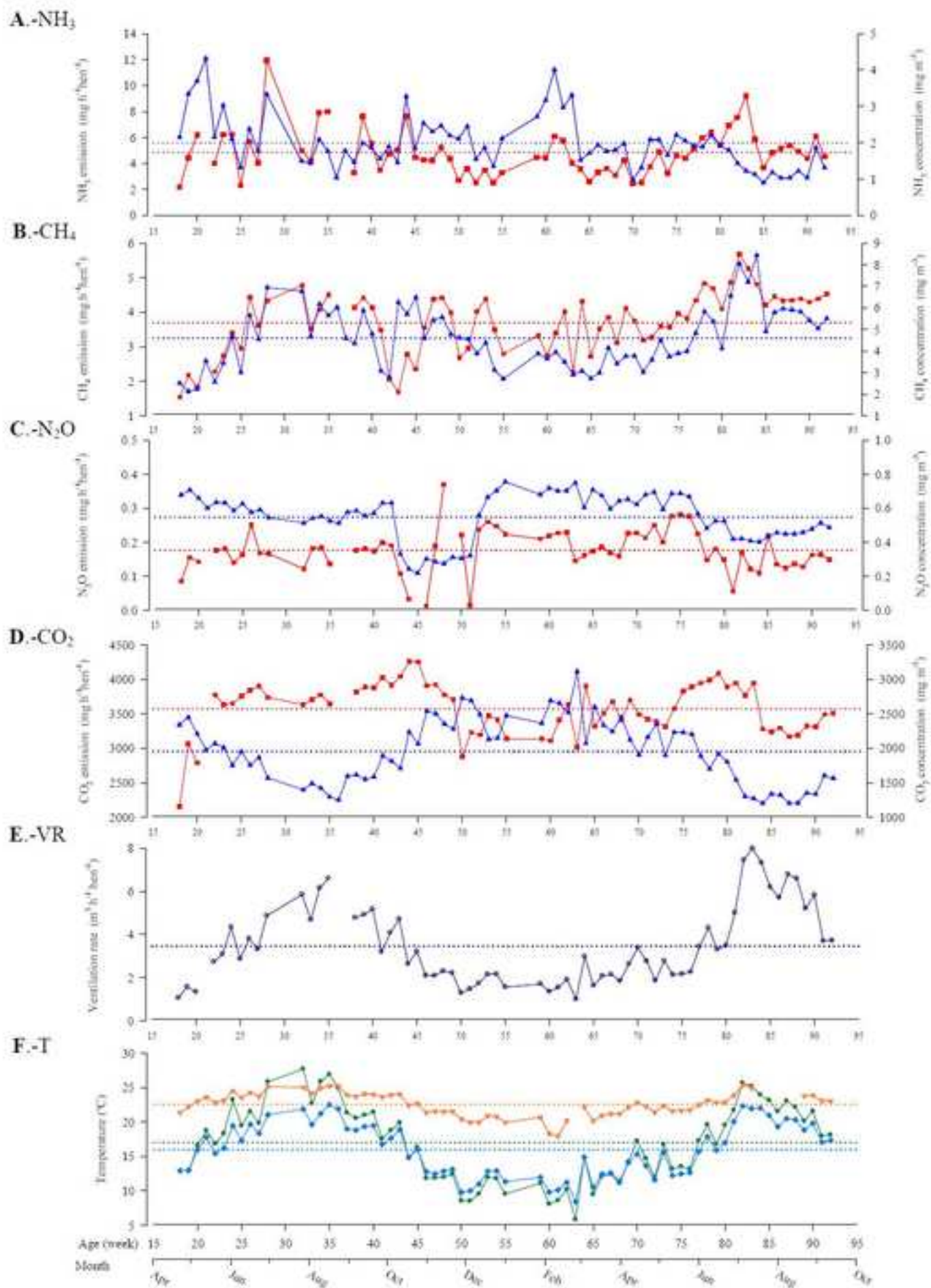


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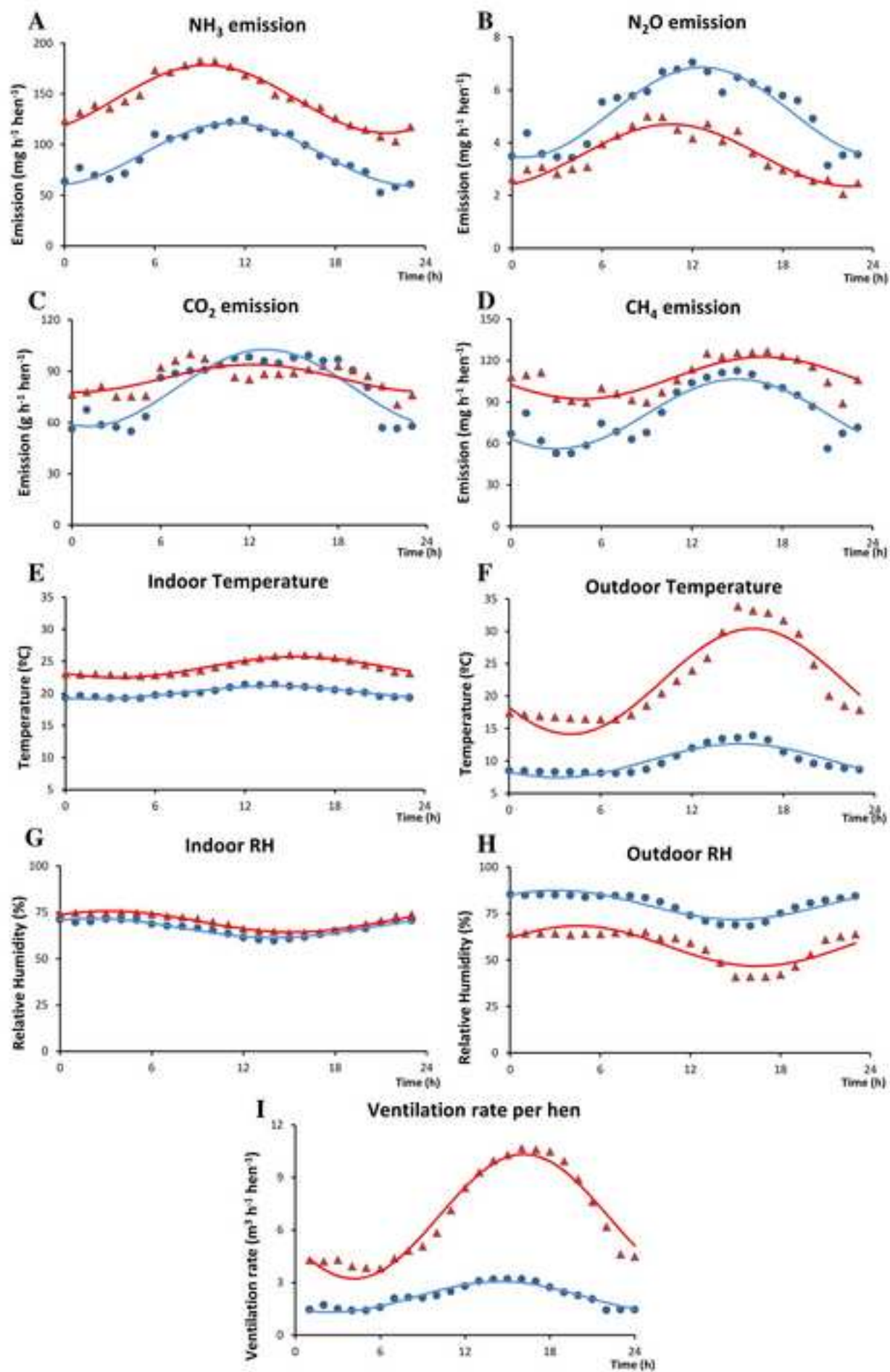


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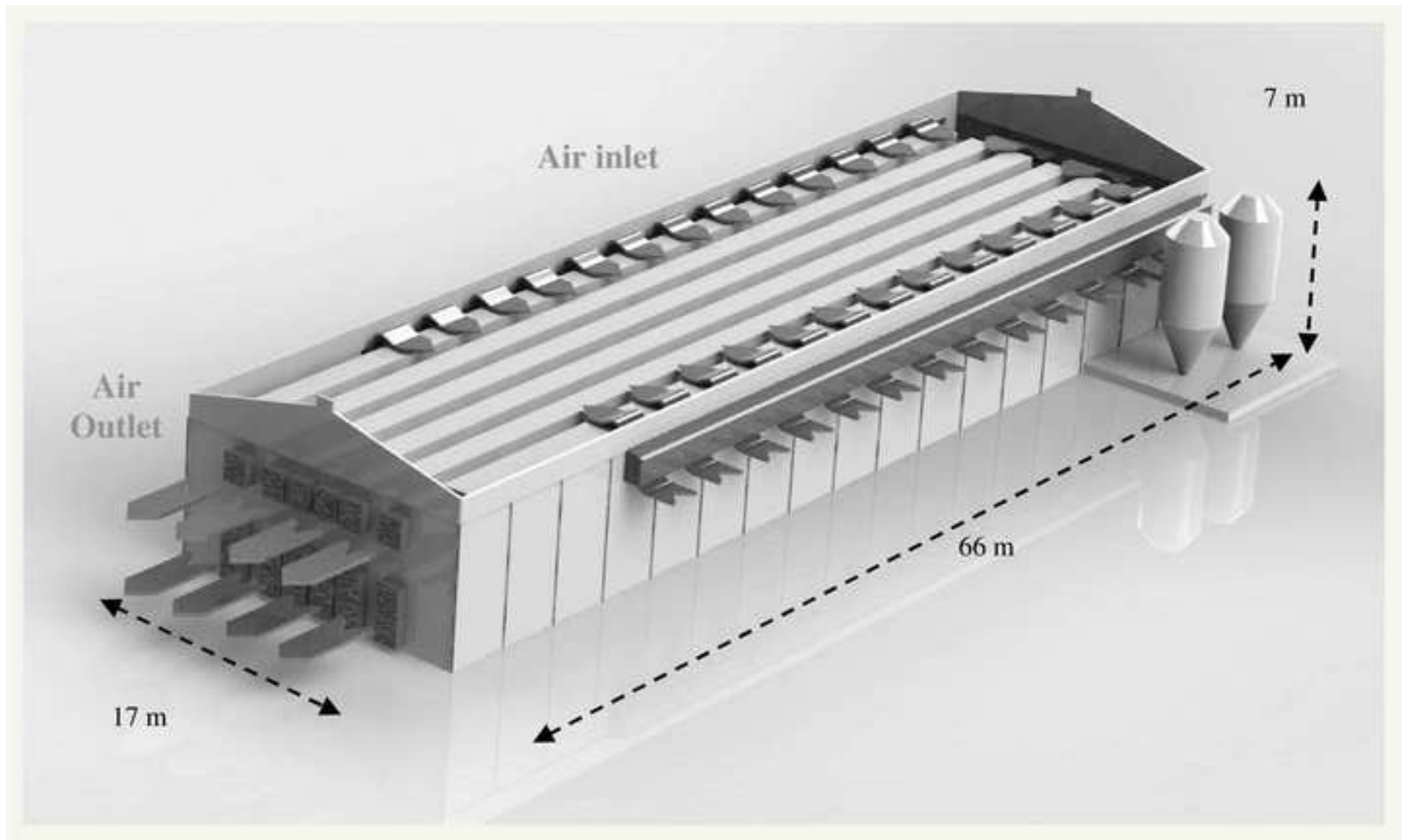


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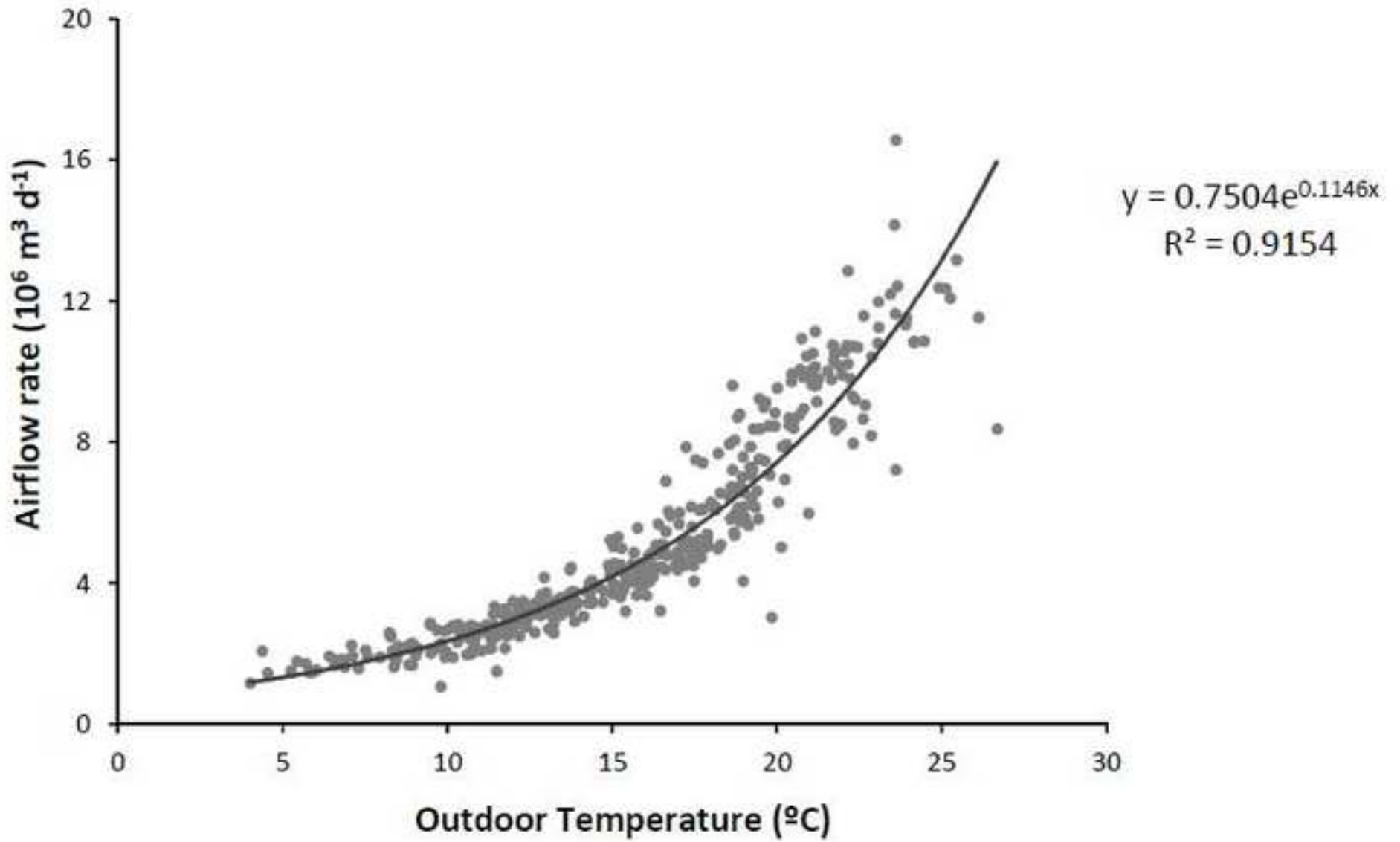
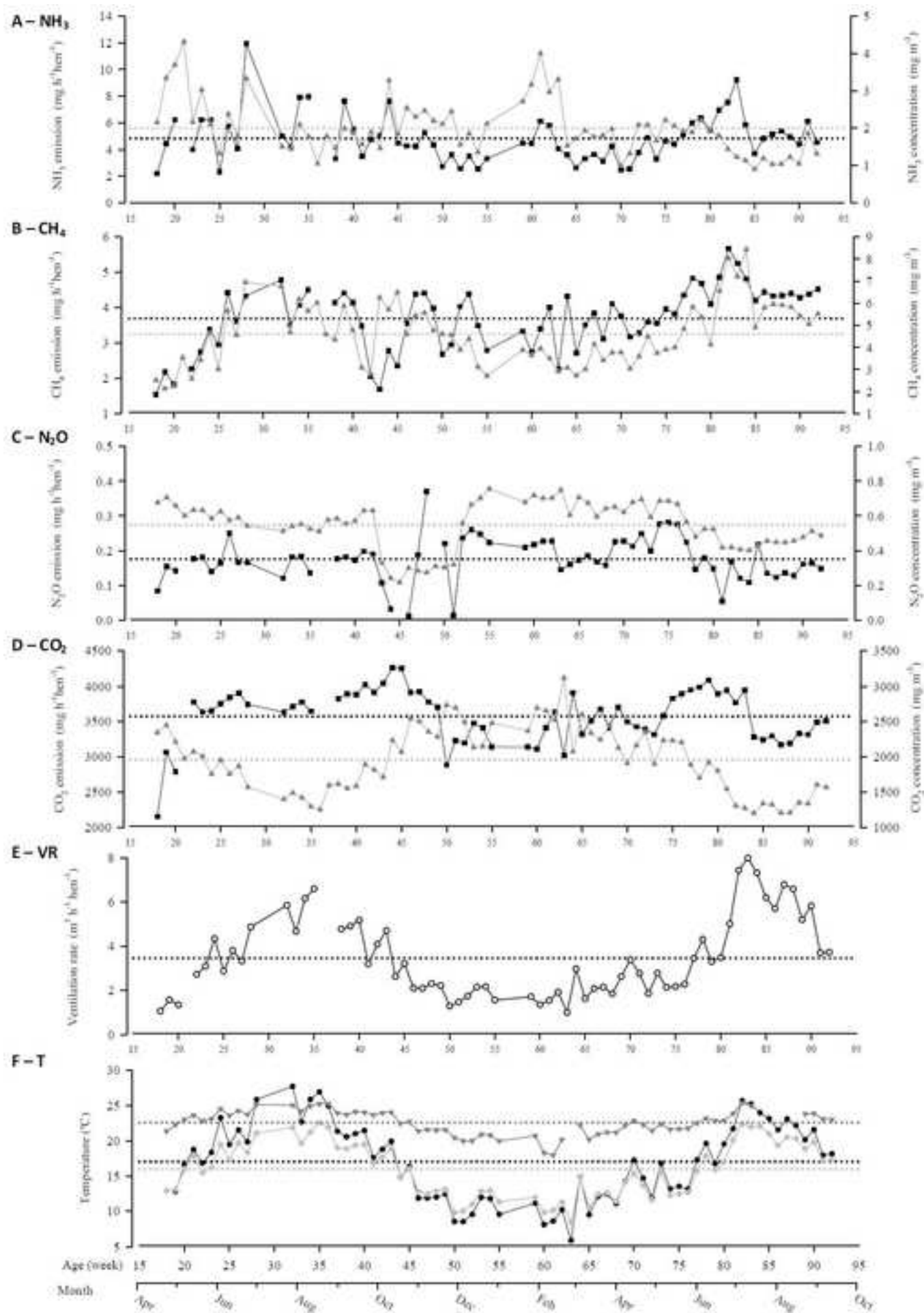


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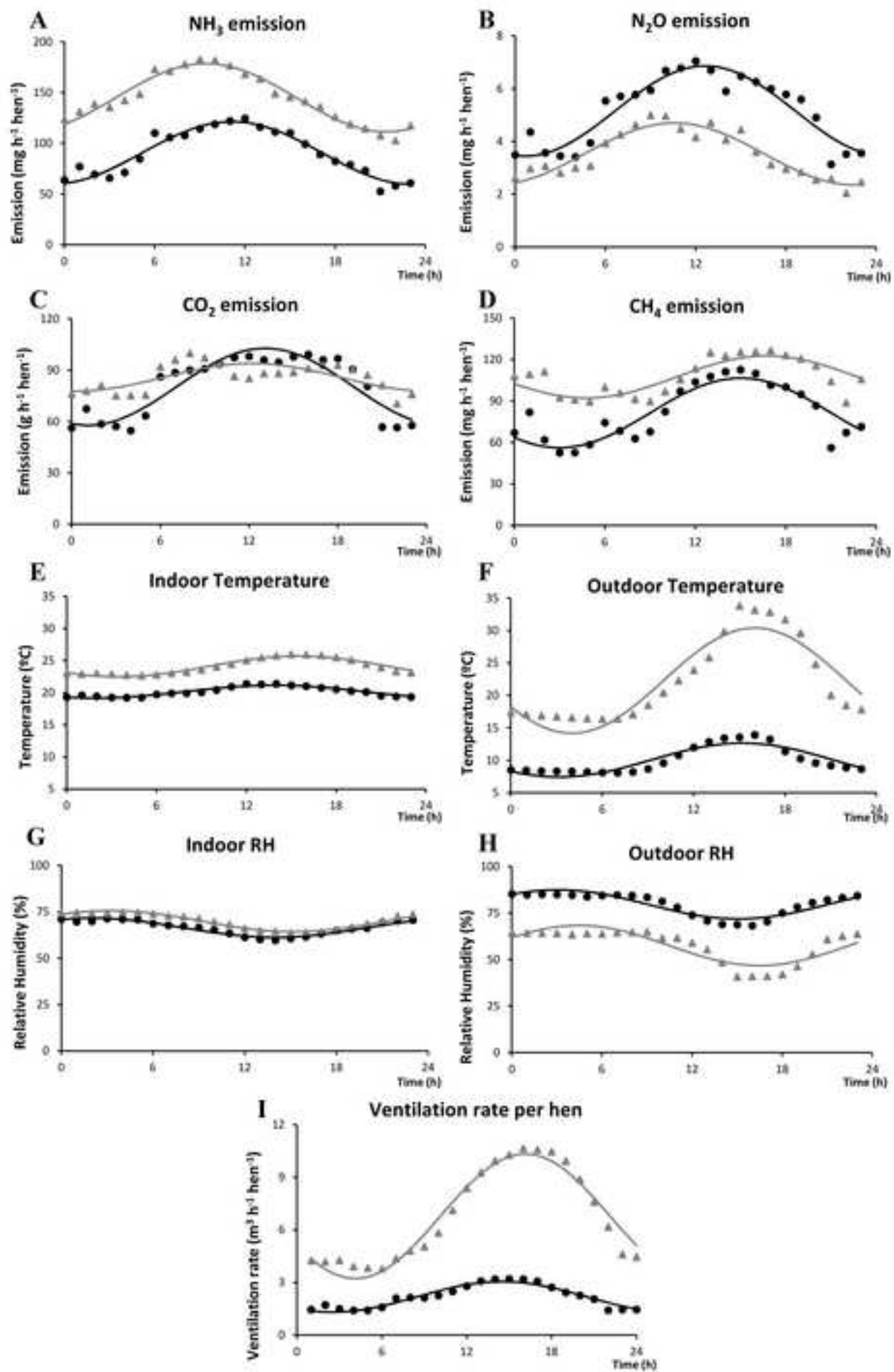


Figure 1. Layout of the house and scheme of the tunnel ventilation system.

Figure 2. Relation of daily ventilation rate ($10^6 \text{ m}^3\text{d}^{-1}$) and outdoor temperature ($^{\circ}\text{C}$).

Figure 3. Ammonia and GHG emission (■) and concentration (▲), and ventilation rate (o) per hen and; outlet (▼), inlet (◆) and outdoor (●) temperature during trial. Dotted lines represent average values.

Figure 4. Average hourly variations in NH_3 , CH_4 , N_2O and CO_2 emissions, outdoor and indoor temperature and relative humidity, and ventilation rate for summer (▲) and winter (●). All modelled curves were significant at $P < 0.001$.

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Table 1. Composition of feed for the different feeding phases.

Feed Composition	Phase 1	Phase 2	Phase 3
	Weeks 18-54	Weeks 55-74	Weeks 74-93
Dry Matter (%)	Mean 89.6	Mean 89.9	Mean 90.0
Crude protein (% DM)	16.7	16.2	16.0
Crude fat (% DM)	4.2	4.4	4.1
Crude fiber (% DM)	3.8	4.0	4.7
Organic Matter (% DM)	86.5	85.1	87.3

Table 2. Number of hens, body weight, mortality, percentage of laying, productivity, feed intake and conversion efficiency of laying hens monitored during different feeding phases.

	Phase 1		Phase 2		Phase 3		Total	
	Weeks 18-55		Weeks 56-74		Weeks 75-93			
Productive parameters	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Birds housed average	52,144	353	50,950	232	49,952	353	51,294	969
Bird weight (kg LW hen ⁻¹)*	1.9	-	2.0	-	2.1	-	2.0	-
Mortality (% per phase)*	2.4	-	1.8	-	2.3	-	6.6	-
Laying rate (%)	90.8	2.1	86.1	1.9	82.6	2.4	87.5	5.2
Egg production (g place ⁻¹)	54.5	14.4	54.4	9.9	53.6	2.0	54.4	54.4
Average daily feed intake (g hen ⁻¹)	113.2	23.5	124.3	17.7	124.0	25.9	118.9	23.2
Feed Conversion Ratio	2.2	0.4	2.1	0.0	2.1	0.0	2.1	0.3

* Average estimated value of the standard deviation

Table 3. Mean temperature (T) and relative humidity (RH) inside and outside the hen house, ventilation rate (VR), concentrations of GHG and ammonia (NH₃) outside and inside the hen house, emissions of GHG and NH₃ for each season. Data have been calculated on an hourly basis.

		2012						2013						Average	
		Spring		Summer		Autumn		Winter		Spring		Summer			
		Weeks 18-27		Weeks 28-40		Weeks 41-53		Weeks 54-66		Weeks 67-79		Weeks 80-93			
Climatic conditions		Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
T (°C)	Outside	16.5	4.0	20.3	3.2	15.1	3.8	11.2	2.9	13.9	3.8	19.7	3.3	15.7	4.8
	Inside	23.2	1.6	24.5	1.8	22.5	1.6	20.1	1.8	22.0	1.3	23.8	1.6	22.4	2.1
RH (%)	Outside	72.5	14.0	74.2	8.6	76.6	9.6	75.7	10.6	78.7	13.5	82.2	10.4	77.3	11.8
	Inside	62.7	7.9	68.1	7.6	64.5	7.3	66.5	11.7	64.5	7.8	71.5	6.8	66.1	8.9
Ventilation rate (m ³ hen ⁻¹ h ⁻¹)		3.4	2.4	6.6	3.4	3.7	2.2	2.2	1.1	3.3	2.3	6.9	3.8	4.2	3.2
Concentrations															
NH ₃ (mg/m ³)	Inlet	0.8	0.2	0.6	0.1	0.5	0.1	0.4	0.2	0.4	0.1	0.3	0.1	0.5	0.2
	Outlet	2.8	1.8	1.9	1.4	2.2	1.5	2.3	1.5	1.8	1.0	1.4	0.9	2.0	1.4
N ₂ O (mg/m ³)	Inlet	0.6	0.0	0.5	0.0	0.4	0.1	0.6	0.1	0.5	0.1	0.4	0.0	0.5	0.1
	Outlet	0.6	0.1	0.6	0.1	0.4	0.2	0.6	0.2	0.6	0.1	0.5	0.1	0.5	0.2
CH ₄ (mg/m ³)	Inlet	2.2	1.6	4.4	2.0	4.0	1.6	2.0	0.8	2.7	1.0	5.3	1.6	3.4	1.9
	Outlet	3.4	2.1	5.4	2.3	5.1	1.6	3.6	1.0	4.1	1.1	6.1	1.5	4.6	1.8
CO ₂ (g/m ³)	Inlet	0.8	0.0	0.8	0.0	0.8	0.0	0.8	0.1	0.8	0.0	0.7	0.0	0.8	0.0
	Outlet	2.0	0.5	1.5	0.4	2.2	0.5	2.5	0.5	2.1	0.4	1.4	0.3	2.0	0.6
Emissions															
NH ₃ (mg hen ⁻¹ d ⁻¹)		118.1	85.6	165.4	129.8	119.5	77.9	90.3	68.1	98.8	68.5	136.3	86.4	115.7	85.6
N ₂ O (mg hen ⁻¹ d ⁻¹)		3.9	2.9	4.1	2.4	4.3	2.5	5.1	2.3	5.3	3.0	3.3	2.6	4.5	2.8
CH ₄ (mg hen ⁻¹ d ⁻¹)		66.4	36.9	100.0	32.4	78.0	38.5	81.2	39.1	92.1	34.3	110.1	28.3	90.0	37.5
CO ₂ (g hen ⁻¹ d ⁻¹)		82.3	23.0	90.5	13.5	95.9	20.6	80.2	21.9	88.1	23.2	83.9	15.4	86.4	20.9

Table 4. Composition and quantity of belt manure for the different feeding phases

	Phase 1		Phase 2		Phase 3		Total		
	Weeks 18-55		Weeks 56-74		Weeks 75-93				
Manure Composition	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	
Dry Matter (%)	27.2	4.5	27.1	4.7	27.0	2.7	27.2	4.2	
pH	7.5	0.5	7.7	0.4	7.6	0.3	7.6	0.5	
Organic Matter (% of D.m.)	69.0 a	5.1	70.7 ab	2.8	72.4 b	1.8	70.0	4.4	
Nitrogen (% of D.m.)	Ntot	5.5 a	0.7	4.9 b	1.0	4.9 b	0.4	5.3	0.8
	NH ₄ ⁺ -N	1.6	1.0	1.5	0.6	1.8	0.6	1.6	0.8
Manure quantity									
Faeces production	(g hen ⁻¹ d ⁻¹)	95.5	14.2	96.3	16.0	98.3	5.4	97.2	14.5
	(g DM hen ⁻¹ d ⁻¹)	26.0	3.9	26.1	4.3	26.5	1.5	26.4	3.9

Different superscript letters in the same row indicate statistically significant differences at P<0.05

Table 5. Mean values, amplitudes and time at which the maximum occurred (t_{\max}) in the modelization of diurnal patterns.

Item		Summer			Winter		
		Mean	Amplitude	t_{\max}	Mean	Amplitude	t_{\max}
T_{out}	(°C)	22.3	8.1	16:09	10.0	2.6	15:11
T_{in}	(°C)	24.1	1.6	15:28	20.1	1.0	13:55
RH_{out}	(%)	57.5	10.8	4:29	79.6	7.8	3:42
RH_{in}	(%)	70.0	5.7	3:13	66.5	5.2	1:06
VR	($\text{m}^3\text{h}^{-1}\text{hen}^{-1}$)	6.8	3.6	15:08	2.2	0.9	13:29
NH_3	($\text{mg d}^{-1}\text{hen}^{-1}$)	144.9	33.5	9:25	90.4	30.9	11:08
CH_4	($\text{mg d}^{-1}\text{hen}^{-1}$)	107.4	15.3	16:45	81.3	25.2	15:29
N_2O	($\text{mg d}^{-1}\text{hen}^{-1}$)	3.52	1.18	10:34	5.15	1.71	12:38
CO_2	($\text{g d}^{-1}\text{hen}^{-1}$)	85.8	8.1	12:12	80.2	22.5	13:51