Production and performance of bio-based mineral fertilizers from agricultural waste using ammonia (stripping-)scrubbing technology

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Abstract

Development and optimization of nutrient recovery technologies for agricultural waste is on the rise. The full scale adoption of these technologies is however hindered by complex legal aspects that result from lack of science-based knowledge on characterization and fertilizer performance of recovered end-products. Ammonium sulfate (AS) and ammonium nitrate (AN), end-products of (stripping-)scrubbing technology, are currently listed by the European Commission as high priority products with the potential of replacing synthetic N fertilizers. The legal acceptance of AS and AN will be highly dependent on critical mass of scientific evidence.

This study describes four different (stripping-)scrubbing pathways to recover ammonia with an aim to (i) assess product characteristics of ammonium nitrate (AN) and ammonium sulfate (AS) produced from different installations, (ii) evaluate fertilizer performance of recovered end-products in greenhouse (Lactuca sativa L.) and full field (Zea mays L.) scale settings and (iii) compare the observed performances with other published studies. Results have indicated that the recovered products might have a different legal status, as either mineral N fertilizer or yet as animal manure, depending on the used (stripping-) scrubbing process pathway. Nevertheless, no significant differences in respect to product characterization and fertilizer performance of AN and AS have been identified in this study as compared to the conventional use of synthetic N fertilizers. This indicates that recovered AS and AN are valuable N sources and therefore might be used as N fertilizers in crop cultivation.

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1. Introduction

1.1. Paradox of synthetic mineral nitrogen requirement in nutrient surplus regions

Intensification of the livestock sector has increased production efficiency and simultaneously induced detrimental effects on the environment. The livestock sector is currently responsible for 14.5% of all human-induced greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions (Sakadevan and Nguyen, 2017). Moreover, it generates large nutrient surpluses of on-farm nitrogen (N) and phosphorus (P) that may lead to a pollution of water bodies. To protect European watercourses, the Nitrates Directive (91/676/EEC) was implemented in 1991 with the aim to limit the application of N from animal manure up to 170 kg N ha⁻¹ y⁻¹ in Nitrate Vulnerable Zones (NVZs) (European Commission, 1991). These zones are mostly located in European regions known for high livestock density, such as Flanders (Belgium), the Netherlands, Denmark, Brittany (France), Po Valley (Italy), Ireland, Aragon and Catalonia (Spain). In Flanders and the Netherlands, farmers are confronted not only with the limitation on N application from animal manure but also with strict
limitations on P inputs to avoid further build-up of P in soil (Sigurnjak et al., 2017a). All these limitations have led to the current situation where animal manure surplus needs to be processed and/or exported to regions of relative shortage. Ironically, nutrient surplus regions are also amongst the largest consumers of synthetic mineral fertilizers in order to meet crop requirements, in addition to what is allowed to be fertilized in the form of raw animal manure. This basically implies, low (negative) value of nutrients present in raw animal manure and high (positive) economic value for products that could potentially substitute synthetic mineral fertilizers all within the same geographic region.

In nutrient surplus regions animal manure is often separated, directly or after anaerobic digestion, into a P-rich solid fraction and a nitrogen and potassium rich (NK-rich) liquid fraction. The former is usually exported to P-deficient regions, while NK-liquid fraction is further treated. One of the most used treatment options for the liquid fraction is a conventional aerobic treatment (Foged et al., 2011; VCM, 2016; Loyon, 2017; Hou et al., 2017) that involves nitrification-denitrification of N into N2 gas. For example, 81 out of 118 manure processing installations in Flanders used aerobic treatment as a primary technique in 2015, accounting for the loss of around 12.7 million kg N in the form of inert N2 gas (VCM, 2016). At the same time, however, the intensive crop production systems require a high input of nutrients to optimize yields. Due to the imposed limitations on the application of N and P from animal manure on the arable land, the allowable application of N from animal manure is lower than the crop N demand. To fill the gap synthetic N fertilizers, synthesized via energy intensive Haber-Bosch process, are used by farmers to satisfy the crop N requirements. For example, around 70 million kg of N are applied annually on Flemish soil by using synthetic N fertilizers (Lenders et al., 2013) despite existing N excess from animal manure.

1.2. Pathways for nitrogen recovery using (stripping-)scrubbing technology

In the emerging circular bio-based economy, the loss of N from aerobic treatment should be prevented by recovering N from animal manure and using it as a replacement for synthetic N fertilizers. As such, a more sustainable option would be to subject NK-rich liquid fraction to ammonia (stripping-)scrubbing process and subsequently produce N rich fertilizer, rather than to biologically convert N to N2 and capture it back via Haber-Bosch process. The operating principle of (stripping-)scrubbing is that ammonia (NH3) can be stripped by air, steam or vacuum through the N rich waste stream in an ammonia stripping reactor (eg. packed bed tower, mixer and microwave-assisted air reactors), resulting in NH3 transfer from the aqueous phase to a gas phase (Guštin and Marinšek-Logar, 2011; Kimidi et al., 2018). The released NH3 is removed in a chemical air scrubber by washing it with a strong acidic solution such as sulfuric or nitric acid. The reaction of NH3 with sulfuric acid (H2SO4) results in ammonium sulfate (AS), whereas reaction with nitric acid (HNO3) results in ammonium nitrate (AN). Due to the high N concentration, both end-products have a potential to be used as N fertilizers. To obtain optimal removal of NH3, often the pH of the waste stream and temperature are adjusted. Depending on the used pH and temperature, the NH3 removal efficiencies have been reported to vary in range of 70–99% (MB31/05/2011; Melse and Ogink, 2005; Zhang et al., 2012; La et al., 2014; Van der Heyden et al., 2015; Limoli et al., 2016). The highest NH3 removal efficiency of 99% was demonstrated at pH 10 and 70 °C (Lemmens et al., 2007; Melse and Ogink, 2005; Van der Heyden et al., 2015).

In Europe, the following pathways (PW) have been identified to recover NH3 via (stripping-)scrubbing on a full scale (Fig. 1):

(i) **PW1. Air cleaning pathway** only makes use of scrubbing unit to treat NH3 rich indoor air from animal stables, drying units and composting installations, especially those mechanically ventilated (Melse and Ogink, 2005). In essence this pathway makes use of capturing volatile NH3 in its gaseous form by an acid scrubber. A scrubber is a reactor filled with inorganic packing material, with large porosity and large specific area. Water is sprayed with nozzles over the packing material, without leaving any dry area, to prevent the loss of unwashed exhaust air. Part of it is continuously recirculated, the remaining fraction is discharged and replaced by fresh water. Air from animal stables, drying units and composting installations is blown into the system either horizontally (cross-current) or upwards (counter-current). The contact between air and water facilitates the mass transfer between the two phases. In chemical scrubbers, the pH is controlled between 1.5 and 4 by addition of acid substances to the recirculation water, shifting the equilibrium towards ammonium and thus increasing its absorption into the aqueous phase (Van der Heyden et al., 2015). Long term monitoring of acid scrubbers at five farm locations was carried out in the study by Melse and Ogink (2005), reporting average NH3 removal efficiency 90–99% with a minimum and a maximum peak of respectively 40 and 100%.

(ii) **PW2. Ammonia removal and recirculation pathway** where (stripping-)scrubbing unit is coupled to an anaerobic digester with the aim to reduce potential NH3 inhibition in the digester. Several variations on this particular pathway can be encountered – e.g. (i) after mechanical separation of the digestate, the liquid fraction is stripped and recirculated to the anaerobic digester, or (ii) the raw digestate is stripped using biogas as a stripping agent after which biogas rich in NH3 is scrubbed and the stripped digestate is re-circulated to the anaerobic digester. Previously reported laboratory experiments on recirculation have been carried out with column temperatures ranging between 35 °C and 85 °C and with the addition of CaO, Ca(OH)2 and NaOH to adjust the pH to a value around 10 (Serna-Maza et al., 2014, 2015). After stripping, the treated digestate was recycled to the digester and biogas was circulated through traps to remove NH3. Removal of NH3 from the gas stream is achieved by means of a condensate trap followed by bubbling through water and then through H2SO4 before recirculating biogas to the digester (Zhang et al., 2017).

(iii) **PW3. End-of-pipe pathway** where digestate from anaerobic digestion or raw animal manure is first separated into liquid and solid fraction, and subsequently the liquid fraction is treated in a (stripping-)scrubbing unit instead of being, for example, subjected to biological treatment. This pathway involves the use of additives (eg. lime) to increase the pH of the treated liquid fraction in order to increase the NH3 emission. In studies by Ledda et al. (2013) and Bolzonella et al. (2018) end-of-pipe pathway has allowed the treatment of 50–100 m3 day−1 digestate from which after separation 17–33% of N found initially in digestate was recovered as ammonium sulfate.

1.3. Ammonium sulfate and ammonium nitrate as mineral N fertilizers

In 2011, 69 air cleaning installations (as part of manure processing plants) have been identified in the EU at medium and large scale installations, treating 4 million tonnes of livestock manure and other products (Floate et al., 2013). The current number is unknown, but the interest in this technology is increasing and so are innovations in the field of (stripping-)scrubbing. To date, many
researchers have focused on technological aspects of (stripping-)scrubbing technology (Melse and Timmerman, 2009; Gustin and Marinšek-Logar, 2011; Serna-Maza et al., 2015; Bousek et al., 2016; Provolo et al., 2017) and little has been reported on the resulting products, AS and AN, and their potential to be used as N fertilizers. To our knowledge, only four studies are currently published on fertilizer performance of AS (Vaneeckhaute et al., 2013, 2014; Chen et al., 2014; Sigurnjak et al., 2016) and none on fertilizer performance of AN. Consequently, European legislation still identifies AS and AN originating from animal manure as an animal manure (European Commission, 1991). The current European legislative framework prohibits application of these end-products on top of 170 kg N ha\(^{-1}\) y\(^{-1}\), reduces the market opportunities for the installation owners and hinders the development of a circular economy. Therefore, this study describes four full scale installations that use different pathways to recover NH\(_3\) via (stripping-)scrubbing with an aim to (i) assess product characteristics of AN and AS produced at these four installations, (ii) evaluate fertilizer performance of recovered end-products in lettuce and maize cultivation and (iii) compare the performance of end-products in this study with results from four other published studies on AS.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Description of ammonia recovery systems at four full scale installations

2.1.1. Air cleaning pathway (PW1)

AS was collected at a pig farm in Merkem, Belgium. The farm counts in total 7000 pigs out of which 430 are sows and the rest are piglets. Pig manure is collected via a slatted floor and kept in concrete manure storage under the stables (capacity of c. 5000 m\(^3\) with an option of minimum 9 months residence time) prior to being separated by means of centrifugation and subsequently sent to biological treatment (capacity: 12 000 tonnes y\(^{-1}\)). The NH\(_3\) is currently recovered only from indoor air of pig stables where air is vented (ventilation capacity: 35 m\(^3\) h\(^{-1}\) is needed per pig; Leirs et al., 2017) into a pressure chamber and through lamella (i.e. plastic structures with irregular holes) of the air scrubber (personal communication, VCM). This creates a large contact surface on which the acidified scrubbing water (i.e. water mixed with 96% or 98% H\(_2\)SO\(_4\)) is sprayed, capturing NH\(_3\) from the air and forming AS. The air scrubber is controlled by the pH of the AS which in this case varies between 1.5 and 5. When the pH is below 5 the AS is recycled and reused again to scrub the air. When the pH is higher than 5, H\(_2\)SO\(_4\) (96% or 98%) is added to reach a pH of 1.5 (personal communication, VCM). On average 1.5 L of H\(_2\)SO\(_4\) is applied to remove 1kg of N\(_3\) which results in approximately 30 L of AS, depending on the amount of NH\(_3\) to be removed and the amount of NH\(_3\) that can be in scrubbing water before it is saturated (Leirs et al., 2017). According to the Flemish legislation, NH\(_3\) reduction of minimum 70% is achieved by this system (MB31/05/2011).

2.1.2. Ammonia removal and recirculation pathway (PW2)

A first example of AS from ammonia removal and recirculation pathway was provided by the co-digestion plant of Acqua & Sole (Vellezzo Bellini, Italy) within the H2020 Systemic project (unpublished data) and personal communication with operators of the plant. The installation has a capacity of 120 000 tonnes y\(^{-1}\) (1.6 MW\(_{el}\)), treating sewage sludge from a wastewater treatment plant (86%), digested source-segregated food waste (8%) and the liquid fraction of source segregated food waste (6%). The system consists of three digesters placed in series and one storage tank operated at thermophilic temperature (55 °C) with a minimum retention time of 20 days. The first digester is implemented with a side-stream NH\(_3\) stripping unit operated at a temperature in range 60–80 °C NH\(_3\) is stripped in a counter flow with biogas as a
medium. Biogas rich in NH₃ is sent into a scrubber where it is neutralized by the addition of H₂SO₄. The generated AS is stored in a steel tank facility, while N-depleted digestate (25% of the digested substrate) and biogas are recirculated back to the first digester (Acqua & Sole, 2011). With this system 22% of NH₄-N contained in the digestate is recovered as AS.

A second example of AS from ammonia removal and recirculation pathway was provided by the co-digestion plant of Benas (Ottersberg, Germany) within the H2020 Systemic project (unpublished data) and personal communication with operators of the plant. The farm includes 3500 ha (ha) of arable land, of which 1000 ha nearby the farm and an anaerobic co-digestion installation (103 000 tonnes y⁻¹, 5.24 MWₑ). The plant consists of six digesters operated at thermophilic temperature with a retention time of about 150 days. The input feed includes corn silage (56%), chicken manure (26%) and agricultural wastes (18%). Digestate is treated in a (stripping-)scrubbing unit (GNS, 2003). The NH₃ stripping unit consists of three stripping columns where NH₃ is transferred from the liquid to gas phase exploiting exhaust heat generated by the combined heat and power (CHP) engines of the plant. The operating temperature is in the range of 50–80 °C and the pH is maintained at a value of 9 without the addition of any chemical. The gas phase, rich in NH₃, enters into a reactor where an aqueous suspension containing gyspsum from a flue gas desulfurization plant (FGD-gypsum, CaSO₄) is spread to form a suspension containing AS and calcium carbonate (CaCO₃). The suspension is further processed by means of a filter press to obtain AS aqueous solution (FGD-gypsum, CaSO₄) is spread to form a suspension containing gypsum from a flue gas desulfurization plant (FGD-gypsum, CaSO₄) is spread to form a suspension containing AS and calcium carbonate (CaCO₃). The suspension is further processed by means of a filter press to obtain AS aqueous solution.

2.3. Product assessment in comparison to synthetic nitrogen fertilizer

2.3.1. Lettuce growth experiment

The pot experiments with lettuce (Lactuca sativa L., cv. Cosmopolia) were conducted on loamy-sand (LS) and sandy-loam (SL) soil. The former was collected from 0 to 30 cm soil layer of an experimental field which was used for a maize trial (Section 2.3.2). The soil collection of loamy-sand soil took place two months (December 2015) after the harvest of maize (October 2015). The sandy-loam (USDA texture triangle: 6% clay, 62% sand and 32% loam fraction) soil was collected from 0 to 30 cm soil layer of an arable field in Roeselare (50°54′53″N, 3°6′41″E), Belgium. The characteristics of loamy-sand soil prior to the experiment were pH-KCl = 4.9; electrical conductivity (EC) = 92 µS cm⁻¹; NO₃-N = 3.5 kg ha⁻¹; NH₄-N = 5.6 kg ha⁻¹; S_total = 143 mg kg⁻¹. Similar values were measured for sandy-loam soil amounting to pKCl = 5.8; electrical conductivity (EC) = 95 µS cm⁻¹; NO₃-N = 5.9 kg ha⁻¹; NH₄-N = 4.1 kg ha⁻¹; S_total = 181 mg kg⁻¹.

In both pot experiments, AS and AN were compared to the conventional fertilization regime of using solely synthetic N, in the form of calcium ammonium nitrate (CAN; 27% N), as a N source in horticulture. In total, 4 different fertilization treatments in quadruplicate pots were tested (Table 2). The material application rate was calculated according to the nutrient requirements for lettuce (210 N, 125 P₂O₅ and 240 K₂O kg ha⁻¹; personal communication PCG) by taking into consideration the nutrient value of fertilizers (Table 1). In each pot an equal amount of total N was applied amounting to 77 mg N pot⁻¹. In order to achieve an equal application of P and K in all treatments, triple superphosphate (TSP; 46% P₂O₅) and potassium sulfate (PAT; 30% K₂O, 10% MgO and 42.5% S) were added as additional sources of P and K, respectively (Table 2). After fertilization on January 20, 2016, one lettuce plant with a 5 cm soil block was transplanted in each pot. Detailed experimental conditions are described by Sigurnjak et al. (2017b).
75 kg P2O5 and 250 kg K2O a fertilizer application dosage was advised at 120 kg effective N, on the results. Based on the soil characteristics and crop demand, the field to minimize potential influence of variable soil conditions designed with quadruplicate plots of 6 m
able for N leaching.

800 mm and an average annual air temperature of 10
climate of the region, with an average annual precipitation of
season, with a fallow period during winter. The temperate marine
grown. Silage maize was cultivated during the previous growing

Table 1
Characteristics of ammonium sulfate (PW1) and ammonium nitrate (PW3), used in maize and lettuce trials of this study, compared to the mean ranges of ammonium sulfate (PW1) reported in other published studies (vaneeckhaute et al., 2013; 2014; Chen et al., 2014; Sigurnjak et al., 2016) and unpublished data from Systemic project. No published data on ammonium nitrate has been found.

Table 2
Product and macronutrient dosage in the pot and field experiment for four different fertilization treatments (n = 4).

2.3.2. Full maize field validation
The field experiment was performed on a 0.8 ha loamy-sand (USDA texture triangle: 4% clay, 75% sand and 21% loam fraction) soil in Beernem (51°09’03”N, 3°18’12”E), Belgium. The soil characteristics of the 0–30 cm soil layer prior to the experiment were pH = 5.2; NO3-N = 3.8 kg ha−1; NH4-N ≤ 5 kg ha−1; ammonium lactate extractable P (P-AL) = 240 mg kg−1 DM; ammonium lactate extractable K (K-AL) = 67 mg kg−1. The NH4-N amount in soil prior to the experiment was <4 kg ha−1 per each soil layer (i.e. 30–60 and 60–90 cm), whereas for NO3-N 2 kg ha−1 was measured in 30–60 cm and 3 kg ha−1 in 60–90 cm soil layer. As a test crop, maize (Zea mays L.) cv. Madras (FAO Ripeness Index: 235) was grown. Silage maize was cultivated during the previous growing season, with a fallow period during winter. The temperate marine climate of the region, with an average annual precipitation of 800 mm and an average annual air temperature of 10 °C (RMI, 2015), is favorable for high crop yields but entails conditions favorable for N leaching.

Experimental treatments were tested in a randomized block design with quadruplicate plots of 6 m × 10 m (n = 4) spread across the field to minimize potential influence of variable soil conditions on the results. Based on the soil characteristics and crop demand, fertilizer application dosage was advised at 120 kg effective N, 75 kg P2O5 and 250 kg K2O ha−1. The effective N is the amount of N from applied bio-based material that is expected to be available for crop uptake in the season of application (Webb et al., 2013). According to Flemish manure regulation the amount of effective N in animal manure is legally accepted to be 60% of the total N content, whereas for AS and AN 100% is accepted (VLM, 2016). This is similar to what is expected from the application of synthetic N fertilizer. As can be seen from Table 2, AS and AN were applied on top of pig manure and compared to the conventional fertilization of synthetic K fertilizer in the form of potassium sulfate (PAT; 30% K2O, 10% MgO and 42% SO3). Finally, in order to determine nitrogen fertilizer replacement value (NFRV) blank treatment was introduced where no nutrients were applied to account for the effect of the soil. Nutrient application rates for three different treatments are summarized in Table 2. PM was applied on May 13, 2015 by use of PC controlled injection (Bocotrans, NL). The synthetic N and K fertilizers were applied together with AS and AN on May 15, 2015. The synthetic fertilizers, AS and AN were applied to the plots of PC controlled injection (Bocotrans, NL). The synthetic N and K fertilizers were applied together with AS and AN on May 15, 2015. The synthetic fertilizers, AS and AN were applied to the plots by hand-application and subsequently incorporated into the soil. Immediately after incorporation maize was sown at a seed density of 100 000 ha−1.
2.3.3. Plant and soil analysis

Maize was harvested on October 8, 2015. The 7.5 m² area in the middle of each plot was measured, and the maize within that surface area was harvested manually by use of trimming scissors. Lettuce was harvested on March 15, 2016, after 54 days of growing period. At harvest, the plants were clipped from the root with a knife and cleaned with demineralized water from soil particles prior to the fresh weight (FW) determination. The dry matter determination of maize and lettuce was done by oven drying at 60 °C for 48 h. The dried samples were ground and sieved to <1 mm using a Culatti DCFH 48 grinder (GE), and subsequently used for determination of total N and S. The total N was analyzed using Kjeldahl method (Van Ranst et al., 1999). For total S content 0.2 g of plant material was mixed with 2.5 ml H₂O₂ and 2.5 ml HNO₃ and allowed to stand for 12 h followed by microwave heating (CEM MARS 5, BE) at 600 W for 10 min at 55 °C, 10 min at 75 °C and 30 min at 100 °C (Van Ranst et al., 1999).

Soil samples were taken during the maize harvest (October 8, 2015) by collecting homogenized soil subsamples per plot at three depths (0–30 cm, 30–60 cm, 60–90 cm) using an auger. The soil samples were collected in polyethylene sampling bags and transported from the test site to the laboratory. Soil from lettuce experiment was taken in a full amount from the pots and homogenized. The moisture content was determined by weight loss after drying the soil sample to constant weight at 105 °C for at least 24 h. Soil potential acidity (pH-KCl) was measured using an Orion-520A (USA) pH-meter after adding 50 ml of 1 M KCl to 10 g of soil and allowing it to equilibrate for 10 min (Van Ranst et al., 1999). Soil EC was measured with a WTW-LF537 (Germany) electrode after equilibration for 30 min in deionized water at a 5:1 liquid to dry sample ratio and subsequent filtration (MN 640 m, Macherey-Nagel, Germany). After aqua regia digestion (1 g sample + 7.5 ml HCl, 2.5 ml HNO₃ and 2.5 ml demineralized water), total S was analyzed using ICP-OES. The soil nitrate N (NO₃-N) (ISO 13395:1996) and ammonium N (NH₄-N) (ISO 11732:1997) in soil were analyzed from 1 M KCl extract using a continuous flow auto-analyzer (Chemlab System 4, Skalar, the Netherlands).

2.3.4. Calculations and statistical analysis

Statistical analysis was performed using SPSS statistical software (version 22.0; SPSS Inc., Chicago, IL). One-way ANOVA was used to determine the effect of the applied fertilizers on soil properties along with the effect on crop yield and crop N and S uptake, based on the obtained physicochemical data. When significant differences between means were observed, additional post hoc assessment was performed using Tukey’s Test (p < 0.05, n = 3). The condition of normality was checked using the Shapiro-Wilk test, whereas the homogeneity was tested with the Levene Test. Additionally, data from other studies published on ammonium sulfate has been processed (Table 1, 3 and 4) to compare those results with this study. Finally, N fertilizer value was determined, depending on the presence or the absence of a control (=unfertilized) treatment in an experimental design, as follows:

\[
N \text{ replacement use efficiency (NRUE; %)} = \frac{N \text{ uptake AMM SOLUTION}}{N \text{ uptake REFERENCE}} \times 100
\]

\[
N \text{ fertilizer replacement value (NFRV; %)} = \frac{(N \text{ uptake AMM SOLUTION} - N \text{ uptake CONTROL})}{N \text{ uptake REFERENCE} - N \text{ uptake CONTROL}} \times 100
\]

where Amm. solution = treatment with AS or AN, Control = unfertilized treatment and Reference = CAN or animal (pig) manure + CAN.

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Product quality of end-products from (stripping-)scrubbing technology

Similar as synthetic mineral N fertilizers, produced via Haber-Bosch process, recovered AS and AN contain total N entirely in mineral form (Table 1). The total N in AS is present 100% in the form of NH₄-N, whereas total N in AN can be found in the form of NH₄-N and NO₃-N. The percentage of NH₄-N and NO₃-N in AN measured in this study was 55 and 45%, respectively (Table 1). The use of nitric acid not only contributes to the presence of NO₃-N, but also increases the N concentration in the recovered product. In this study, over the two sampling moments (2015 and 2016), 4.9 times higher N concentration was measured on average in AN than in AS (Table 1). By comparing average N concentration of AN from this study with an average N concentration of AS reported in other published studies and produced within the Systemic project, 2.7 times more N was found in AN than in AS. This also indicates high N variability between AS (30–86 g N kg⁻¹) and AN (132–198 g N kg⁻¹) recovered at different (stripping-) scrubbing installations.

The concentration of N in AS is lower due to the use of sulfuric acid, which makes AS also a rich source of S. Depending on the amount of added H₂SO₄ not only S concentration will vary, but also pH (2.40–7.70) and EC (152–262 mS cm⁻¹) values (Table 1). Low pH values could be of concern during product application since it can cause corrosion of machinery, leaf burning and soil acidification after long-term application (Vaneecckhaute et al., 2013). In previous published studies this was mitigated by addition of NaOH and tap water to increase the pH of ammonium sulfate prior to fertilization (Vaneecckhaute et al., 2013, 2014; Sigurnjak et al., 2016). Another option is to reduce the consumption of acid, which has been adopted by installations in this study. In general, higher pH values were measured in AN, compared to AS, which reduces the risk of machinery corrosion, but might result in higher risk of NH₃ volatilization during the fertilization. The high EC values could be of concern while utilizing this type of products in cultivation of salt sensitive crops (Manurecomine, 2016; Sigurnjak et al., 2016). Another important aspect of these products is non-presence of P that allows them to satisfy crop N requirements without exceeding strict P application rates. Moreover, high N concentration reduces the transport costs of these products as compared to animal manure, and other end-products from animal manure processing, whose N concentration is ≤1% (Sigurnjak et al., 2017a). Finally, as both AS and AN are generated from NH₃ rich air, they should not contain carbon (Table 1) or contaminants.

A recent survey among farmers from 7 European countries (Belgium, Denmark, France, the Netherlands, Germany, Croatia and Hungary) investigated the features that a bio-based fertilizer should have in order to be accepted as replacement for synthetic fertilizers (Tur-Cardona et al., 2018). The authors identified the certainty of nutrient content as one of the most decisive traits for the purpose of determining the farmer’s choice between different bio-based fertilizers. The researchers reported that, compared to animal manure, AS is positively welcomed by farmers for its reduced transport costs of these products as compared to animal manure and nitrogen fertilizer replacement value

In previous published studies, (Vaneecckhaute et al., 2013, 2014; Chen et al., 2014; Sigurnjak et al., 2016) AN and AS were tested in the cultivation of lettuce and maize, and without the unfertilized treatment as control. These two crops were also selected as test
In lettuce pot experiments application of AN on two different soil types has resulted in a slight, but still significant, increase of lettuce fresh yield as compared to AS and CAN (Table 3). On average, AN application has led to 9% and 12% higher lettuce yield as compared to CAN and AS on loamy sand soil and to 13 and 21% higher lettuce yield on sandy loam soil, respectively. This was a result of the higher lettuce N uptake observed in AN treatments, whose distribution of N forms in the applied product (55% NH₄-N and 45% NO₃-N) was similar to CAN (50:50). Currently, reasons for higher crop yield and N uptake in AN treatments are not clear, and N release patterns should be further examined via laboratory incubation experiments. Next, no significant differences in lettuce

| Test crop | Experimental scale | Treatment | FW yield g pot⁻¹ | DW yield g pot⁻¹ | N uptake mg crop⁻¹ | S uptake mg crop⁻¹ | NUE % | NRUE % | ANR kg ha⁻¹ | NFRV % |
|----------|--------------------|-----------|------------------|------------------|------------------|-------------------|-------|--------|-------------|--------|
| Lettuce  | Pot experiment (LS) soil | Blank | 37 ± 1 69 ± 2a | 2.9 ± 0.3 5.4 ± 0.3 | 57 ± 6 111 ± 6a | 5.2 ± 0.7 14 ± 1 | 1.44 ± 0.07a | 100a | 0.71 ± 0.07a | 100a |
|          |                   | AN + TSP + PAT | 76 ± 4b | 5.4 ± 0.5 | 125 ± 6b | 14 ± 1 | 1.62 ± 0.08b | 112 ± 6b | 0.89 ± 0.08b | 125 ± 11b |
|          |                   | AS + TSP + PAT | 67 ± 3a | 4.8 ± 0.2 | 113 ± 7ab | 15 ± 1 | 1.47 ± 0.10ab | 102 ± 7ab | 0.73 ± 0.10ab | 103 ± 13ab |
| Lettuce  | Pot experiment (SL) soil | Blank | 39 ± 3 77 ± 2a | 2.9 ± 0.3 5.1 ± 0.3 | 47 ± 2 106 ± 10ab | 4.8 ± 0.5 | 13 ± 1 | 1.38 ± 0.13ab | 100a | 0.78 ± 0.13ab | 100a |
|          |                   | AN + TSP + PAT | 89 ± 8b | 5.8 ± 1.0 | 129 ± 13b | 16 ± 3 | 1.68 ± 0.17b | 121 ± 12b | 1.07 ± 0.17b | 138 ± 21b |

| Test crop | Experimental scale | Treatment | FW yield g pot⁻¹ | DW yield g pot⁻¹ | N uptake mg crop⁻¹ | S uptake mg crop⁻¹ | NUE % | NRUE % | ANR kg ha⁻¹ | NFRV % |
|----------|--------------------|-----------|------------------|------------------|------------------|-------------------|-------|--------|-------------|--------|
| Lettuce  | Greenhouse experiment (2 greenhouses) | Blank | 61 ± 12 64 ± 9 | 3.4 ± 1.3 3.4 ± 1.0 | 151 ± 57 147 ± 41 | 11 ± 5 12 ± 4 | 0.72 ± 0.27 0.70 ± 0.20 | 100 99 ± 28 | NA NA | Sigurnjak et al. (2016) |
|          |                   | AS + TSP + PAT | 55 ± 5 | 2.9 ± 0.5 | 130 ± 23 | 9.3 ± 2.2 | 0.61 ± 0.11 | 100 NA |
|          |                   | AS + STR + CW + PAT | 59 ± 3 | 2.8 ± 0.2 | 116 ± 11 | 9.5 ± 0.6 | 0.56 ± 0.06 | 92 ± 9 NA |
|          |                   | AS + STR + PAT | 56 ± 1 | 2.9 ± 0.1 | 128 ± 16 | 9.4 ± 0.8 | 0.64 ± 0.08 | 103 ± 13 NA |
| Maize    | Field experiment | Blank | 35 ± 5 57 ± 6 | 10 ± 2 16 ± 2 | 80 ± 10 164 ± 31 | 8.7 ± 1.2 | 15 ± 3 | 1.01 ± 0.19 | 100 | 0.52 ± 0.19 | 100 |
|          |                   | PM + AN + PAT | 59 ± 6 | 17 ± 2 | 167 ± 20 | 16 ± 1 | 1.03 ± 0.12 | 101 ± 12 | 0.54 ± 0.12 | 103 ± 23 |
|          |                   | PM + AS + PAT | 59 ± 4 | 17 ± 1 | 169 ± 12 | 16 ± 1 | 1.04 ± 0.07 | 103 ± 7 | 0.55 ± 0.07 | 105 ± 14 |
| Maize    | Field experiment Year 1 | Blank | 81 ± 2 80 ± 3 | 23 ± 0 22 ± 1 | 306 ± 42 300 ± 21 | 23 ± 3 | 23 ± 3 | 1.41 ± 0.19 | 100 NA |
|          |                   | PM + CAN + PAT | 81 ± 3 | 23 ± 1 | 308 ± 20 | 24 ± 2 | 1.42 ± 0.09 | 100 ± 7 | NA NA |
| Maize    | Field experiment Year 2 | Blank | 60 ± 4 62 ± 5 | 19 ± 3 18 ± 1 | 140 ± 23a 157 ± 40ab | 14 ± 1 | 15 ± 1 | 0.89 ± 0.14a | 100a NA |
|          |                   | PM + CAN + PAT | 60 ± 5 | 18 ± 1 | 195 ± 21b | 17 ± 2 | 1.24 ± 0.13b | 139 ± 15b | NA NA |
|          |                   | PM + AS + PAT | 74 ± 4 | 23 ± 2 | 299 ± 25 | 18 ± 1 | 1.55 ± 0.13b | 100b NA |

Lower case letters a and b in a single column indicate significant different means (Tukey’s Test p < 0.05) between treatments within one study (blank excluded); CAN: calcium ammonium nitrate; TSP: triple superphosphate; PAT: potassium sulfate; AN: ammonium nitrate; AS: ammonium sulfate; STR: struvite; CW: effluent from constructed wetlands; PM: pig manure; NA: not applicable.
other published studies dealing with ammonium nitrate and ammonium sulfate as N fertilizers.

Finally, there was no difference between calculated NRUE and NFRV values compared to CAN. This indicates that both products in short-term (<1 year) can replace the synthetic N fertilizer without having a detrimental effect on the crop marketable yield.

In this study, which indicates that in short-term experiments the presence of unfertilized control treatment is not crucial to determine the N fertilizer value of tested products. In long-term experiments the approach of using a control treatment is required (Brentrup and Palliere, 2010), and currently long-term experiments (>1 year) on AN and AS utilization are still lacking.

The utilization of AN and AS in this study did not lead to significant changes of soil pH-KCl as compared to application of CAN. On the other hand, application of AS in lettuce trials has led to significantly higher soil EC values as compared to application of AN whose EC value (342 mS cm⁻¹) was double the EC value measured in AS (152 mS cm⁻¹; Table 1). This can be explained by high N concentration measured in AN that lead to 4 times lower product application than in the case of AS (Table 2), consequently resulting in lower application of salts. Next to the high soil EC values, treatments with AS have exhibited on average 35% higher soil S concentrations as compared to application of CAN and AN that consequently led to the decrease of the water uptake and cation of AS has led to the death of plants. They attributed this to the application of AS that consequently led to the decrease of the water uptake and probably caused the chemical burning of the roots. Even though viola and lettuce are considered as salt sensitive crops (Grieve et al., 2016), treatments with AS have exhibited on average 35% higher soil S concentrations as compared to application of CAN and AN that consequently led to the decrease of the water uptake and probably caused the chemical burning of the roots. Even though viola and lettuce are considered as salt sensitive crops (Grieve et al., 2016), treatments with AS have exhibited on average 35% higher soil S concentrations as compared to application of CAN and AN that consequently led to the decrease of the water uptake and probably caused the chemical burning of the roots. Even though viola and lettuce are considered as salt sensitive crops (Grieve et al., 2016), treatments with AS have exhibited on average 35% higher soil S concentrations as compared to application of CAN and AN that consequently led to the decrease of the water uptake and probably caused the chemical burning of the roots. Even though viola and lettuce are considered as salt sensitive crops (Grieve et al., 2016), treatments with AS have exhibited on average 35% higher soil S concentrations as compared to application of CAN and AN that consequently led to the decrease of the water uptake and probably caused the chemical burning of the roots. Even though viola and lettuce are considered as salt sensitive crops (Grieve et al., 2016), treatments with AS have exhibited on average 35% higher soil S concentrations as compared to application of CAN and AN that consequently led to the decrease of the water uptake and probably caused the chemical burning of the roots. Even though viola and lettuce are considered as salt sensitive crops (Grieve et al., 2016), treatments with AS have exhibited on average 35% higher soil S concentrations as compared to application of CAN and AN that consequently led to the decrease of the water uptake and probably caused the chemical burning of the roots. Even though viola and lettuce are considered as salt sensitive crops (Grieve et al., 2016), treatments with AS have exhibited on average 35% higher soil S concentrations as compared to application of CAN and AN that consequently led to the decrease of the water uptake and probably caused the chemical burning of the roots. Even though viola and lettuce are considered as salt sensitive crops (Grieve et al., 2016), treatments with AS have exhibited on average 35% higher soil S concentrations as compared to application of CAN and AN that consequently led to the decrease of the water uptake and probably caused the chemical burning of the roots. Even though viola and lettuce are considered as salt sensitive crops (Grieve et al., 2016), treatments with AS have exhibited on average 35% higher soil S concentrations as compared to application of CAN and AN that consequently led to the decrease of the water uptake and probably caused the chemical burning of the roots. Even though viola and lettuce are considered as salt sensitive crops (Grieve et al., 2016), treatments with AS have exhibited on average 35% higher soil S concentrations as compared to application of CAN and AN that consequently led to the decrease of the water uptake and probably caused the chemical burning of the roots. Even though viola and lettuce are considered as salt sensitive crops (Grieve et al., 2016), treatments with AS have exhibited on average 35% higher soil S concentrations as compared to application of CAN and AN that consequently led to the decrease of the water uptake and probably caused the chemical burning of the roots. Even though viola and lettuce are considered as salt sensitive crops (Grieve et al., 2016), treatments with AS have exhibited on average 35% higher soil S concentrations as compared to application of CAN and AN that consequently led to the decrease of the water uptake and probably caused the chemical burning of the roots.
et al., 2012). AS did not exhibit negative effect on the later. Therefore, while using AS as a N source in the cultivation of salt sensitive crops the optimal product application rate should be determined by not exceeding advisable levels of soil EC. In maize field scale experiments, as compare to pot experiments, these issues were not visible at harvest time since crop was cultivated in uncontrolled weather conditions where heavy rainfall can remove salts and some nutrients from the root zone, and subsequently reduce the effect of EC and S concentrations.

Another important aspect in utilization of these products as N fertilizers is their potential effect on nitrate leaching. As nitrate leaching is not of practical importance in pot experiments, only in maize field experiments residual nitrate left in 0–90 cm soil layer, between October 1 and November 15, was determined. The measured nitrate residue gives an estimation of the nitrate amount that can potentially leach to ground and surface water. This instrument is used in Flanders (Belgium) since 2004, and in Bretagne (France) since 2014 (Buyssse, 2015). In this study, there were no significant differences in nitrate residue between the tested treatments and the reference (Table 4). This indicates that application of AS and AN does not increase the risk for nitrate leaching as compared to the conventional fertilization regime. Moreover, in all tested treatments, the nitrate residue was below the maximum allowable level of 90 kg NO3-N ha−1 according to current Flemish environmental standards for maize cultivation in zones where measured NO3 concentrations in ground water do not exceed 50 mg NO3 −1 (VLMP, 2016). Similar observations were reported in other studies on AS (Vaneekhauwe et al., 2013, 2014; Chen et al., 2014), and if there was an exceedance of 90 kg NO3-N ha−1 it was recorded for all treatments since the nitrate residue is highly dependent on weather conditions (Vaneekhauwe et al., 2013).

3.4. Current legal status of ammonium nitrate and ammonium sulfate as mineral N fertilizers

According to the current Fertilizer regulation EU2003/2003 AS and AN are nitrogen fertilizer solutions and can be recognized as ‘EC fertilizer’ (category C1 n) if the N-concentration is at least 15% (European Commission, 2003). This threshold can be reached by AN since the use of HNO3 increases the N-concentration (13–20%; Table 1) of the end-product. For AS this threshold is higher than the N-concentrations (3−9%; Table 1) obtained from the existing (stripping-)scrubbing installations that use H2SO4. The current draft of the new European fertilizer regulation for “inorganic liquid compound macronutrient fertilizer” proposes lower N-concentration criteria (1.5 or 3%; European Commission, 2016) which could be met by both AS and AN. However, if AN and AS are obtained from animal manure, their utilization is officially limited by the Article 2.g. of the Nitrates Directive where the following is stated: ‘livestock manure’ means waste products excreted by livestock or a mixture of litter and waste products excreted by livestock, even in processed form (European Commission, 1991). This means that AS and AN from animal manure origin are identified as animal manure and fall under the limitation of 170 kg N ha−1. As a result, these products have to fulfill requirements of animal manure, and therefore have to compete with animal manure. In some EU regions air cleaning pathway is used frequently and therefore a derogation from the Nitrates Directive is currently the subject of a study on safe criteria for processed manure carried out by JRC in the period of 2018–2020 (European Commission, 2017).

4. Conclusion

The study shows that via (stripping-)scrubbing technology the nitrogen from animal manure (<1% N) can be up-concentrated to 3−9% of N in the form of AS and 13−20% of N in the form of AN, depending on the type of acid used. The observed variability in N concentrations of these products is seen as the biggest challenge for their recognition as N fertilizers. Nevertheless, with high N concentration, no presence of P and lack of organics, AN and AS show similar traits as synthetic N fertilizers. This was further demonstrated in pot and field experiments, where utilization of AN and AS has led to a similar effect on crop yield and risk for nitrate leaching as compared to conventional synthetic N fertilizer. Future studies should further investigate the agronomic and environmental fertilizer performance of AN and AS under varying conditions and over multi-year crop rotations.

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