

Cleaner Environmental Systems

Life Cycle Assessment of a Hydrogen Peroxide-Based Slurry Amendment in an Irish Dairy System

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Abstract:	<p>This study evaluates the environmental impact of a chemical slurry amendment applied on a commercial Irish dairy farm using a LCA framework. A hydrogen peroxide-based additive was tested in a controlled slurry storage trial, achieving an 80% reduction in CH₄ emissions and near-total abatement of NH₃ volatilisation over an eight-week period. These emission factors were scaled to represent farm-level conditions at Shinagh Farm and compared to both a baseline system and a representative conventional farm.</p> <p>The results show that implementing the additive reduced CH₄ emissions from slurry storage by 67–79%, lowered the whole-farm carbon footprint by 2–3%, and decreased ammonia-related acidification potential by up to 3.2%. The mitigation effect was more pronounced in the conventional farm scenario, where manure management emissions were higher. Sensitivity analysis confirmed the robustness of results, while highlighting the importance of emission factor selection and farm-specific parameters.</p> <p>The findings demonstrate the additive's potential to significantly reduce gaseous emissions from manure storage without pollution swapping. Although its overall effect on total farm emissions is modest, the strategy offers a targeted and scalable approach to support compliance with climate and air quality goals in Irish pasture-based dairy systems.</p>
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Declaration of Interest

I, Luis Alejandro Vergara, declare that I have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this chapter.

The hydrogen peroxide-based slurry amendment examined in this study was tested in collaboration with the Farm Zero C project at Shinagh Farm. The experimental additive was supplied by GlasPort Bio for trial purposes only. Neither I nor my affiliated institutions have any commercial stake in the proprietary product evaluated. Data interpretation and life cycle assessment modelling were conducted independently by the research team.

Chapter 5 Life Cycle Assessment of a Hydrogen Peroxide-Based Slurry Amendment in an Irish Dairy System

1.1 Abstract

This study evaluates the environmental impact of a chemical slurry amendment applied on a commercial Irish dairy farm using a LCA framework. A hydrogen peroxide-based additive was tested in a controlled slurry storage trial, achieving an 80% reduction in CH₄ emissions and near-total abatement of NH₃ volatilisation over an eight-week period. These emission factors were scaled to represent farm-level conditions at Shinagh Farm and compared to both a baseline system and a representative conventional farm.

The results show that implementing the additive reduced CH₄ emissions from slurry storage by 67–79%, lowered the whole-farm carbon footprint by 2–3%, and decreased ammonia-related acidification potential by up to 3.2%. The mitigation effect was more pronounced in the conventional farm scenario, where manure management emissions were higher. Sensitivity analysis confirmed the robustness of results, while highlighting the importance of emission factor selection and farm-specific parameters.

The findings demonstrate the additive's potential to significantly reduce gaseous emissions from manure storage without pollution swapping. Although its overall effect on total farm emissions is modest, the strategy offers a targeted and scalable approach to support compliance with climate and air quality goals in Irish pasture-based dairy systems.

1.2 Introduction

Manure management in Ireland's rapidly expanding dairy sector has become an acute environmental challenge. Cattle slurry is a significant source of CH₄ and NH₃ emissions, contributing approximately 9% of global agricultural CH₄ and 17% of NH₃ emissions (FAO, 2023; UNECE, 2021). In Ireland, agriculture is responsible for over 99% of national NH₃ emissions and about 38% of national GHG emissions (EPA, 2023). CH₄ from stored slurry is a potent GHG with a GWP₁₀₀ of around 27 (IPCC,

2021), while NH_3 volatilization from slurry leads to nitrogen loss, fine particulate matter formation, and ecosystem nitrogen deposition. Conventional slurry management practices (as examined in Chapter 4) can therefore significantly influence a dairy farm's carbon and NH_3 footprints. For example, in a baseline scenario at the case study farm, untreated slurry storage and land spreading emitted substantial CH_4 , contributing approximately 0.07 kg CO_2 -eq per kg FPCM (roughly 10% of the farm's GHG intensity of ~0.67 kg CO_2 -eq per kg milk) – and were the dominant source of NH_3 , accounting for the vast majority (on the order of 90%) of the farm's NH_3 emissions. This amounted to 2,794 kg NH_3 annually, or 2.11 g NH_3 per kg FPCM. Although this is below the national average of 5.09 g NH_3 /kg FPCM (Buckley and Donnellan, 2020), the cumulative impact across the dairy sector is substantial. Applying the national average to Ireland's 2022 milk output (approximately 9.1 billion kg FPCM), dairy alone is estimated to have emitted approximately 46.4 kt of NH_3 , representing around 40% of the national ceiling of 116 kt under the EU National Emissions Ceilings Directive (EPA, 2023). This leaves limited remaining headroom for emissions from other livestock sectors such as beef and swine, which also rely heavily on slurry-based systems. As such, even relatively efficient dairy farms will face increasing pressure to reduce emissions further. The need for more advanced manure management strategies, such as slurry acidification, low-emission spreading, or chemical amendments, is therefore critical to achieving compliance with both climate and air quality targets, including Ireland's legally binding commitment to reduce agricultural GHGs by 25% by 2030 (Government of Ireland, 2022).

Multiple mitigation approaches have been explored to curb emissions from stored slurry and land application. Covering slurry stores – using fixed lids or floating covers – can greatly reduce NH_3 losses (studies report reductions of 40–80%) by physically blocking NH_3 volatilization, and under optimal conditions can also reduce CH_4 emissions by capturing biogas (Misselbrook et al., 2016; Kupper et al., 2020). However, the effectiveness of covers on CH_4 is variable (permeable covers often have limited impact on CH_4 unless the gas is collected and flared), and installing covers entails significant cost and management changes. Another well-established strategy is slurry acidification, where acids (typically sulfuric acid) are added to lower the slurry pH. Lowering pH shifts the ammonium– NH_3 equilibrium toward the non-volatile ammonium form, thereby cutting NH_3 emissions by 50–80%, and simultaneously inhibits the microbial methanogenesis process, yielding substantial reductions in CH_4 production (Misselbrook et al., 2016; Hou et al., 2014; Sokolov et al., 2021; Overmeyer et al., 2023). While highly effective, acidification requires handling of corrosive

substances and can alter slurry nutrient composition (e.g. increasing available nitrogen and sulfur), which raises practical and safety considerations. At the land-spreading stage, using low-emission slurry spreading (LESS) techniques such as trailing hoses or injection can further abate NH_3 losses – often by 30–60% compared to splash-plate spreading – by delivering slurry directly to the soil and reducing surface exposure (Amon et al., 2006). Indeed, LESS was implemented at the case study farm (Chapter 4) as part of conventional best practices. However, such application-stage measures do not address the CH_4 released during storage, which can account for 15–30% of total manure-related GHG emissions on dairy farms. Even when slurry is stored under floating or impermeable covers, residual CH_4 emissions often persist at rates of 1.0–2.5 g CH_4 per kg of volatile solids, depending on temperature, storage duration, and cover effectiveness (Petersen et al., 2013; Montes et al., 2013). Other methods to mitigate slurry emissions include aeration or frequent slurry stirring to increase oxygen exposure (which can suppress CH_4 generation but are energy-intensive) and various slurry additives. For instance, adding nitrates to slurry can provide an alternative electron acceptor for microbes, thereby curbing methanogenesis – but this may lead to by-products like N_2O and has seen limited on-farm use. Similarly, amendments like alum or other salts have been tested to bind ammonium and reduce NH_3 volatilization, yet their effects on CH_4 are minimal and results have been mixed (Owusu-Twum et al., 2025; Lefcourt et al., 2001; Regueiro et al., 2016). In practice, each of these measures tends to target one pollutant more than the other or introduces new costs and complexities. Few interventions can simultaneously cut both CH_4 and NH_3 emissions without significant trade-offs, underscoring the need for novel solutions.

One emerging approach to tackle both gases is the use of oxidizing agents as slurry amendments. By chemically oxidizing the slurry environment, these additives aim to inhibit anaerobic decomposition (thereby suppressing CH_4 production) and stabilize nitrogen in less volatile forms (thereby reducing NH_3 loss). Recent studies provide proof-of-concept for this strategy. Nolan et al. (2023) demonstrates that adding a peroxide-based additive to pig slurry reduced overall gaseous emissions by over 60%, including roughly a 50% decrease in NH_3 volatilization and a marked reduction in CH_4 output. These findings align with the efficacy observed for slurry acidification and highlight that chemical amendments can effectively target both major emissions from manure. An oxidizing treatment such as H_2O_2 offers a different mechanism from acidification: rather than lowering pH, H_2O_2 releases oxygen and reactive radicals into the slurry, directly oxidizing organic substrates and ammonium. This process can elevate the redox potential of the slurry, inhibiting the strictly anaerobic

methanogenic archaea and potentially converting some ammonium NH_4 to nitrate NO_3 or other oxidized forms, thus retaining nitrogen in the manure while preventing its volatilization as NH_3 . The use of H_2O_2 as a manure additive is novel in the context of dairy farming and offers certain operational advantages over acidification techniques, such as avoiding permanent infrastructure like tank covers or slurry injection systems. While concentrated H_2O_2 (>30%) is highly corrosive and poses severe health risks (e.g. chemical burns, eye damage), the concentration trialled in this study was a 5% diluted solution, classified as irritant but not corrosive under EU Classification, Labelling and Packaging (CLP) regulations (ECHA, 2023). This significantly reduces handling risks relative to acid-based additives such as sulphuric acid, although standard PPE and controlled application protocols remain essential.

Technology	CH_4 Emission Impact	NH_3 Emission Impact	Mechanism of Action	Key Challenges / Limitations
Floating or fixed covers	↓ Variable (10–90%)	↓ 40–80%	Physical barrier to gas release from slurry surface	Costly; fixed infrastructure required; less effective for CH_4 without flaring
Slurry acidification	↓ ~60–70%	↓ 50–80%	pH reduction stabilizes NH_4^+ ; suppresses methanogens	Requires acid handling; corrosive risk; infrastructure adaptation needed
Low-emission slurry spreading (LESS)	↔ / N/A	↓ 30–60%	Places slurry close to soil to reduce NH_3 volatilization	Does not address storage-phase CH_4 ; equipment cost
Aeration / frequent stirring	↓ ~30–50%	↔ / variable	Increases oxygen diffusion, inhibits anaerobic decomposition	High energy demand; operational burden; possible NH_3 increases
Alum / salts (e.g., $\text{Al}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3$)	↔ / uncertain	↓ Moderate (30–50%)	Binds ammonium and reduces NH_3 volatilization	Variable effectiveness; can alter slurry pH and nutrient value
Nitrate or sulfate additives	↓ 30–70%	↔ / may increase	Alternative electron acceptors disrupt methanogenesis	Risk of N_2O formation; limited field testing

H ₂ O ₂ amendment (this study)	↓ ~80% (trial result)	↓ ~100% (NH ₃ eliminated)	Oxidation raises redox potential; stabilizes nitrogen; suppresses CH ₄	Requires careful dosing and handling; corrosive at high concentrations; novel technology still under evaluation
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Table 5.1: Summary of slurry emission mitigation technologies

This chapter builds on the above developments by evaluating the use of H₂O₂ as a slurry amendment in a real-world dairy farm setting. The core research question addressed is whether treating stored slurry with H₂O₂ can substantially mitigate CH₄ and NH₃ emissions at the farm scale and, if so, what net effect this has on the farm’s overall environmental impacts relative to conventional slurry management. To answer this, we integrate empirical data from an on-farm slurry amendment trial (conducted at Shinagh Farm in 2022) with a LCA model. A cradle-to-farm-gate LCA approach – consistent with the framework established in Chapter 4 – is employed to rigorously quantify the environmental impacts of implementing the H₂O₂ treatment. The analysis follows the ISO 14040/14044 standards for LCA (ISO, 2006) and uses the same functional unit of 1 kg of FPCM. The system boundary mirrors that of the conventional scenario (Chapter 4), encompassing all relevant stages from upstream resource production (e.g. manufacturing and transport of inputs like fertiliser, feed, and the H₂O₂ additive) to on-farm processes (including animal management, manure storage, and field application of slurry). All life cycle processes associated with the H₂O₂ treatment – production, transportation, storage, and application of the H₂O₂ – are included in the model alongside the baseline farm operations. This ensures that any upstream burdens of the chemical amendment (such as CO₂ emissions from H₂O₂ manufacture or fuel use for its transport) are accounted for and weighed against the on-farm emission reductions it achieves. Emission factors and impact assessment methods are updated to reflect the latest science and maintain methodological rigor. Notably, GHG emissions are characterized using 100-year GWP₁₀₀ from the IPCC Sixth Assessment Report (i.e. AR6 GWP₁₀₀ values for CH₄, N₂O, etc., IPCC, 2021) to capture the most up-to-date estimation of CH₄’s climate impact. Environmental impacts such as AP and EP are evaluated using the CML-IA baseline methodology (Guinée et al., 2002), in line with prevailing LCA practice. By maintaining consistency in scope and indicators with the previous chapter’s LCA of the conventional system, the effects of the H₂O₂ intervention on key outcomes – GHG emissions, NH₃ losses, and other impact categories – can be isolated and directly compared to the untreated baseline.

This study is among the first to apply a full life-cycle perspective to a H₂O₂-based slurry treatment in a working farm context. By combining empirical trial data with an ALCA, the analysis provides a robust, holistic assessment of both the direct mitigation potential of the H₂O₂ amendment and any indirect environmental trade-offs. In doing so, it offers novel insights into the viability of using an oxidative slurry amendment to simultaneously address CH₄ and NH₃ emissions – a contrast to more conventional mitigation measures (e.g. acidification, storage covers, or LESS) that may target one impact more than the other. Importantly, the life-cycle approach ensures that the benefits of the H₂O₂ treatment (such as reduced on-farm emissions and enhanced fertiliser value of the slurry due to higher nitrogen retention) are evaluated against the costs (e.g. the emissions and resources required to produce and apply H₂O₂). The outcome of this assessment will indicate whether, on balance, the H₂O₂ amendment yields a net environmental advantage for the dairy system.

1.3 Materials and Methods

1.3.1 Goal and Scope

The goal of this study is to evaluate the cradle-to-farm-gate environmental impacts of milk production at a commercial dairy farm in Ireland (Shinagh Farm, Co. Cork) for the year 2022, and to assess the effect of a novel manure management practice, a slurry additive, on those impacts. A comparative LCA approach is used to examine two scenarios: (i) the Shinagh Farm system in 2022, where the slurry additive was applied under trial conditions alongside otherwise standard best practices, and (ii) a representative conventional Irish dairy farm system without the additive, reflecting typical regional management. By comparing these two systems under consistent assumptions, the analysis isolates the potential benefits of the slurry amendment in an Irish dairy context.

An ALCA framework is applied, allocating all direct environmental burdens to the functional unit without modeling broader market-induced effects. This approach is appropriate for farm-scale comparisons of management practices. The system boundary is defined as cradle-to-farm-gate, encompassing all relevant upstream and on-farm processes up to the point where milk leaves the farm. Included are the production and transport of inputs (e.g. fertilisers, feed, fuel, electricity), on-farm enteric fermentation, manure handling (storage and land application), animal housing and milking

operations, and internal nutrient cycling via manure. Co-products such as livestock sales (culled cows, surplus calves) and the use of manure as fertiliser are accounted for within the boundary. Processes beyond the farm gate – milk hauling, processing, packaging, distribution, and consumption – are excluded from this study's scope.

The analysis focuses on steady-state farm operation in 2022; capital infrastructure and one-time land use change are not considered, as no land conversion occurred during the assessment year. Manure is treated as an internal flow: emissions from slurry storage and spreading are fully attributed to the farm, while nutrients returned to soil via slurry are credited for offsetting a portion of synthetic fertiliser requirements. All on-farm land use for feed production (pasture, silage) is included, with no land use change assumed in the reference year. The study follows the ISO 14044 methodology (ISO, 2006) for goal definition, scope setting, life cycle inventory compilation, and impact assessment. Consistent system boundaries and functional units are maintained across both scenarios to enable a transparent, like-for-like comparison of the two manure management strategies in an Irish dairy system.

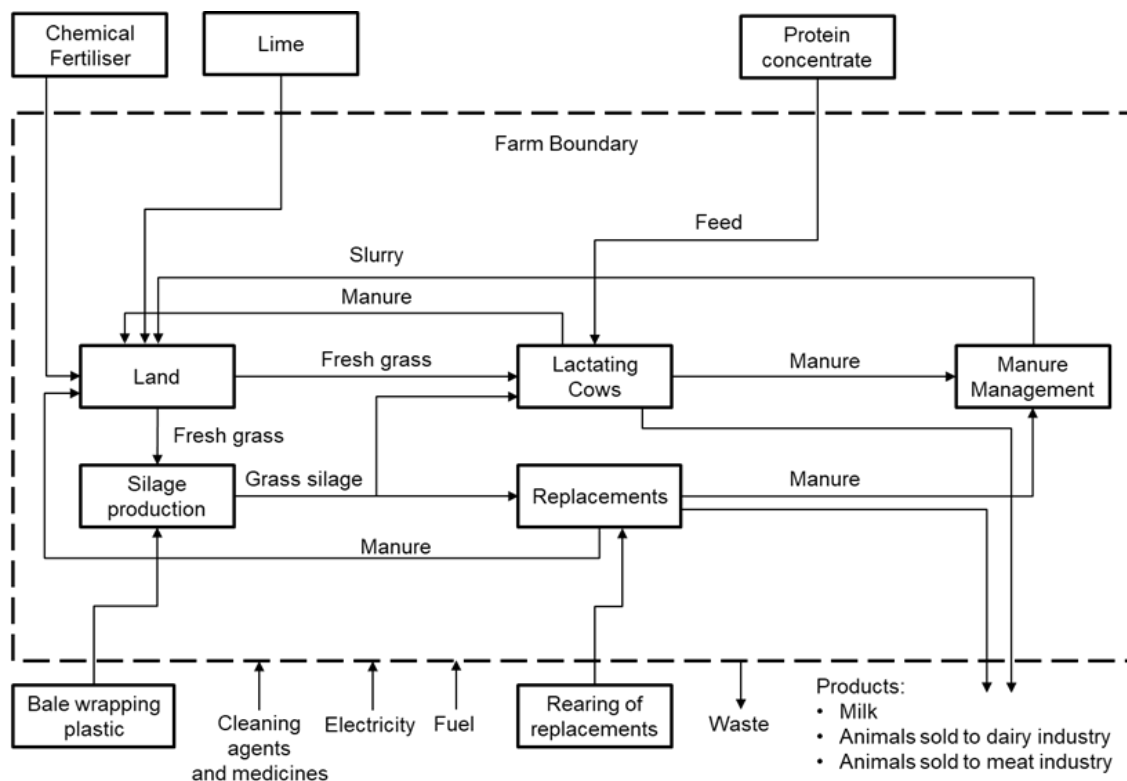


Figure 5.1: Slurry Chemical Amendment - LCA System Boundary

The functional unit is defined as 1 kg of FPCM at the farm gate. Using FPCM as the functional unit standardises milk outputs between farms by adjusting for milk composition (energy and protein content), ensuring results are comparable. All resource inputs and emissions are quantified per this unit of milk. In the Shinagh system, milk is the primary output but beef is co-produced from culled animals and surplus calves; therefore, a partitioning of impacts between milk and meat is necessary. A biophysical allocation approach is employed following established guidelines (IDF, 2015; Teagasc, 2022), which allocates environmental burdens in proportion to the energy and protein requirements for milk production versus live-weight gain. This method reflects the biological resource use of the herd and assigns the vast majority of the impacts to milk, with only a small share allocated to meat. By using this allocation (approximately >90% of impacts to milk), the functional unit impact is focused on milk production, aligning with dairy industry standards.

1.3.2 Life Cycle Inventory

A detailed life cycle inventory (LCI) was assembled for both the Shinagh Farm case and the conventional farm reference, capturing all inputs, outputs, and emissions for the 2022 production year. For Shinagh Farm, primary data were collected from farm records and on-site measurements. These included herd metrics (a milking herd of 247 cows in 2022, with replacement heifers reared on-farm), milk production (total ~1.325 million kg FPCM in 2022), and management details such as grazing and housing durations, feeding regimes, manure handling practices, and resource use. Manure from the cow herd was stored in covered slurry pits for approximately three months during the winter housing period, while manure from replacement stock was managed through a combination of solid manure and partially covered tanks, in line with typical practice (see Table 5.1). Key information was obtained from milk yield records, input purchase logs (e.g. concentrates, fertiliser, diesel), and farm management diaries (e.g. number of grazing days (~251 days fully at pasture in 2022), housing period lengths (~76 days housed for lactating cows), and use of low-emission spreading equipment). These site-specific data provide an accurate account of Shinagh's management in the study year. In contrast, the conventional farm was defined using aggregated national farm statistics, principally the Teagasc National Farm Survey for dairy farms (Buckley and Donnellan, 2023). This representative conventional farm is a mid-sized Irish dairy enterprise in 2022 with about 90–100 cows (~93 cows assumed) and more typical practices: a shorter grazing season (~225 days) with a longer winter housing period. Manure from cows is assumed to be stored in uncovered external tanks for five to six

months, with heifer and calf manure handled via uncovered tanks or solid storage. Slurry is land-applied using predominantly splash-plate methods. Input levels for fertiliser and feed reflect national averages. Table 5.1 provides a side-by-side overview of the key herd and management parameters for Shinagh versus the conventional farm. Notable differences include Shinagh's larger herd and land base (101 ha vs 66 ha), higher overall productivity, and its implementation of certain mitigation practices (for example, Shinagh employs trailing-shoe slurry spreading for 100% of slurry, whereas the conventional farm relies roughly 50% on splash-plate spreading). These differences in the inventory are expected to influence the environmental outputs and are important for interpreting the results of the comparison.

Parameter	Shinagh Farm 2022	Conventional Farm	Unit
Farm size	101	66	Hectare
Eircode	P72X050	-	-
Number of cows	247	93	Livestock Units
Replacement rate	18	22	%
Average lactating days	288	257	Days
Milking frequency	2	2	Times/day
Breeding system	Sexed semen	Sexed semen	Type
Days cows fully grazing	251	225	Days
Days cows partially grazing	38	32	Days
Days cows are housed	76	108	Days
Housing days for heifers	120	145	Days
Housing days for calves	141	179	Days
Manure management type	Cows: Covered pit storage for 3 months. Heifers: Covered pit storage for 3 months. Calves: Solid manure storage.	Cows: Uncovered external tank storage for 6 months. Heifers: Covered tank outside housing for 4 months. Calves: Solid manure storage.	Type
Slurry spreading method	Trailing Shoe	Splash Plate (52%), Trailing Shoe (48%)	Type
% slurry spread on fields	100% cows; 0% heifers/calves	100% all	%
Electricity demand (grid)	33,862	36,560	kWh
Diesel demand	3,000	2,800	L
Kerosene demand	1,000	0	L

Lime usage	20,360	20,360	Kg
Animal sales outside dairy	44,676	9,768	Kg
Fertiliser usage	Protected Urea 46-0-0: 16.5; GEN 29-0-14: 23.6; 10-10-20: 4.5; 0-7-30: 16.3	Urea 46-0-0: 5.7; CAN 27-0-0: 27.5; Protected Urea 46-0-0: 3.0	Ton
Concentrate usage cows	Irish Blend: 238.2	Coarse Dairy 16%: 99.7; Dairy Cubes 16%: 25.2; Coarse Summer 16%: 11.7	Ton
Concentrate usage calves	Calf Starter: 4.9	Calf Starter: 5.0	Ton
Milk production	1,325,004.1	567,649.9	Kg FPCM
Type of drainage	Well drained	Average	-

Table 5.1: Shinagh Farm 2022 and Conventional Farm - Life Cycle Inventory

Given that manure management is central to this study, the LCI explicitly quantifies manure and nutrient flows for both systems. For the conventional farm, manure production was estimated using standard per-animal excretion rates and housing durations derived from national data, assuming typical storage and spreading methods as noted (e.g. slurry stored ~6 months over winter in a tank for the cows, with younger stock managed similarly or in solid manure as appropriate). For Shinagh Farm, a more detailed mass-balance approach was used to model manure and nutrient flows, following IPCC Tier 2 methodology (IPCC, 2019). Herd feed intake and milk output data were used to estimate nutrient excretion: nitrogen intake was inferred from the cows' diet (crude protein content of feed) and nitrogen output in milk was subtracted to calculate total nitrogen excreted by the herd. This yielded an estimated total of approximately 3.39×10^3 kg of nitrogen excreted by the lactating cows at Shinagh in 2022. Using typical nitrogen concentrations in dairy slurry (on the order of 3.5–4.5 kg N per m³ of slurry; O'Brien et al., 2014; Teagasc, 2019), the corresponding slurry volume for Shinagh's milking cows was about 885 m³ for the year. This estimate aligns closely with an independent calculation based on the housing period for lactating cows (76 days) and typical slurry output rates of approximately 0.33 m³ per cow per week, which equates to roughly 3.6 m³ per cow over the housing period, lending confidence to its accuracy.

Table 5.2 summarises the annual manure quantities and storage parameters for Shinagh Farm and the conventional farm, and also places these in context of the experimental IBC (Intermediate Bulk Container) scale described below. In total, Shinagh Farm produces on the order of ~970 m³ of slurry

per year that comprises of 885 m³ from dairy cows and 85 m³ from heifers and calves, whereas the smaller conventional farm produces around ~525 m³ per year. The dry matter content of fresh slurry is assumed to be approximately 8–10% in both systems, consistent with values measured at Shinagh (the initial slurry in the Shinagh trial was ~9% dry matter) and literature values for Irish dairy slurry. At Shinagh, slurry from the cow herd is stored in covered below-ground pits for approximately three months, whereas in the conventional scenario, cow slurry is assumed to be stored in uncovered external tanks for five to six months over winter. Heifer and calf manure are managed using either covered storage or solid systems, in line with typical practice (see Table 5.1). All stored manure is eventually land-applied as organic fertiliser on grassland: Shinagh uses only trailing hoses (trailing shoe) for slurry spreading, whereas the conventional farm uses a mix of splash-plate and trailing shoe methods (about half of slurry spread via each, reflecting average adoption rates). Manure nitrogen returned directly to pasture by grazing animals (excreted on fields during grazing days) is accounted for separately in the LCI as a direct soil input; those N flows bypass storage but are included in overall emissions through field emission factors. In summary, the inventory accounts for the full manure nitrogen cycle in each system, either through the slurry management pathway or via direct deposition on land, to ensure all emissions related to manure are captured.

Parameter	Shinagh Farm 2022	Conventional Farm	IBC Trial (per container)
Dairy cows (count)	247	93	–
Housing period (cows)	76 days	108 days	~56 days (8 weeks)
Slurry produced per cow	~3.6 m ³ over 76 d	~5.1 m ³ over 108 d	–
Total slurry volume (cows)	~885 m ³ /year	~475 m ³ /year	1 m ³
Additional slurry from replacements	~85 m ³ /year	~50 m ³ /year	–
Total slurry managed	~970 m ³ /year	~525 m ³ /year	1 m ³
Typical slurry dry matter	~8–10% DM (fresh basis)	~8–10% DM (fresh basis)	~9% DM (initial)
IBC volume as % of farm total	0.10% (1 m ³ of 970)	0.19% (1 m ³ of 525)	–

Table 5.2: Annual manure production and storage volumes for Shinagh Farm and a conventional Irish dairy farm, and comparison with IBC trial scale

To model the impact of the slurry amendment at the farm scale, primary experimental data were incorporated from an on-farm slurry storage trial conducted at Shinagh in 2022. The trial was

designed and implemented by the Farm Zero C project team (not by the author), with data made available through collaboration with GlasPort Bio and project partners. In this controlled experiment, Shinagh Farm tested the additive's effect using six Intermediate Bulk Containers (IBCs), each of ~1 m³ capacity, filled with fresh cattle slurry collected from the dairy housing facility (representative of the farm's winter slurry). Three IBCs served as untreated control vessels, while the other three were treated with a proprietary slurry additive supplied by GlasPort Bio that releases oxidizing agents (principally hydrogen peroxide, H₂O₂) intended to suppress greenhouse gas and ammonia emissions. The IBCs were kept in winter-like conditions for an 8-week period (~56 days) to simulate typical slurry storage duration on the farm. Throughout this trial, biogas production and composition were monitored regularly for each container: cumulative gas volume was measured and gas samples were analyzed to determine CH₄, CO₂, NH₃, H₂S, and O₂ concentrations. In parallel, slurry samples were taken from each IBC every two weeks and analysed for key chemical properties, including ammoniacal nitrogen (NH₄-N), total nitrogen, dry matter content, pH, and concentrations of nutrients such as phosphorus (P), potassium (K), and sulfur (S). While the IBCs provide a controlled and repeatable experimental platform, they are a simplified proxy and do not replicate all physical and environmental characteristics of the full-scale, below-ground concrete pits used at Shinagh. A critical discussion of these differences and the implications for scaling the results is provided in the following section (see Subsection 5.4.2.1: Storage System Comparability).

The IBC trial revealed that the oxidizing additive substantially reduced both CH₄ and NH₃ emissions during storage. In the treated containers, total biogas generation was lower than in the controls, and critically the biogas from treated slurry had a much lower CH₄ fraction. Consequently, the cumulative CH₄ emitted over the 8 weeks was significantly lower for treated slurry compared to untreated slurry. Moreover, NH₃ volatilization was virtually eliminated in the treated IBCs – essentially a 100% reduction in ammonia release relative to the controls over the trial period. These measured outcomes were used to calibrate the manure emission factors in the LCA. In practice, the emission rates observed at IBC scale were applied to the farm's total slurry volume to estimate annual emissions with and without the additive.

Aside from manure management, the LCI integrates all other farm inputs and activities to calculate total environmental flows for each system. This includes feed production and use, fertiliser manufacture and application, fuel and energy consumption, and livestock-related emissions (e.g. enteric methane and direct N₂O from soils). Wherever possible, Ireland-specific emission factors and

farming practice data are used to reflect local conditions – for example, emission factors for manure management are tailored to Irish climate and management circumstances, and IPCC (2019) guidance is followed for calculating greenhouse gas emissions from livestock and soils. A complete list of emission factors and parameters used in the model is provided in Appendix Table A3. By using country-specific data and integrating the on-farm trial results, the inventory is able to capture the nuances of an Irish dairy system employing this novel slurry amendment. In summary, the LCI captures all relevant material and energy flows and emissions for both the Shinagh and conventional farms under their respective management regimes. This comprehensive inventory serves as the foundation for the life cycle impact assessment in the next section, wherein the environmental impacts of the baseline and amended scenarios are quantified and compared.

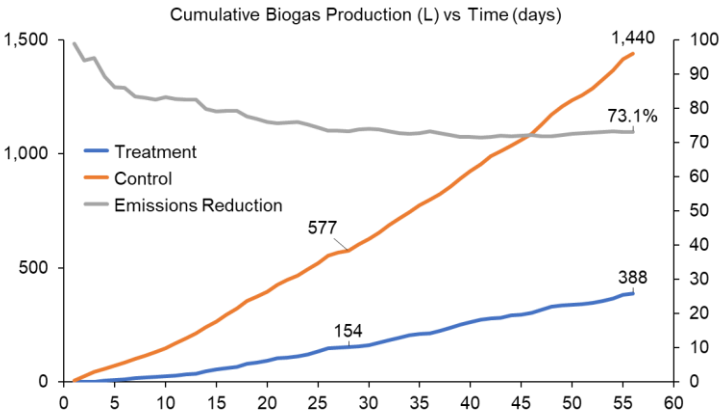


Figure 5.2: Manure Cumulative Biogas Production During Slurry Chemical Amendment Trial

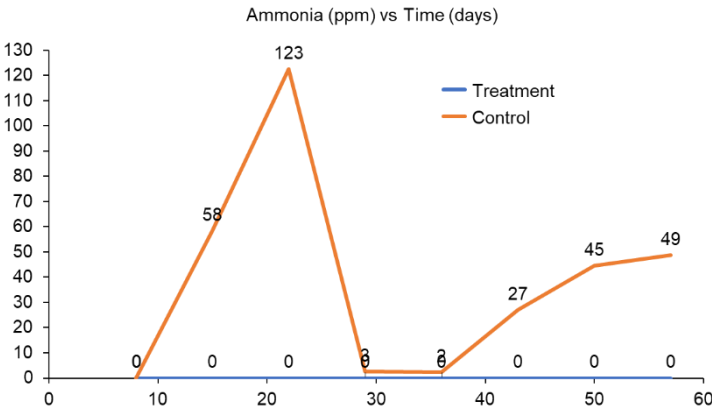


Figure 5.3: NH₃ Emissions During Slurry Chemical Amendment Trial

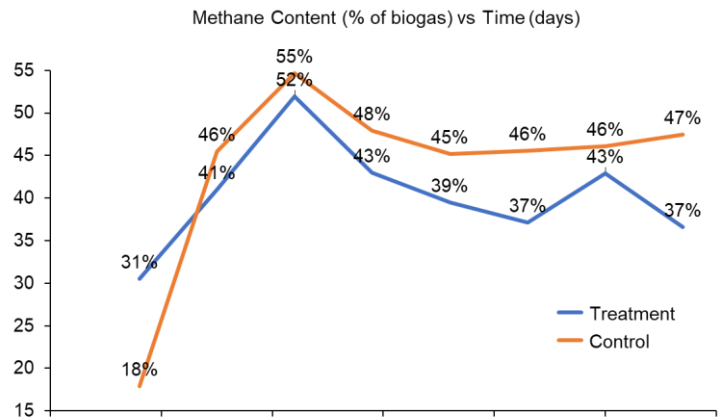


Figure 5.4: CH_4 Content in Biogas During Slurry Chemical Amendment Trial

5.4.2.1 Storage System Comparability

Extrapolating the IBC results to full-scale farm conditions required some assumptions. It was assumed that the percentage reductions in CH_4 and NH_3 observed over the 8-week IBC trial would be maintained over a typical ~12-week winter storage period in a farm slurry tank. This assumption is supported by the observation that in the control IBCs most CH_4 and NH_3 emissions occurred in the first 6–8 weeks, indicating that extending to 12 weeks would not likely produce disproportionately higher emissions beyond what was measured. The slurry used in the IBCs was fresh and representative of Shinagh’s actual manure (in terms of dry matter and nutrient content), and the storage conditions (static, unagitated storage with limited exposure to external environment) mimic the covered pit storage at Shinagh reasonably well. Admittedly, full-scale tanks (~300 m³ capacity) may exhibit additional dynamics – for instance, a larger surface area could allow some crust formation or minor atmospheric interactions, and ambient temperature fluctuations could differ – but in the absence of evidence to the contrary, a like-for-like scaling of emission factors is considered appropriate. In essence, we assume that on a per-cubic-metre basis, the additive would yield similar emission reductions in the farm’s slurry pit as observed in the IBCs. This introduces some uncertainty, but it is a necessary step to integrate the experimental findings into the whole-farm model. It is acknowledged this uncertainty and address it through sensitivity analysis (see Chapter 5.5.4) to ensure that the conclusions are robust to reasonable variations in the assumed mitigation efficiency. Ultimately, the LCI applies the empirically derived emission factors from the trial for Shinagh’s additive scenario and uses the control (untreated) factors for Shinagh’s baseline scenario. By grounding the manure emissions in site-specific measurements (as opposed to solely default factors), the inventory provides a credible and context-specific representation of the slurry additive’s

mitigation potential. In contrast, the conventional system's manure emissions remain based on generic emission factors, since no additive or novel practice is in place for that scenario.

Day	Day 0						Day 28						Day 56					
Type	Control			Treatment			Control			Treatment			Control			Treatment		
	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3
Cumulative Biogas Production (L)	8.82	6.24	7.89	0.66	0	0.24	616.6	557.4	557.7	144.5	139.3	177.8	1568.5	1494.1	1257.9	327.2	345.4	491
Cumulative CH ₄ Production (L)	0	0	0	0	0	0	308.6	241.4	281.1	59	60.3	79.8	746.6	706.7	596.3	100.5	139.5	189.5
Cumulative NH ₃ Production (ppm)	0.09	0.06	0.08	0	0	0	6,234	7,042	11,186	0	0	0	28,232	103,090	74,217	0	0	0
Manure Total NH ₃ cal N (mg/kg)	2273	2631	3165	2080	1833	2324	1843	1932	1818	1907	1870	1899	1872	1959	1702	2039	1908	2072
Manure Dry Matter Content (%)	8.9	8.83	9.26	9.13	8.88	9.07	3.35	6.2	3.21	6.27	21.22	7.98	2.64	3.11	2.94	3.61	3.3	3.52
Manure pH	7	7.1	7.1	7.1	7.1	7	7.2	7.3	7.3	7.5	7.2	7.8	8	8	8.1	8.1	8.1	8.1
Sulphur (units/1000gls)	1.91	1.58	1.56	1.81	1.82	1.8	0.46	0.12	0.38	1.81	0.97	1.2	0.37	0.35	0.26	2.51	0.44	0.42
Phosphorus (units/1000gls)	8.41	9.79	6.81	8.53	8.35	9.82	1.02	2.19	1.08	2.3	2.13	3.2	2.25	2.56	4.01	2.31	1.94	2.5
Potassium (Units/1000gls)	35.89	34.96	35.7	35.93	35.99	35.37	24.3	26.8	30.1	24.2	5.21	31.3	32.16	30.96	45.9	29.27	27.8	31.6
N (units/1000gls)	19.55	20.47	20.49	19.63	19.63	23.67	17.42	20.59	19.41	19.54	19.82	23.36	17.81	18.64	19.18	20.07	19.6	18.86

Table 5.3: Slurry Chemical Amendment Trial Result

1.3.3 Life Cycle Impact Assessment

The life cycle impact assessment (LCIA) evaluates the environmental impacts of each farm system based on the compiled inventory data. In this chapter, the primary impact categories of interest are climate change and air quality (specifically ammonia-related) impacts, given the focus on greenhouse gas and NH_3 emissions from slurry management. Greenhouse gas emissions are characterized in terms of GWP_{100} , expressed as kg CO_2 -equivalents per functional unit. The latest IPCC assessment values are used for GWP_{100} – for example, methane’s characterization factor is ~28 based on the IPCC AR6 (2021) recommendation, reflecting its 100-year warming effect relative to CO_2 . All relevant GHG emissions in the model (enteric CH_4 , manure CH_4 and N_2O , fertiliser and energy-related emissions, etc.) are converted to CO_2 -eq using these factors to compute an overall carbon footprint for each scenario (both in absolute terms and per kg FPCM).

NH_3 emissions are tracked as the key contributor to acidification and air pollution in this context. In the LCIA, NH_3 emissions are translated into an acidification potential impact, reported in kg SO_2 -equivalent per functional unit, using the standard characterisation factors from the CML baseline method (2001) for acidifying substances. This metric accounts for the potential of NH_3 to form acidifying compounds in ecosystems (via formation of ammonium and subsequent deposition). However, since the absolute quantity of NH_3 emitted is also of direct interest for compliance with air quality targets, results are additionally discussed in terms of total NH_3 emissions (e.g. kg NH_3 per year and per kg milk) for each system. Other impact categories such as eutrophication or acidification were calculated in the broader LCA (following the methods described in Chapter 3), but the presentation of results in this chapter primarily centers on climate (GHG emissions) and ammonia-related impacts, as these are the areas most directly addressed by the slurry amendment intervention. All impact results are evaluated on a per-functional unit basis to enable direct comparison between the Shinagh scenario (with and without additive) and the conventional farm scenario.

The LCIA thus translates the inventoried emissions and resource use into relevant environmental impact indicators, which are presented and discussed in Section 5.5. Any assumptions and uncertainties in the impact calculations, for instance, the effectiveness of the additive or variability in emission factors, are examined in the sensitivity analyses to ensure confidence in the comparative findings.

1.4 Results and Discussion

1.4.1 Trial Results

The controlled slurry amendment trial demonstrated substantial reductions in greenhouse gas and ammonia emissions from stored dairy slurry. Over the 56-day experiment, the treated slurry's cumulative biogas production was reduced by 73.1% compared to the untreated control, indicating a major suppression of anaerobic decomposition. Correspondingly, the methane (CH₄) content in biogas fell markedly: total CH₄ emissions from the treated slurry were 79.0% lower than the control over the trial period. This dramatic mitigation of CH₄ is attributed to the oxidative action of the hydrogen peroxide (H₂O₂)-based additive, which introduced more aerobic conditions in the slurry and inhibited methanogenic archaea (Kavanagh et al., 2021). By curtailing microbial breakdown of organic matter, the amendment effectively hindered the methanogenesis pathway, yielding an almost five-fold decrease in CH₄ generation relative to untreated slurry.

In addition to curbing methane, the additive virtually eliminated ammonia (NH₃) volatilization during storage. In the treated slurry, NH₃ emissions were almost entirely abated (approaching a 100% reduction in NH₃ loss) compared to the control. This outcome is exceptionally high relative to previous studies: for example, Kavanagh et al. (2019a) reported about a 96% reduction in NH₃ emissions using strong acid amendments, and Brennan et al. (2015) observed roughly a 54% reduction with a chemical amendment. The near-complete abatement of NH₃ emissions observed in the present trial suggests that the H₂O₂-based additive may act primarily through biochemical inhibition of microbial or enzymatic processes, rather than acidification. Specifically, the suppression of urease activity, the enzyme responsible for converting urea into NH₃, appears a likely pathway, as previously proposed in the literature (Thorn et al., 2022). This interpretation is further supported by the fact that pH values in treated slurry did not decrease over time, and in some cases increased slightly (see Table 5.3), indicating that pH shifts are unlikely to be the main mitigation mechanism in this context. The reduction in NH₃ is also evident from the higher nitrogen content in the day 56 post-trial treated slurry which was 2.18% greater than in the untreated slurry. Retaining more nitrogen in the manure is beneficial, as it can improve the fertiliser value of the slurry when applied to land. There was no statistically significant change in slurry phosphorus content between treated and control samples over the trial. This suggests that the amendment did not affect phosphorus dynamics in the stored manure, which is consistent with expectations, as phosphate compounds are non-volatile and not subject to gaseous loss during storage.

Overall, the trial’s results demonstrate that chemical amendment of dairy slurry with an oxidizing additive can achieve simultaneous, significant mitigation of both CH₄ and NH₃ emissions during storage. Such dual mitigation is critical, as it avoids the trade-off often seen in manure management where reducing NH₃ via acidification can inadvertently increase CH₄, or vice versa (Brennan et al., 2015).

1.4.2 Shinagh Farm

To understand the practical significance of these experimental findings, the effects of the slurry additive were integrated into a life cycle assessment (LCA) of a real-world dairy system (Shinagh Farm). Shinagh Farm’s 2022 baseline (without the additive) provides a point of comparison for emissions and environmental impacts. Under baseline management, the farm’s total annual greenhouse gas emissions were 1,121 tonnes CO₂-equivalent (CO₂-eq). Allocating these emissions between milk and meat co-products on a biophysical basis, approximately 79–80% of the impacts were assigned to milk production, corresponding to a carbon footprint of 0.675 kg CO₂-eq per kg of FPCM (fat-and-protein-corrected milk) in 2022. This value reflects a relatively efficient dairy production system. Enteric fermentation from the herd was the dominant source of greenhouse gases, accounting for about 67.7% of the farm’s GWP (approximately 0.458 kg CO₂-eq per kg FPCM). Manure management, in contrast, contributed a smaller share of emissions: roughly 9–10% of the total GWP (~0.06–0.07 kg CO₂-eq per kg FPCM) was attributable to manure handling (including emissions from manure excreted on pasture, stored in tanks, and land-applied). The remaining GHG emissions arose from feed concentrate production (~10% of total emissions), synthetic fertiliser manufacture and use (~10%), with minor contributions from on-farm energy use (fuel and electricity ~1.5% combined) and other inputs like lime, bedding plastic, and contractor services (each <1%). Consistent with these proportions, the majority of Shinagh’s GHG emissions (about 80%) occur directly on the farm, while roughly 15–20% are from upstream production of inputs (feed, fertiliser, etc.).

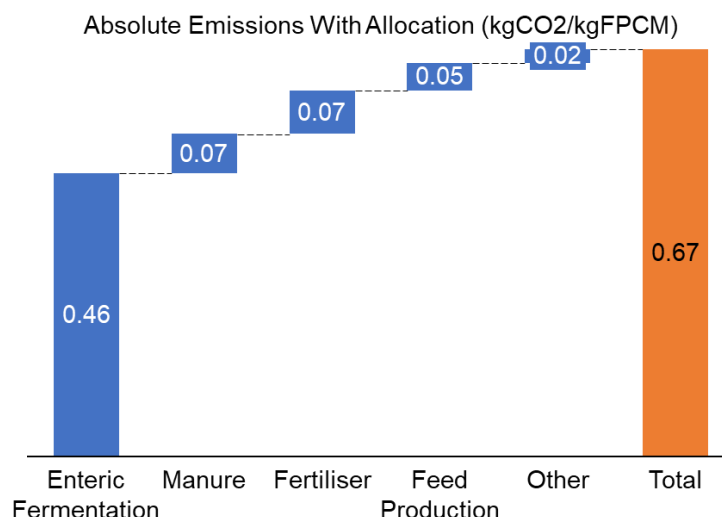


Figure 5.5: Shinagh Farm 2022 - GWP Emissions

Ammonia emissions at Shinagh Farm were also quantified to establish the baseline acidification potential. Annual NH₃ emissions from the farm were estimated at approximately 2,794 kg NH₃, translating to 2.11 g NH₃ per kg FPCM after allocation to milk. These NH₃ emissions predominantly originated from manure management processes. In the baseline scenario, manure deposited by cows on pasture during grazing accounted for the largest fraction of NH₃ loss (~43% of total NH₃ emissions), since urea in urine quickly volatilizes when left on fields. The next major source was initial manure storage during housing (slatted sheds or holding tanks), responsible for roughly one-third (~34%) of the NH₃ emissions. Subsequent storage in the slurry tank (approximately a three-month storage period at Shinagh) contributed about 13% of NH₃ emissions, and emissions during land spreading of slurry accounted for the remaining ~9%. Fertiliser-related NH₃ losses were minimal (~1%) at Shinagh, because this farm's strategy already involved efficient fertiliser use and low-emission slurry spreading techniques. The overall acidification potential (AP) indicator for Shinagh's milk production was calculated as 1.73 g SO₂-equivalent per kg FPCM (8.6×10^{-4} mol H⁺-eq), reflecting the combined impact of all NH₃ sources and other acidifying emissions.

With this baseline established, the experimentally observed mitigation effects of the slurry additive were applied to Shinagh Farm's manure management system in the LCA model. In practice, this means adjusting the farm's manure storage emission factors to reflect a ~79% reduction in CH₄ and a 100% reduction in NH₃ during the storage period for the treated portion of slurry. (It is important to note that the baseline manure emissions in the LCA were derived from standard inventory methods consistent with national

guidelines and the Chapter 4 results, rather than directly from the trial's control measurements. This approach ensured that the farm-scale analysis remained aligned with real farm conditions – accounting for Shinagh's actual slurry volume and storage duration – while using the trial's relative mitigation efficacy to scale down those emissions in the additive scenario.) After incorporating the additive's effects, the modeled greenhouse gas emissions from manure storage at Shinagh were substantially lower. Methane emissions from the slurry during storage resulted the manure management stage's GWP being reduced by about 67% compared to the baseline. This result highlights how effective the additive is in the context of the farm's GHG profile: whereas untreated manure management contributed nearly 10% of total GWP, in the additive scenario that contribution was only around 3%. Notably, this level of mitigation far exceeds what has been reported with some other slurry amendments in the literature. For instance, Borgonovo et al. (2019) evaluated a commercial slurry additive and found only a 16.7% reduction in manure-related GWP, due to an unintended increase in CH₄ emissions during their treatment. In contrast, the H₂O₂-based amendment in the present study avoids such trade-offs and achieves a much greater proportional reduction in stored manure emissions.

In terms of ammonia, implementing the slurry additive at Shinagh Farm also markedly decreased NH₃ volatilization during storage. In the model, ammonia emissions from the slurry storage phase (the tank storage) were virtually eliminated – a 100% reduction in NH₃ from that stage – consistent with the trial observations (see Table 5.4). This translates to a substantial retention of nitrogen in the stored manure. However, when considering the farm system as a whole, the fate of that extra nitrogen must be accounted for: what is not lost in storage may be lost later when the slurry is applied to land. In the additive scenario, because the treated slurry retained more nitrogen, the model projected a 3.3% increase in NH₃ emissions during the land-spreading stage, from 242.3 kg to 250.4 kg NH₃ per year, as a result of higher volatilisation potential upon field application. This is a minor trade-off resulting from the shifted timing of emissions – nitrogen conserved through storage tends to elevate volatilization potential upon spreading if not managed with improved application techniques.

At Shinagh, slurry is already applied using a low-emission method (trailing shoe), which minimises NH₃ losses at spreading. As a result, the absolute increase in NH₃ emissions was relatively small, only around 8 additional kilograms per year. More importantly, the additional nitrogen retained in the slurry enabled the substitution of approximately 92.9 kg of synthetic nitrogen fertiliser, reducing the farm's overall fertiliser demand. This substitution led to a 0.6% reduction in GHG emissions from fertiliser production and

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4 application, and a 1.0% reduction in fertiliser-derived NH_3 emissions. Even though these offsets were
5 modest, they contributed positively to the farm's environmental profile. Thus, while the additive slightly
6 increased NH_3 emissions at the spreading stage, this was offset by lower fertiliser-related emissions,
7 resulting in a net benefit in terms of both nitrogen efficiency and climate impact. These findings highlight
8 the importance of evaluating mitigation outcomes at the whole-farm level, as environmental gains at one
9 stage can be counterbalanced by trade-offs at another. This reflected the net effect of major NH_3 reductions
10 during storage, balanced against minor increases in NH_3 emissions during land-spreading.
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18 After accounting for all these changes, the overall environmental performance of Shinagh Farm improved
19 with the slurry additive, albeit modestly. The whole-farm carbon footprint (per kg of milk) was reduced by
20 about 2.0%, from 0.675 to 0.661 kg CO_2 -eq per kg FPCM. This net improvement might seem small in
21 percentage terms, but it is important to recognize that manure storage emissions were only a minor portion
22 of the farm's total GHG profile to begin with; even eliminating nearly all emissions from that stage yields
23 only a few percent change in the total footprint because enteric fermentation remains the dominant source.
24 Nonetheless, a 2% reduction at the farm scale is non-trivial given the challenge of cutting agricultural
25 emissions. Furthermore, the farm's acidification potential showed a slightly larger relative improvement.
26 The total AP for milk production dropped by about 3.2%, from 1.73 to roughly 1.67 g SO_2 -eq/kg FPCM,
27 in the additive scenario. In practical terms, the slurry amendment could help the farm marginally reduce its
28 contributions to regional ammonia pollution and associated impacts (eutrophication, soil acidification),
29 complementing Shinagh's existing low-emission spreading practice. These farm-scale results confirm that
30 while the slurry additive yields significant reductions at the source (the storage tank), the translation to
31 overall farm sustainability is noticeable but limited by the fact that other emission sources (especially
32 enteric CH_4) remain unabated.
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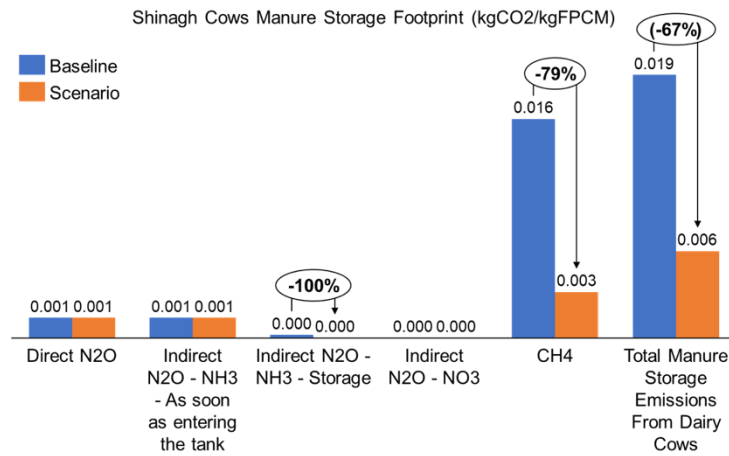


Figure 5.6: Shinagh Farm 2022 - Slurry Chemical Amendment Mitigation Potential on Manure

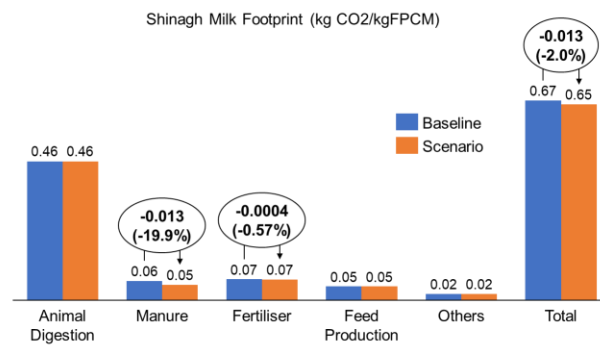


Figure 5.7: Shinagh Farm 2022 - Slurry Chemical Amendment Mitigation Potential on Farm

1.4.3 Conventional Farm

The impact of the slurry amendment was also evaluated under a representative conventional Irish dairy farm scenario to gauge how the results might differ in a less emissions-efficient system. In contrast to Shinagh's intensive, grass-based system with climate-mitigating practices, the conventional farm was assumed to have more typical management: higher reliance on imported feed, a shorter grazing season (and thus longer housing period), and standard slurry handling and spreading methods (e.g. roughly six months of storage and broadcast spreading). The baseline carbon footprint for the conventional farm was estimated at 0.93 kg CO₂-eq per kg FPCM, considerably higher than Shinagh's 0.67 kg. This higher GHG intensity arises from multiple factors. Notably, manure management emissions in the conventional scenario were about 1.86 times higher than those at Shinagh (approximately 0.13 kg CO₂-eq/kg FPCM from manure vs. 0.07 at Shinagh). The conventional farm

keeps cattle housed for extended periods, requiring around six months of slurry storage over winter, as opposed to Shinagh's three-month storage regime. Longer storage leads to significantly greater CH₄ generation – according to IPCC (2019) guidelines, a 6-month storage can emit roughly 21% of the volatile solids as CH₄, whereas a 3-month storage emits around 12%. This difference in manure management practices (compounded by less frequent slurry agitation or the absence of additives) explains much of the manure-related GHG gap between the farms. Additionally, the conventional system likely uses more concentrate feed and fertiliser per unit of milk (due to lower nutrient use efficiency and a shorter grazing season), which contributes to its larger overall emissions.

Baseline ammonia emissions and acidification impacts are also higher in the conventional scenario. Total NH₃ emissions are about 2,246 kg NH₃ per year for a farm of comparable output, equivalent to 3.96 g NH₃ per kg FPCM – nearly double the NH₃ intensity at Shinagh. The distribution of NH₃ sources in a typical conventional system is different as well: land spreading of slurry tends to be a dominant source of NH₃ loss. In this scenario, roughly 29% of NH₃ emissions came from slurry application to land (reflecting the use of splash-plate spreading on most of the slurry). Initial housing and on-farm manure storage emissions constituted around 43% of total NH₃ (about 23% from the housing/storage pit and 10% from the long-term tank storage), while manure left on pasture contributed only ~20% (because cows graze for a shorter portion of the year). Fertiliser application accounted for about 18% of NH₃ emissions – higher than at Shinagh, since the conventional farm uses more chemical N overall. The overall acidification potential for the conventional milk was correspondingly high, around 4.7 g SO₂-eq/kg FPCM (2.3×10^{-3} mol H⁺-eq), underlining how standard practices can lead to substantial NH₃ emissions.

Applying the slurry additive in the conventional farm model yielded significant emission reductions in magnitude, though directionally similar results to the Shinagh case. Because the conventional farm's baseline manure emissions were larger, the absolute benefits of mitigation were greater. With the additive implemented (assuming it is added to the stored slurry to achieve ~79% CH₄ reduction and ~100% NH₃ reduction during storage, as in the trial), the GWP from manure management dropped sharply. In fact, the manure-related GWP in the conventional scenario fell by approximately 23% relative to its baseline value for that component – a slightly larger proportional reduction than the ~20% observed at Shinagh. This was expected, as a higher fraction of the conventional farm's total emissions came from the treatable source (slurry CH₄) that the additive targets.

Conversely, the reduction in GHG emissions from fertiliser production was smaller in the conventional farm model, amounting to only 0.4%, compared to 0.6% at Shinagh. This difference reflects the higher baseline use of synthetic nitrogen fertiliser in the conventional system, where offsetting 92.9 kg of synthetic N with conserved manure-N accounts for a smaller proportional change. Moreover, the use of splash-plate slurry spreading technology, which is less efficient than the trailing shoe method used at Shinagh, resulted in greater NH₃ volatilisation during land application. Specifically, NH₃ emissions during spreading increased by 3.0%, rising from 655.0 to 674.6 kg NH₃ per year in the additive scenario. This increase was a direct consequence of more nitrogen being retained during storage and subsequently lost under inefficient field application. As a result, while the shift from synthetic to manure-derived nitrogen reduced CO₂ emissions from fertiliser manufacture, the concurrent increase in NH₃ emissions during spreading partially offset this benefit. This trade-off illustrates the importance of pairing nitrogen conservation strategies with low-emission application technologies to capture the full mitigation potential..

When all effects are taken into account, the slurry amendment was estimated to reduce the total carbon footprint of the conventional farm by about 3.2%. This brings the footprint down from 0.93 to roughly 0.90 kg CO₂-eq per kg milk – a meaningful improvement for a single intervention, though the conventional farm would still remain higher-emitting than Shinagh’s baseline due to other management differences. This slightly larger percentage reduction (3.2% vs 2.0% at Shinagh) highlights that conventional farms tend to benefit more from slurry-based mitigation technologies, not only because they have greater baseline emissions from manure management, but also because they lack other efficiency measures, such as precision spreading or optimised fertiliser regimes, that are already in place at more advanced farms like Shinagh. As such, manure emission mitigation technologies can deliver relatively larger gains where broader management practices remain less optimised.

Model outputs showed that NH₃ emissions from the long-term slurry storage stage dropped from roughly 225 kg to 138 kg per year (a ~39% reduction in that stage’s NH₃, which is slightly less than full abatement, reflecting that not all slurry fractions or storage phases may receive treatment in practice). NH₃ emissions from synthetic fertiliser use also declined marginally, from 409.9 to 407.2 kg, due to partial substitution of chemical nitrogen with retained slurry nitrogen. However, NH₃ emissions from land application of slurry increased from 655.0 to 674.6 kg—a 3.0% rise—driven by the higher nitrogen content of the treated slurry and the continued use of splash-plate spreading, which is less efficient than the trailing-shoe method used at Shinagh.

This shift in emissions illustrates a redistribution rather than an elimination of nitrogen losses. Although the additive conserved nitrogen during storage, a portion of this nitrogen was subsequently lost during field application due to the low effectiveness of the spreading method. The net result across the storage, fertiliser, and spreading stages was an increase of 16.9 kg NH₃ per year. Meanwhile, greenhouse gas emissions from fertiliser production decreased by 0.4%, reflecting the relatively small impact of substituting a fixed amount of chemical nitrogen in a system with high baseline fertiliser use.

The cumulative effect of these interactions was a 2.8% reduction in AP per kg FPCM. Although this is a meaningful improvement, it is slightly lower than the 3.2% reduction observed at Shinagh. This difference can be attributed to the more effective slurry management practices at Shinagh—particularly the use of low-emission spreading—and its lower baseline reliance on synthetic fertiliser. In contrast, the conventional farm experienced greater field-level NH₃ losses, which reduced the overall system-level benefit. These findings reinforce the importance of integrating slurry treatment technologies with complementary practices, such as precision application, to maximise environmental gains across both air quality and acidification impact categories.

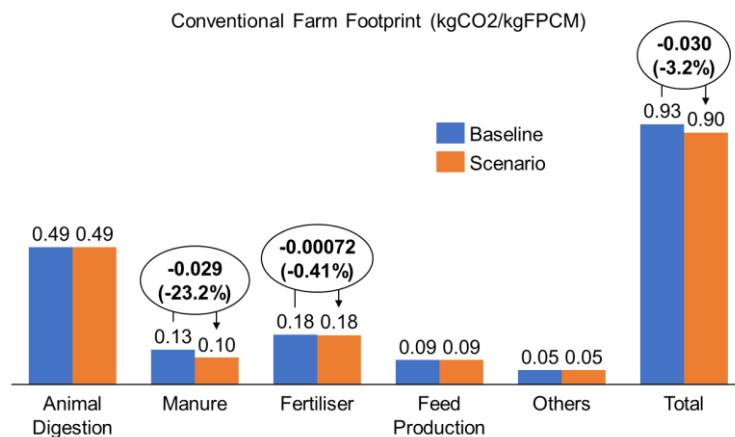


Figure 5.8: Conventional Farm - Slurry Chemical Amendment Mitigation Potential on Farm

1.4.4 System-Level NH₃ Emissions: Source Attribution and Net Effects

This section provides a system-level comparison of NH₃ emissions across key emission stages for both the Shinagh additive scenario and the conventional farm model, consolidating results that were previously discussed across multiple sections. By attributing NH₃ emissions to their sources—housing, storage, land-spreading, pasture, and fertiliser application—it is possible to better understand the distribution, magnitude, and trade-offs of emissions across the two systems.

In the conventional farm scenario, NH₃ emissions were heavily concentrated in housing and storage. Approximately 43% of total NH₃ originated from these two phases, with 23% from housing and short-term pit storage, and a further 20% from long-term uncovered slurry tank storage. Manure deposited on pasture accounted for around 20% of total NH₃, reflecting the shorter grazing season. Fertiliser application contributed the remaining 18%, which was notably higher than at Shinagh due to greater synthetic N use. This emissions profile resulted in an acidification potential of 4.7 g SO₂-eq per kg FPCM, or 2.3×10^{-3} mol H⁺-eq, indicating the substantial impact of standard practice.

In contrast, the Shinagh additive scenario achieved near-complete mitigation of NH₃ from slurry storage, due to the application of a H₂O₂-based chemical amendment during winter housing. However, this N retention led to a 3.3% increase in NH₃ during land-spreading, rising from 242.3 to 250.4 kg NH₃ per year, due to the higher volatilisation potential of the nutrient-rich slurry. Because Shinagh already employs low-emission spreading (trailing shoe), the absolute increase was small—only 8.1 kg NH₃ per year. The additional retained N enabled the substitution of 92.9 kg of synthetic N fertiliser, leading to a 0.6% reduction in CO₂ emissions from fertiliser production and a 1.0% reduction in fertiliser-derived NH₃ emissions. NH₃ from pasture was approximately 43%, consistent with Shinagh’s extended grazing season.

Taken together, these results show that while NH₃ increased slightly at spreading, the total emissions remained stable, with offsets occurring through storage abatement and reduced fertiliser use. The strategy improved whole-farm N efficiency and delivered a modest net GHG reduction. This highlights the importance of evaluating NH₃ outcomes systemically, recognising both mitigation gains and emissions redistribution.

1.4.5 Sensitivity and Uncertainty Analysis

The robustness of these findings was examined through sensitivity and uncertainty analysis, recognizing several limitations in the data and assumptions. For the slurry storage trial, one uncertainty was the intermittent sampling schedule. Slurry chemical properties (e.g. pH, sulfur content, nitrogen content) were only measured on days 1, 28, and 56. This limited temporal resolution means that any short-term fluctuations in these parameters, including potential transient changes in pH following additive application, were not captured. Notably, the available measurements do not indicate a sustained reduction in pH, suggesting that pH suppression was unlikely to be the primary mechanism for ammonia mitigation. Instead, the observed NH_3 reductions are more plausibly explained by alternative pathways such as microbial inhibition or urease suppression, which align with mechanisms proposed in previous studies on hydrogen peroxide-based slurry amendments. Future trials should incorporate more frequent sampling or continuous monitoring to better characterise the dynamic chemical and microbiological effects of slurry treatment over time.

On the farm-scale LCA side, uncertainties stem from farm data inputs and emission factor choices. Key farm activity data such as exact grazing duration, feed intake per cow, and manure excretion rates were based on farm records and standard coefficients, which have inherent variability. Improvements in on-farm measurements (for example, using pasture sensors for grazing time, in-silo feed weighing systems for concentrate use, or flow meters on manure tanks) could increase the accuracy of the inventory and thus the precision of the LCA results.

Methodological choices in the LCA can also influence the outcomes significantly, as revealed by sensitivity tests. We explored how results change under different emissions accounting approaches. For instance, using Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change Tier 2 emission factors (generic national averages) in place of the more detailed, farm-specific factors in our baseline led to noticeable shifts in the calculated emissions. Specifically, when we applied Tier 2 factors for manure N_2O emissions on well-drained Irish pasture instead of Shinagh's disaggregated values, the manure-related N_2O estimate increased and raised the farm's total GWP from about 0.67 to ~0.69 kg $\text{CO}_2\text{-eq/kg}$ milk (roughly a 3% increase in the overall footprint). Similarly, using Tier 2 default factors for synthetic fertiliser N_2O emissions (in lieu of accounting for the farm's specific fertiliser regime) increased the direct N_2O emissions from fertiliser application from ~0.07 to 0.12 kg $\text{CO}_2\text{-eq/kg}$ FPCM. These variations underscore how sensitive the results are to the emission factor assumptions. In contrast, choosing different reputable life cycle inventory data sources for upstream processes (for example, comparing the International Fertiliser Society dataset versus the Ecoinvent database for fertiliser production emissions) produced minimal differences in total GHG results – on the order of 1–2% change in

those components. The largest methodological influence observed was indeed related to emission factor selection for on-farm processes, especially enteric fermentation and manure management. Our use of an IPCC Tier 3 (country-specific) model for enteric CH₄ yielded a slightly higher enteric emission estimate than a simpler Tier 2 approach would (about 0.52 vs 0.46 kg CO₂-eq/kg milk, respectively), highlighting that more granular models can yield divergent absolute values.

Another aspect of uncertainty is the representativeness of national inventory factors for a specific farm like Shinagh. We found that if we ignored the farm's particular conditions and instead used undifferentiated Irish average factors for manure and fertiliser emissions, the calculated GWP of Shinagh Farm would increase substantially (by roughly 12.8%). This indicates that Shinagh's actual management is better than the national average (e.g. due to well-timed fertiliser applications and good soil conditions), and using generic averages would overestimate its emissions. It also means that the potential benefit of the slurry additive could be misrepresented if one does not account for specific farm context. Therefore, the study emphasizes the importance of refining Ireland's National Inventory Report methodology to incorporate more farm-specific parameters (such as seasonal housing effects and soil drainage classes), as national aggregates may not adequately capture the variability in manure and fertiliser management. Improving data precision and methodological consistency in this way would enhance the reliability of environmental impact assessments for mitigation strategies.

Hotspot	GHG	GHG Uncertainty of activity data	Uncertainty of emission factor
Enteric fermentation while on a silage diet	CH ₄	40.7%	11.0%
Enteric fermentation while on a non-silage diet	CH ₄	40.7%	20.0%
Manure left on pasture direct emissions	N ₂ O	47.6%	40.9%
Fertiliser application direct emissions	N ₂ O	47.6%	15.0%

Table 5.3: Shinagh Farm 2022 - Uncertainty Assessment Parameters

1.4.6 Implications

The integrated results and discussion above highlight that chemical slurry amendments, such as the H₂O₂-based additive tested, can play a useful role in mitigating environmental impacts in Irish dairy farming. At the slurry storage level, this technology offers a highly effective means of reducing two important emissions (methane and ammonia) simultaneously. This is particularly relevant for Ireland as it strives to meet ambitious greenhouse gas reduction targets (a 25% cut in agricultural emissions by 2030 relative to 2018 levels) while also adhering to ammonia emission ceilings under EU law. The additive's dual mitigation means it could help address climate and air quality objectives in tandem. For example, if all dairy farms in Ireland adopted this additive, the cumulative GHG reduction could reach an estimated 176,000 tonnes CO₂-eq per year – about 0.77% of agricultural emissions (0.29% of national emissions) based on our conventional farm scenario. While modest relative to sector-wide targets, this contribution would still represent meaningful progress towards climate goals.

Moreover, by retaining more nitrogen in manure, slurry amendments such as the hydrogen peroxide-based treatment can contribute to more circular and efficient nutrient management. In the conventional farm scenario, the additive led to a reduction of 87.1 kg NH₃ per year from storage, which, if applied across similar farms at scale, could make a meaningful contribution toward national ammonia reduction targets under the National Emissions Ceilings Directive. However, the benefit depends significantly on how the treated slurry is subsequently applied. In the model, the use of splash-plate spreading technology resulted in an increase of 19.6 kg NH₃ per year from land-spreading, as the nitrogen retained during storage became more prone to volatilisation upon field application. As a result, the net reduction in NH₃ emissions was 67.5 kg per year in the conventional farm scenario. This highlights that while additive technologies improve nitrogen retention, their full benefit is only realised when paired with low-emission spreading methods such as trailing shoe or injection. Without this integration, a portion of the retained nitrogen is lost downstream, diminishing both the air quality and fertiliser substitution benefits.

However, the findings also indicate that while beneficial, slurry amendment is not a standalone solution for decarbonizing dairy. Even with near-complete elimination of storage emissions, the overall carbon footprint reduction was only a few percent in our scenarios. The bulk of emissions in grass-based dairy systems comes from enteric methane; thus, tackling enteric CH₄ (through feed additives, breeding, or management) remains crucial. Nonetheless, a few-percent reduction at the farm scale is valuable when combined with other measures – in a sector facing stringent climate targets, incremental gains from

multiple interventions will be necessary. Additionally, reducing ammonia emissions from agriculture has co-benefits for ecosystem health (less nitrogen deposition) and human health (less particulate matter formation from ammonia-derived aerosols), which are not fully captured by GWP metrics but are important from a policy standpoint.

The contrast between Shinagh and the conventional farm scenario highlights the importance of tailoring mitigation strategies to the specific management context of each farm. Farms that have not yet implemented foundational measures—such as extended grazing, improved slurry storage, or low-emission spreading—stand to gain relatively more from introducing slurry additives, both in terms of emission reductions and improved nitrogen retention. However, retaining more nitrogen in slurry also increases the risk of NH_3 volatilisation during land application, especially if the farm continues to use high-loss methods like splash-plate spreading. To fully realise the benefits of additive technologies, they must therefore be combined with precision spreading techniques that minimise downstream NH_3 losses. On the other hand, farms that already operate with low baseline emissions—such as Shinagh—may adopt additives for more targeted improvements, for example to address localised air quality concerns near sensitive receptors. More broadly, the widespread adoption of such technologies can help the Irish dairy sector demonstrate credible progress on sustainability, enhancing both regulatory compliance and public trust. Ongoing refinement and on-farm validation of slurry amendment strategies will be essential to unlock their full potential in contributing to Ireland’s ammonia and greenhouse gas reduction targets, while supporting the resilience of pasture-based dairy systems.

1.5 Conclusion

The rapid expansion of Ireland’s dairy sector has heightened the urgency of addressing emissions from manure management. This study applied a LCA to evaluate the environmental effects of a hydrogen peroxide-based slurry additive trialled under commercial conditions at Shinagh Farm. Results from the controlled storage trial showed a substantial reduction in CH_4 emissions (–79.04%) and complete abatement of ammonia NH_3 volatilisation. Treated slurry also retained 2.18% more nitrogen, offering potential to reduce synthetic fertiliser demand when land-applied, with additional environmental benefits.

When scaled to the whole-farm level, the additive reduced Shinagh’s carbon footprint by 2.0%, lowering the global warming potential (GWP) from 0.67 to 0.65 kg CO_2 -eq per kg of FPCM and decreased AP by 3.2% (from 1.73 to 1.67 g SO_2 -eq/kg FPCM). In a conventional farm scenario with higher baseline emissions, the

relative GWP reduction was even greater (–3.2%), while the reduction in AP was more modest (–2.8%). Extrapolated nationally, widespread adoption of the additive could yield an estimated 176 kilotonnes of CO₂-equivalent savings annually, representing 0.29% of Ireland’s total GHG emissions and 0.77% of emissions from the agricultural sector.

In terms of ammonia, the additive could also contribute directly to Ireland’s compliance with its national ammonia ceiling of 116,000 tonnes per year. Based on modelled results, NH₃ reductions from slurry storage ranged from 87 to 138 kg NH₃ per farm per year, depending on the baseline system. Assuming adoption across Ireland’s 17,500 dairy farms, this equates to a national reduction of approximately 1,400 to 2,400 tonnes of NH₃ annually, or 1.2–2.1% of the national ceiling. These figures underscore the value of integrating slurry amendment strategies into broader air quality and nutrient management policies. However, the actual benefit depends on concurrent use of low-emission spreading methods, without which a significant portion of retained nitrogen may be lost during land application.

These results confirm that targeted manure management technologies can contribute to national climate and air quality goals, especially when deployed alongside other mitigation strategies. While the additive’s impact on total farm emissions is modest, it addresses a specific emission hotspot without inducing pollution swapping. Further research is needed to assess long-term effects on soil health, nutrient cycling, and crop productivity under field conditions, as well as to evaluate cost-effectiveness and farmer adoption potential.

In summary, chemical slurry amendments offer a practical and impactful way to reduce emissions from dairy systems. As pressure grows to decarbonise Irish agriculture, such interventions—when supported by empirical trials and system-level modelling—can help align productivity with environmental goals. However, further trials in full-scale manure storage systems are needed to confirm effectiveness under real-world conditions. To maximise benefits, especially the retained nitrogen, additives should be paired with low-emission spreading technologies to avoid increased NH₃ losses at application. These steps are essential to fully realise the additive’s contribution to Ireland’s GHG and ammonia reduction targets.

Appendix A: Supplementary Information for Chapter 4

Table 9.1: Appendix - Chapter 4: Primary Inputs Data Quality Assessment

Parameter	TIR	TER	GR	P
% of supply chain	3	1	1	1
Breed	3	1	1	1
Number of lactating cows	3	1	1	1
Age at first calving	3	1	1	1
Replacement rate	3	1	1	1
Dairy farm area	3	1	1	1
Manure management system	3	1	1	1
Feed for lactating cows as grazed grass	3	1	1	1
Feed for lactating cows as hay or haylage	3	1	1	1
Feed for lactating cows as grass silage	3	1	1	1
Feed for lactating cows as maize silage	3	1	1	1
Feed for lactating cows as wheat silage	3	1	1	1
Feed for lactating cows as soybean meal	3	1	1	1
Feed for lactating cows as compound feed	3	1	1	1
Feed for lactating cows as agricultural by-products	3	1	1	1
Feed for heifers and dry cows as grazed grass	3	1	1	1
Feed for heifers and dry cows as hay or haylage	3	1	1	1
Feed for heifers and dry cows as grass silage	3	1	1	1
Feed for heifers and dry cows as maize silage	3	1	1	1
Feed for heifers and dry cows as wheat silage	3	1	1	1
Feed for heifers and dry cows as soybean meal	3	1	1	1
Feed for heifers and dry cows as compound feed	3	1	1	1
Feed for heifers and dry cows as agricultural by-products	3	1	1	1
Milk powder for calves	3	1	1	1

Bedding materials	3	1	1	1
Drinking water	3	5	5	5
Cleaning water	3	5	5	5
Electricity used on farm (for general operations vs. for dairy cattle)	3	1	1	1
Fuel oil used on farm (for general operations vs. for dairy cattle)	3	1	1	1
Natural gas used on farm (for general operations vs. for dairy cattle)	3	1	1	1
Milk production (total sold)	3	1	1	1
Milk fat content	3	1	1	1
Milk protein content	3	1	1	1
Production of cull cows sold to slaughter or further fattening	3	1	1	1
Production of calves sold for further fattening	3	1	1	1

Table 9.2: Appendix - Chapter 4: Secondary Inputs Data Quality Assessment

Substance	Process	TIR	TER	GR	P
Water	Irrigation water	5	5	5	5
	Drinking water	5	5	5	5
Land occupation and transformation	Feed production	1	1	1	2
	Grazing	1	1	1	1
CH ₄ emitted to air	Enteric fermentation	2	1	1	1
	Manure storage	2	1	1	1
	Manure storage	2	1	1	1
Direct N ₂ O emitted to air	Manure excretion in the pasture	2	1	1	1
	Manure application	2	1	1	1
	Nitrogen fertiliser application	1	1	1	1
	Crop residues	5	5	5	5
	Organic soils	5	5	5	5
	Mineral soils	1	1	1	1
Indirect N ₂ O due to N volatilisation emitted to air	Manure storage	2	1	1	1
	Manure application	2	1	1	1
	Manure excretion in the pasture	2	1	1	1
	Nitrogen fertiliser application	1	1	1	1
Indirect N ₂ O due to N leaching emitted to air	Manure application	2	1	1	1
	Manure excretion in the pasture	2	1	1	1
	Nitrogen fertiliser application	1	1	1	1
	Crop residues	5	5	5	5
NH ₃ and nitric oxides emitted to air	Manure storage	2	1	1	1
	Manure application	2	1	1	1
	Manure excretion in the pasture	2	1	1	1
	Nitrogen fertiliser application	1	1	1	1
Phosphate emitted to ground and surface water	Manure application	2	1	1	1
	Manure excretion in the pasture	2	1	1	1
	Artificial fertiliser application	1	1	1	1
Phosphorus emitted to surface water	Manure application	2	1	1	1
	Manure excretion in the pasture	2	1	1	1
	Artificial fertiliser application	1	1	1	1
Particulate matter emitted to air	Animal housing	1	1	1	1
	Silage feeding	2	1	1	1
Non-CH ₄ volatile solids	Housing	1	1	1	1
	Grazing	2	1	1	1

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	Manure application	1	1	1	1
Nitrate emitted to ground water	Manure excretion in the pasture	1	1	1	1
	Nitrogen fertiliser application	1	1	1	1
	Crop residues	5	5	5	5
CO ₂ emitted to air	Application of lime	1	1	1	1
	Application of urea	1	1	1	1
	Peat drainage	5	5	5	5
	Fuel combustion	1	1	1	1
Heavy metals emitted to groundwater and soil	Application of manure	2	1	1	1
Pesticides, emitted to soil	Application of pesticides	5	5	5	5

Table 9.3: Appendix - Chapter 4: Activity Data and Emissions Factors for LCA Model

Source of Emissions	Method used for calculating emissions
CH ₄ from enteric fermentation when no silage is fed	$\text{kg CH}_4 = (\text{Gross Energy Intake MJ} * (\text{Ym}/100)) / 55.65$ (Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change, 2019a) $\text{Ym} = 6.3$ (-) (Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change, 2019a) $55.65 = \text{Energy content of CH}_4$ (MJ/kg CH ₄) (Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change, 2019a)
CH ₄ from enteric fermentation when silage is fed	$\text{kg CH}_4 = (\text{Digestible Energy Intake MJ} * (0.035 * (\text{silage intake kg DM}/\text{total intake kg DM})) - (2.298 * (\text{feeding level} - 1))) / 55.65$ (Yan et al., 2000) $\text{FL} = \text{total net energy requirement} / \text{maintenance net energy requirement}$ (INRA, 1989; Yan et al., 2004)

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CH ₄ from manure	<p>kg CH₄ = volatile solids kg * (Bo * 0.67 * (MCF/100)) (Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change, 2019a)</p> <p>Housing Bo = 0.24 m³ CH₄/kg VS (Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change, 2019a)</p> <p>Grazing Bo = 0.19 m³ CH₄/kg VS (Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change, 2019a)</p> <p>Pit storage for 3 months MCF = 12% (Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change, 2019a)</p> <p>Solid storage MCF = 2% (Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change, 2019a)</p> <p>Pasture MCF = 0.47% (Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change, 2019a)</p>
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Table 9.3 – *Continued from previous page*

Source of Emissions	Method used for calculating emissions
Direct N ₂ O from manure left on pasture	<p>kg N₂O = manure left on pasture kg N * EF * (44/28) (Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change, 2019b)</p> <p>EFs used are for well drained soils</p> <p>EF for Spring Urine: = 0.32 kg N₂O-N/kg N EF</p> <p>for Summer Urine = 0.31 kg N₂O-N/kg N EF for</p> <p>Autumn Urine = 0.30 kg N₂O-N/kg N EF for</p> <p>Spring Dung = 0.03 kg N₂O-N/kg N EF for</p> <p>Summer Dung = -0.02 kg N₂O-N/kg N</p> <p>EF for Autumn Dung = 0.13 kg N₂O-N/kg N (Krol et al., 2016)</p>
NH ₃ from manure left on pasture	<p>kg NH₃-N = manure left on pasture kg N * TAN, % * EF (Misselbrook & Gilhespy, 2020)</p> <p>EF = 6% kg NH₃-N/kg N (Misselbrook & Gilhespy, 2020)</p> <p>TAN, % = 60%</p>

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Indirect N ₂ O from manure left on pasture due to atmospheric deposition	$\text{kg N}_2\text{O} = \text{manure left on pasture kg NH}_3\text{-N} * \text{EF} * (44/28)$ (Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change, 2019b) $\text{EF} = 1\% \text{ kg N}_2\text{O-N/kg NH}_3\text{-N}$ (Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change, 2019b)
NO ₃ from manure left on pasture	$\text{kg NO}_3\text{-N} = \text{manure left on pasture kg N} * \text{FracLeach}$ $\text{FracLeach} = 10\% \text{ kg NO}_3\text{-N/kg N}$ (Ryan, 2006)

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Source of Emissions	Method used for calculating emissions
Indirect N ₂ O from manure left on pasture due to leaching	kg N ₂ O = manure left on pasture kg NO ₃ -N * EF * (44/28) (Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change, 2019b) EF = 1.1% kg N ₂ O-N/kg NO ₃ -N (Environmental Protection Agency, 2021; Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change, 2019b)
NO from manure left on pasture	kg NO-N = manure left on pasture kg N * EF EF = 4% kg NO-N/kg N (Environmental Protection Agency, 2018; European Environment Agency, 2019)
P ₂ O ₅ leaching to groundwater	kg P ₂ O ₅ = 0.07 * (chemical fertiliser kg P ₂ O ₅ + slurry or liquid manure kg P ₂ O ₅ + solid manure kg P ₂ O ₅) (Nemecek et al., 2007)
P ₂ O ₅ run-off to surface waters	kg P ₂ O ₅ = 0.25 * 1 + {((0.2/80) * chemical fertiliser kg P ₂ O ₅) + ((0.7/80) * slurry or liquid manure kg P ₂ O ₅) + ((0.4/80) * solid manure kg P ₂ O ₅)} (Nemecek et al., 2007)

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NH ₃ from manure management - as soon as entering the tank	<p>kg NH₃-N = manure entering the tank kg N * TAN,% * EF (Misselbrook & Gilhespy, 2020)</p> <p>TAN,% = 60% (Misselbrook & Gilhespy, 2020)</p> <p>Dairy cows liquid manure EF = 27.7% kg NH₃-N/kg N (Misselbrook & Gilhespy, 2020)</p> <p>Replacements liquid manure EF = 27.7% kg NH₃-N/kg N (Misselbrook & Gilhespy, 2020)</p>
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Source of Emissions	Method used for calculating emissions
	Replacements solid manure EF = 4.2% kg NH ₃ -N/kg N (Misselbrook & Gilhespy, 2020)
Indirect N ₂ O from manure as soon as entering the tank due to atmospheric deposition	kg N ₂ O = manure entering the tank kg NH ₃ -N * EF * (44/28) (Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change, 2019b) EF = 1% kg N ₂ O-N/kg NH ₃ -N (Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change, 2019b)
Direct N ₂ O from manure management	kg N ₂ O = (manure entering the tank kg N - NH ₃ from manure management as soon as entering the tank kg NH ₃ -N) * EF * (44/28) (Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change, 2019a) Pit storage EF = 0.002 kg NO ₂ -N/kg N (Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change, 2019a) Solid storage EF = 0.010 kg N ₂ O-N/kg N (Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change, 2019a)

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NH ₃ from manure management	$\text{kg NH}_3\text{-N} = (\text{manure entering the tank kg N} - \text{NH}_3 \text{ from manure management as soon as entering the tank kg NH}_3\text{-N}) * \text{TAN, \%} * \text{EF (Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change, 2019a)}$ $\text{TAN, \%} = 64\% \text{ (Misselbrook \& Gilhespy, 2020)}$ $\text{Covered liquid manure systems EF} = 10\% \text{ kg NH}_3\text{-N/kg N (Misselbrook \& Gilhespy, 2020)}$
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Source of Emissions	Method used for calculating emissions
	Uncovered liquid manure systems EF = 5% kg NH ₃ -N/kg N (Misselbrook & Gilhespy, 2020) Solid manure systems EF = 35% kg NH ₃ -N/kg N (Misselbrook & Gilhespy, 2020)
Indirect N ₂ O from manure management due to atmospheric deposition	kg N ₂ O = manure storage kg NH ₃ -N * EF * (44/28) (Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change, 2019a) EF = 1% kg N ₂ O-N/kg NH ₃ -N (Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change, 2019a)
NO ₃ from manure management	kg NO ₃ -N = (manure entering the tank kg N - NH ₃ from manure management as soon as entering the tank kg NH ₃ -N) * FracLeach Pit storage FracLeach = 0% kg NO ₃ -N/kg N Solid storage FracLeach = 0% kg NO ₃ -N/kg N
Indirect N ₂ O from manure management due to leaching	kg N ₂ O = manure storage kg NO ₃ -N * EF * (44/28) EF = 1.1% kg N ₂ O-N/kg N (Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change, 2019b)

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N ₂ from manure management	kg N ₂ -N = (manure entering the tank kg N - NH ₃ from manure management as soon as entering the tank kg NH ₃ -N) * TAN,% * EF (European Environment Agency, 2019)
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Source of Emissions	Method used for calculating emissions
	<p>TAN, % = 64%</p> <p>Liquid manure EF = 0.3% kg N₂-N/kg N (European Environment Agency, 2019)</p> <p>Solid manure EF = 30% kg N₂-N/kg N (European Environment Agency, 2019)</p>
NO from manure management	<p>kg NO-N = (manure entering the tank kg N - NH₃ from manure management as soon as entering the tank kg NH₃-N) * TAN,% * EF (European Environment Agency, 2019)</p> <p>TAN, % = 64%</p> <p>Liquid manure EF = 0.01% kg NO-N/kg N (European Environment Agency, 2019)</p> <p>Solid manure EF = 1% kg NO-N/kg N (European Environment Agency, 2019)</p>
Direct N ₂ O from manure land spreading	<p>Slurry applied to soils kg N = manure entering the tank kg N - NH₃ from manure management as soon as entering the tank kg NH₃-N - NH₃ from manure management kg NH₃-N - NO₃ from manure management kg NO₃-N - N₂ from manure management kg N₂-N - NO from manure management kg NO-N</p> <p>kg N₂O = slurry applied to soils kg N * EF * (44/28) (Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change, 2019b)</p> <p>EF = 0.6% kg N₂O-N/kg N (Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change, 2019b)</p>

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NH ₃ from manure land spreading	kg NH ₃ -N = slurry applied to soils kg N * TAN,% * EF (Misselbrook & Gilhespy, 2020) TAN, % = 60% (Misselbrook & Gilhespy, 2020)
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Table 9.3 – *Continued from previous page*

Source of Emissions	Method used for calculating emissions
	Trailing shoe liquid manure spring EF = 10.4% kg NH ₃ -N/kg N (Misselbrook & Gilhespy, 2020) Trailing shoe liquid manure summer EF = 19.
NH ₃ from manure land spreading	kg NH ₃ -N = slurry applied to soils kg N * TAN,% * EF (Misselbrook & Gilhespy, 2020) TAN, % = 60% (Misselbrook & Gilhespy, 2020) Trailing shoe liquid manure spring EF = 10.4% kg NH ₃ -N/kg N (Misselbrook & Gilhespy, 2020) Trailing shoe liquid manure summer EF = 19.4% kg NH ₃ -N/kg N (Misselbrook & Gilhespy, 2020) Trailing shoe liquid manure autumn EF = 13.7% kg NH ₃ -N/kg N (Misselbrook & Gilhespy, 2020) Solid manure EF = 68.3% kg NH ₃ -N/kg N (Misselbrook & Gilhespy, 2020)

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Indirect N ₂ O from land spreading due to atmospheric deposition	$\text{kg N}_2\text{O} = \text{slurry applied to soils kg NH}_3\text{-N} * \text{EF} * (44/28)$ $\text{EF} = 1\% \text{ kg N}_2\text{O-N/kg NH}_3\text{-N (Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change, 2019b)}$
NO ₃ from manure land spreading	$\text{kg NO}_3\text{-N} = \text{slurry applied to soils kg N} * \text{FracLeach}$ $\text{FracLeach} = 10\% \text{ kg NO}_3\text{-N/kg N (Ryan, 2006)}$

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Table 9.3 – *Continued from previous page*

Source of Emis- sions	Method used for calculating emissions
Indirect N ₂ O from manure land spread- ing leaching	kg N ₂ O = slurry applied to soils kg NO ₃ -N * EF * (44/28) EF = 1.1% kg N ₂ O-N/kg NO ₃ -N (Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change, 2019b)
NO from manure land spreading	kg NO-N = slurry applied to soils kg N * EF EF = 4% kg NO-N/kg N (European Environment Agency, 2019)
Direct N ₂ O from chemical fertiliser	kg N ₂ O = chemical fertiliser kg N * EF * (44/28) (Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change, 2019b) EF for well drained soils CAN EF = 0.87% kg N ₂ O-N/kg N (Harty et al., 2016) Urea EF = 0.18% kg N ₂ O-N/kg N (Harty et al., 2016) Protected urea EF = 0.41% kg N ₂ O-N/kg N (Harty et al., 2016)

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NH ₃ from chemical fertiliser	<p>kg NH₃-N = chemical fertiliser kg N * EF (Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change, 2019b)</p> <p>CAN EF = 0.0065 kg NH₃-N/kg N (Environmental Protection Agency, 2018) Urea EF = 0.1278 kg NH₃-N/kg N (Environmental Protection Agency, 2018) NPK Mixtures EF = 0.0123 kg NH₃-N/kg N (Environmental Protection Agency, 2018)</p> <p>Protected urea EF = 0.0271 kg NH₃-N/kg N (Environmental Protection Agency, 2018)</p>
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Table 9.3 – Continued from previous page

Source of Emissions	Method used for calculating emissions
Indirect N ₂ O from chemical fertiliser due to atmospheric deposition	kg N ₂ O = chemical fertiliser kg NH ₃ -N * EF * (44/28) (Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change, 2019b) EF = 1% kg N ₂ O-N/kg NH ₃ -N (Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change, 2019b)
NO ₃ emissions from chemical fertiliser	kg NO ₃ -N = chemical fertiliser kg N * FracLeach (Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change, 2019b) FracLeach = 10% kg NO ₃ -N/kg N (Ryan, 2006)
Indirect N ₂ O emissions from chemical fertiliser due to leaching	kg N ₂ O = chemical fertiliser kg NO ₃ -N * EF * (44/28) (Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change, 2019b) EF = 1.1% kg N ₂ O/kg NH ₃ -N (Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change, 2019b)
NO from chemical fertiliser	kg NO-N = chemical fertiliser kg N * EF (European Environment Agency, 2019) EF = 4% kg NO-N/kg N (European Environment Agency, 2019)

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CO ₂ due to urea fertil- isation	kg CO ₂ = urea spread kg * 0.2 * (44/12) (Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change, 2019b)
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Table 9.3 – Continued from previous page

Source of Emissions	Method used for calculating emissions
CO ₂ from fertiliser production containing nitrogen	$\text{kg CO}_2 = \text{fertiliser applied kg N} * \text{EF}$ EF for European fertiliser CAN EF = 3.523 kg CO ₂ /kg N (Hoxha & Christensen, 2018) Urea EF = 3.502 kg CO ₂ /kg N (Hoxha & Christensen, 2018) Ammonium Nitrate EF = 3.319 kg CO ₂ /kg N (Hoxha & Christensen, 2018)
CO ₂ from fertiliser production not containing nitrogen	$\text{kg CO}_2 = \text{fertiliser applied kg P} * \text{EF}$ Phosphorus fertiliser EF = 1.726 kg CO ₂ /kg P
CO ₂ from feed production	$\text{kg CO}_2 = \text{ingredient kg} * \text{EF}$ EF = Sourced from Agri-Footprint 6 using an economic allocation
CO ₂ from lime application	$\text{kg CO}_2 = \text{limestone applied kg} * 0.12 * (44/12)$ (Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change, 2019b)

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CO ₂ from electricity production	$\text{kg CO}_2 = \text{electricity consumption kWh} * \text{EF}$ $\text{EF} = 0.72 \text{ kg CO}_2/\text{kWh}$ (AIB, 2019)
CO ₂ from diesel production	$\text{kg CO}_2 = \text{diesel consumed L} * \text{EF}$ $\text{EF} = 2.56 \text{ kg CO}_2/\text{L}$ (Sustainable Energy Authority of Ireland, 2022)

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Table 9.3 – *Continued from previous page*

Source of Emissions	Method used for calculating emissions
CO ₂ from machinery use	kg CO ₂ = machinery consumption MJ * EF EF = 0.069 kg CO ₂ /MJ sourced from Ecoinvent

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