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7 **Contrasting yield responses to phosphorus applications on mineral and organic soils**  
8 **from extensively managed grasslands: implications for P management in high ecological**  
9 **status catchments**

10  
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12

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16  
17

18 **Abstract**

19 Phosphorus (P) loss from grassland production is one of the main causes affecting high status  
20 water bodies in Europe. Soils with a high content in organic matter (OM), even if extensively  
21 managed, are particularly vulnerable to P losses due to their poor P sorption capacities, and  
22 can affect the water quality of high status catchments if the dynamics of applied P in these  
23 soils is not well understood. The aim of this study was to assess dry matter yield, herbage P  
24 content and P use efficiency in six soils deficient in P and ranging in OM content from 8.7 %  
25 to 76.4 % in a pot experiment under increasing P applications using the Mitscherlich  
26 equation. Of the six soils investigated, there was a better response in dry matter yield and  
27 greater P use efficiency in the soils with greater OM content than the mineral soils. The  
28 Mitscherlich model described grass response precisely in organic soils due to the higher plant

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29 availability of applied P as a consequence of the poor P sorption capacities of these soils.  
30 Despite the higher availability of applied P for plants in organic soils, the P requirements to  
31 meet the threshold herbage P content for dietary P supply to ruminants were still very high,  
32 which may pose a risk of P loss to the environment if P fertiliser is applied based on  
33 recommendations obtained from plant analysis. These results indicate that P fertilisation of  
34 organic soils in sensitive catchments poses a potentially high risk of P transfer to water  
35 bodies.

36

37 Keywords: fertilizer, P uptake, herbage P content, P use efficiency, Mitscherlich, build up.

38

### 39 **Introduction**

40 Phosphorus (P) is one of the most important elements for grass and animal health, and is  
41 typically applied as fertiliser to replace P exported in products (meat, milk, grass) in either  
42 chemical or organic (manure and/or slurry) forms. When applied in excess of crop  
43 requirements, it may transfer to the surrounding water bodies via leaching and overland flow,  
44 causing eutrophication (*Carpenter, 2008*).

45 In the European Union (EU), the Water Framework Directive (WFD; *OJEC, 2000*) has  
46 established targets for all the member states to achieve at least “good” ecological status for all  
47 water bodies and maintain “high” ecological status. High status water bodies (HSW) are  
48 those reflecting minimally disturbed ecological conditions (called reference conditions;  
49 *Pardo et al., 2012*), and are sensitive even to small anthropogenic activities such as  
50 extensively managed grasslands with low P inputs. Additionally, in line with the general  
51 intensification of agriculture in Europe (*EEA, 2013*), many countries have set growth  
52 strategies for the agri-food sector in recent years. For example, the Irish Government has  
53 enacted Food Harvest 2020 (*DAFF, 2010*) and Food Wise 2025 (*DAFM, 2015*). Whilst these

54 strategies promote agricultural expansion in a sustainable manner, it inevitably requires  
55 reclamation of marginal land in sensitive catchments, whose suitability for agricultural  
56 production may be compromised.

57 Histosols account for soils with an elevated proportion of partially decomposed organic  
58 material derived from plants, and represent about 7 % of the total land area in Europe, with  
59 Finland (9.84 M ha), Sweden (9.08 M ha), United Kingdom (4.45 M ha) and the Republic of  
60 Ireland (1.27 M ha) among the countries with the largest areas covered by this soil type  
61 (*Montanarella et al., 2006*). In Ireland, approximately 66 % of this area is located in upper  
62 parts of mountain ranges (*Renou-Wilson et al., 2011*). It is in these upland areas where HSW  
63 under extensive grassland enterprises are more vulnerable to loss of high ecological status  
64 (*Roberts et al., 2016; White et al., 2014*). Organic soils, comprising mainly histosols and other  
65 related organic matter-rich soils such as histic and humic top horizons (*Creamer et al., 2014*),  
66 typically have a high percentage of organic matter (OM) content, low pH and low aluminium  
67 (Al) and iron (Fe) content, and are therefore associated with a low P sorption capacity (*Daly*  
68 *et al., 2001; Guppy et al., 2005; Kang et al., 2009*). Consequently, the commonly applied  
69 concept of “build-up and maintenance” for mineral soils (*Olson et al., 1987; Voss, 1998*),  
70 where a soil deficient in P has first to increase its reserves before it becomes plant available,  
71 may increase the likelihood of P losses via leaching and/or runoff when applied to organic  
72 soils. Whilst some preliminary work suggests that organic soils under P fertilisation show  
73 similar herbage production than mineral soils (*O’Connor et al., 2001*), the relevance of the  
74 concept of build-up of soil P under P fertiliser applications in organic soils is poorly  
75 understood (*Daly et al., 2015, 2001; Roberts et al., 2017*).

76 Historically, crop production is based on the law of the diminishing returns, in which the  
77 yield response of a crop to incrementally increasing amounts of an applied nutrient  
78 asymptotically declines (*Black, 1993*). Among the different models used to explain these

79 yield response curves, the Mitscherlich equation is one of the best available due to its  
80 inherent nature to represent biological concepts such as the maximum yield attainable and the  
81 efficiency of the added nutrient in increasing the yield or the initial fertility of the soil (Black,  
82 1993). Currently, P fertiliser recommendations in Ireland are based on (1) a national P index  
83 that classifies mineral soils into *deficient*, *low*, *optimum* and *excessive* in available P using  
84 Morgan's P extractant as a soil P test and (2) minimum herbage P concentration of 3 g kg<sup>-1</sup>  
85 that ensures dietary requirements for ruminants. There is a positive relationship between soil  
86 Morgan's P levels and the risk of P loss to waters, so that soils classified as *deficient/low* in  
87 the national P index system are deemed to receive P fertiliser, whereas soils classified as  
88 *optimum/excessive* are considered to receive only maintenance or no P fertiliser additions,  
89 respectively (Coulter and Lalor, 2008; Schulte and Herlihy, 2007). However, it has been  
90 reported that Morgan's extractant overestimates P availability in organic soils and therefore is  
91 not a suitable indicator of P status in these soil types (Roberts et al., 2017).

92 The objectives of this study were to (1) examine and quantify grass responses to P fertiliser in  
93 soils with contrasting amounts in OM using the Mitscherlich equation, and (2) evaluate these  
94 responses with a view to developing appropriate strategies for P applications that optimise  
95 biomass and herbage P content and reduce the potential risk to water quality. To achieve  
96 these objectives, a pot experiment, in which six soils ranging in OM content received  
97 different P fertilisation rates, was conducted. Cumulative dry matter (DM) yield and herbage  
98 P concentration data were evaluated to assess the management of P on organic soils.

99

## 100 **Materials and methods**

### 101 *Soil Sampling*

102 Soil samples were collected from six sites, representing predominant grassland soils in high  
103 status catchments in the Republic of Ireland. The sites selected included two sites at the River  
104 Black catchment in Co. Galway, two sites at the River Allow catchment in Co. Cork, and two  
105 sites at the River Urrin catchment in Co. Wexford (*Roberts et al., 2017*). Soils were selected  
106 based on their OM content and deemed to be deficient in P as no P fertiliser applications were  
107 made in the years before soil collection, with the exception of Galway peaty mineral, which  
108 received an average of 32 kg P ha<sup>-1</sup> the year before soil collection. At each site, three bulk  
109 samples were randomly selected to a depth of 20 cm below the soil surface, air dried and  
110 manually sieved through a 1.2 cm mesh. They were then thoroughly mixed to get a  
111 homogenised sample. Fresh bulk density was determined at each site at the time of sampling  
112 and gravimetric water content (on a wet basis) was calculated to recreate field conditions  
113 when packing the soil in the pots.

114 A subsample from each homogenised soil sample was oven-dried at 40° C for three days,  
115 sieved through a 0.2 cm mesh and analysed for physico-chemical characteristics. Soil pH  
116 (v/v, 1:2) in water was measured according to *van Reeuwijk (2002)*. The soil OM content  
117 was determined using loss-on-ignition at 550° C for 16 hr, which is the standard procedure  
118 implemented in the accredited labs in which the soil samples were analysed (*Storer, 1984*).  
119 Particle size was determined by the hydrometer method (*Day, 1965*). The core method  
120 (*Wilke, 2005*) was used for the determination of both fresh and dry bulk density. Analysis for  
121 total carbon and total nitrogen were carried out on a LECO Truspec C-N analyser (LECO  
122 Corporation, Michigan, USA). The plant available phosphorus was determined using  
123 Morgan's extractant. Total P was determined using the U.S. EPA method 3052 (*USEPA,*  
124 1996), in which a 0.5 g sample was suspended in 2 ml of deionized water, followed by a  
125 combination of 7.5 ml nitric acid (69 % purity) and 2.5 ml concentrated hydrochloric acid.  
126 The mixture was then digested at 180° C in a microwave over a ramping time period of 20

127 min and held for another 20 min at the same temperature. The digestate was analysed using  
128 ICP-OES. The Mehlich-3 soil test was used to determine the concentration of Al, calcium  
129 (Ca), Fe and magnesium (Mg) for each soil (*Mehlich, 1984*).

130

### 131 *Pot experiment*

132 Before starting the experiments, soils were rewetted to bring them to the gravimetric water  
133 content at the time of sampling and packed in 18.5 L-capacity pots (30 cm upper diameter 30  
134 x cm height) up to 3 to 4 cm below the rim. This large size of the pots maximized the growth  
135 potential of the grass, in addition to ensuring that the water status of the containers remained  
136 more stable in comparison to smaller pots (*Spomer et al., 1997*). A 3 cm-deep layer of  
137 gravel/coarse sand mix was placed over the drainage holes in the pots. The pots were left  
138 outdoors under natural conditions for two weeks to equilibrate before application of the P  
139 treatments. Fourteen P fertiliser treatments, with two replications per treatment, in the form of  
140 single superphosphate (16 % P content) were applied uniformly to the surface of each soil at  
141 rates equivalent to 0, 10, 15, 20, 25, 30, 35, 40, 45, 50, 55, 70, 100 and 145 kg P ha<sup>-1</sup>. One  
142 week prior to the application of superphosphate, all pots received an initial application of N  
143 as calcium ammonium nitrate and potassium (K) as potassium chloride, at a rate equivalent to  
144 55 kg ha<sup>-1</sup> and 245 kg ha<sup>-1</sup>, respectively. Maintenance applications of N at the same rate as the  
145 initial one were applied after each harvest to ensure no N limitation to ryegrass growth during  
146 the experiment. After nutrient applications, all pots were left to incubate for two weeks. Pots  
147 were sown with perennial ryegrass (*Lolium perenne* L.) at a rate equivalent to 28 g m<sup>-2</sup> and  
148 maintained in environment-controlled chambers according to a randomized complete block  
149 design under conditions similar to those that occur in the growing months in Ireland (*Walsh,*  
150 2012): (1) photoperiod of 16 hr light (2) day and night temperatures of 14° C and 8° C (± 2°

151 C) (3) relative humidity of  $85 \pm 10$  % during the day and  $75 \pm 10$  % during the night, and (4)  
152 photosynthetically active radiation (PAR) of  $450 \pm 50$   $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2}\text{s}^{-1}$ . Pots were held between  
153 60 to 90 % field capacity by weighting them regularly and watering three times per week  
154 using tap water with a maximum dissolved reactive P (DRP) concentration of  $0.0025$   $\text{mg L}^{-1}$ .  
155 Aphids were treated with insecticide every time they were detected. The grass was cut  
156 manually when it attained a length of 22 to 26 cm above the soil surface. A total of six  
157 harvests were taken. The total duration of the experiment, from the planting of ryegrass seeds  
158 to the last grass harvest, was eight months.

159

160 *Herbage yield, herbage P content, P uptake, P balance and P Use Efficiency (PUE)*

161 All grass collected at each harvest was oven-dried at  $70$  °C for 72 hr and weighed. This  
162 combination of temperature and drying time ensured complete drying of the ryegrass blades  
163 while minimizing potential losses due to partial combustion of the plant tissues. Cumulative  
164 DM yield for each soil type and P fertiliser treatment was calculated by summing the harvests  
165 of the six cuts. Total P uptake was calculated by multiplying the cumulative DM yield at each  
166 P rate by the average herbage P content. The P balance was calculated as the difference  
167 between the total P uptake and the P fertiliser applied. The Phosphorus Use Efficiency (PUE)  
168 was estimated using (*Johnston et al.*, 2014):

169 
$$PUE = \frac{(U_p - U_0)}{F_p} \quad [1]$$

170 where  $U_p$  is the P uptake ( $\text{kg ha}^{-1}$ ) by ryegrass at a given P rate,  $U_0$  is the P uptake ( $\text{kg ha}^{-1}$ )  
171 by ryegrass at a zero P rate, and  $F_p$  is the applied P rate (in  $\text{kg ha}^{-1}$ ).

172

173 *Mitscherlich model*



174 The Mitscherlich model was used to describe the yield response to applied P. The  
175 Mitscherlich equation (*Black, 1993*) is defined by:

$$176 \qquad Y = A[1 - e^{-c(x+b)}] \qquad [2]$$

177 where  $Y$  is the cumulative dry matter yield (kg DM ha<sup>-1</sup>),  $x$  is the amount of P fertiliser added  
178 (kg P ha<sup>-1</sup>),  $b$  is the initial plant available P in the soil determined by the Morgan's P soil test  
179 (kg P ha<sup>-1</sup>),  $A$  is the maximum yield obtained as  $x$  increases indefinitely (kg DM ha<sup>-1</sup>), and  $c$   
180 is a proportionality constant related to how quickly  $Y$  reaches  $A$ .

181 The coefficient of determination ( $R^2$ ) was computed using:

$$182 \qquad R^2 = (sst - sse)/sst \qquad [3]$$

183 where  $sst$  is the total sum of squares (total variation) and  $sse$  is the variation not explained by  
184 the regression. Optimum rates of P fertiliser values were considered to be at 95 % of the  
185 theoretical maximum yields from each response equation. The choice of this proportion is  
186 arbitrary, but choosing an optimum P value of 95 % of the maximum yield ensures that the  
187 estimates of the maximum theoretical yield are likely to be within a relatively broad 5 % of  
188 the standard error of the estimate and near-maximum grass production.

189

### 190 *Statistical Analysis*

191 Data sets were tested prior to analysis for normality (Shapiro-Wilk test) and homogeneity  
192 (Bartlett's test) of variance. For each soil type, the total DM yield was subjected to a one-way  
193 analysis of variance. Regression analyses were carried out using R statistical software,  
194 version 3.4.2 (*R Core Team, 2017*).

195

## 196 **Results and discussion**

### 197 *Soil physico-chemical properties*

198 Table 1 shows the main properties of the soils used in this study. Organic matter content  
199 showed a broad spectrum, ranging from 8.7 % (Wexford Mineral) to 76.4 % (Galway Peat).  
200 Cork peaty mineral had a strongly acidic pH (4.5), followed by Cork mineral and Galway  
201 Peat (5.1 and 5.3, respectively), with soils from Wexford and Galway peaty mineral having  
202 the largest values. Cork mineral and Wexford mineral had the highest values in clay content,  
203 with approximately 297 and 182 g kg<sup>-1</sup>, respectively, followed by Wexford peaty mineral  
204 with 101 g kg<sup>-1</sup>. Mehlich-3 extractable Al and Fe ranged from 2.6 to 991.44 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> and from  
205 116.99 to 507.39 mg kg<sup>-1</sup>, respectively, with the highest values of Al for the soils from the  
206 Wexford site. Mehlich-3 extractable Al contains crystalline (e.g., gibbsite) and amorphous Al  
207 (Kuo, 1996) and does not necessarily imply phytotoxicity as the plant available, amorphous  
208 Al may only be a small fraction. This is in line with Fay *et al.* (2007), who reported the  
209 highest concentration of Al in the south east of the country. Extractable Ca was lowest for  
210 the more acidic soils, and increased at more neutral pH values, except for Galway peat, which  
211 had the second highest value (7812 mg kg<sup>-1</sup>) of the soils examined, and an acidic pH (5.3).

212

### 213 *Herbage yield*

214 There was no statistically significant response to P treatments ( $p > 0.05$ ) for both soils from  
215 Cork. In contrast, both soils from Galway and Wexford peaty mineral had a significant total  
216 DM response to P fertiliser applications ( $p < 0.0001$ ). The response of Wexford mineral soil  
217 was weaker but still statistically significant ( $p < 0.04$ ). Cork peaty mineral was moderately  
218 acidic (4.5), leading to immobilization and sorption reactions between applied P and Al and

219 Fe oxides. Soil pH has a direct impact on the availability of added P, as adsorption and  
220 precipitation reactions with Al and Fe oxides make it plant unavailable (*McLaughlin et al.*,  
221 2011; *Oburger et al.*, 2011). Previous studies showed that P applications can have a limited  
222 effect on grass yield in organic soils deficient in P, so that liming should be a priority to  
223 increase the yield in these soils (*Valkama et al.*, 2016). The content of clay in Cork mineral  
224 soil was approximately 300 g kg<sup>-1</sup> which, along with the slightly acidic pH (5.1), implies a  
225 significant interaction with freshly applied P. Clay content and extractable Al and Fe have  
226 been correlated with P sorption capacity of soils elsewhere (*Bolland et al.*, 2003; *Gérard*,  
227 2016). According to the concept of build-up and maintenance, added P was rapidly  
228 sequestered in Cork mineral and, to a lesser extent, in Wexford mineral soils via sorption and  
229 fixation reactions with mineral and clay components into unavailable P forms to fill sorption  
230 sites and redress the P deficiency. In this scenario, soil P is largely unavailable for plant  
231 uptake until it can reach a threshold or critical point over several fertilization sessions at  
232 which time it is soluble and available for uptake. *Daly et al.* (2015) demonstrated this concept  
233 across a range of mineral acid and neutral soils, where the relationship between the ratio of  
234 extractable Al:P and plant available, soluble P indicated that P in soils with low amounts of  
235 physico-chemically sorbed P relative to amounts of Al (high Al:P) was fixed and insoluble.  
236 However, as more P is added to soil and sorbed to mineral components, the Al:P is lowered  
237 and P is released as plant available and soluble forms. Under the concept of build-up, mineral  
238 soils can sorb P after P fertilizations and make it slowly available in succeeding harvests,  
239 when the P in soil solution becomes depleted by plant uptake. The poor response of sites  
240 deficient and low in soil P has been observed in previous studies (*Herlihy et al.*, 2004;  
241 *Valkama et al.*, 2016).

242 Galway peat had the strongest yield response to P fertilisations, followed by Galway peaty  
243 mineral and Wexford peaty mineral. All these soils had a considerable percentage of OM

244 (Table 1). Organic soils typically have a low P retention due to the little mineral fraction  
245 present in the soil (*Daly et al., 2001; Guppy et al., 2005*). Moreover, humic acids derived  
246 from the partial decomposition of the OM are mostly negatively charged, and therefore  
247 compete with orthophosphates for sorption sites in mineral particles (*McDowell and*  
248 *Condon, 2001*). On the other hand, humic acids can form complexes with metals such as  
249  $\text{Al}^{+3}$  and  $\text{Fe}^{+3}$  and, in turn, adsorb P, thereby contributing to the sorption capacities of the  
250 soils (*Gerke, 2010*). The determination of organically bound Al/Fe through the sodium  
251 pyrophosphate extraction method (*van Reeuwijk, 2002*) and the development of phosphate  
252 saturation indices (PSI) that relate the oxalate-extractable P, Al and Fe (*Janardhanan and*  
253 *Daroub, 2010*) can be a good way to evaluate the potential of OM to sorb P in organic soils.  
254 In the current study, the results indicate that the negative relationship between OM and yield  
255 response was the predominant event taking place in the organic soils studied, likely due to the  
256 low “labile” or organically bound Al/Fe concentrations. Under this scenario, the build-up  
257 concept is then limited by the amount of OM present in the soils, and freshly applied P will  
258 remain in the soil solution, supplying P directly to the plant. Considering the particular  
259 climatology of Ireland with frequent rainfall events over the year, the presence of P in the soil  
260 solution increases the risk of losses via leaching and runoff to water bodies. Therefore,  
261 organic soils that have been drained and brought into agricultural production should be  
262 fertilised only in the growing period (March-April), when the grass requirements for P are  
263 highest, to minimize the risk of P losses due to their inability to sorb and retain applied P in  
264 the soil matrix.

265 Additionally, the national P index, where soils are classified from deficient to excessive in  
266 available P based on Morgan’s soil test, should not be applied to organic soils, as it has been  
267 suggested that the acidic Morgan’s extractant may overestimate available P in these soils,  
268 probably due to the hydrolysis of part of the organic P forms (*Roberts et al., 2017*). Other soil

269 tests such as water-extractable P have been used in organic soils as a proxy for the plant-  
270 available P (*Castillo and Wright, 2008*) and may be more suitable for describing the P status  
271 of these type of soils.

272

### 273 *Mitscherlich model*

274 The Mitscherlich response curves for each soil type and the equation parameter values, along  
275 with the  $R^2$  values, are shown in Figure 1 and Table 2, respectively. Values of  $A$  (the  
276 maximum yield attainable under unlimited P supply) ranged between 7,300 and 11,000 kg  
277 DM ha<sup>-1</sup>. Galway peat and Galway peaty mineral had the highest values of  $A$  (11,000 and  
278 10,100 kg DM ha<sup>-1</sup>, respectively), whereas Wexford mineral soil was the least productive.  
279 The greater response in organic soils compared to mineral soils under similar soil P status is  
280 in agreement with other studies (*Valkama et al., 2016*). The reason for this is likely due to  
281 diminished P sorption capacity in organic soils, leaving applied P in the soil solution and  
282 readily available for plant uptake. There was a large range in values for  $c$  (the proportionality  
283 constant, i.e., how fast the yield approaches  $A$ ), which ranged from 0.04 for soils with high  $R^2$   
284 to 1.1 for the soil with lower  $R^2$  values. The proportionality constant  $c$  has been correlated  
285 with the buffering capacity of soils in previous studies (*Brennan and Bolland, 2003*). The  $c$   
286 parameter in Cork Mineral, Wexford mineral and, to a lesser extent, Cork peaty mineral had  
287 the highest values, supporting the concept of P build-up in these soils. The main strength of  
288 the Mitscherlich model to describe yield response curves lies in its ability to give a good  
289 description of the yield when the range of P applications is large and a maximum yield is  
290 achieved at high P rates (*Colwell et al., 1988*). This is the case for the soils from Galway and  
291 for Wexford peaty mineral, where the response to P fertiliser was well described along the  
292 whole set of P rates (high  $R^2$ ). However, the Mitscherlich model becomes less accurate when

293 an asymptote is not reached at higher P rates. Both soils from Cork and Wexford mineral did  
294 not reach maximum yields at maximum or near maximum P rates, so the accuracy of the  
295 Mitscherlich model was relatively poor.

296

297

#### 298 *Herbage P content*

299 The average herbage P concentration across the fourteen P applications declined in all the  
300 sites over the timeline of the pot trial. The second cut at each soil had the highest herbage P  
301 concentrations for all the soils, with values above the threshold limit of 3 g kg<sup>-1</sup>, followed by  
302 a steady decline in each subsequent cut and remaining stable around 1.5-2 g kg<sup>-1</sup> after the 5<sup>th</sup>  
303 cut for all the soils (data not shown). The decline on herbage P concentration observed in this  
304 experiment agrees with other studies (*Bailey et al., 1997* and references within), although this  
305 pattern is not consistent in the literature (*Burkitt et al., 2010*). The decline of herbage P  
306 throughout the year after one single P application at the start of the grazing period can have  
307 negative implications in the health of ruminants if the P requirements are not met for the  
308 intermediate to late grazing period (*Sheil et al., 2016*). Under this scenario, a “little and often”  
309 approach, where P fertiliser applications allocated for the whole year are split in two or more  
310 smaller rates, would be more suitable to maintain herbage P concentrations within the critical  
311 range of 3 to 3.5 g kg<sup>-1</sup>.

312 Figure 2 shows the cumulative DM yield plotted against the average P concentration in the  
313 herbage. Galway peat and Cork peaty mineral soils reached the threshold herbage P  
314 concentration of 3 g kg<sup>-1</sup> at near-maximum yield, around the 50 to 55 kg ha<sup>-1</sup> P fertiliser  
315 application rate, whereas the other soils reached it when the P fertiliser applications were at  
316 100 to 145 kg ha<sup>-1</sup>. Herbage P concentration continued to increase in Galway peat, Cork

317 peaty mineral and, to a lesser extent, Wexford peaty mineral beyond the critical  
318 concentration, although the yield remained the same, thus reflecting a luxurious consumption  
319 of P in these soils. Results showed that the P fertiliser requirements to reach a critical P level  
320 of 3 g kg<sup>-1</sup> were higher than those required to reach 95 % of the maximum yields from the  
321 Mitscherlich model. This is also in agreement with previous findings (*Morton et al., 1999;*  
322 *Schulte and Herlihy, 2007*). As a result, the fertiliser P required to obtain a critical herbage P  
323 concentration around 3 g kg<sup>-1</sup> would satisfy the P fertiliser requirements to obtain near-to-  
324 maximum yields, maximizing grass production. However, these high fertiliser rates can pose  
325 an elevated risk of P losses for organic soils due to their poor P retention capacities as it has  
326 been shown above, and hence P fertilizer recommendations derived from plant analysis may  
327 not seem suitable for these soils.

328

#### 329 *P uptake, P balance and P Use Efficiency (PUE)*

330 The P uptake, P balance and PUE at each P fertiliser rate and site are shown in Figure 3.  
331 Phosphorus uptake increased in all sites as the P fertiliser rates increased. Galway peat had  
332 the highest P uptakes at the maximum P fertiliser rates. This increase in P uptake with  
333 increased P application rates is in line with the fact that uptake is a function of the DM yield  
334 and the herbage P content, which in turn increased with P fertilisations.

335 The P balance was negative at zero P fertiliser rate for all soils and at 10 kg P ha<sup>-1</sup> for Galway  
336 peat, Cork mineral, Cork peaty mineral and Wexford mineral, which indicated a depletion of  
337 any stable P reserves in the soil. The P balance became positive for the rest of treatments in  
338 all soils, indicating an accumulation of P in the soils. The positive P balance obtained in all  
339 soils and almost all P treatments reflected that inputs (P fertiliser) exceeded offtakes (P

340 uptake by the grass), so the surplus of P applied to the soil was either retained in the soil or  
341 lost via leaching throughout the duration of the experiment, or a combination of both.

342 The greatest PUE were at low P rates, decreasing in all soils as P rates increased. Galway  
343 peat soil had the highest P efficiency, with an average PUE of 54 % across P treatments. Cork  
344 mineral and Cork peaty mineral had moderate-to-high PUE at low P rates, but decreased  
345 markedly as P application rates raised, attaining an average efficiency of 33 % and 35 %,  
346 respectively. Wexford mineral, Wexford peaty mineral and Galway peaty mineral had a low  
347 P efficiency over all P application rates, with averages efficiencies of 20 %, 28 % and 25 %,  
348 respectively. With the exception of Galway peat, the mean PUE of the other soils were  
349 similar to those reported in other studies with ryegrass for low soil P status (*Herlihy et al.*,  
350 2004) and agrees with the tendency for there to be a low PUE in the same year of P  
351 application (*Johnston et al.*, 2014). The overall P efficiency of Galway peat, with a high OM  
352 content (76 %) was considerably higher than the other soils, indicating that interactions  
353 between P fertiliser and the soil mineralogy were minimal and hence applied P was readily  
354 available in the soil solution for plant uptake throughout the duration of the experiment.

355

## 356 **Conclusions**

357 In this study, grass response to P fertiliser varied between organic and mineral soils with P  
358 deficiencies. When grass yield was modelled using the Mitscherlich equation, mineral soils  
359 had a weak response to P applications due to the need to first build up their soil P reserves,  
360 whereas more organic soils showed a large response to P applications, which indicated no  
361 requirement to build up P reserves. This illustrates the potential risk of P losses to waters if P  
362 fertilisers are applied to organic soils even when they are deficient in P. Additionally, the  
363 high fertiliser P requirements derived from plant analysis to meet the critical herbage P



364 concentration may not be suitable for organic soils if environmental aspects have to be  
365 considered. Losses from these soils can be minimized if P is applied during the growing  
366 season only, and under a “little and often” approach rather than one single application, as P  
367 will be taken up by the plants shortly after its application. However, these implications might  
368 not be feasible in reality, as fields with organic soils may be located far from the farmyard  
369 and therefore may be fertilised in one single application to reduce costs and time. In this  
370 scenario, bringing new organic soils into agricultural production may be less desirable than  
371 intensification of existing agricultural land if they are within high status or sensitive  
372 catchments.

373

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382

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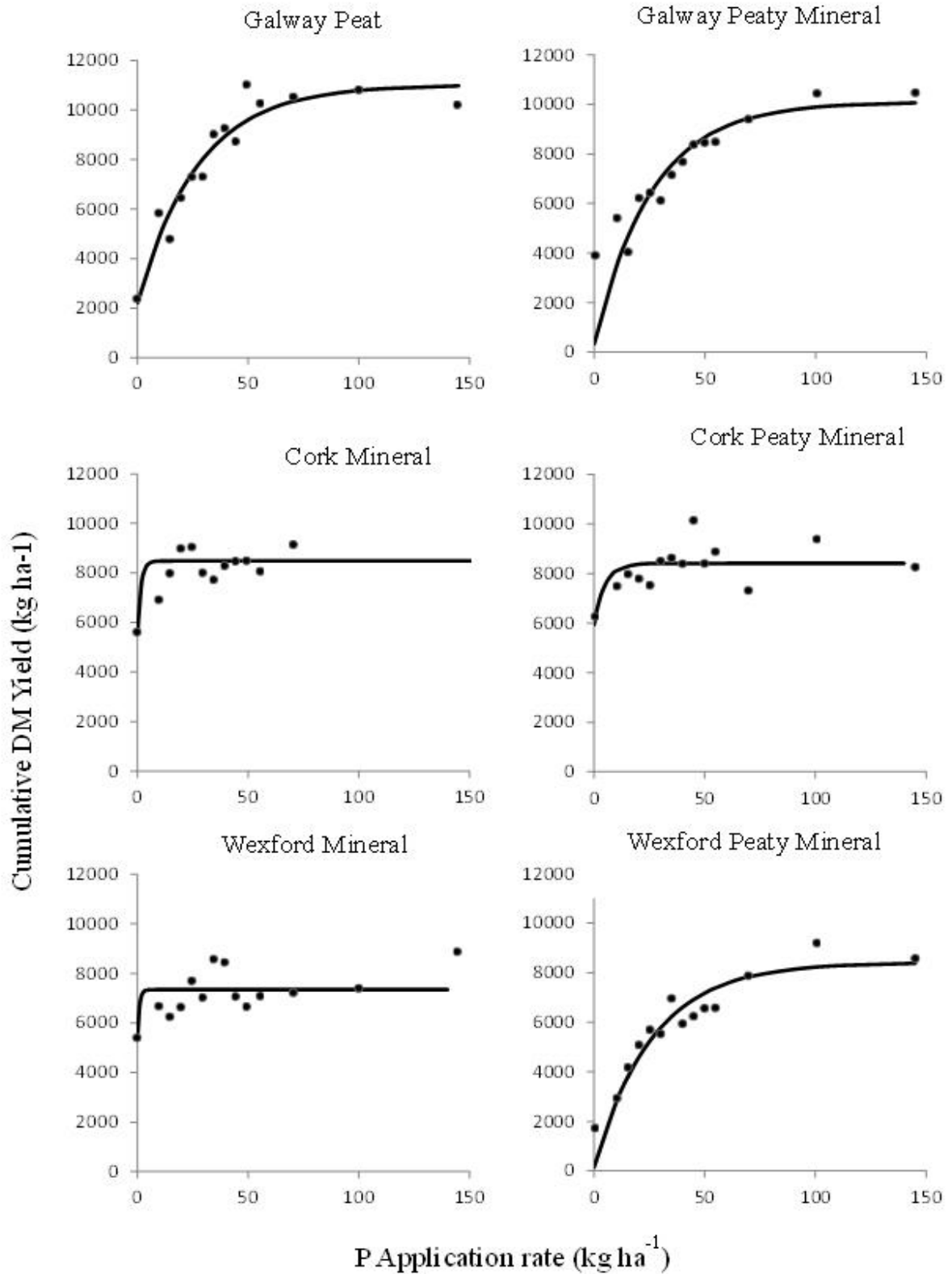
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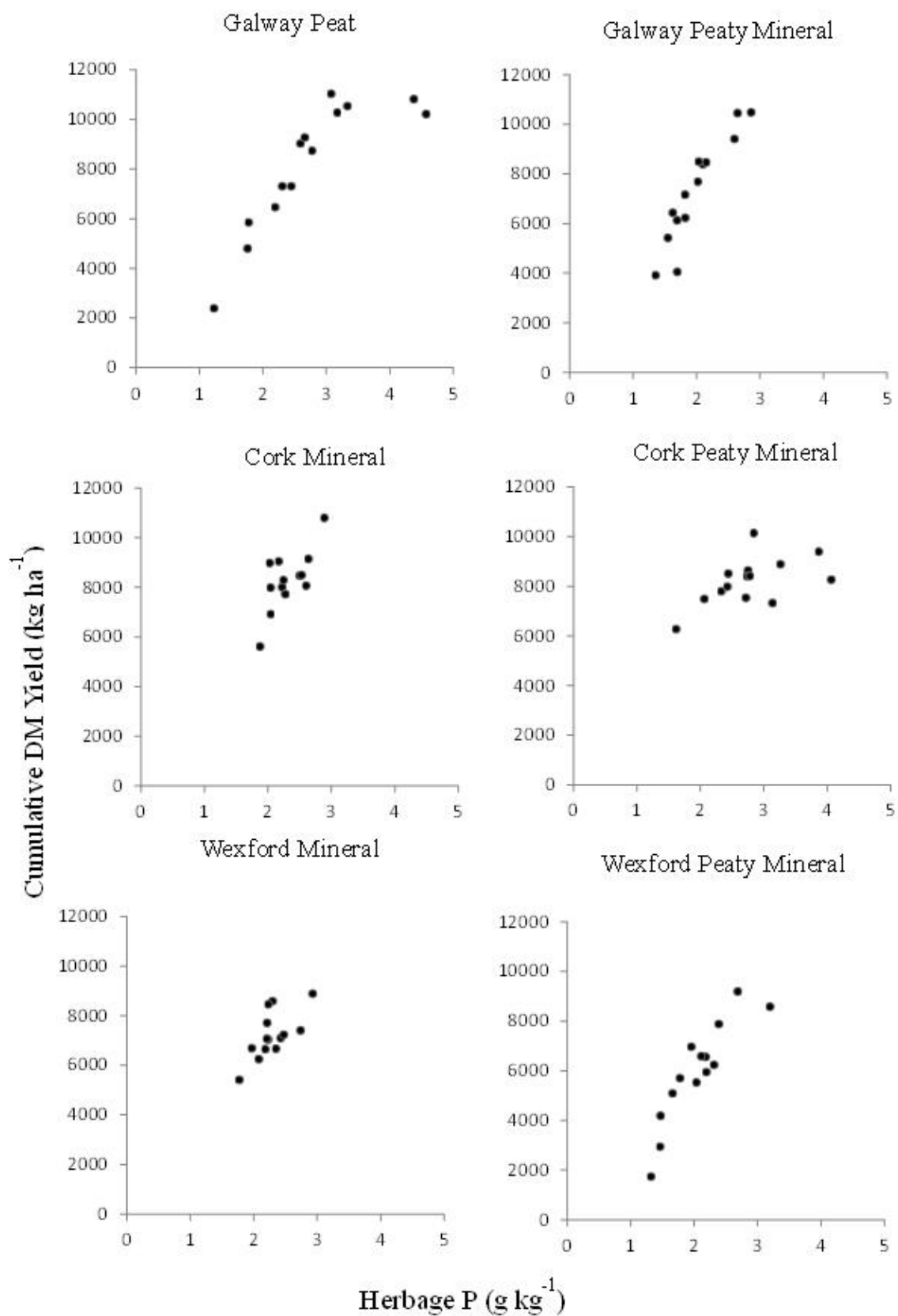


505

506 **Figure 1.** Cumulative DM yield response to increasing P fertiliser rates for each soil. Dots

507 represent average observed values and lines the fit regression curves from the

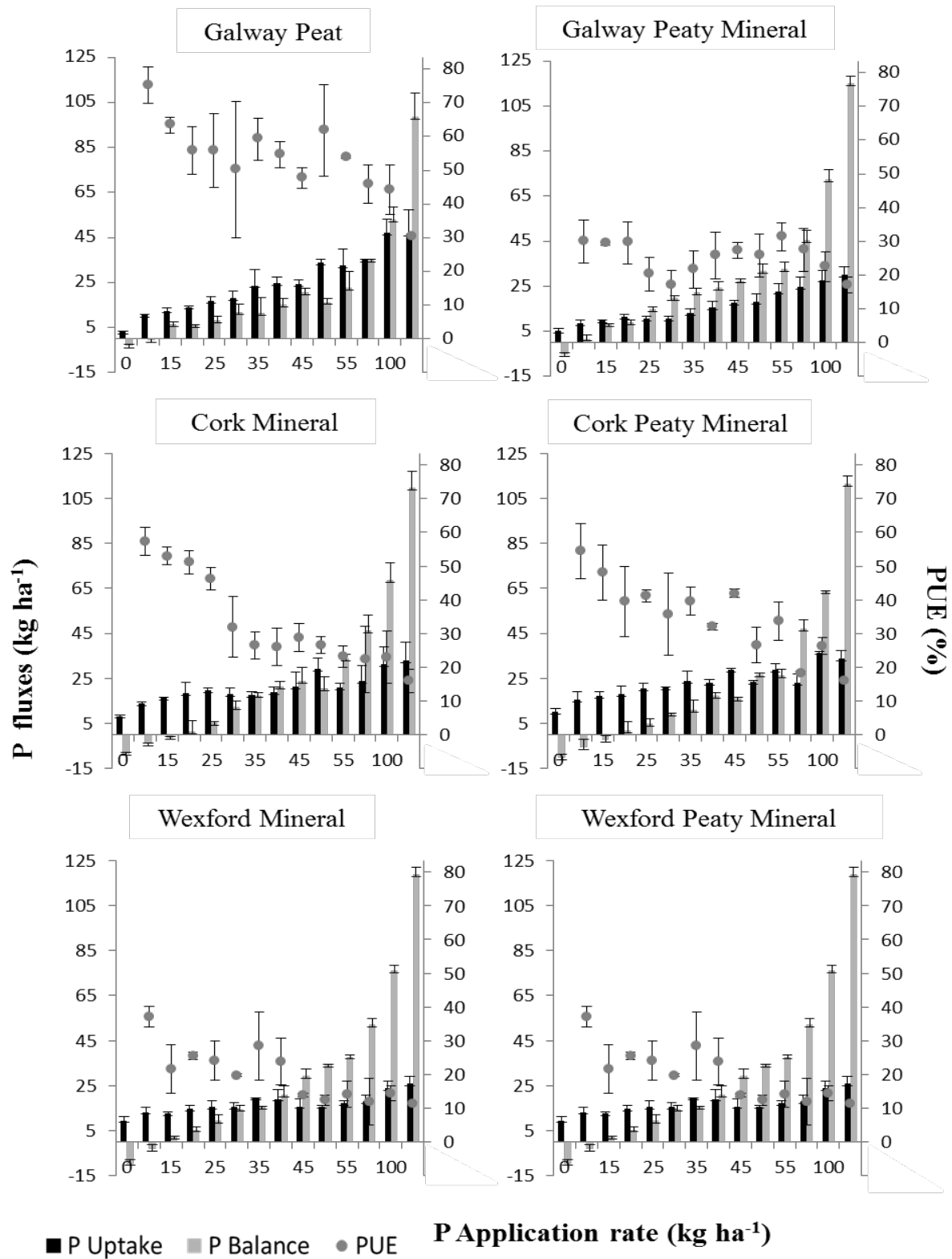
508 Mitscherlich equation.



509

510 **Figure 2.** Cumulative grass DM yield versus herbage P content for each soil.





511

512 **Figure 3.** Phosphorus (P) uptake and P balance (kg ha<sup>-1</sup>) and P use efficiency (PUE) (%) for

513 each P fertiliser rate and soil site. Error bars represent standard deviations.

514 **Table 1.** Soils classification and main parameters of the soils used in the study.

515

Site	Soil Classification <sup>1</sup>	pH	OM <sup>2</sup>	Particle Size			Texture <sup>3</sup>	Fresh bulk density	Dry bulk density	Total C	Total N	Morgan's P	Total P	Mehlich-3			
				Sand	Silt	Clay								Al	Ca	Fe	Mg
			%	% %			(g cm <sup>-3</sup> )		%		(mg l <sup>-1</sup> )		(mg kg <sup>-1</sup> )				
<b>Galway Peat</b>	Drained Ombrotrophic Peat	5.3	76.4	73.7	8.6	17.7	Sandy Loam	0.9	0.2	40.3	1.6	6.2	96.3	2.63	7812.6	222.1	422.3
<b>Galway Peaty Mineral</b>	Humic Surface-water Gley	6.6	35.8	56.0	28.7	15.2	Sandy Loam	1.3	0.6	17.0	1.4	0.9	609.6	61.5	8216.0	238.5	109.8
<b>Cork Mineral</b>	Typical Surface-Water Gley	5.1	9.1	29.3	38.0	32.7	Clay Loam	1.2	0.6	4.2	0.3	1.7	145.2	884.9	656.1	262.4	137.6
<b>Cork Peaty Mineral</b>	Humic Surface-water Gley	4.5	66.8	61.0	17.6	21.4	Sandy Clay Loam	0.9	0.2	34.7	2.2	5.9	182.7	605.0	2114.0	507.4	193.6
<b>Wexford Mineral</b>	Typical Brown Earth	6.0	8.7	40.1	40.0	19.9	Loam	1.5	1.2	3.1	0.3	1.2	1065.2	947.0	1103.1	117.0	199.8
<b>Wexford Peaty Mineral</b>	Typical Brown Podzolic	6.2	14.1	66.6	21.6	11.8	Sandy Loam	1.0	0.7	7.0	0.4	0.5	290.0	991.4	2405.6	256.4	517.0

516 <sup>1</sup> World Reference Base 2014 <sup>2</sup> Organic Matter <sup>3</sup> U.S Soil Taxonomy

517 **Table 2.** Parameters of the fit Mitscherlich equation for each soil site. Parameter  $A$  is in kg DM ha<sup>-1</sup>. Standard errors in brackets.

Site	Max yield attainable under unlimited P-supply, $A$  kg ha <sup>-1</sup>	Optimum P rate	Proportionality constant, $c$	$R^2$
Galway Peat	11020 (476)	82	0.04 (4.3 x 10 <sup>-3</sup> )	0.93
Galway Peaty Mineral	10100 (831)	78	0.04 (8.5 x 10 <sup>-3</sup> )	0.67
Cork Mineral	8482 (277)	5	0.64 (2.0 x 10 <sup>-1</sup> )	0.43
Cork Peaty Mineral	8415 (223)	14	0.21 (5.3 x 10 <sup>-2</sup> )	0.39
Wexford Mineral	7348 (227)	3	1.10 (3.6 x 10 <sup>-1</sup> )	0.31
Wexford Peaty Mineral	8415 (499)	79	0.04 (6.0 x 10 <sup>-3</sup> )	0.88

518