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1 The fate of fertiliser P in soil under pasture and uptake by subterraneum clover – a field study 2 using ³³P-labelled single superphosphate 3 Timothy I. McLaren*,1,2, Michael J. McLaughlin^{1,3}, Therese M. McBeath^{1,4}, Richard J. Simpson⁵, 4 5 Ronald J. Smernik¹, Christopher N. Guppy² and Alan E. Richardson⁵ 6 7 ¹Soils Group, School of Agriculture, Food and Wine and Waite Research Institute, The University of 8 Adelaide, Urrbrae 5064 SA, Australia 9 ²School of Environmental and Rural Science, University of New England, Armidale 2350 NSW, 10 Australia 11 ³CSIRO Land and Water, Glen Osmond 5064 SA, Australia 12 ⁴CSIRO Agriculture Flagship, Glen Osmond 5064 SA, Australia 13 ⁵CSIRO Agriculture Flagship, GPO Box 1600, Canberra 2601 ACT, Australia 14 *Corresponding author (email: <u>tim.mclaren@adelaide.edu.au</u> – phone: +61 8313 0394) 15 16 **Keywords:** fertilizer, improved grasslands, NSP, phosphorus cycling, *Trifolium subterraneum* 17 18 **Abstract** 19 Background and aims Single superphosphate (SSP) is a major source of phosphorus (P) used in grazing 20 systems to improve pasture production. The aim of this experiment was to determine the fate of 21 fertiliser P in clover pastures under field conditions. 22 Methods A procedure was developed to radiolabel SSP granules with a ³³P radiotracer, which was then 23 applied to the soil surface (equivalent to ~ 12 kg P ha⁻¹) of a clover pasture. Recovery of fertiliser P 24 was determined in clover shoots, fertiliser granules and soil fractions (surface layer: 0 - 4 cm and sub-25 surface layer: 4 - 8 cm). 26 Results The P diffusion patterns of the ³³P-labelled SSP granules were not significantly different to 27 those of commercial SSP granules (P > 0.05). Recovery of fertiliser P in clover shoots was 34 – 40 %. 28 A considerable proportion of the fertiliser P (~ 30 %) was recovered in the surface soil layer and was 29 largely inorganic P.

Conclusions Recovery of fertiliser P by clover plants was up to 40 % in the year of application. Much of the fertiliser P in soil fractions was inorganic P, which suggests that the accumulation of organic P in soils under clover pasture is not occurring on the single season timeframe at these sites.

Abbreviations: ANOVA – analysis of variance, ASPAC – Australasian Soil and Plant Analysis

Council, EC – electrical conductivity, EDTA – ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid, ICP-OES – inductively coupled plasma optical emission spectroscopy, LSC – liquid scintillation counter, NIST – National

Institute of Standards and Technology, P – phosphorus, PBI – phosphorus buffering index, PUE – phosphorus use efficiency, PVC – polyvinyl chloride cylinders, SSP – single superphosphate, TOC – total organic carbon, TON – total organic nitrogen, WSP – water soluble phosphorus.

Introduction

Managed grazing systems occupy approximately 25 % of the world's land surface, but pasture growth is often limited by phosphorus (P) (Asner et al. 2004). Single superphosphate (SSP) is one of the main sources of P used across the world to overcome soil P deficiency and improve pasture (and crop) production (Leikam and Achorn 2005). In Australia, considerable improvements in pasture production have occurred since the introduction of subterranean clover and widespread use of SSP, which is typically applied to the soil surface of a pasture at 9 – 12 kg P ha⁻¹ year⁻¹ (Donald and Williams 1954; Russell 1960; Weaver and Wong 2011). This 'sub and super' philosophy continues to be an important strategy for grazing systems in the high rainfall zone of south-eastern Australia, which accounts for approximately 50 % of Australia's cattle and sheep production (Cayley et al. 1999; Mason and Kay 2000). However, the P balance efficiency of these grazing systems (i.e. the proportion of fertiliser P that is removed in produce) is low and greater utilisation efficiency of fertiliser P is needed for both economic and environmental reasons (McLaughlin et al. 2011; Simpson et al. 2011; Weaver and Wong 2011).

Historically, low P use efficiency (PUE) in fertilised pastures has been associated with the accumulation of fertiliser P in the upper layers of soil profiles (McLaughlin et al. 2011; Simpson et al. 2011). This is largely based on soil P audits of long-term field sites that show much of the fertiliser P can be accounted for as an increase in soil P between unfertilised and fertilised treatments (Haynes and

Williams 1992; Kohn et al. 1977; McCaskill and Cayley 2000; McLaren et al. 2014; Simpson et al. 1974; Watson 1969; Williams and Haynes 1992). McLaren et al. (2014) reported that approximately 90 % of the applied fertiliser P (across plots receiving between 15 and 24 kg P ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ as triple superphosphate) was recovered in the top 0-20 cm layer after 13 years of P fertilisation at a field site under pasture located at the Ginninderra Experiment Station, near Hall, Australian Capital Territory, Australia. Similarly, Watson (1969) reported that between 68 and 100 % of the applied fertiliser P (across plots receiving between 4 and 35 kg P ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ as single superphosphate) could be accounted for in the top 0-10 cm layer after 10 years of P fertilisation at a field site under pasture located at the Glen Lossie field station, near Kojonup, Western Australia, Australia. A limitation of these studies is that they were not able to identify the pathways associated with the accumulation of fertiliser P in soils under pasture. It is assumed that a low PUE corresponds directly with a low level of P availability due to 'fixation' of fertiliser P by the soil after application. However, it is also possible that much of the fertiliser P can be recovered by the plant but is subsequently returned to the soil surface via indirect processes (e.g. plant decay or trampling, animal faeces and urine). Direct labelling of fertiliser sources with P radiotracers (i.e. ³³P or ³²P) can be a powerful technique for determining the fate of fertiliser P in agro-ecosystems (Frossard et al. 2011). Indeed,

technique for determining the fate of fertiliser P in agro-ecosystems (Frossard et al. 2011). Indeed, many studies have successfully used P radiotracers to determine the recovery of fertiliser P by arable crops (and in soil fractions) under field conditions (Dion et al. 1949; Mattingly and Widdowson 1958a; b; McBeath et al. 2012; McLaughlin et al. 1988a; Mitchell et al. 1952; Nelson et al. 1948; Sharpley 1986; Spinks and Barber 1947). For example, McLaughlin et al. (1988a; 1988b; 1988c) investigated the fate of 32 P-labelled monocalcium phosphate that was placed in a concentrated band 4 cm below the soil surface and of 33 P-labelled medic residues that were mixed throughout the soil volume in wheat crops grown in a loam soil near Mallala, South Australia, Australia. McLaughlin et al. (1988a) reported that after 95 days of growth approximately 12 % of the added 32 P-labelled monocalcium phosphate and 5 % of the 33 P-labelled medic residues were recovered in wheat shoots. McLaughlin et al. (1988c) also reported that in the 0 – 10 cm layer of the soil profile the majority of 32 P-labelled monocalcium phosphate was recovered as inorganic P whereas much of the 33 P-labelled medic residues was recovered as organic P, as determined using the ignition- 12 SO₄ extraction technique of Walker and Adams (1958). Interestingly, between 22 and 28 % of the added 33 P-labelled medic residues, but less than 5 % of the added 32 P-labelled monocalcium phosphate, could be recovered in the microbial

biomass of the 0-10 cm layer of the soil profile (McLaughlin et al. 1988b), as determined using the hexanol method of McLaughlin et al. (1986). These studies provide detailed information on the recovery of fertiliser P and leguminous pasture residue by arable crops under field conditions. However, no previous published studies have used radiotracers to determine the recovery of fertiliser P by clover plants under field conditions.

One of the challenges of the direct labelling technique is to ensure that the fertiliser source is homogenously labelled with the radiotracer (Frossard et al. 2011). One way to overcome this is to incorporate a radiotracer into the fertiliser source during the manufacturing process (Fardeau et al. 1995). For example, Bolan et al. (1987) made ³²P-labelled SSP by reacting rock phosphate with sulfuric acid that contained a carrier-free H₃³²PO₄ radiotracer. This produced a mixture of ³²P-labelled mono-calcium phosphate and gypsum (i.e. single superphosphate), which was then denned and made into granules using a granulating drum. However, some of the issues with this procedure are: 1) it is complex and time consuming (Hedley et al. 1988; Nunn and Dee 1954); 2) incomplete acidulation of the rock phosphate can occur (Bolan et al. 1987; Nunn and Dee 1954); 3) as a by-product of the acidulation process a cocktail of fluorosilicic and hydrofluoric acid vapour is emitted (Leikam and Achorn 2005); 4) the source of phosphate rock can affect the chemical composition and solubility of the SSP (Braithwaite et al. 1992; Hedley et al. 1988); and 5) there can be a large variation in granule size and weight within each batch of fertiliser made (Braithwaite et al. 1992; Fogel 1960). The relatively large amount of rock phosphate required for this procedure, and the low recovery of granules with a consistent size and weight needed for experimentation purposes, can cause a considerable dilution of radioactivity in the 'ideal' granules. It is likely that many of these issues have hindered research on understanding the recovery of P from SSP in pastures under field conditions.

The first aim of this study was to develop a rapid and simple procedure to label SSP with a ³³P radiotracer and to granulate using a 'press and cut' technique. The second aim was to compare the P diffusion patterns of the labelled SSP granules with those of commercial SSP. The third aim of this study was to determine the recovery of fertiliser P (i.e. ³³P-labelled SSP) in clover shoots and soil fractions under field conditions in order to understand the processes associated with PUE in pastures.

Materials and methods

³³P-labelled SSP granules

A rapid and simple procedure was used to label SSP with a 33 P radiotracer (half life 25.4 days), and then 'granulate' (into cubes) using a cut and press technique. In summary, commercial SSP granules were sourced and dried in a laboratory oven at 40 ° C overnight. The commercial SSP granules were then ground to pass through a 150 μ m sieve using a Siebtech® puck mill. Six × 7.0 g (\pm 0.1 g) amounts of the SSP powder were then placed into separate 65 mm × 75 mm cylindrical plastic containers prior to incubation with the 33 P radiotracer. A 2.0 mL aliquot of solution containing 60 MBq of 33 P was added to each of these, resulting in a final moisture content of 22.2 %. The SSP slurry in each container was stirred with a fine needle and then allowed to equilibrate overnight at 40 ° C in a laboratory oven. Through this treatment, the moisture content of the 33 P-labelled slurry was reduced to 19.8 %, which was ideal for pressing and cutting based on results of a pilot study. Each batch was worked into a 'bolus' and placed into a 40 mm diameter ring, positioned between two plastic sheets and pressed into a disc at a pressure of 1/3 ton (US) per 3.14 square inches (37.9 kPa) using a manual hydraulic press (custom built by Templeton, Kenly & Co: Actuant Corporation, Menomonee Falls, WI). The discs were then cut into 3 mm cubes using a knife and dried in a laboratory oven at 40 ° C overnight.

Visualisation of P diffusion pattern of SSP granules

The P diffusion pattern of the SSP granules made using the press and cut technique and that of the commercial SSP granules was determined using the quantitative visualisation method of Degryse and McLaughlin (2014). The Monarto soil as reported in Degryse and McLaughlin (2014) was used for the test. In summary, eight Petri dishes (55 mm diameter × 10 mm deep) were filled with soil and wetted to field capacity, then sealed with Parafilm and allowed to incubate overnight at 25 °C. A hole was made in the soil at the centre of each Petri dish and a single granule was inserted. Each SSP granule weighed 55 – 60 mg and four replicates were used per SSP treatment. The granule was then covered over with soil and the Petri dish re-sealed with Parafilm. Iron-oxide filter papers were prepared as set out by Degryse and McLaughlin (2014). After 7 days incubation, iron-oxide filter papers were deployed for ~ 10 mins on the soil surface of each Petri dish. The filter papers were then removed, stained with

malachite green solution, and the stained filter papers were scanned and analysed for the stained area (i.e. area of P diffusion) using imaging software (GNU Image Manipulation Program, v. 2.8.10, Free Software Foundation, Boston, MA). This involved the conversion of the scanned image to a binary image (black-white) using a threshold value of 120 on a scale from 0-255, and the stained area quantified (Degryse and McLaughlin 2014).

Field experimentation

Site background and characterisation

Two field sites were selected in the temperate region of south-eastern Australia that were under permanent pasture. A site of high soil P fertility (i.e. predicted to not be fertiliser P responsive) located at the Kybybolite Research Centre, near Naracoorte, South Australia (36°52' S, 140°55' E), and a site of low soil P fertility (i.e. predicted to be fertiliser P responsive) located at the Ginninderra Experiment Station, near Hall, the Australian Capital Territory (35°11'S, 149°3'E). Physico-chemical properties of soils at the field sites used in this study are shown in Table 1.

[Suggested location of Table 1]

Chemical properties were determined on soil collected at pasture establishment and prior to fertiliser application. Six soil samples were collected from four depth intervals (0-2.5 cm, 2.5-5 cm, 5-10 cm) and 10-20 cm) and bulked within each depth and for each field site location. The soil was then dried in a laboratory oven at 40 °C for one week and passed through a 2 mm sieve. Soil pH and electrical conductivity (EC) were measured using a 1:5 soil to solution ratio in deionised water after shaking for 1 hour. A measure of oxalate-extractable aluminium and iron was carried out as described by McKeague and Day (1966). Total organic carbon (TOC) and nitrogen (TON) were determined on a LECO TruSpec CN analyser (LECO Corporation, St Joseph, MI). An estimate of total organic P (and inorganic P) was carried out using the ignition- H_2SO_4 method of Walker and Adams (1958). Available soil P was determined by the bicarbonate extraction method of Colwell (1963), which is based on the method of Olsen et al. (1954). In summary, 0.5 g (\pm 0.02) of soil was extracted with 0.5 M NaHCO₃

solution adjusted to pH 8.5 at a 1:100 soil to solution ratio and shaken for 16 hours. The Colwell extracts were then centrifuged at $1610 \times g$ for 20 minutes, filtered through a Whatman no. 42 filter paper, and concentrations of inorganic P in the filtrate were determined using the molybdenum blue method of Murphy and Riley (1962). All values were blank corrected before standard volume and weight conversions. A measure of P buffering capacity was determined using the single-point method of Burkitt et al. (2008), referred to as the P buffering index (PBI).

Total soil P was determined using laboratory X-ray fluorescence carried out at Geoscience Australia laboratories, Canberra, Australia. A Philips PW2404 4 kW sequential wavelength dispersive spectrometer fitted with a rhodium X-ray tube was used to analyse fused beads made from 1.0 g soil/6.0 g 12:22 flux (35 % lithium tetraborate/65 % lithium metaborate). Analytical recoveries were calculated using reported values of the Canadian Certified Reference Materials Project (CCRMP) soil standards (Till-1 and Till-4). On average, an analytical recovery of 99 % was obtained using laboratory X-ray fluorescence.

Experimental Design

In May 2013, a 5 m \times 5 m fence was erected at each field site to prevent outside interference by grazing animals (e.g. sheep, kangaroos and rabbits) and the pasture within the enclosure was sprayed with knockdown herbicide to remove all vegetation. In June 2013, a subterranean clover sward was established across the enclosure by broadcasting seed to ensure that there was at least 1 seed cm⁻² and then lightly scratching seed into the soil surface. After clover establishment, 18 'open-ended' cylinders (polyvinyl chloride cylinders – PVC – cores) of 15 cm diameter and 18 cm in height were inserted 15 cm into the soil at each site, so that each core protruded 3 cm above the soil surface, as described by McLaughlin et al. (1988a). Basal nutrients were then applied across the field sites in July 2013 to include: 1) Ca as CaSO₄ to supply 6.4 kg Ca ha⁻¹; 2) K as K₂SO₄ to supply 44.9 kg K ha⁻¹; 3) Mg as MgSO₄ to supply 12.1 kg Mg ha⁻¹; 4) Mo as MoO₃ to supply 0.1 kg Mo ha⁻¹; 5) B as H₃BO₃ to supply 0.3 kg B ha⁻¹; 6) Cu as CuSO₄ to supply 0.7 kg Cu ha⁻¹; 7) Zn as ZnSO₄ to supply 1.4 kg Zn ha⁻¹, and; 8) S as all previously mentioned sulphate salts to supply 40.5 kg S ha⁻¹.

Each treatment was replicated six times in a randomised block design. Treatments included a control (no added P fertiliser), the addition of commercial SSP granules (8 % P) to supply ~12 kg P ha

¹, and the addition of ³³P-labelled SSP granules to supply ~12 kg P ha⁻¹. In August 2013, the clover pasture sward was harvested to no less than 3 cm above the soil surface and discarded prior to fertiliser placement. At the Ginninderra site, four granules were used to supply 250 mg (± 5 mg) of SSP core⁻¹ (average 62.5 mg of SSP granule⁻¹) to the soil surface of each core for the commercial SSP and ³³P-labelled SSP treatments. At the Naracoorte site, four granules were used to supply 285 mg (± 5 mg) of SSP core⁻¹ (average 71.3 mg of SSP granule⁻¹) to the soil surface of each core for the commercial SSP and ³³P-labelled SSP treatments. The P rate of the commercial SSP treatment that was applied to the Ginninderra and Naracoorte field sites was 11.4 and 12.9 kg P ha⁻¹, respectively. The P rate and radioactivity of the ³³P-labelled SSP treatment that was applied to the Ginninderra and Naracoorte field sites was 11.4 and 13.0 kg P ha⁻¹ and 4.2 and 4.8 MBq core⁻¹, respectively. In addition, the control cores received a second application of nutrients to balance the S from the SSP treatments, which included Ca and S as CaSO₄ to supply 15.6 and 12.5 kg (Ca + S) ha⁻¹ respectively. Each site was irrigated to ensure the cumulative rainfall throughout the growing season was close to that of the long-term average (Table 2). Small amounts of irrigation reported in Table 2 are mostly associated with watering in applications of basal nutrients to ensure they were accessible to clover roots.

[Suggested location of Table 2]

Field agronomy and harvest

Four clover shoot cuts were collected at the Naracoorte field site and two clover shoot cuts were collected at the Ginninderra site. The clover shoots were cut to 3 cm above the soil surface, except at the last harvest where the clover shoots were removed to the soil surface. At the final harvest, the residue of all fertiliser granules was collected from the soil surface, and the cores were removed and sectioned into three layers; the surface layer (0-4 cm) and subsurface layer (4-8 cm), and a 'buffer' soil layer (8-15 cm) which was discarded. At the Ginninderra and Naracoorte sites, 92 % and 100 % of the SSP granule residues was recovered from the soil surface, respectively.

238 Plant digestion and total P analysis

240	Clover shoots were dried in a laboratory oven at 60 °C for seven days. After drying, these samples
241	were weighed and then ground to pass through a 2 mm sieve using a rotor cross beater grinder (Retsch,
242	Haan, Germany) prior to chemical and isotopic analysis. Clover shoots were digested as set out by
243	Zarcinas et al. (1987) and subsequently analysed for P by inductively coupled plasma optical emission
244	spectroscopy (ICP-OES). Analytical recoveries of P by this method for the National Institute of
245	Standards and Technology (NIST) 1573a plant standard, and the Australasian Soil and Plant Analysis
246	Council (ASPAC) ASPAC-84 plant standard were 89 % and 95 % (average of nine replicates),
247	respectively.
248	
249	Granule digestion and total Ca, P and S analysis
250	
251	Concentrations of total P were determined on the commercial SSP granules and ³³ P-labelled SSP
252	granules prior to field application, and on the granule residues collected from the soil surface after the
253	last harvest. The granules that were collected from the field were dried in a laboratory oven at 60 °C for
254	seven days prior to chemical analysis. All granules were digested as set out by Zarcinas et al. (1996)
255	and subsequently analysed for Ca, P and S by ICP-OES. Analytical recoveries of Ca, P and S by this
256	method for the Sigma-Aldrich BCR-032 rock phosphate standard were 97 %, 92 % and 86 % (average
257	of six replicates), respectively.
258	
259	Soil extraction and P analysis
260	
261	All soil fractions were extracted with sodium hydroxide-ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid (NaOH-
262	EDTA) at a 1:10 soil to solution ratio as described by Doolette et al. (2010). Concentrations of
263	inorganic and total P were determined on the filtrates using the molybdenum blue method of Murphy
264	and Riley (1962) and ICP-OES, respectively. Organic P in the extract was calculated as the difference
265	between total P and inorganic P.
266	The ignition-H ₂ SO ₄ extraction technique of Saunders and Williams (1955) as modified by
267	Walker and Adams (1958) was carried out on all soil fractions. Concentrations of inorganic P in the
268	filtrates were determined using the molybdenum blue method of Murphy and Riley (1962).
269	Concentrations of inorganic P for the ignited and unignited extracts are referred to as ignition-H ₂ SO ₄

extractable total and inorganic P, respectively. The difference between total and inorganic P determined by ignition- H_2SO_4 extraction is referred to as organic P.

Liquid scintillation counting for ³³P analysis

The 33 P activity of all plant and granule digests, and all soil extracts was measured using a Rackbeta II Wallac® liquid scintillation counter (LSC). A measure of 33 P activity in NaOH-EDTA and $_{2}$ SO₄ (ignited and non-ignited) soil extracts was carried out to determine the recovery of fertiliser P as inorganic and total (organic by difference) forms of P in soil fractions. For total P, the 33 P activity was determined on an aliquot of all plant and granule digests, and the filtrates of NaOH-EDTA and the $_{2}$ SO₄ (ignited) soil extracts. For inorganic P fractions, the 33 P activity was determined on the NaOH-EDTA extracts that had been acidified to flocculate organic P, and on the $_{2}$ SO₄ extract of the unignited soil. This involved acidifying 4 mL of the NaOH-EDTA extract with 1 mL of 2.5 M $_{2}$ SO₄; the resulting solution was then centrifuged at $_{2}$ SO₄ for 20 minutes and the supernatant analysed for $_{2}$ SO₄P activity using LSC.

The solution colour of all digests and extracts were examined prior to 33 P analysis so that the colour ranges of unknown samples were within that of the quench curve established for LSC analysis. Consequently, the NaOH-EDTA extracts from the total P fraction samples were diluted using a 1:10 ratio of extract to water. The scintillant cocktail was made using 2 mL of sample and 10 mL of scintillant (Perkin Elmer UltimaGold AB). All samples were analysed by LSC for 2 minutes in duplicate, and the 33 P counts were corrected for sample volume, blanks, radioactive decay and dilution. All 33 P counts were corrected to the same reference date (T₀), which allows for direct comparison of 33 P radioactivity across all samples.

The specific activity of the granules (MBq mg⁻¹ water-soluble P – WSP) was calculated using Equation 1 and corrected for WSP as the ³³P radiotracer would have only labelled the WSP fraction of the total P in SSP, which was 99 % of total P. Briefly, 0.5 g of SSP was extracted with 50 mL of deionised water and shaken for 16 hours (three replicates). The specific activity of the ³³P-labelled SSP granules was 0.21 MBq mg⁻¹ WSP. The proportion of plant P derived from fertiliser P was calculated using Equations 1 and 2, and the recovery of fertiliser P in various components of the pasture system

 $299 \qquad \text{was calculated using Equation 3. In Equations 2 and 3, no correction was made for water-insoluble P in} \\$

the SSP as this represented less than 1 % of the total P in the product.

301

302 Specific activity (SA) of samples (plant digests, initial and residue granule digests, and soil extracts)

was calculated by:

304

305 (1) Specific activity (MBq mg
$$P^{-1}$$
) = $\frac{\text{Total sample activity (MBq core}^{-1})}{\text{Total sample P (mg P core}^{-1})} \times 100$

306

The proportion of plant P derived from the fertiliser was calculated by:

308

309 (2) Plant P derived from fertiliser (%) =
$$\frac{\text{SA of plant (MBq mg P}^{-1})}{\text{SA of fertiliser (MBq mg WSP}^{-1})} \times 100$$

310

The recovery of fertiliser P in samples (clover shoots, granule residues, soil extracts) was calculated

312 by:

313

314 (3) Fertiliser recovery (%) =
$$\frac{\text{(Fertiliser P in sample (MBq core}^{-1})}{\text{(Total fertiliser P added (MBq core}^{-1})} \times 100$$

315

316 Statistical analyses

317

All statistical analyses were carried out using R 3.0.2 (R Core Team 2013). A one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA), orthogonal contrasts and the Tukey *post hoc* test of honest significance difference

were used to compare treatment means at the 5 % (P = 0.05) level of significance. The blocking factor

was not significant and was dropped from the ANOVA model. All regression models were checked for

322 normality of residuals and constant variance using diagnostic plots, the Shapiro-Wilk test, and

Levene's test (Levene 1960; Shapiro and Wilk 1965). Outliers were identified using Cook's distance

plot (Cook and Weisberg 1982).

325

326

323

Results

328	Validation of isotopically labelled SSP granules
329	
330	The visual appearance of the P diffusion patterns as determined using the method of Degryse and
331	McLaughlin (2014) was similar between the SSP granules made using the press and cut technique and
332	those of the commercial SSP granules (Figure 1). The binary images of these P diffusion patterns are
333	shown in Figure 2. The total area of P diffusion for the SSP granules made using the press and cut
334	technique were not significantly different ($P < 0.05$) to those of the commercial SSP granules after one
335	week incubation; average values were 10.4 cm ² and 10.8 cm ² , respectively.
336	
337	[Suggested location of Figure 1]
338	
339	The coefficient of variation (CV %) for the specific activity (MBq mg WSP ⁻¹) of 10 granules
340	was very low (2.5 %). In addition, the elemental composition (i.e. Ca, P and S) of the commercial SSP
341	granules collected from the soil surface at the end of the field experiment was not significantly
342	different ($P < 0.05$) to those of the ³³ P-labelled SSP granules (Table 3).
343	
344	[Suggested location of Table 3]
345	
346	Field Experimentation
347	
348	Site characteristics
349	
350	Soil pH ranged from acidic to slightly acidic for all surface and subsurface layers at the Naracoorte and
351	Ginninderra field sites (Table 1). Concentrations of total organic C, organic N and organic P were
352	higher at the Ginninderra site than at the Naracoorte site (Table 1). The concentration of Colwell-
353	extractable P was 12 mg P kg ⁻¹ when averaged across the 0 – 10 cm layer at the Ginninderra site; this
354	soil would be considered potentially responsive to fertiliser P (Colwell 1963; Reuter et al. 1995).
355	Conversely, the concentration of Colwell-extractable P was 57 mg P kg ⁻¹ (again averaged across the 0
356	– 10 cm layer) at the Naracoorte site; this soil would be predicted to be non-responsive to fertiliser P
357	(Colwell 1963; Reuter et al. 1995). The soil P sorption capacity at the Ginninderra site, as indicated by

338	PBI, oxalate-extractable aluminium and oxalate-extractable iron, was approximately double that of the
359	Naracoorte site (Table 1).
360	The in-season rainfall at the Ginninderra site was higher than at the Naracoorte field site
361	(Table 2). The annual rainfalls at the Ginninderra (622 mm) and Naracoorte (479 mm) field sites for
362	2013 were 90 and 98 % of the long-term averages, respectively (Table 2). The cumulative rainfall and
363	irrigation at the Ginninderra (708 mm) and Naracoorte (490 mm) field sites for 2013 were 103 and 100
364	% of the long-term averages, respectively.
365	
366	Dry matter, P uptake and proportion of plant P derived from fertiliser
367	
368	The cumulative biomass removal for the fertilised treatments was not significantly different ($P < 0.05$)
369	to that for the unfertilised control at both sites (Table 4). Concentrations of P in plant tissue of fertilised
370	treatments at the Ginninderra and Naracoorte field sites were generally higher than in non-fertilised
371	treatments (Figure 2). The cumulative P uptake for the fertilised treatments was significantly different
372	(P < 0.05) to that for the unfertilised control at the Ginninderra site but not at the Naracoorte site (Table
373	4). The cumulative P removal was approximately three times higher at the Naracoorte site than at the
374	Ginninderra site, despite similar amounts of biomass removal (Table 4).
375	
376	[Suggested location of Figure 2]
377	
378	The proportion of plant P that was derived from the fertiliser can be calculated by dividing the
379	specific activity of the plant by that of the fertiliser (see Equation 2). The proportion of plant P in
380	clover shoots that was derived from the fertiliser at the Ginninderra site (37 %) was approximately
381	double that at the Naracoorte field site (19 %) (Figure 3).
382	
383	[Suggested location of Figure 3]
384	
385	Recovery of fertiliser P applied to clover pastures
386	

The proportion of fertiliser P recovered in clover shoots at the Ginninderra and Naracoorte field sites was 34 % and 40 %, respectively (Table 5 and Figure 4).

[Suggested location of Table 5]

At both sites, 32 % of the applied fertiliser P was recovered by H_2SO_4 extraction of ignited soil from the surface (0-4 cm) layer of the soil profile (Table 5 and Figure 4). Similarly, 24 and 31 % of the applied fertiliser P was recovered by NaOH-EDTA extraction of the surface (0-4 cm) soil layer at the Ginninderra and Naracoorte sites, respectively (Table 5 and Figure 4). Less than 5 % of the applied fertiliser P was recovered from the subsurface layer (4-8 cm) at the Naracoorte site using the ignition- H_2SO_4 extraction procedure (Table 5 and Figure 4). Concentrations of the ^{33}P radionuclide were too low for detection at the Ginninderra site in ignition- H_2SO_4 extracts, and at both sites in NaOH-EDTA extracts of the 4-8 cm layer (Table 5).

The majority of fertiliser P that was recovered from the surface soil layer at both sites using the ignition- H_2SO_4 and NaOH-EDTA extraction techniques was identified as inorganic P, which ranged from 20 to 30 % of the applied fertiliser P (Table 5). As a proportion of total extractable P, between 89 to 95 % of the fertiliser P in soil extracts was identified as inorganic P using the ignition- H_2SO_4 and NaOH-EDTA extraction techniques in all cases, except at the Ginninderra site using the ignition- H_2SO_4 extraction technique, where 60 % of the total extractable P was identified as inorganic P (Table 5).

Less than 5 % of the applied fertiliser P was recovered as organic P in the surface layer as determined using the NaOH-EDTA extraction technique at the Ginninderra site, and also at the Naracoorte site using both the ignition-H₂SO₄ and NaOH-EDTA extraction techniques (Table 5). The exception to this was at the Ginninderra site using the ignition-H₂SO₄ extraction, where 13 % of the fertiliser P was recovered as organic P in the surface layer (Table 5). As a proportion of total extractable P, 5 to 11 % of the fertiliser P in soil extracts was identified as organic P using the ignition-H₂SO₄ and NaOH-EDTA extraction techniques in all cases, except at the Ginninderra site using the ignition-H₂SO₄ extraction technique, where 40 % of the total extractable P was identified as organic P (Table 5).

Approximately 5 % of the applied ³³P was recovered in the fertiliser granule residues that were collected from the soil surface at the Ginninderra and Naracoorte field sites (Table 5 and Figure 4). However, based on concentrations of total P in the granule residue, 13 and 14 % of the applied fertiliser P (detected as ³¹P) was recovered in the granule residues that were collected from the soil surface at the Ginninderra and Naracoorte field sites, respectively.

The proportion of applied fertiliser P that was unaccounted for was determined as the difference in radioactivity (MBq core⁻¹) added as ³³P-labelled SSP and that recovered in clover shoots, fertiliser granule residues and extracted in soil fractions using the ignition-H₂SO₄ extraction. The proportion of applied fertiliser P that was unaccounted for was 27 and 20 % of the applied fertiliser P at the Ginninderra and Naracoorte field sites, respectively (Table 5 and Figure 4).

Discussion

Validation of isotopically labelled SSP granules

The labelling approach and subsequent granulation using the press and cut technique proved to be an accurate method for radiolabelling SSP granules. Close agreement between the P release behaviour of the ³³P-labelled SSP and commercial SSP granules is likely due to the matching chemical composition of the fertiliser material (Braithwaite et al. 1992; Hedley et al. 1988), and because the majority of P within SSP is water soluble (Degryse and McLaughlin 2014; Williams 1971b). Further evidence of this is that both granule types had similar concentrations of elements in the granule residues collected from the soil surface at the last harvest of the field experiment. The P diffusion pattern of both granule types is consistent with previous studies that showed the majority of P movement from SSP granules occurs within the first week of application to the soil, and is generally restricted to a few centimetres from the granule (Lawton and Vomocil 1954; Williams 1971b). Indeed, the press and cut technique has successfully been used before in non-isotopic studies for investigating the agronomic effectiveness of various mixtures of fertiliser material and added impurities (Mullins et al. 1995; Prochnow et al. 2004).

An important consideration of the direct labelling approach is to ensure that the radiotracer is uniformly distributed within the fertiliser source (Frossard et al. 2011). A low coefficient of variation for the specific activity (MBq mg WSP⁻¹) of ³³P-labelled SSP granules indicates that the ³³P radiotracer

was homogenously labelled within the SSP. The homogeneous labelling can be attributed to the incubation step where a fraction of the monocalcium phosphate is dissolved, mixed with ³³P, and then re-formed on drying, thus incorporating the ³³P into the monocalcium phosphate matrix. Consequently, the press and cut technique used to make ³³P-labelled SSP granules was successful in producing granules that have equal P release properties to commercial SSP granules.

The fate of fertiliser P in pasture systems

A SSP rate of $\sim 12~kg~P~ha^{-1}$ is commonly used in south-eastern Australia as a maintenance rate for soil P fertility (Weaver and Wong 2011). A lack of clover response to the application of $\sim 12~kg~P~ha^{-1}$ was unsurprising at the Naracoorte site given that soil P fertility was well in excess required for optimum pasture growth (Reuter et al. 1995). The application of $\sim 12~kg~P~ha^{-1}$ at the Ginninderra site was likely too small to result in a significant increase in cumulative dry matter. Simpson et al. (2010) have previously shown that the application of $\sim 35~kg~P~ha^{-1}$ is required to achieve maximum clover growth with a single fertiliser application to low soil P at this site. However, there was a significant increase in the cumulative P uptake between fertilised and non-fertilised treatments at the Ginninderra site, concentrations of P in plant tissue also appeared higher in fertilised treatments than in non-fertilised treatments at both field sites, which support an increased supply of P to clover plants in fertilised treatments.

A lower initial soil P status at the Ginninderra site compared to that of the Naracoorte site is likely the main reason for a higher proportion of clover P uptake that is derived from fertiliser sources at the former than at the latter field site (McBeath et al. 2012; Morel and Fardeau 1990). It has been shown that the relative importance of fertiliser P to plant P uptake is influenced by native soil P fertility (Dean et al. 1948; Morel and Fardeau 1990). Morel and Fardeau (1990) reported a decrease in the proportion of plant P derived from fertiliser P (32 P-labelled diammonium phosphate) when the quantity of plant-available soil P increased for ryegrass pastures grown under glasshouse conditions.

The recovery of applied fertiliser P in clover shoots was 34 % and 40 % at the Ginninderra and Naracoorte field sites respectively. No published studies have reported the recovery of fertiliser P by clover pastures under field conditions, but several have done so for arable crops. Fertiliser recoveries for P by arable crops under field conditions generally range from 5 % to 35 % (Dion et al.

1949; Mattingly and Widdowson 1958a; b; McBeath et al. 2012; McLaughlin et al. 1988a; Mitchell et al. 1952; Nelson et al. 1948; Sharpley 1986; Spinks and Barber 1947). Relative to the recovery of fertiliser P reported for arable crops, recoveries of 34 – 40 % suggest that clover plants at the Ginninderra and Naracoorte field sites were at the upper end of fertiliser P recovery that is typically found for arable crops. Some of the reasons for a relatively high recovery of fertiliser P in clover pastures may include: 1) the root systems of clover pastures were established and concentrated in the surface layer of the soil profile, which is near to where the fertiliser P is applied (Ozanne et al. 1961); 2) the majority of P within SSP is water soluble and would be readily available for plant uptake (Williams 1971b); 3) the movement of fertiliser P is generally restricted to a few centimetres from the granule and would remain in the root zone during the growing season (Lawton and Vomocil 1954); 4) fertiliser P is unlikely to become rapidly unavailable to plants over the growing season in soils of low to moderate sorption capacity (Dorahy et al. 2007; He et al. 2004); and 5) there were favourable seasonal conditions at the Ginninderra and Naracoorte field sites. More research is needed to ascertain if the results of the current study are typical for other clover-based pastures and whether the recovery of fertiliser P by clover plants will vary under different agronomic management (e.g. fertiliser rate, timing and placement). Recently, McLaren et al. (2014) demonstrated that the ignition-H₂SO₄ and NaOH-EDTA extraction techniques provide a reliable estimate of total, inorganic and organic P for soils collected from a medium-term P fertiliser × grazing experiment at the Ginninderra site. McLaren et al. (2014)

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extraction techniques provide a reliable estimate of total, inorganic and organic P for soils collected from a medium-term P fertiliser × grazing experiment at the Ginninderra site. McLaren et al. (2014) suggested that it was likely that concentrations of organic P were overestimated using the ignition-H₂SO₄ extraction technique and slightly underestimated using the NaOH-EDTA extraction technique. However, they also found that concentrations of total extractable P using *aqua regia* digestion were strongly correlated with the ignition-H₂SO₄ (100 % recovery of *aqua regia* digestion) and NaOH-EDTA (63 % recovery of *aqua regia* digestion) extraction techniques. Consequently, the ignition-H₂SO₄ and NaOH-EDTA extraction techniques were both used in the current study to identify the fate of fertiliser P in soil fractions because they provide a reliable estimate of total, inorganic and organic P (McLaren et al. 2014).

At both field sites, most of the fertiliser P in soil fractions was found in the surface layer (0 – 4 cm) of the soil profile in the year of application. Many studies have shown that concentrations of soil P in surface layers of fertilised soils under pasture are enriched relative to those in subsurface layers

(Haynes and Williams 1992; McLaren et al. 2014; McLaughlin et al. 1990; Watson 1969). However, the recovery of fertiliser P in soil fractions reported in the current study over a single growing season is considerably lower than those reported in long-term studies using indirect techniques (soil P audits) (McCaskill and Cayley 2000; Watson 1969). The estimated recovery of fertiliser P by pastures is generally considered low in the year of application due to the accumulation of P in fertilised soil as sparingly-available forms of inorganic and organic P (McLaughlin et al. 2011). Indeed, a large proportion of the fertiliser P that is applied to pastures can be recovered in soil fractions of the upper layers of the soil profile (McLaren et al. 2014; Watson 1969). Since a considerable proportion of the fertiliser P was found to be accessible to pasture plants in the year of application, the low PUE of pastures is unlikely due to the immediate 'fixation' of fertiliser P by soil constituents. Rather, fertiliser P appears to be highly (re)cycled in pasture systems, whereby much of the fertiliser P can be taken up by the plant but is subsequently returned to the soil surface via pasture decay, pasture trampling and/or deposition of faeces and urine from grazing animals (Bircham and Hodgson 1983; Bromfield 1961). The high recovery of fertiliser P in soil fractions associated with pools of inorganic P is consistent with reports for arable crops grown under field conditions (McLaughlin et al. 1988c; Sharpley 1986) and glasshouse conditions (Friesen and Blair 1988). However, the ignition-H₂SO₄ extraction technique suggests that a larger proportion of the fertiliser P was being recovered as organic P than that indicated by the NaOH-EDTA extraction technique at the Ginninderra site. The reasons for this are unclear but it is possible that the ignition-H₂SO₄ extraction technique has overestimated total organic P in this soil. This can occur because the ignition step can increase the solubility of inorganic P (McLaren et al. 2014; Oniani et al. 1973; Williams et al. 1970). Nevertheless, recovery of the majority of fertiliser P as inorganic P in soil is consistent with previous studies for arable crops, which show that there is little conversion of fertiliser P to organic forms in the year of application (Friesen and Blair 1988; McLaughlin et al. 1988c; Sharpley 1986). In contrast, it is well known from long-term studies that concentrations of organic P in fertilised soils under pasture are a major sink of fertiliser P (Condron and Goh 1989; McLaren et al. 2014; Oniani et al. 1973; Simpson et al. 1974). McLaren et al. (2014) determined the net accumulation of organic (and inorganic) forms of P after 13 years of fertilisation in soils collected from a medium-term P fertiliser x grazing experiment at the Ginninderra Experiment Station, near Hall, Australian Capital Territory, Australia. They reported that 28 % of the fertiliser P had accumulated as organic forms in the topsoil layer (0 - 10 cm) when averaged across the

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fertilised and grazing treatments, as determined by the summed concentrations of organic P using sequential chemical fractionation.

A small proportion of the fertiliser P was recovered in the granule residues collected from the soil surface at the last harvest, which is likely to consist of water insoluble phosphates (Gilkes and Lim-Nunez 1980; Prochnow et al. 2001). The ~ 5 % of ³³P recovered in the granule residues relative to that originally labelled with the ³³P radiotracer is likely to be from subsequently formed precipitates of dicalcium phosphate or dicalcium phosphate dihydrate within the granule on the un-acidulated fraction of the SSP (Lehr et al. 1959). Clearly, the majority of fertiliser P is released from the granule during a single growing season upon application to pastures and is potentially available for plant uptake (Williams 1971a).

The unrecovered fertiliser P is likely to be associated with three main components of the pasture system. Possible fates of the unrecovered fertiliser P include: 1) incorporation into clover roots; 2) transport to below 8 cm from the soil surface; and 3) incorporation into pools not extracted by the ignition-H₂SO₄ or NaOH-EDTA extraction techniques. We consider it unlikely that much fertiliser P was transported below 8 cm from the soil surface because the recovery of fertiliser P in the subsurface layer (4 – 8 cm) was low, and in many cases too low for detection (Table 5), and the movement of P from SSP granules is generally restricted to a few centimetres from the granule (Lawton and Vomocil 1954; Williams 1971b), except in very sandy soils. We also consider it unlikely that much fertiliser P has been incorporated into pools of soil P not extracted by the ignition-H₂SO₄ extraction and NaOH-EDTA extraction techniques because: 1) the ignition-H₂SO₄ extraction technique provides a close approximation of total soil P as measured using *aqua regia* digestion (McLaren et al. 2014), and; 2) McLaren et al. (2014) found that pools of 'residual P' as determined using sequential chemical fractionation did not significantly accumulate with longer-term addition of fertiliser P under pasture. Consequently, we believe that much of the fertiliser P that is unaccounted for is likely to be in clover roots.

It is well known that clover roots contain P and can be a quantitatively important fraction of the total P in clover plants (Biddiscombe et al. 1969). In addition, subterranean clover is known to translocate less P from their roots to shoots compared to other pasture species, particularly at low levels of P fertility (Barrow 1975; Blair and Cordero 1978; Paynter 1990). Biddiscombe et al. (1969) reported that the proportion of total plant P in the root fraction of subterranean clover after 92 days of growth at

low and high levels of P addition was 32 % and 22 %, respectively. Assuming similar partitioning between roots and shoots occurred in our study, clover roots would account for 4.9 kg P ha⁻¹ at the Ginninderra site (based on the portioning value of 32 % in the low P soil of Biddiscombe et al. (1969)) and 7.9 kg P ha⁻¹ at the Naracoorte site (based on the partitioning value of 22 % in the high P soil of Biddiscombe et al. (1969)). This would account for over half of the unrecovered fertiliser P at each site.

This study found that clover shoots were able to recover 34 % and 40 % of the P from SSP at the Ginninderra and Naracoorte field sites, respectively, in the year of application. The recovery of fertiliser P by clover plants might be even higher if fertiliser P uptake in roots is also measured, along with the residual fertiliser P in soil from previous applications of fertiliser P. Indeed, several studies have shown that fertiliser P from previous applications can be an important source of P for pasture growth (Gallet et al. 2003; Morel and Fardeau 1989). Gallet et al. (2003) estimated that 14 to 62 % of P in clover shoots was derived from previous applications of fertiliser P in three soils under glasshouse conditions. However, it is also apparent that on a longer timeframe fertiliser P that has cycled through the soil-plant system at least once is prone to being transformed into inorganic or organic forms of soil P of low solubility (Condron and Goh 1989; McLaren et al. 2014). Hence, regular inputs of fertiliser P are still likely to be required in order to maintain the optimum agronomic level of soil P fertility.

The majority of the fertiliser P remaining in the soil surface layer at the end of the experiment was inorganic, although it was unclear how available this P remained for clover growth. We propose that much of this is still present in a readily available form for plant uptake, and is largely associated with the sorption sites of aluminium and iron oxy-hydroxides (Dorahy et al. 2007; He et al. 2004). It is likely that the addition of plant residues to the soil surface could also affect the distribution of P pools in soil fractions and possibly the recovery of fertiliser P by clover plants (Friesen and Blair 1988; McLaughlin et al. 1988c). However, it is unclear how much of the plant P in clover pastures is returned to the soil surface via plant decay or trampling or when this occurs in its lifecycle.

In addition to chemical constraints, there also can be physical constraints to accessing the fertiliser P in the surface layer (McBeath et al. 2012). Regular drying of surface layers in soils under pasture may restrict the plant's ability to access P in this layer, and subsoil applications of fertiliser P may be beneficial (Pinkerton and Simpson 1986; Scott 1973). In any case, the results of this study indicate that the application of fertiliser P to the soil surface resulted in a relatively high recovery of fertiliser P by clover plants in the year of application.

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802	List of figure captions
803	
804	Fig 1 A visual representation (left) and the binary image (right) of the diffusion patterns for
805	commercial $55 - 60$ mg single superphosphate (SSP) granules and that of 33 P-labelled SSP granules,
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811	standard error.
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Table 1. Chemical properties of the soils used in this study. Analyses were carried out on soil samples collected prior to fertiliser addition.

Location	Depth	pHw	ECw	TOC	TON	Colwell P	PBI	Oxalate Al	Oxalate Fe	Total Pa	Igni	tion-H ₂ SO ₄ (1	ng kg ⁻¹)
Location	(cm)	(1:5)	(μS cm ⁻¹ ; 1:5)	(%)	(%)	(mg kg ⁻¹)	1 D1	(mg kg ⁻¹)	(mg kg ⁻¹)	(mg kg ⁻¹)	total	inorganic	organic
Ginninderra,	0 - 2.5	5.1	74	2.6	0.23	19	31	709	10100	362	213	50	163
ACT	2.5 - 5	4.6	70	1.6	0.15	11	35	773	11600	323	178	34	143
	5 - 10	4.7	64	1.1	0.10	8	33	726	10300	310	156	31	125
	10 - 20	4.7	35	0.6	0.05	5	46	873	11800	301	112	21	90
Naracoorte,	0 - 2.5	5.6	88	1.3	0.11	92	14	435	6260	358	254	159	95
SA	2.5 - 5	5.3	77	1.2	0.12	66	16	427	6740	358	207	123	84
	5 - 10	4.7	51	0.9	0.08	34	23	374	2770	201	140	75	66
	10 - 20	4.7	32	0.4	0.04	23	20	378	3630	148	81	40	41

^a Determined by laboratory X-ray fluorescence.

Table 2. Monthly rainfall for the Ginninderra and Naracoorte field sites. Values in parentheses are added irrigation as rainfall equivalents.

Location	Rainfall (mm) ^a	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul	Aug	Sept	Oct	Nov	Dec	Total annual
Ginninderra	2013	85	79	28	10	12 (52)	108 (1)	56	29 (3)	69	20 (30)	105	21	708
	Long-term ^b	58	55	56	46	47	46	56	60	67	69	69	59	688
Naracoorte	2013	1	6	15	15	40	60 (3)	90 (6)	123 (2)	39	59	17	14	490
	Long-term ^c	22	21	27	25	39	57	56	73	55	38	35	40	488

^a Rainfall data was sourced from the nearest Bureau of Meteorology weather station.

^b Based on average monthly rainfall between 1962 to 2012 (complete records).

^c Based on average monthly rainfall between 1998 to 2012 (complete records).

Table 3. Concentrations of Ca, P and S (%) in commercial SSP and 33 P-labelled SSP granules collected at the end of the field experiment from the Ginninderra and Naracoorte field sites as determined by ICP-OES on acid digests (Zarcinas et al. 1987). Values in parentheses are standard errors.

Field site	Element (%)	Commercial SSP	³³ P-labelled SSP
Ginninderra, ACT	P	1.97 (0.09)	2.09 (0.07)
	Ca	20.12 (0.94)	20.55 (0.38)
	S	12.65 (0.70)	13.54 (0.40)
	Ca/S ratio	1.60 (0.04)	1.52 (0.03)
Naracoorte, SA	P	1.82 (0.05)	2.10 (0.02)
	Ca	22.40 (0.51)	22.73 (0.59)
	S	14.83 (0.49)	15.28 (0.44)
	Ca/S ratio	1.51 (0.03)	1.49 (0.02)

Table 4. Summary of the cumulative biomass removal (t DM ha⁻¹ equivalent) and P uptake (kg P ha⁻¹ equivalent) for the control, commercial SSP and ³³P-labelled SSP treatments at the Ginninderra and Naracoorte field sites. Values in parentheses are standard errors.

Measurement	Field site	Control	Commercial SSP	³³ P-labelled SSP
Cumulative biomass (t DM ha ⁻¹)	Ginninderra	6.7 (0.5)	7.5 (0.6)	7.3 (0.5)
	Naracoorte	8.0 (0.5)	7.7 (0.3)	6.9 (0.6)
Cumulative P uptake (kg P ha ⁻¹)	Ginninderra	7.8 (0.7)	10.8 (1.1)	10.5 (0.8)
,	Naracoorte	28.4 (1.8)	29.9 (0.7)	28.1 (1.9)

Table 5. Concentrations of ³³P radioactivity (MBq core⁻¹) from ³³P-labelled SSP detected in various components of the pasture system at two field sites. Values in parentheses are standard errors.

Matrix/location	Radioactivity of ³³ P in components of the pasture system (MBq core ⁻¹)	Ginninderra ^A	Naracoorte ^A	
Applied granule (soil surface)	Total applied as ³³ P-labelled SSP	4.17	4.75	
Clover (shoots)	Cumulative biomass removal	1.43 (0.09)	1.92 (0.10)	
Recovered Granule (soil surface)	Total recovered as ³³ P-labelled SSP	0.29 (0.04)	0.16 (0.01)	
Soil $(0 - 4 \text{ cm layer})$	Ignition-H ₂ SO ₄ extractable total P	1.32 (0.12)	1.53 (0.06)	
	Ignition-H ₂ SO ₄ extractable inorganic P	0.79 (0.10)	1.39 (0.07)	
	Ignition-H ₂ SO ₄ extractable organic P	0.53 (0.06)	0.17 (0.06)	
	NaOH-EDTA extractable total P	1.02 (0.12)	1.49 (0.10)	
	NaOH-EDTA extractable inorganic P	0.91 (0.11)	1.41 (0.09)	
	NaOH-EDTA extractable organic P	0.11 (0.04)	0.08 (0.03)	
Soil (4 – 8 cm layer)	Ignition-H ₂ SO ₄ extractable total P	BD	0.21 (0.03)	
•	Ignition-H ₂ SO ₄ extractable inorganic P	BD	0.20 (0.03)	
	Ignition-H ₂ SO ₄ extractable organic P	BD	0.02 (0.01)	
	NaOH-EDTA extractable total P	BD	BD	
	NaOH-EDTA extractable inorganic P	BD	BD	
	NaOH-EDTA extractable organic P	BD	BD	
Unknown	By difference	1.13 (0.09)	0.93 (0.11)	

^ABD = below detection. Refers to samples that contained ³³P activity that was too low for detection by liquid scintillation counting.

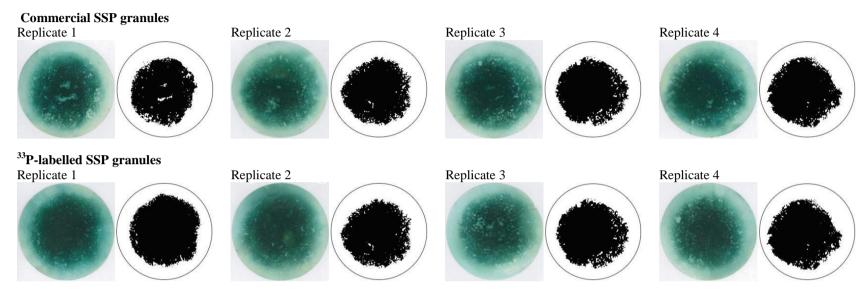


Fig. 1 A visual representation (left) and the binary image (right) of the diffusion patterns for commercial 55 - 60 mg single superphosphate (SSP) granules and that of 33 P-labelled SSP granules, obtained using the procedure of Degryse and McLaughlin (2014). The granules were added to a soil (Monarto) in a Petri dish (55 mm diameter \times 10 mm deep) and incubated for 7 days at field capacity.

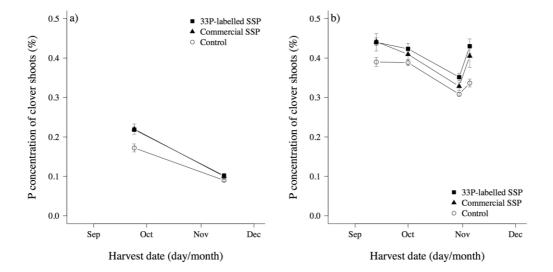


Fig. 2 Tissue P concentrations (%) of clover shoots for each harvest in the control, commercial SSP and ³³P-labelled SSP treatments at the Ginninderra and Naracoorte field sites. Error bars are one standard error.

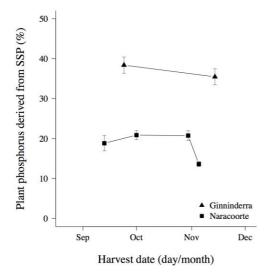
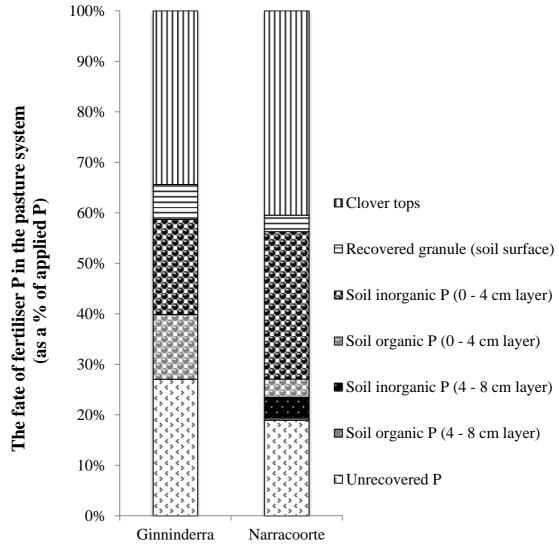


Fig. 3 The proportion of plant P that was derived from the ³³P-labelled SSP at each harvest. Standard error bars are displayed for each harvest.



Field site location

Fig. 4 Recovery of P from the ³³P-labelled SSP in various components of the pasture system at two field sites (as a % of applied P). The recovery of fertiliser P in soil inorganic and organic P fractions was determined using the ignition-H₂SO₄ extraction technique of Walker and Adams (1958).