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ROTHAMSTED

EXPERIMENTAL STATION

REPORT FOR 1969

PART 2

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LAWES AGRICULTURAL **TRUST**

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CONTENTS

The Value of Residues from Long-period Manuring at Rothamsted anl Woburn I. Introduction

A. E. JOHNSTON

Lawes and Gilbert (1873) found that giving a crop only as much phosphorus and potassium as it took up failed to give large yields and in their experiments they always applied more P and K than the maximum taken up by the crop. Provided the excess was not leached from the soil, it remained as a residue and Lawes and Gilbert (1884) wrote, 'The recent legislative enactments giving the cultivator of the soil a claim for the manure ingredients possessing a pecuniary value which he has applied, and left in the land, add greatly to the interest of all investigations which have a bearing upon this important subject'. As Cooke (1967) recently pointed out, Lawes and Gilbert became closely involved with this important aspect of farming and the legislation whereby outgoing tenants were compensated for the residual value of improvements.

Lawes and Gilbert modified some of their experiments, and later Hall made some further changes, to measure the residual value of dressings of farmyard manure (FYM) and fertilisers. These experiments showed that, when manuring continued for many years and then ceased, soils with residues yielded better than unmanured soils and the effect of P and K residues often lasted many years. More recently, many experiments have shown that the responses of crops to a single dressing of P fertiliser have diminished rapidly after the first year, unless large amounts were applied. By the third and fourth year the eflects were usually too small to measure accurately, even though as much as three-quarters of the P added as fertiliser remained in the soil. Although a crop can obtain only a little P from the residue of a single dressing applied three or four years before, the total residues from many dressings may supply much, or all, of the P needed. Similarly useful residues can accumulate from repeated dressings of K fertilisers.

In the Exhaustion Land experiment at Rothamsted, which last received P and K fertilisers in 1901, barley grown between 1949 and 1953 with adequate N, yielded twice as much on the plots giyen P and K last century as on those not. However, the crop recovered only an extra 4–5 lb more P and 15-20 lb more K/acre/year. This was a very small (less than 0.5%) recovery of the total P and K applied between 1856 and 1901, but acute deficiency of one nutrient may have been limiting the recovery of the other. Even so, such small recoveries would not justify a policy of intentionally building up residues in the soil unless they have merits not possessed by new annual dressings at usual amounts.

Possible merits of residues in soil are:

1. When thoroughly incorporated in the soil, residues proyide nutrients throughout the ploughed layer, the low levels of which remain moister during the summer.

2. Large fresh dressings, which may damage germinating seeds, are not needed.

3. Residues insure against the poor response to a new fertiliser dressing, which broadcast on the surface, may not have been worked in deeply.

This series of papers gives the results of experiments made to value the residues from long-period manuring at Rothamsted and Wobum. Paper II summarises the results of experiments started by Lawes and Gilbert and later by Hall. It includes the results of those that have continued to the present. Papers III, IV and V give, respectively, the forms of the experiments made between 1957 and 1962 and the results of the tests measuring the value for arable crops of the residues of many dressings of P and of K fertilisers.

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The Value of Residues from Long-period Manuring at Rothamsted and Woburn II. A Summary of the Results of Experiments Started by Lawes and Gilbert

A. E. JOHNSTON

Lawes and Gilbert made many tests of the value of residues of fertilisers and manures accumulated in soil during the long-period of manuring in their experiments, and later, Hall made some further tests. Some of these tests still continue. The results, summarised here, were from modifications made in the following experiments:

Agdell. This 4-course rotation experiment, started in 1848, was described by Warren (1958) and more briefly on page 24.

Barnfield. Various experiments on root crops were made from 1843 to 1959 details of which were given by Warren and Johston (1962).

Broadbalk. Details of the treatments to the winter wheat were given by Johnston and Garner (1969).

Exhaustion Land. Though mainly cereals have been grown, there was a manurial experiment with potatoes grown continuously from 1876 to 1901. The history of the site was described by Warren and Johnston (1960) and more briefly on page 23.

Hoosfield Continuous Barley. Warren and Johnston (1967) gave the details of the treatments to the barley grown on this site since 1852.

Park Grass. This experiment, started in 1856 to study the manuring of permanent meadow cut twice each year, for hay and later for aftermath, was described by Warren and Johnston (1964).

Permanent Wheat and Barley Experiments at Woburn. The design of these experiments started in 1876 by the Royal Agricultural Society was influenced by Lawes and Gilbert. The experiments have been conducted from Rothamsted since 1926 when the management of the Woburn Farm became the responsibility of the Lawes Agricultural Trust. The history of the sites is described on page 25.

The effect of residues of nitrogen fertilisers

Winter wheat: normal dressings of N. Before 1852 Lawes and Gilbert had showed that a single dressing of inorganic N to the winter wheat on Broadbalk had little residual effect on the following crop of winter wheat (Garner & Dyke, 1969). After 1852 this test, combined with one on the

residual efects of PKNaMg, was made on plots 17 and l8 and was continued until 1967. Plot 17 received 86 lb N/acre in even years, and PKNaMg fertilisers in odd years, and plot 18 received N in odd years and PKNaMg in even years. Table I shows mean yields (Garner & Dyke,

TABLE I

Effect of the residues of fertiliser N and $PKNaMg$ on winter wheat on Broadbalk, 1852-1967 outlagealyant

1969) on these plots over the whole period 1852-1967. There was no residual effect of N. The yield on plots 17/18 with residual N was only equal to that on plot 5 given PKNaMg annually but no N. However, Table I also shows there was a very large residual effect of PKNaMg, because yields on plots 17/18 with N almost equalled those on plot 7, given NPKNaMg each year.

Winter wheat: large dressings of N. Winter wheat grown on plot 16 on Broadbalk during the l860s showed another interesting residual effect. From 1852 to 1864 annual manuring on plot 16 was NPKNaMg, supplying 172 lb N/acre. The two seasons, 1863 and 1864, both favoured wheat and there was little extra gain from increasing N from 129 to 172 lb. Lawes and Gilbert (1884) stopped applying fertilisers to plot 16 in 1865 but, over the next 19 years, they recorded the yields, which are compared with those of plot 5, given PKNaMg but not N every year in Table 2.

Lawes and Gilbert thought that the very large efect of the residues in 1865, half the direct effect of the 172 lb N in 1863–64, was from ammonia remaining in the soil, for 1864 was the driest yeax in the then recorded history of the experiment. The 2 to 3 cwt increase in grain yield over the next three years they decided was caused by extra nitrogen released by mineralisation of the larger plant residues in the soil of plot 16 than in plot 5. After l868, the readily mineralisable N had gone and yields were no better than those on plot 5.

Barley after turnips and swedes. After turnips and swedes had been grown on Barnfield for ten years, Lawes and Gilbert grew barley without manure in 1853, 1854 and 1855. The yields in Table 3 from Lawes and Gilbert (1857) confirmed their often repeated statement that good yields required 'available nitrogen within the soil'. Residues from the NPK given to the tumips gave a small (1.5 cwt) extra yield of grain in each of 8

VALUE OF RESIDUES-EARLY EXPERIMENTS

TABLE 2

Direct and residual effect of 172 lb fertiliser N on winter wheat on Broadbalk, 1863-83

Grain, cwt/acre/year

Plot and treatment

the three years. How small was emphasised in 1854 when, on part of the 'Valley' plots with the same P and K residues as the main plots. 82 lb N/acre was given, which increased yield by 17.8 cwt grain.

TABLE 3

Effect of residues from fertilisers given to roots on the yield of barley on Barnfield, 1853-55

Grain, cwt/acre/year

Barley after potatoes. From 1902 to 1940 unmanured cereals followed the potato experiment on the Exhaustion Land. Table 4 shows the yields of cereals, which were measured on all plots only in the first three years and again from 1917 to 1922. Between 1856 and 1901 annual dressings of 86 lb N/acre were given 44 times. In 1902, yield after potatoes manured with either N or NPK was much larger than after potatoes unmanured or given only PK. However, the smaller crops on the N only than on the NPK plots left smaller residues and the effect of these disappeared in two years. On the NPK plots mineralisation of N gave small increases in yield for some years but the effect disappeared by 1919–22.

TABLE 4

Effect of residues from fertiliser dressings on the yield of unmanured cereals on the Exhaustion Land, 1902-22

Grain, cwt/acre/year

¹ The 1920 crop failed.

The effect of residues from potassium fertilisers

Residues of potassium manures were measured in four experiments.

Swedes. In the experiment with swedes on Barnfield, K was not applied between 1861 and 1870 to plots given K between 1845 and 1860. Table 5 shows mean yields for four periods for the crops given N as ammonium sulphate.

TABLE 5

Direct and residual effect of potassium fertilisers on turnips, and swedes, Barnfield, 1845-70

Roots, tons/acre/year

¹ The crops of 1859 and 1860 failed.

At first (1845–48) there was no response to K. Later, however, because of the gradual depletion of soil K where none was given as fertiliser, there was a response and giving fresh K increased yield by 1.1 tons/acre/year between 1856 and 1858. On plot 4A the mean annual dressing of 100 lb K/acre as fertiliser between 1845 and 1860 was more than that removed in the tops and roots; the residue that accumulated in the soil during this period maintained a yield of 1.0 ton roots/acre more than on plot 5A during the next ten years, 1861-70.

VALUE OF RESIDUES_EARLY EXPERIMENTS

Mangolds and sugar beet. The residual effect of K fertilisers on Barnfield was confirmed between 1903 and 1959 with both mangolds and sugar beet when these crops were given N as ammonium sulphate. Strip 7, which had had K whenever it was applied to strips 4 and 6 until 1902, was manured with PNaMg only from 1903. The amount of Na and Mg was equal to that given on strip 4. Yields, of both crops (Table 6) given by K residues, from fertiliser dressings applied before 1902, were equal to those given by fresh dressings of K throughout the last 56 years of the experiment.

TABLE 6

Efect of residues from potdssium fertilisers on mangolds and sugar beet on Bamfield, 1904-59

Roots, tons/acre/year

Potatoes. Table 7 shows potato yields during three periods of the experiment on the Exhaustion Land; plots 9 (P only) and 10 (PKNaMg) were sited on plot 1 (PKNaMg) of the preceding wheat experiment (1856–1874).

TABLE 7

Effect of residues from potassium fertilisers on potatoes on the Exhaustion Land, 1876-1901

Tubers, tons/acre/year

Unfortunately N was not given to these plots, but the K residues accumulated during the wheat experiment gave as good a yield of potatoes as did fresh dressings of K during the first twelve years, though yields decreased later.

Grass cut for hay. On Park Grass the early experiments on the value of residues of manurial dressings were not complicated by major changes in botanical composition, as were many of the comparisons of manurial treatment on yield. Plots 9 and l0 recejved the same manures (NpKNaMg) between 1856 and 1861, except that plot 10 also got sawdust, which had

ll

no effect on the yield of hay. Plot l0 received no more K after 1861, or sawdust after 1862. Table 8 shows the yields on these two plots and on plot 4/2 (NP).

TABLE 8

Direct and residual effect of potassium fertilisers on the yield of hay on Park Grass, 1856-75

cwt/acre/year of hay¹

¹ Yields 1856-76 from Lawes & Gilbert, 1880. Yields 1920-59 from Warren & Johnstor, 1964.

 2 1859-61 only.

³ Unlimed halves of each plot.

Yields with NP only (plot $4/2$) decreased during each of the periods. During the first 6 years, 1856-61, there was a response to fresh K of 12 cwt hay/acre. During the next 5 years, 1862-66, the residues of K accumulated on plot l0 between 1856 and 1861, maintained as good ^a yield as was given by fresh dressings of K. Then, in the 9 years between 1867 and 1875, the decreasing K residues gave yields intermediate between those on plot $4/2$, always without K, and on plot 9, always given K. From their analyses Lawes and Gilbert concluded that there would have been about 400 lb K remaining in the soil of plot l0 in 1862 from the 870 lb applied between 1856 and 1861. Using the uptake on plot 4/2 as a measure of the K released from the soil, they also calculated that during the next 14 years the extra crops recovered half of this residue of 400 lb K.

The large differences in yield on plots $4/2$, 9 and 10 for the period 1920 to 1959 (Table 8) are probably not simply the effect of K, but reflect the interaction of manuring and differential soil acidity, which had developed on the plots, on the plant species able to tolerate each set of conditions.

The combined effect of residues from P and K fertilisers

Unfortunately no experiment made in the early period at Rothamsted tested the effects of P residues only. In some experiments Lawes and Gilbert simply stopped applying both P and K fertilisers to plots previously given them, and measured the combined effect of PK residues.

Winter wheat. The residual effects of small dressings of P and K were shown by modifying the treatments to plots l0A and l0B on Broadbalk. Both plots received PK in 1844. For the next 39 years, plot 10A had 86 lb N 12

VALUE OF RESIDUES-EARLY EXPERIMENTS

annually, whereas 10B had two more dressings of P and K (in 1848 and 1850) followed by 33 years with 86 lb N annually. Table 9 (from Lawes & Gilbert, 1884) gives yields for four 8-year periods.

TABLE 9

Effect of PK residues on winter wheat on Broadbalk, 1852-83

 σ acres years at σ

The residues from 60 lb P and 240 lb K produced, when N was also given, a mean annual yield increase of 2.4 and 1.7 cwt grain in the first and second 8-year periods, but after that their effects diminished rapidly.

Barley. Beginning in 1941 the barley on the Exhaustion Land was manured annually with N. Yields were taken from 1949, and averages for the first 5 years with N at 56 lb N/acre are in Table 10. Even after 50 years the residues of the P and K applied between 1856 and l90l gave, when N was given, an extra 9 cwt grain. That these residues had such a good effect after such a long time is, no doubt, because N was not given between 1901 and 1940 and the yields of the cereals grown, and the uptakes of P and K, were small. In this experiment, though the effect as measured was that of P plus K, Warren (1956) concluded from analyses of the crops that the increase in yield was mainly from the P residues.

TABLE 10

Effect of PK residues on barley when N was given on the Exhaustion Land, 1949-53 curt/acres/ycar

¹ PK, 1856-75; P, 1876-1901.

Winter wheat and barley at Woburn. In 1959 and 1960 these two crops, given basal N, were grown on every plot of the permanent Wheat and Barley Sites at Woburn, last manured with P and K in 1926. Table 1l shows yields, as averages of all plots with appropriate treatments.

l3

TABLE 11

Effect of residues of PK fertilisers and FYM on wheat and barley on the Woburn Permanent Wheat and Barley Sites, 1959-60

Grain, cwt/acre/year

Wheat yielded better on the Barley Site than on the Wheat Site and barley better on the Wheat Site than on the Barley Site. To what extent this reflected differences in disease or fertility between the two sites is not known. In seven of the eight comparisons, yields were increased by residues of PK accumulated between 1877 and 1926 from fertiliser or FYM.

Beans and potatoes. These two crops, grown on Agdell in 1956 and 1957 respectively, valued the combined effect of the accumulated residues of PK fertiliser given once every 4 years during the four-course rotation experiment and last applied in 1948. Table 12 gives the yields of field beans, grown without added N, and of potatoes, given basal N.

TABLE 12

Effect of residues of PK fertilisers on beans and potatoes on Agdell 1956 and 1957

The yields of both beans and potatoes from PK residues were as good as from many well manured crops on Rothamsted Farm. The mean increases from the combined effects of P and K were 14 cwt/acre bean grain and 8.5 tons/acre of potatoes. In five of the six comparisons, yields were smaller on plots where clover was grown in the rotation while other plots were fallowed, because P and K were removed in the clover and less was left to accumulate in the soil.

Warren (1958) showed that the two crops differed little in the amount of P they took from the starved or from the enriched soil, but the potatoes took up more K than the beans from the starved soil and much more K from the enriched soil (Table 13).

VALUE OF RESIDUES-EARLY EXPERIMENTS

TABLE 13

Effect of PK residues on the amount of P and K removed in the beans and potatoes grown on Agdell, 1956 and 1957

The effect of residues of FYM

FYM was the standard source of plant nutrients when Lawes and Gilbert started their experiments on the effects of the 'new' inorganic fertilisers. Yields on unmanured soil were compared with those on soils dressed with fertilisers and FYM. The dressing of FYM was 14 tons/acre, and many analyses showed this amount contained, on average, 200 lb total N. The N supplied by this dressing of FYM, when given each year in the Classical Experiments has increased the total soil N much more than where N was given as fertilisers. Lawes and Gilbert (1895) concluded that N from FYM residues gave three-quarters of the extra yield of barley between 1872 and 1891 on plots given FYM between 1852 and 1871. The conclusion that N from FYM residues gives worthwhile increases in yield for some vears is supported by the results of the next three experiments below. However, FYM also supplies P and K and the effects of residues of FYM may therefore reflect any combination of N, P and K as discussed later.

Grass cut for hay. The first experiment on the value of residues of FYM was made on Park Grass. The manure, applied annually at 14 tons/acre to this permanent pasture, did not readily decompose and Lawes and Gilbert (1880) noted that the sward deteriorated with this treatment. Annual dressings of FYM were stopped in 1863 after 8 years, but yields of hay (Table 14) continued to be taken.

During the 6 years 1864–69 the residues gave yields as large as fresh dressings did during the previous 8 years. Their effect diminished during the next period, but they continued to increase yields by a small but consistent amount even between 1920 and 1959.

TABLE 14

The direct and residual effect of farmyard manure on yields of hay in the Park Grass Experiment, 1856-1959

cwt/acre/year of hay

Plot and treatment $\overline{\mathbf{3}}$ Effect of fresh \mathcal{D} Period **FYM** Unmanured dressing 1856-63 23.8 42.9 $19 - 1$ Residues of Effect of 112 tons/acre Unmanured **FYM** residues 1864-69 $24 - 1$ $43 - 3$ $19 - 2$ $7 - 4$ 1870-75 $15 - 1$ 22.5 8.2 $Q \cdot A$ 1.2 1920-59

Potatoes. At the start of the potato experiment (1876–1901) on the Exhaustion Land, plot 2 was dressed annually with FYM for the first 6 years (1876–81), after when it was unmanured. The FYM residues on this plot gave better yields than the unmanured plot until the end of the experiment (Table 15), and during the first 6 years gave half the yield increase that fresh dressings had given between 1876-81.

TABLE 15

The direct and residual effect of farmyard manure on yields of potatoes on the Exhaustion Land, 1876-1901

Tubers, tons/acre/year

Barley. Effects of residues of FYM given to the potatoes on the Exhaustion Land were measured in the following cereal, and are compared in Table 16 with the effects of residues of PK fertilisers. The FYM residues increased yields greatly during the first 3 years but it is not possible to show when the effects declined because the fertiliser plots were used for an experiment on legumes between 1905 and 1911. However by 1917 the FYM plots were yielding no better than the PK plots. The yields, between 1902 and 1904, given by the NPK residues, discussed previously, and FYM residues are compared in Table 17.

VALUE OF RESIDUES-EARLY EXPERIMENTS

TABLE 16

Comparison of the effects of the residues of farmyard manure and PK fertilisers on yields of cereals on the Exhaustion Land, $1902 - 22$

Grain, cwt/acre/year

 1 FYM + P, 1876-82; FYM, 1883-1901.

 St

 2 FYM + NP, 1876-81; FYM + P, 1882; FYM, 1883-1901.

TABLE 17

Comparison of the effects of the residues of farmyard manure and NPK fertilisers on the yields of cereals on the Exhaustion Land, 1902-04

Grain, cwt/acre/year

In 1902 the FYM residues only gave 3 cwt more grain than the NPK residues but in both 1903 and 1904 they gave much more because extra nitrogen from the FYM was mineralised.

The effect of P and K in FYM residues

Barley. In the three experiments described in the preceding section most of the effect of the FYM residues was from nitrogen. On the Exhaustion Land, barley yields with FYM residues were larger than with PK residues between 1902 and 1904 but not between 1917 and 1922. After 1940, nitrogen fertiliser was applied to all plots and yields between 1949 and 1953 with FYM residues were only very slightly larger than with the residues of PK fertilisers (Table 18).

TABLE 18

Comparison of the effects of old residues of farmyard manure and PK fertilisers on barley given nitrogen of the Exhaustion Land, $1949 - 53$

cwt/acre/year **Treatment** 56 lb N/acre 1949-53

17

 \mathbf{B}

The P and K of the FYM residues must have been as 'available' as that of the fertiliser residues. Yields in Table 19 show that, as the experiment has continued, the FYM residues have given better yields than the PK residues.

TABLE 19

Comparison of the effects of old residues of farmyard manure and PK fertilisers on barley given nitrogen on the Exhaustion Land, 1949-68

Grain, cwt/acre/year

¹ Not 1967 when the site was fallowed.

The N and PK effects of FYM residues were also shown in the Hoosfield Continuous Barley Experiment. Plot 7 recieved the standard dressing of FYM (14 tons/acre) for the first 20 years of the experiment, then the plot was halved, and one-half (plot 7/1) remained unmanured from 1872 to 1967. Table 20 gives yields for each decade; between 1917 and 1966 mainly Plumage Archer was grown.

TABLE 20

Effect of residues of farmyard manure on barley on the Hoosfield Continuous Barley Experiment, 1872-1961

Crain, cwt/acre/year

Warren (1956) showed that extra P and K was responsible for some of this extra yield with old FYM residues but that the limiting factor was the slow release of N from the organic matter. He calculated that between 1872 and 1956 the average amount of N that was mineralised produced an extra 3 cwt grain and 4 cwt straw each year containing about 6 lb N.

When Plumage Archer and Maris Badger were grown side by side on each plot between 1964 and 1966, yields of Maris Badger were not inl8

VALUE OF RESIDUES-EARLY EXPERIMENTS

creased by the small amounts of extra N available on plot $7/1$ (Warren & Johnston, 1967):

Barley, Hoosfield, 1964-66

Grain, cwt/acre/year.

This emphasises that the value of residues for new varieties of crop must be examined, for the larger yields these make possible are attained only with large amounts of nutrients.

In 1968 the Hoosfield experiment was modified and four amounts of N (0, 43, 86, 129 lb N/acre as 'Nitro-Chalk') were tested with Maris Badger. With the larger amounts of N yields on plot $7/1$ were as good as those on the old plot 4/A, which received N as ammonium sulphate and PKNaMg annually since 1852, suggesting that Maris Badger's poor performance on residues alone in 1964–66 was solely because of the small supply of N :

Barley, Hoosfeld, 1968

Grain, cwt/acre

¹ Plot 7/1 got 57, 115 and 172 lb N instead of 43, 86 and 129 lb N.

Without fresh N in 1968, the yield on the pK plot exceeded that on the plot with very old FYM residues, probably because of the extra N mineralised from the larger root and stubble residues ploughed in on this plot. Now that N is being given, it will be interesting to see how long the P and K residues from the FYM applied 100 years ago continue to give good yields.

The effect of residues of rape cake

Lawes and Gilbert used rape cake to supply both organic matter and nutrients, mainly N, and compared its eflects with those of FyM and inorganic fertilisers. It was applied at 2000 lb/acre to winter wheat and root crops and 1000 lb/acre to barley; the larger amount on average supplied 100 lb N, 20 lb P and 20 lb K. The unmanured barley taken on Barnfield in 1853-55 measured the effect of the residues of rape cake applied from 1845 to 1852 (Table 21). The rape cake residues increased yield more than did the residues of inorganic NpK fertilisers (Table 3).

During the war of 1914–18 rape cake was unobtainable and after the existing stocks were exhausted in 1916 none was applied again until 1921. Table 22 shows the yields, for three 4-year periods, with fresh dressings and residues, on Broadbalk, Hoosfield and Bamfield.

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ROTHAMSTED REPORT FOR 1969, PART 2

TABLE 2I

Efect of residues of rape cake on barley on Barnfeld, 1853-55

TABLE 22

The direct and residual effects of rape cake on cereals and roots at Rothamsted, 1913-24

The yield of barley was much increased by fresh dressings of rape cake but the residues gave little increase in grain yield. For winter wheat, the residues gave about half the increase given by the fresh dressings and, for mangolds, both tops and roots, the residues gave yields equal to those given by fresh dressings. These results emphasise that the residues of any particular fertiliser may have a quite different effect on different crops, probably depending on the rate and time N is released, and possibly on the root system of the crop. Barley, with a short growing season, was probably unable to use N mineralised after early summer but, provided this later-mineralised N was not leached from the soil, winter wheat could use it. The long growing season of the mangolds helped them to use all the N mineralised during the growing season.

Summary

These experiments showed that soils containing residues of previous manures gave better yields than soils without such residues. The size of the effect differed with diferent nutrients and diflerent crops, and even with different varieties of one crop.

A single dressing of 86 lb N/acre applied to winter wheat grown annually has no residual effect. However, large dressings of ammonium salts can leave enough residue in the soil, especially after a very dry year, to benefit a succeeding crop, when this is autumn-sown. There is an important 20

VALUE OF RESIDUES-EARLY EXPERIMENTS

indirect effect of fertiliser N when used for many years with other nutrients, the larger crops it produces means more stubble and roots are left in the soil, the extra N mineralised from these residues increases yields of future crops. This effect, though small compared with that of fresh N, usually lasted for up to three years with cereals.

The N from residues of recently applied FYM often increased yields for several years; also residues of old FYM release enough N to give small but consistent increases in yield.

Because the N effect of old residues of FYM are always much smaller than the effects of new fertiliser N dressings, the experiments made between 1957 and 1962 tested only the P and K residues from FYM.

None of the experiments made before 1957 showed the effects of P residues only. On the Rothamsted soil the effects of K residues were sometimes large, giving yields for several years as large as those given by Fresh dressings. The results of these experiments do not show whether the same yield can be obtained by applying fresh dressings of P and K to starved and to enriched soils.

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The Value of Residues from Long-period Manuring at Rothamsted and Woburn III. The Experiments Made from 1957 to 1962, the Soils and Histories of the Sites on which they were Made

A. E. JOHNSTON and R. G. WARREN

The aim of the new experiments

The value of residues can be measured in two ways:

l. By comparing yields from soil enriched with residues with those from starved soil.

2. By comparing the responses to a series of new fertiliser dressings on plots of both starved and enriched soil.

Only the first of these ways was used to demonstrate the combined effect of the PK residues on the Exiaustion Land after basal N was given in 1941, and then only for barley (Warren, 1956). We wished to extend these results by obtaining information on:

- l. Other crops.
- 2. The separate effects of the P and K residues.
- 3. The value of the residues in terms of new fertiliser dressings.

Therefore experiments were made with more than one crop grown each year, and with basal N and K where P was tested and basal N and P where K was tested. Each experiment tested a series of increasing amounts of new P and K. The valuation of residues in terms of newly applied fertiliser depends on how this fresh fertiliser is applied and on the growing conditions in the year of the experiment, so we decided: (1) to do each experiment for two years and average the results from the two seasons; (2) to apply all new fertiliser to the seedbed, except for potatoes (for details see later). This is acceptable current farming practice, though, from the results of many experiments, Cooke (1956, 1957) showed that placing fertiliser near the seed was a more efficient way of using new fertiliser, which could be particularly true on impoverished soils. In the later years, tests were made of methods of applying fertilisers.

The work was done on three sites, two at Rothamsted (a part of the Exhaustion Land experiment site in 1957-58, and on the Agdell Rotation experiment site in 1959-62), and one at Woburn (part of the Permanent Wheat and Barley Sites) in 1960–62.

History of the experimental sites

The preceding cropping and the amounts of fertiliser applied to the sites of the experiments are known. All the crops were not analysed, so the amounts of each nutrient removed, and the amounts that should have remained as a 22

residue, are unknown. However, a subsequent section gives the amounts of readily soluble P and K in the soils of each plot.

The Exhaustion Land Experiment. This site, as the name implies, has been used for much work on NPK residues in soil. Its history was described by Warren & Johnston (1960). Lawes and Gilbert started the first experiment in 1852 to test effects of cultivation treatments on winter wheat; it ended in 1855. From 1856 to 1874 there was a nanurial experiment with winter wheat testing 4 treatments on 4 plots: unmanured; N only (as ammonium salts); PKNaMg only (P as superphosphate, K, Na, Mg each as the sulphate); and NPKNaMg. The last wheat crop was taken in 1874, the site was fallowed in 1875, and in 1876 a manurial experiment started in which potatoes were grown each year. The plots for potatoes were superimposed on those of the wheat experiment; the PKNaMg treatments were continued, and a new treatment with FYM and a comparison of sodium nitrate and ammonium salts were introduced. Hall stopped the potato experiment in 1901. From 1902 to 1940 the site was cropped mainly with cereals, usually barley, without manures and usually without recording yields. Beginning in ¹⁹⁴¹ each cereal crop received a uniform dressing of 56 lb N/acre and from 1949 onwards yields on each plot were taken to measure the combined effects of the PK residues in the presence of new N each year for one crop, barley.

Between 1856 and 1901, annual fertiliser dressings (amounts per acre) when applied were:

Table I shows the total P and K applied during this period, yields are discussed in Paper II.

TABLE 1

Total dmounts of P and K applied on the Exhaustion Land, 1856-1901 lb element/acre

The Agdell Rotation Experiment. Warren (1958) described this experiment. started by Lawes and Gilbert in 1848, which compared two 4-course cropping systems: (l) Roots, barley, undersown with clover (replaced by spring beans when the clover failed), and winter wheat; (2) Roots, barley, fallow and winter wheat. Only one, but the same, phase of each rotation was present each year. The manurial treatments were : unmanured ; P (changed to PKNaMg in 1884), and NPKNaMg (N as mixture of ammonium salts and rape cake, the rape cake also provided some P and K). The manures were applied only once every four years to the swedes or turnips. In addition to the manurial treatments tested on the two rotations, Lawes and Gilbert included a test of management when roots were grown. On half plos the roots were either all carted off or were fed on by sheep; when the weather was unsuitable for feeding, the roots and tops were sliced and spread over the Iand and ploughed in. This treatment, which returned the nutrients taken up by the root crop on one halfofeach plot, was stopped in 1900, after when all produce was removed from the whole plot. The experiment continued for 26 courses until 1951, when soil acidity on the NPK plots was harming the crops, especially the swedes, which were frst ruined by clubroot on these plots but soon also on the others. The acid areas were heavily chalked in spring l954 and given a light dressing in 1959. From 1952 to 1957 the site was uniformly cropped as follows: 1952, bare fallow; 1953 barley without N; 1954 barley with N; 1955 spring wheat with N; 1956 beans; ¹⁹⁵⁷ potatoes with N. Thus the crops from 1954 to 1957 measured the combined effects of the residues of P and K. Cereal yields were small but potatoes and beans yielded well. Yields are given in Paper II (page 14).

Between 1848 and l95l fertiliser dressings were at the following rates/ acre in the year in which they were applied:

Table 2 shows the total P and K applied between 1848 and 1951. 24

TABLE 2

Total amounts of P and K applied on Agdell Field, 1848-1951

Woburn Permanent Wheat and Barley Experiments. The Classical Experiments at Woburn on the continuous growing of cereals started with sowing winter wheat in autumn 1876 and barley in spring 1877. The plots were laid out as at Rothamsted for the barley experiment on Hoosfield, strip treatments with and without PKNaMg, crossed at right angles by strips with and without N. Separate plots also tested FYM. Initially the amounts of nutrients tested each year were the same as those used on cereals at Rothamsted, 43 and 86 lb N as ammonium salts or sodium nitrate, 30 lb P as superphosphate and 80lb K, 14lb Na, l0 lb Mg, all three as sulphates. FYM was tested at two amounts which varied between 4 to 6 and 8 to l2 tons/acre. Plots receiving the larger amount of N were fertilised only in alternate years from 1883, to measure the effects of N residues. Major manurial changes were made for crops harvested in 1907, both amounts of N were halved, superphosphate was given at 3 cwt/acre (25 lb p), potassium at only 0.5 cwt potassium sulphate/acre (22 lb K), sodium and magnesium were omitted and the larger amount of FYM was tested on one half plot. The remaining FYM plots tested NP, NK and rape cake. At the start of the experiment the soil was slightly acid and the ammonium sulphate increased the acidity considerably, so some tests of liming were made. Because of decreasing yields and increasing weediness of the plots, the experiment was stopped in 1926 and no more FYM and P and K were applied, except as described below. From 1927 to 1940 the plots continued io grow winter wheat or spring barley, testing, in 2 cycles each of 7 years, the effect of two years fallow on the succeeding 5 unmanured cereal crops. In l93l-32 some plots on the Barley Site were manured, plots 8 and 9 received a total of 82lb N,50lb P, l32lb K; lOa received 6l lb N, 50lb p; 1la received 6l lb N, 132 lb K. From l94l to 1957 tbree amounts of N fertilisers were tested but the plots had to be fallowed in 5 of these years. Between 1955 and 1957 individual plots received various amounts of ground chalk to bring the soils on all plots to pH 6. Having brought the surface soils to somewhere near their original soil reaction, an experiment began in 1959, with winter wheat and spring barley grown side by side on every plot, to compare the yields of each crop when grown on the Wheat and the Barley Sites. The experiment continued in 1960 and in 1961 spring wheat was grown. N was given to both wheat and barley so the value of the pK residues could be measured, the yields are discussed in Paper II (page 13).

Table 3 shows the total P and K applied between 1876 and 1959 on the plots used for the microplot experiment.

TABLE 3

Totdl anounts of P and K applied on the Wobum Permdnent Wheat and Barley Experiments, 1876-1959

lb element/acre

The soils

The soils at Rothamsted are mainly derived from 'Clay-with-flints', which overlies chalk at various depths, and they have been classified by the Soil Survey of England and Wales. The Exhaustion Land site on Hoosfield is on the Batcombe series (undifferentiated), on a level plateau where the'Claywith-flints' is thick and the soil has a flinty loam or silt loam surface. Agdell field is on the shallow or eroded phase of the Batcombe series and has a shallow flinty clay loam surface. It is one of the most difficult fields to work on Rothamsted Farm. As the other old arable fields including Hoosfield, it was given large, but unevenly distributed dressings of chalk in the early part of the last century when the practice was to dig out the underlying chalk and spread it on the arable land (Young, 18l3; Russell, 1916). Part of the east side of Agdell runs into one of the resulting dell holes.

The soil in Stackyard Field at Woburn is a sandy loam of the Cottenham series developed in drift over Lower Greensand. It was slightly acid and never received the heavy dressings of chalk that were a feature of earlier treatment of Rothamsted arable fields.

H. von Liebig, the son of Baron Liebig with whom Lawes and Gilbert argued so bitterly about the source of N for plants, was the first person to analyse Rothamsted soil for P and K. He extracted P soluble in dilute nitric acid, and K soluble in dilute acetic acid, from the soil from five plots on Broadbalk, and found that, after twenty-five years, there was more soluble P and K in the manured than in the unmanured soil (von Liebig, 1872). Dyer examined the soils from the Hoosfield Continuous Barley experiment (Dyer, 1894) and those from Broadbalk (Dyer, 1901, 1902). Using 1% citric acid and constant boiling HCl, he confrmed that manured soils had more soluble P and K than the unmanured soils. Subsequently many attempts made to estimate 'available' P and K in agricultural soils used soils from the Classical Experiments for reference. Because manuring of these Rothamsted soils has continued for so long, there are large differences in soluble P and K between those with and without residues and almost any 26

method of analysis will distinguish between them. The usefulness and limitations of some of the methods for P when used for Rothamsted and Woburn soils were discussed by Warren and Johnston (1965). The methods

TABLE 4

Analyses of soil from plots used for microplot experiments at Rothamsted and Woburn, 1957-62

All total P and K analyses were done on 0–6 in. samples: readily soluble P and K analyses on the Exhaustion Land Soils were on 0–6 in. samples: for Agdell and Woburn soils the samples were 0–9 in. depth. Total P by perchl

at present considered most suitable for soluble P and K were used to characterise the soils where these experiments were made, and Table 4 shows the results, together with those for total P and K for samples taken between 1950 and 1955.

The form of the experiments

Design. The design of the experiments, plot sizes and numbers had to be varied to fit the existing plot layout, allowing suitable headlands between the various crops for the necessary cultivations. This imposed considerable restrictions and all the experiments were made using microplots, which

meant that after the initial seedbed preparation many operations, including harvesting of all crops, were done by hand. From year to year and site to site, some changes were made but all plots of each crop received basal N at optimum rate for the crop, all plots testing P received basal K, and all plots testing K received basal P. These basal dressings were at least the largest amount tested for each crop in any year. P was tested at a unit amount of l2'5 lb P/acre, i.e. Pl, P2, P4 were l2'5, 25, 50lb P/acre. K was tested at a unit amount of 14 lb K/acre, i.e. K2, K4, K8 were 28, 56, 112 lb K/acre.

The Exhaustion Land 1957–58. Plan 1 (p. 32) shows the Exhaustion Land site and the plots (1, 3, 5, 7 and 9) used for the microplot experjment. The east half of the site was divided into 12 blocks each extending across the five plots. Only alternate blocks were cropped in 1957, those that were fallowed were cropped in 1958, so there was no cumulative effect in 1958 of fertiliser applied in 1957. Each year the six cropped blocks carried one of the six crops, barley, spring wheat, potatoes, swedes, kale or sugar beet. The old plots were paired so that No. I (unmanured), and No. 7 (NPK), tested new K with and without K residues, and No. $5(N)$, and No. $9(P)$, tested new P with and without P residues. Each block contained 20 microplots (each 0'0032 acre), four per plot to test four amounts of P or K applied as new fertiliser. In 1957 each microplot was made almost square because each group of four was arranged so that two were on the north and two on the south side of each large plot. The new treatments were assigned at random. There was a constant difference in yield between pairs of plots on the north and south sides of each old plot, probably related to a soil difference. In 1958 the four microplots of each group were arranged so that each one spanned the full width of the old plot, which had the added advantage that all microplots had the same number and positions of tractor wheelings. Individual tests with each crop were not replicated in either year. Table 5 shows the basal and test fertilisers, and diagram 1 (p. 33) the arrangement of the microplots in 1957 and 1958 on the eastern 6 cropping blocks.

TABLE 5

Basal and test fertilisers, Exhaustion Land, 1957-58

lb element/acre

For all crops basal P for K test was 50lb P.

For barley, spring wheat, swedes, basal K for P test was 56 lb K.

For potatoes, kale, sugar beet, basal K for P test was 112 lb K.

N as ammonium sulphate;¹ P as powdered superphosphate; K as potassium sulphate. I Applied as 67 lb N to seedbed and then 2 top dressings each of 67 lb N as 'Nitro-Chalk

For all crops except potatoes, the fertilisers were broadcast by hand and harrowed in just before drilling the seed. The potato land was set up in ridges 27 in. apart and the fertilisers applied along the bottoms of the furrows and half way up the sides of the ridges, before the potatoes were hand-planted 15 in. apart and the ridges split back to cover the sets. Yarieties used were: barley, Plumage Archer; spring wheat, Koga II; swedes, Wilhelmsburger; potato, Majestic; kale, Thousand Headed; sugar beet, Klein E.

Agdell 1959–62. Plan 2 (p. 34) shows the Agdell site and the division, made in 1958, of the six plots in the rotation experiment into grass and arable halves. The grass was sown in 1958, and the arable was fallowed before the microplot experiment was made during 1959-62. Because of the size of the site and to allow some replication, we decided to test only the value of the P residues for three crops on Agdell. In each year the amounts of new P were the same for all three test crops, barley, potatoes, sugar beet. Because the experiment was to be continued for several years and all crops were to be grown each year, the microplots had to be used more than once. Plan 2 also shows how each arable half plot was divided into three blocks, one for each crop, giving 18 blocks on the site. The blocks were separated by paths to prevent lateral movement of soil during ploughing and cultivating. The sequence of crops was barley, potatoes, sugar beet. In 1959, each block was divided into four subblocks each of three microplots, so that there were 4 replicates of each of the three treatments P0, Pl, P4. Each microplot was 0.0034 acre. The response curves derived from the 1959 yields suggested that maximum yield had not been reached and 75 lb P/acre (P6) was tested in 1960. This was done by halving each microplot, that with treatment P0 in 1959 tested P0 and P1 in 1960, P1 in 1959 tested P4 and P6 (the residual effect of P1 was assumed to be very small), and P4 in 1959 tested the residues of this dressing, P4r, and the residue plus the largest amount of new P, P4 $r + P6$. An unexpected feature of the 1960 results was how well the p4r treatment yielded. This treatment had P4 broadcast on the seedbed in spring 1959, it was ploughed-in in autumn 1959 and cropped without new P in 1960. This suggested that ploughing new fertiliser into this difficult soil could be more efficient than broadcasting it on the seedbed. We decided to test methods of incorporating new fertiliser in 196l-62, but the experiment had to be made on the blocks used in 1959-60. Those blocks on the old rotation plots l, 3, ⁵ were used in 1961 and those on the old plots 2, 4, 6, were used in 1962 after being fallowed in 1961. Each block was divided lengthways and the new microplots were made this width; the length was that of the sub-block used in 1959-60, so that there were now eight microplots (each 0.0050 acre) per block each with the same amount of residues from the 1959-60 test treatments. On these eight microplots tests were made of: (a) no new P (in duplicate), (b) 37.5 and 75 lb P ploughed in, (c) 37.5 and 75 lb P to the seedbed and (d) 75 and 150 lb P half of each dressing being ploughed in and the other half broadcast on the seedbed. Diagram $2(p. 35)$ shows the sequential arrangement of the microplots on one block.

The 1959-60 results showed that, on this impoverished soil, the amounts

of the basal fertiliser dressings, which were considered optimum in general practice, may be too little because the soil is so poor and the fertiliser could not be incorporated throughout the ploughed layer. Basal K dressings were therefore increased during the course of the experiment and we tried to incorporate them thoroughly into the soil by dividing the dressings, ploughing some in, applying some over the rough ploughed land and some to the seedbed. Table 6 shows the basal and test fertilisers.

TARLE₆

Basal and test fertilisers, Agdell, 1959-62

lb element/acre

N, 1959 ammonium sulphate; 1960–62 as compound 16-0-16 (16% N 16% K₂O).

P, 1959-60 powdered superphosphate; 1961-62 granular superphosphate.
K, 1959 potassium sulphate; 1960-62 as compound 16-0-16, to seedbed, 1961-62
autumn and spring extra basal K as potassium sulphate.

Ploughed in test and basal fertilisers were applied for 1961 on 5 December 1960 and for 1962 on 12 October 1961.

In 1959 and 1960 all the fertilisers for barley and sugar beet were applied by hand and harrowed in just before drilling the seed. For potatoes the land was set up in ridges and the fertilisers applied along the bottoms of the furrows and half way up the sides of the ridges. After the potatoes were hand-planted 15 in. apart in the rows, the ridges were split back to cover the sets. In 196l and 1962 when ploughing in P was tested and some basal K was ploughed in the fertilisers to be ploughed in were applied the previous autumn. For each crop the seedbed dressings were given in the spring as in 1959-60 except that the N and K for barley were given as a compound containing 16% N and 16% K₂O and this was broadcast from the combine seed drill as the seed was drilled (for experimental details see Widdowson et al. (1964)). Varieties used were barley, Proctor; potato, Majestic (chitted seed); sugar beet, Klein E.

Woburn Permanent Wheat and Barley Sites 1960–62. The microplot experiment was made on plots 7,8,9, lla, llb, on both sites. Plan 3 (p. 36) shows the positions of the plots in the field; for the microplot experiment all the plots 11a and 11b were considered as one 'plot' making seven plots in all.

The seven plots were divided into 4 blocks and cropped as follows from 1960 to 1962:

Thus block I continued the cropping as on the remainder of the Classical Sites and blocks II, III and IV were used for the microplot experiments. Each block has 112 microplots (each 0.00257 acre except those on plot 11 which were larger), sixteen per plot, of which eight tested P and eight K, so that both P and K were tested on each old plot. In 1960 of the eight microplots in each testing unit, four received no new test fertiliser so that fresh dressings could be tested in subsequent years, two tested the smaller and two the larger amount of new P or K.

The 1900 results, together with the experience gained on Agdell, suggested
the need to compare ploughed-in fertiliser with seedbed dressings, and this The 1960 results, together with the experience gained on Agdell, suggested comparison was made in 1961-62. For the barley and potato tests, the eight microplots on each testing unit were used as follows: of the four that were unmanured in 1960, two were not given new fertiliser, the other two tested the lesser amount of P or K either ploughed in or broadcast on the seedbed. The two microplots, which tested the lesser amount of P or K in 1960, in 196l-52 tested the largest amount, either ploughed in or to the seedbed, and the two microplots with the largest amount in 1960 were unmanured in 196l-62 to test the residual effects of the dressing. For barley, potatoes and sugar beet, new P was tested at 12.5 and 50 lb P/acre (P1 and P4). New K was tested at 14 and 54 lb K/acre for barley in all three years. For potatoes the amounts were 28 and 112 lb K/acre in 1960 and these were increased to 42 and 168 lb K/acre in 1961–62. Because sugar beet in both 1961 and 1962 were grown on new ground, three amounts of new K, 84, 168 and 336 lb $K/acre$ could be tested. Table 7 (p. 38) shows the basal and test fertilisers, and diagram 3 (p. 37) the arrangement of the microplots on one crop block on part of the Barley Site in 1960 and the subsequent use of the microplots in 1961.

continued on page 38

3l

PLAN 1. The Exhaustion Land showing the twelve blocks on plots 1, 3, 5, 7 and 9 during 1957–58 and the crops grown on each block each year.

DIAGRAM 1. The Exhaustion Land, 1957–58, showing the cropping and the arrangement of the microplots and P and K treatments on six of the twelve blocks. (P1, P2, P4: 12:5, 25, 50 lb fresh P/acre; K1, K2, K4, K8: 14, 28, 56,

 \mathbf{C}

PLAN 2. Agdell showing the halving of the six rotation plots into grass and arable made in 1958, and the division of each arable half into three blocks for the microplot experiment from 1959 to 1962.

Diagram 2.

DIAGRAM 2. Agdell, 1959–61, showing the cropping and the arrangement of the
P treatments on one crop strip in three successive years.
(P1, P3, P4, P6: 12.5, 37.5, 50, 75 lb fresh P/acre. 1960, P4r, residue of 50 lb P/acre

DIAGRAM 3 (opposite). Woburn, 1960–61, showing the cropping, the P and K treatments and the arrangement of the microplots on each plot, on a part of one block, in two

successive years.

Successive years.

(P1, P4: 12.5, 50 lb fresh P/acre; K1, K2, K4, K8: 14, 28, 56, 112 lb fresh K/acre; 1961, r, residue of the dressing applied in 1960; a, new dressing ploughed in; b, new dressing broad

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1960 Potatoes 1961 Barley

(see opposite page)

TABLE 7

Basal and test fertilisers, Woburn Permanent Wheat and Barley Sites, $1960 - 62$

lb element/acre

N as 'Nitro-Chalk'.

P as granular superphosphate.

K as potassium sulphate.

Basal P for all crops for the K test was 50 lb P/acre.

Basal K for the P test varied for each crop, barley 56 lb; potatoes 112 lb in 1960; 168 lb in 1961–62; sugar beet 336 lb.

In 1960 basal P and K was applied to seedbed; in 1961–62 it was ploughed in. Ploughed in test and basal fertilisers were applied in 1961 on 24 January and in 1962 on 26 January.

In 1960 all the fertilisers were broadcast by hand on the seedbed, immediately before drilling the barley and machine planting the potatoes except that the N for the barley was broadcast from the combine drill as on Agdell. In 1961 and 1962 when ploughed in and seedbed dressings were tested all the ploughed in test fertilisers and the basal P and K were ploughedin in January each year. The seedbed dressings and the nitrogen were applied by hand, just before drilling the barley and sugar beet and machine planting the potatoes, except that the N for the barley was applied as in 1959. Varieties: barley, 1960–61 Plumage Archer, 1962 Proctor; potato, Majestic (chitted seed); sugar beet, Klein E.

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The Value of Residues from Long-period Manuring at Rothamsted and Woburn IV. The Value to Arable Crops of Residues Accumulated from **Superphosphate**

A. E. JOHNSTON, R. G. WARREN and A. PENNY

The histories of the sites of these experiments, the form of the experiments and the crops grown, are described in paper III (page 22).

Yields

Cereals

Effect of seedbed dressings. Appendix Table 1 shows the yields of barley and spring wheat on the Exhaustion Land in 1957–58, of barley on Agdell in 1959-60 and at Woburn in 1960-62. On all but one site in one year the cereals responded to new P up to the maximum tested on starved soils without P residues; the exception was on the Wheat Site at Woburn in 1962 when, without new P fertiliser, this soil gave an anomalously large yield. On each site the response to new P was always greater in the wetter (total March-June rainfall) of the two years.

Table I shows that, at Rothamsted, yields of barley grain on starved soils without new P were small, 12 to 16 cwt/acre, and 50 lb/acre of new P increased them by ll to 12 cwt/acre. The experiments were made with Plumage Archer, which in the Classical Barley Experiment on Hoosfield in 1964–66 gave similar yields to Maris Badger on poor soils but smaller ones with full NPK manuring. Table 1 also shows that the responses to new P

TABLE 1

Effect of a new dressing of 50 lb P/acre on the yields of barley grown on soils with and without P residues at Rothamsted and Woburn, 1957-62

 1 New P at 50 lb P/acre applied broadcast to the seedbed.

were much smaller, only 3 to 4 cwt/acre, on Rothamsted soils containing residues of previous P manuring than on soils without residues. At Woburn, barley yielded more on the soils without residues, 17 to 25 cwt/acre, than at Rothamsted, and the responses to new P (1 to 3 cwt) were smaller.

Table 2 shows the yields on starved and enriched soils without new P: residues increased yields of barley grain by 9 to 15 cwt/acre at Rothamsted and 5 to 7 cwt at Woburn.

TABLE 2

Effect of P residues in the soil on the yields of cereals given no new P at Rothamsted and Woburn, 1957-62

Grain, cwt/acre

Some of the soils with residues behaved atypically. Because it is not yet possible to explain the low yields or lack of response to new fertiliser, the yields are given only in the Appendix Tables. On Agdell plots 1 and 2 and on both plots 8, but especially on the Wheat Site at Woburn, yields of cereals were smaller than on the other enriched soils and there was no response to new P. All these plots became very acid before 1920 and liming just before the microplot experiments were made did not restore their productivity. Warren and Johnston (1962) discussed the poor yields of barley in 1961 on plot 1 on Agdell when, on microplots not given a fresh dressing of P, the young plants became very yellow; similar young barley plants on Rothamsted Farm were diagnosed deficient in N and/or K. Though these yellow plants on Agdell contained less N and K than green plants they also contained very much less P than the green plants on microplots given a fresh dressing of P; the poor physical condition of the soil after the very wet winter slowed the growth of roots of the vellowed plants and prevented them from getting enough P from the residues. Thus, on a poor seedbed, barley may need a fresh dressing of phosphate when the soil contains only a moderate amount of soluble P. At Woburn there were no obvious differences in the condition of the seedbeds on the various plots and each year barley made good early growth. In 1962, sugar beet on plot 8 on the Wheat Site showed signs of magnesium deficiency, as did cereals in 1967 in a new experiment on this site. In a test of Mg in 1968, Bolton (1969) showed that giving Mg increased $\%$ Mg in wheat plants in May, but it increased grain yield too little to explain the small barley yields on plot 8. 40

However the small yields of potatoes on the Wheat Site at Woburn may have been caused by Mg deficiency, though the leaves of the plants showed no symptoms.

Fig. 1 shows the response curves to new P on both starved and enriched soils. Only on the Exhaustion Land can the P residues be valued in terms of

TABLE 3

Effect of new broadcast dressings of P and a new residue of P on barley, Agdell, 1960

Grain, cwt/acre

a fresh broadcast dressing of P having the same effect on yield, for barley this was 30 lb P, for spring wheat 12 lb P. On the other three sites yields on the enriched soils without new P were larger than on starved soils with new P. In the first year of the Agdell experiment enriched soils without new P

TABLE 4

Effect of new P, ploughed in or broadcast on the seedbed, on barley vields at Rothamsted and Woburn, 1961-62

Grain, cwt/acre

Rothamsted

gave such larger yields than starved soils with new P, that the experiment was modified in 1960 to test 75 lb of new P/acre and the residues of the 5O lb P/acre applied in 1959. Even with 75 lb P/acre, yields did not equal those on enriched soil without new P (Table 3); on the starved soil in 1960 the residue of the 50 lb P/acre applied in 1959 yielded as well as the same dressing newly applied and this residue also enhanced the effect of the new 75 lb/acre P.

Comparison of ploughed-in and seedbed dressings for barley. Because there was this large effect of the ploughed-in residue of a single dressing of P fertiliser, ploughed in and seedbed dressings of P fertilisers were compared on Agdell and at Woburn in 1961 and 1962. Table 4 shows that on Agdell there was a maximum yield of 33 to 34 cwt grain on the enriched soil and this was only approached (32 cwt grain) on the starved soil with a combined dressing of 75 lb P ploughed in plus 75 lb P to the seedbed. At Woburn on the Wheat Site, maximum yield of 3l to 32 cwt grain on the enriched soil was only equalled on the starved soil by ploughing in 50 lb P (the largest amount tested); on the Barley Site, 26 to 28 cwt of grain was obtained with residues and again this was only equalled on soils without residues by ploughing in 50 lb of fresh P.

Potatoes

Effect of seedbed dressings. Often when FYM was given to potatoes the soil was drawn into ridges and the manure was put in the furrows before setting the potatoes. The ridges were then split back to make new ridges over the potato sets. Cooke (1949) showed that, when potatoes were planted this way, fertilisers could be applied by various techniques that allow some degree of fertiliser placement. In our experiments, the fertiliser was put in the bottoms of the furrows before planting (Cooke, 1949, Method C), this was done on the Exhaustion Land and Agdell where the potatoes were set by hand, but at Woburn the potatoes had to be machine planted and so the fertilisers were applied on the flat seedbed immediately before planting, which distributed the fertiliser through the ridge as in Method A. Appendix Table 2 shows the yields on the Exhaustion Land in 1957-58, on Agdell in 1959-60, and at Woburn in 1960-62.

Potatoes on all sites and in all years on soils with and without P residues responded to new P up to the largest amount tested. Table 5 shows that at Rothamsted where the yields on starved soils were small (5 tons/acre) the responses to 50 lb new P/acre were between 5 and 8 tons. The enriched soils on Agdell produced 12 tons/acre but those on the Exhaustion Land only 8 tons/acre. On these enriched soils responses to new P were smaller than on the starved soils. At Woburn yields on the staryed soils (14 tons/acre) were larger than at Rothamsted but the responses to new P on both starved and enriched soils were small (about I ton/acre).

Table 6 shows the yields with and without P residues when new P was not given and the large yields with the residues. Fig. 2 gives the response curves to new P.

On the Exhaustion Land the residues could be valued in terms of a new dressing of P; for the potatoes this was no more than 5 lb P/acre. On the

TABLE 5

Effect of a new dressing of 50 lb P/acre on the yield of potatoes grown on soils with and without P residues at Rothamsted and Woburn, 1957-62

Tubers, tons/acre

¹ New P at 50 lb P/acre given along the bottoms of the furrows before hand planting on the Exhaustion Land and Agdell, on the flat seedbed before machine planting at Woburn.

TABLE 6

Effect of P residues in the soil on the yields of potatoes given no new P at Rothamsted and Woburn, 1957-62

Tubers, tons/acre

TABLE 7

Effect of new broadcast dressings of P and a new residue of P on potatoes, Agdell, 1960

other three sites yields on enriched soils without new P were more than on starved soils with new P, except at Woburn where the residues on the Barley Site could be valued at 50 lb new P/acre.

(With \bullet and without \circ P residues.)

When the Agdell experiment was modified in 1960, P was tested at 75 lb P/acre for potatoes. As Table 7 shows, on the enriched soils this did not further increase the yield, and on the starved soil, though I ton/acre more potatoes was obtained by increasing P from 50 lb to 75 lb, the yield was still less than on enriched soil without a new dressing of P. Table 7 also shows that, in 1960, on the starved soil the residues of the previous year's dressing of 50 lb P gave an extra 4 tons/acre of potatoes; even more interesting was that these one-year-old residues, together with the new dressing of 75lbPlacre, gave more potatoes that would have been suggested by extrapolating the response curve to new dressings in that year. In 1960 on soils with residues potatoes gave a small response to the residue of 50 lb P applied in 1959 only when new P was not given.

Further evidence that single dressings of new fertiliser can have large residual effects on very impoverished soils but inconsistent effects on richer soils came from the yields of potatoes on Agdell. In 1961–62 on the starved soil without new P the yield of 7.8 tons/acre (Table 8) was 3 tons more than on the same plots in 1959–60 (Table 5). On the enriched soils of plots 3 and 4, the yields were the same in $1959-60$ and $1961-62$ (12 \cdot 2 and 11 \cdot 9 tons respectively). The 196l-62 microplots were superimposed on those of 1959-60 which had received some fertiliser P and the residue ofthis dressing increased the yield on the starved soil but not on the enriched soil.

TABLE 8

Effect of new P, ploughed in or broadcast on the seedbed, on potatoes at Rothamsted and Woburn, 1961-62

Tubers, tons/acre

Rothamsted

Comparison of ploughed-in and seedbed dressings. Ploughed-in and seedbed-dressings of fertilisers for potatoes were compared on Agdell and at Woburn (Table 8), but neither method of application was consistently superior. On the starved soil on Agdell, even a new dressing of 150 lb P/acre did not give the same yield as the enriched soil without new P, but at Woburn ploughing in 50 lb P/acre on the starved soil gave the same yield as the enriched soil without new P. However, on both sites a new dressing of P on the enriched soil gave a larger yield than the same amount of new P on the starved soil, except when the new P was ploughed in on the Wheat Site at Woburn.

Sugar beet

Effect of seedbed dressings. Sugar beet, which were grown on the Exhaustion Land and Agdell in the same years as the other crops, were grown at Woburn only in one year on each site. Appendix Table 3 gives the yields on the Exhaustion Land, 1957-58; on Agdell 1959-60; ar Woburn 196l-62. Table 9 shows that, on the starved soils at Rothamsted, sugar

TABLE 9

Effect of a new dressing of 50 lb P/acre on the yield of sugar from beet grown on soils with and without P residues at Rothamsted and Woburn, 1957-62

Sugar, cwt/acre

¹ New P at 50 lb/acre broadcast on the seedbed.

yields were increased from 31 to 46 cwt/acre on the Exhaustion Land and from 27 to 38 cwt on Agdell by a dressing of 50 lb P/acre. However, much of this increase was given by a new dressing of 25 lb P/acre. On the enriched soils, the response to new P was only 2-4 cwt sugar/acre. At Woburn the sugar-beet experiment was the most disappointing in the series. Beet was grown only for one year on each site, whereas for the other crops on each site there are averages of two results. Responses to new P were small and variable, but did not exceed 3.0 cwt sugar/acre on either the starved or enriched soils.

Table l0 shows the yields at Rothamsted without any new p, and the large increases in yield from the residues of P on the enriched soils. At Woburn, on the Barley Site, yield on starved soil (30 cwt/acre) was similar to

that on the starved soils at Rothamsted and the residues in the enriched soil gave an extra 11 cwt sugar. On the Wheat Site in 1962, yields on both soils were much larger (50 cwt/acre) and the P residues gave no extra yield.

TABLE IO

Effect of P residues in the soil on the yield of sugar when no new P was given at Rothamsted and Woburn, 1957-62

Fig. 3 gives the response curves of sugar beet to new P on both starved and enriched soils at Rothamsted. The residues on the Exhaustion Land were equivalent to a new dressing of about 25 lb P/acre. On Agdell, taking the mean of the two years, the residues were worth much more than any new dressing of P tested, largely because of the large yield given by the residues in the first year, 1959. Table ll shows that, in the second year,

FIG. 3. Effect of P residues and new P on the average yield per acre of sugar, Rothamsted, 1957-60.

(With \bullet and without \circ P residues.)

TABLE 11

Effect of new broadcast dressings of P and a new residue of P on sugar yields, Agdell, 1960

Sugar, cwt/acre

1960, when more new P was applied to the seedbed than in 1959, vields on starved and enriched soils were the same with 75 lb P/acre. From the response curves in Fig. 3a, the residue was valued at 50 lb new P.

Comparison of ploughed-in and seedbed dressings. The soils of Agdell are difficult to cultivate and often form a cloddy structure not easily penetrated by roots. The comparison of ploughed-in and seedbed dressings of fertilisers in 1961-62 showed that these soils yield more reliably when they contain residues. Table 12 shows that, for each treatment, the yield on the enriched soil was 8 to 13 cwt sugar/acre more than on the starved soils. The yields in Table 12 also indicate that the deep-rooting sugar beet responded more to ploughed in than to seedbed dressings of P. At Woburn, where the same comparison was made in the same years, yields varied too much to differentiate between ploughed in and seedbed dressings of P.

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TABLE 12

Effect of new P, ploughed in or broadcast on the seedbed, on sugar vields at Rothamsted, 1961-62

Sugar, cwt/acre

Agdell, mean 1961-62

	P given lb/acre	with P residues	Plots 3 and 4 Plots 5 and 6 noP residues
Ω		64.5	54.7
37.5	seedbed	63.8	$55 - 5$
75	seedbed	67.6	60.2
$37 - 5$	ploughed in	$75 - 2$	$64 - 4$
75	ploughed in	$71 - 8$	$58 - 3$
37.5 $+37.5$	ploughed in seedbed	74.8	61.8
75 75	ploughed in seedbed	$78 - 4$	$65 - 4$

Swedes and kale

Effect of seedbed dressings. These two crops were only grown in two years, 1957-58, and on one site, the Exhaustion Land. Appendix Table 4 shows yields of both crops were larger in 1958, the wetter of the years.

On the starved soil, swedes responded well $(5.6 \text{ tons}/\text{acre})$ to the smallest amount of new P added (12'5 lb P/acre) and gave further increases of l'9 and 1.8 tons from the next two amounts of P given. Kale behaved differently; it responded well (4'4 tons) to the smallest amount of P but only little more to further P. Table 13 shows that P residues increased yield of

TABLE 13

Effect of P residues in the soil on the yield of swedes and kale when no new P was given at Rothamsted on the Exhaustion Land, 1957-58

both crops greatly, by 7.0 tons of swede roots and 4'4 tons of kale. On these enriched soils, the response to new P was much smaller than on the starved soils.

Fig. 4 shows that, with the largest amount of new P tested, the yield of swedes was the same on both starved and enriched soils but the largest amount of new P on the enriched soil gave l'3 tons more kale than any other treatment. The response curves (Fig. 4) valued the residues as worth 20lb broadcast new P for swedes and 15 lb P for kale.

FIG. 4. Effect of P residues and new P on the average yield per acre of swede roots and kale, Rothamsted, 1957-58.

(With \bullet without \circ P residues.)

Discussion of the phosphorus tests

Table 14 shows the increases in yield of all crops from 50 lb P/acre applied as a broadcast dressing of superphosphate on all sites, excluding the poor yields on those Classical plots where previous treatment made the soils acid. At Rothamsted all crops on starved soil responded to new P very much more than on the enriched soils. On the Exhaustion Land, barley, spring wheat, potatoes and swedes yielded similarly on both starved and enriched soils when given a new dressing of 50lb P/acre. Sugar beet and kale yielded rather more on soil with residues than on soil without. On the starved Agdell soils, none of the three crops, barley, potatoes and sugar beet, yielded as much when given 50 lb/acre new P as on the enriched soil without new P. At Woburn all crops, except for one test with sugar beet, responded to new P, though the responses were small, and were nearly the same on soils with and without residues. This was unexpected with potatoes, but this crop yielded very well at Woburn with all treatments.

At Rothamsted, residues did not lessen the responses to new P by potatoes as much as with other crops, and the response curves for potatoes were steeper than for other crops. This difference may mean that potatoes are less able than other crops to use phosphorus in the soil because the roots do not'search'the soil mass so thoroughly, or it may be because the new P was placed in the furrows, under the seed tubers, whereas for the other crops it was broadcast and harrowed in about 2 in. deep.

At Woburn, potatoes without new P yielded very much more than at Rothamsted, suggesting that the roots were able to remove more nutrients from this light soil than from the heavy soil at Rothamsted. Smaller respon-

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TABLE 14

ses to new P at Woburn may have been because the new P was applied on the flat before the sets were machine planted.

When valued by the difference in yield between soils with and without residues, obtained with crops given enough N and K, the residues of old P dressings have considerable value at both Rothamsted and Woburn. Table 15 summarises these increases in yield of all crops on all sites. When

TABLE 15

Effect of old residues of fertiliser P dressings at Rothamsted and Woburn, 1957-62

Yield/acre

the extra yield is expressed as a percentage of the yield on the corresponding starved soil, the yield increases for all crops were between 18 and 65% on the Exhaustion Land and 70 and 150 $\%$ on Agdell. At Woburn they were less, 2 to 40% .

Table 16 shows the value of the P residues in terms of an equivalent dressing of new P fertiliser, estimated from response curves to new P on starved soil; this could be done only for the residues on the Exhaustion Land. The range of amounts, 5 to 30 lb, is large, so though the residues must be the same chemically, they do not have one general value, but their value depends on the crop grown.

These results show the need for experiments on different soils. In the first experiments on the Exhaustion Land, yields of four of the six crops tested were the same on starved and enriched soils when the largest amount of new P was given. Therefore, given basal N and K, there was no diflerence between the two soils other than the amount of available P and this difference could be removed by applying 50 lb of fresh P/acre as superphosphate. In the second experiment, made on Agdell in 1959-60, the yields on

TABLE 16

Value of fertiliser P residues expressed as broadcast dressing of P having the same effect on yield, the Exhaustion Land, Rothamsted, 1957-58

enriched soils without new P were larger than on starved soils with new P. This was true even when, in the second of the years, the largest amount of new P applied broadcast was increased to 75 lb P/acre. The results on the lighter soil at Woburn in l96G-62 were similar to those on Agdell.

Yields on the starved soils on Agdell could not be increased to those on enriched soils, even by ploughing in fertiliser P, but applying new P fertiliser this way gave larger yields than applying it to the seedbed. Analysis of soil samples, taken 9 in. deep, during early summer, showed that less of the ploughed in P had remained readily soluble, but because it was deeper it increased yield more than seedbed dressings. On some soils, therefore, P residues can give better yields than fertiliser P freshly applied at the rates and in ways usually recommended.

A third important result was that often all amounts of newly applied P fertiliser tested gave larger yields on soil enriched with residues than on starved soil.

Phosphorus concentration in the crops

Tables 17, 18 and 19 give the percentages of phosphorus in the dry matter of the crops grown in these experiments.

Cereals. The phosphorus concentration in the dry matter of cereals (Table 17) was smallest for those grown on Agdell where the new P gave the largest increase in yield. At Rothamsted, though new P fertiliser gave larger yields, it did not increase the P concentration in the grain. This contrasted strikingly with the effect of the residues, which consistently increased the concentration of P in the grain. Without new P, there was 0.24 to 0.29% P in grain grown on the starved soils and from 0.27 to 0.35% P on the enriched soils. Where dressings of new P are given annually on the Hoosfield Continuous Barley plots, the soil has much larger residues than those of these microplot experiments and the barley grain contains from 0.37 to 0.41% P, supporting the view that P distributed through the cultivated soil layer is more accessible to the plant than new broadcast dressings. Residues had little effect on $\frac{9}{6}$ P in straw, whether or not new P was given. There was little difference between seedbed dressings and ploughed in new P on the $\frac{9}{6}$ P in the grain.

Potatoes. On the Exhaustion Land and Agdell, where both residues and new P dressings gave large increases in yields of potatoes, the residues 54

https://doi.org/10.23637/ERADOC-1-4

Effect of P residues and new P on the percentage of P in grain and straw of cereals grown at Rothamsted and Woburn, 1957-62

 $\frac{9}{6}$ P in dry matter

Rothamsted

55

VALUE OF RESIDUES FROM SUPERPHOSPHATE

increased P concentration in tuber dry matter more than did the newly applied P (Table 18). Residues increased $\frac{9}{6}$ P by 15 to 30 $\frac{9}{6}$, about the same as for cereals. At Woburn, where yields without P residues were large and where both residues and newly applied P gave only small increases in yield, there was no big change in the $\frac{9}{6}$ P in dry matter.

Swedes, sugar beet, kale. Table 19 shows only the analyses of those crops grown on the Exhaustion Land. Without new P, $\frac{9}{6}$ P in the crops on enriched soil was 40 to 100 $\frac{\%}{\%}$ more than on starved soil, a much larger increase than with cereals or potatoes. New P increased $\frac{9}{6}$ P in the crops on starved soils to the concentrations in plants grown on enriched soil without new P, a result not achieved with cereals and potatoes. New P had much smaller effects with residues than without.

TABLE 19

Effect of P residues and new P on the percentage of P in sugar beet, swedes and kale grown on the Exhaustion Land, Rothamsted, 1957-58

Phosphorus content of the crops

Tables 20 to 23 show the uptakes of phosphorus by the harvested parts of the crops grown.

Cereals. Without new P, uptake of P by the whole crop from starved soils ranged from 4 to 6 lb P/acre at Rothamsted and 7 to 9 lb P at Woburn (Table 20). On enriched soils 8 to 10 lb P was taken up at Rothamsted and 9 to 11 lb P at Woburn, so the residues provided 3 to 6 lb P at Rothamsted and 1 to 2 lb P at Woburn. With new P, uptakes on the Exhaustion Land were much the same from starved and enriched soils, 9 to 11 lb P, but on Agdell and at Woburn the presence of residues increased the uptake of P because yield was increased by residues on these sites but not on the Exhaustion Land.

Potatoes. The tubers of the potato crop from the starved soil on the Exhaustion Land and on Agdell 1959–60, contained only 3 lb P/acre (Table 21). On Agdell in 1961–62 the uptake was larger, 5.6 lb P, probably

TABLE 20

lb P/acre/year

Agdell

58

 $\frac{1}{0.1}$

ROTHAMSTED REPORT FOR 1969, PART 2

 7.5
 -8.3

 0.0000

https://doi.org/10.23637/ERADOC-1-4

because these microplots were superimposed on those of 1959–60, some of which had received P. From the old residues intimately mixed with the soil, the potatoes extracted at least twice as much P. At Woburn the potatoes could get more than three times as much P from the starved soil as from the starved soils at Rothamsted, especially in the wet year of 1960. However, much less extra P was taken up from the residues at Woburn. With new P, uptake of P increased because yield increased.

TABLE 21

Effect of P residues and new P on the amount of P in potato tubers grown at Rothamsted and Woburn, 1957-62

Ib P/acre/vear

Rothamsted Agdell Exhaustion Land mean Mean Mean 1961 & 1962 $1957 &$ 1959 & 1958 P in 1960 P in P_{to} \overline{P} furrows furrows seedbed ploughed in No new P given to soil with No residues 2.8 3.0 5.6 5.6 P residues 6.0 9.5 9.2 9.2 Effect of P residues 6.5 3.2 3.6 3.6 New P given $(50 \text{ lb } P/\text{acre})$ ¹ to soil with No residues 9.0 $7 - 2$ 7.0 8.0 P residues 9.6 12.5 $10-3$ 12.7 Effect of residues 0.6 $\overline{5}\cdot\overline{3}$ 2.3 Effect of new P $(50 \text{ lb } P/\text{acre})^1$ in the Absence of residues 6.2 4.2 $1 - 4$ 2.4 Presence of residues 3.6 $3-0$ 3.5 $1 \cdot 1$

Woburn

¹ 75 lb P/acre Agdell 1961-62.

Sugar beet. Sugar beet took up about the same total P from both the starved soils of the Exhaustion Land and of Agdell during the first period in

Effect of P residues and new P on the amount of P in sugar beet grown at Rothamsted and Woburn, 1957-62

ROTHAMSTED REPORT FOR 1969, PART 2

 $2.3 - 3$

 1.4

 0.6

 4.3

 $\frac{8.0}{9.1}$

 -3.7

 -0.3

 -0.1

 -0.2

 3.3

 0.7

 2.6

Effect of new P (50 lb P/acre) in the Absence of residues Presence of residues

both experiments, and the extra uptake from the residues was 7.5 lb P/acre (Table 22). During the second period on Agdell, 1961–62, uptakes from the starved soils were twice as much as in 1959-60, but the extra uptake from the old residues $(9.71b P/acre)$ was only a little greater, so the plants must have taken up either much more native soil P or extra P from the residues of the dressings given in 1959-60. The residues at Woburn supplied much less P (2 to 4 lb/acre) for sugar beet than the residues at Rothamsted. With new P, the crop still took up the same amount of extra P from the residues at Woburn and on Agdell as it did without new P, but not on the Exhaustion Land where, with new P, the uptake from the residues was much less.

Kale and swedes. Table 23 shows the uptakes by both crops from the Exhaustion Land in 1957–58. Kale took up much the same amount of P as sugar beet, except on the enriched soil with new P, where it took up more. With new P, the increase in yield between starved and enriched soils was small, 1 ton/acre increase in 20 tons/acre, and some of the extra uptake from the enriched soil with new P was probably 'luxury' (without a commensurate increase in yield). Swedes took up about 4 lb/acre P from starved soil without new P, about the same amount as potatoes. However, in contrast to potatoes, the swedes took up very much more P from the enriched soil, 16 lb compared to 6 lb by potato tubers.

TABLE 23

Effect of P residues and new P on the amount of P in kale and swedes grown on the Exhaustion Land, Rothamsted, 1957-58

lb P/acre/year

Summary of the effects of P residues and new dressings of P fertiliser on P uptake

On any one site, different crops can be compared to see how much P they take up in the presence and absence ofresidues. From the starved soil without new P on the Exhaustion Land, of the six crops grown, potatoes (3 lb P/acre, possibly 4 lb if tops are included) extracted least P, and kale and

6l

sugar beet extracted 2+ to 3 times as much. Swedes took up only little more than potatoes, and cereals were intermediate between potatoes and kale. Although the swedes got only a small amount of P from the starved soil, they extracted as much extra P as kale from the soils with residues, swedes, 11 lb P, kale, 10 lb. Sugar beet, which were in the ground longer than swedes, were less efficient than swedes or kale at taking up P from the residues; they took up only 7.5 lb P, but this was twice as much as that taken up by cereals or potatoes. The relative ability to obtain P from starved soils was confirmed for the three crops grown on Agdell and at Woburn. On both these sites, as on the Exhaustion Land, sugar beet took up more P from the residues that did potatoes, which took up the same amount as barley. Thus on the three sites each crop behaved in the same way relatiye to the others. These residues, because of their age, must have been intimately mixed with the soil and, on any one site, had the same solubility. That different crops take up different amounts of P is presumably related to the ability of their roots to search the soil mass for nutrients and to the length of time they grow. However, there may also be physiological differences that affect the ability of different crops to absorb phosphorus from the soil.

When new P was applied more of this was taken up from starved soils than from enriched soils, except in three tests with potatoes, two at Woburn and one on Agdell. The apparent percentage recoveries, defined as

extra uptake from added P $\times 100$,

of the freshly added P are small, and only 7 of the 54 values exceeded 10% . Only on the Exhaustion Land, when yields were the same, was the same total P removed from the starved and enriched soils when new P was given. Otherwise the greater yield on soil with residues and new P was always accompanied by the crop taking up more P.

Summary

In these experiments made to yalue accumulated residues from many dressings of P fertilisers, all crops gave larger yields on enriched soils than on starved soils when new P fertiliser was not given but fresh N and K were.

In the first experiment, on the Exhaustion Land at Rothamsted, four crops (barley, spring wheat, potatoes and swedes) of the six tested gave the same yield on the starved and enriched soils when new P was given and the other two crops (sugar beet and kale) gave almost the sameyield. The cereals and potatoes recovered less than 0.5% and the other crops less than 1% per year of the total amount ofP applied between 1856 and 1901. These results on the Exhaustion Land would not have justified a policy of deliberately building up residues in soil instead of giving new P each year when needed. However, on Agdell and at Woburn, new P failed to give as large yields of any of the three crops tested on previously starved as on enriched soils. Again the recovery of P from the residues was very small.

Larger yields were always associated with the uptake of more P. Thus, if the crop has to rely on newly apptied P, this must be placed where the roots can take it up. Residues, which have been in the soil a long time, are 62

intimately mixed with the soil, so the growing roots can get P from anywhere in the cultivated layer. Thus the plant is not prevented from obtaining enough P by poor mixing of a fresh dressing, or poor soil structure resisting root growth to a limited volume of soil-

.
... P residues are probably now accumulating in many well fertilised'soils, but how many soils in this country would behave as those on the Exhaustion Land and those on Agdell and at Wobum is not known. More experiments are needed to set limits, on each type of soil, to which P residues must be accumulated before different crops do not respond to new P on enriched soils.

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New P

APPENDIX TABLE 2

Yields of potatoes grown on the Exhaustion Land and Agdell at Rothamsted and on the Wheat and Barley Sites at Woburn, 1957-62

Tubers, tons/acre

¹ In the furrows before hand planting at Rothamsted, over the flat seedbed before machine planting at Woburn.

APPENDIX TABLE 3

Yields of sugar from beet grown on the Exhaustion Land and Agdell at Rothamsted and the Wheat and Barley Sites at Woburn, 1957-62

APPENDIX TABLE 4

Yields of swedes and kale grown on the Exhaustion Land at Rothamsted, $1957 - 58$

The Value of Residues from Long-period Manuring at Rothamsted and Woburn V. The Value to Arable Crops of Residues Accumulated from Potassium Fertilisers

A. E. JOHNSTON, R. G. WARREN and A. PENNY

These experiments were made on the Exhaustion Land at Rothamsted during 1957-58 and at Woburn on the Permanent Wheat and Barley Sites during $1960-62$. Paper III (page 22) gives the histories of the sites and the experimental details, including amounts of K tested and basal N and ^P fertilisers. For the reasons given in the fourth paper (page 40), the yields of crops grown on both plots 8 at Woburn are given only in the Appendix Tables.

Vields

Cereals. Appendix Table I shows the yields of barley and spring wheat on the Exhaustion Land during 1957-58, and of barley at Woburn during 1960–62. New K increased grain yields by 1.4 to 2.5 cwt/acre on the starved soils but did not aflect yield on the enriched soils (Table l). There were also small increases in straw yields when new K was given.

TABLE 1

Effect of a new dressing of 56 lb K/acre on the yield of barley grown on soils with and without K residues at Rothamsted and Woburn, 1957-62

Grain, care and care and

 1 New K at 56 lb K/acre applied broadcast to the seedbed.

Table 2 shows the yields on starved and enriched soils without new K. Residues slightly increased the yield of barley at Rothamsted and on the Barley Site at Woburn, but barley on the Wheat Site at Woburn and spring wheat on the Exhaustion Land yielded slightly less with than without residues.

TABLE 2

Effect of K residues in the soil on the yields of cereals given no new K at Rothamsted and Woburn, 1957-62

Grain, cwt/acre

The response curves to new K on both starved and enriched soils show the residues cannot be valued in terms of a new dressing of K, because the responses to new K fertiliser were too small and the yields on starved and enriched soils were too variable (Fig. 1).

Ploughed in and seedbed applications of new K fertiliser were compared in the experiments at Woburn in 1961–62. Yields (Table 3) show that the method of applying the new K had little effect.

TABLE 3

Effect of new K, ploughed in or broadcast on the seedbed, on barley vields at Woburn, 1961-62

Grain, cwt/acre

¹ No yield recorded because of extensive bird damage.

Potatoes. New K fertiliser was applied in different ways on the two sites. On the Exhaustion Land it was placed in the bottom of the furrows before the potatoes were set by hand, at Woburn it was either ploughed in or applied to the flat seedbed before the chitted seed was planted by machine. Appendix Table 2 shows the yields on the Exhaustion Land and at Woburn.

Table 4 shows that on both starved *and* enriched soils at Rothamsted and Woburn potatoes responded to new K at the largest amount tested, a striking contrast to the lack of response to K by cereals. Potatoes on the Exhaustion Land responded less to K than to P, but at Woburn the response to K was much larger than to P. On the starved soil at Rothamsted, the 70

VALUE OF RESIDUES FROM POTASSIUM FERTILISERS

(With \bullet and without \circ K residues.)

TABLE 4

Effect of a new dressing of 112 lb K/acre on the yield of potatoes grown on soils with and without K residues at Rothamsted and Woburn, 1957-62

¹ New K at 112 lb K/acre given along the bottoms of the furrows before hand planting on the Exhaustion Land, on the flat seedbed before machine planting at Woburn.
yield was only 6.8 tons/acre and giving 112 lb K increased it by 5.6 tons. A Woburn, yield on the starved soil was double that at Rothamsted, ll.9 tons/acre on the Wheat Site, l4-3 tons/acre on the Barley Site, but the increases in yield from ll2 lb of new K were about the same as at Rothamsted, on the Wheat Site 5.1 tons and less on the Barley Site, 3.9 tons.

Table 5 shows the yields on starved and enriched soils without new K. The residues gave large increases in yield, about three-quarters of the extra yield given by the fresh dressing of 112 lb K to the starved soil.

TABLE 5

Effect of K residues in the soil on the yields of potatoes given no new K at Rothamsted and Woburn, 1957-62

Tubers, tons/acre

Fig. 2 gives the response curves to new K on starved and enriched soils. On both the Exhaustion Land and at Woburn the residues can be valued in terms of a new broadcast dressing of K having the same effect on yield. The residues were worth:

Both on the Wheat Site at Wobum and on the Exhaustion Land, the response curves did not show a maximum and, with any amount of new K tested, yield on the enriched soil always exceeded that on the starved soil.

When ploughed in and seedbed dressings of fertiliser were compared at Woburn in 1961–62, the amount of new K applied was increased to see whether this would decrease the difference between the yield on soils with and without residues. Table 6 shows the yietds with 42 and 168 lb K, but unfortunately one of the two plots without new K on plot 9 on the Wheat Site yielded very badly. On the starved soil on both sites, only the largest amount of new K ploughed in increased yield to equal that on the enriched soil without new K. However, giving new K to the enriched soils increased yield still further.

Sugar beet. This crop was grown on the Exhaustion Land in 1957–58, at Woburn on the Barley Site in 196l and on the Wheat Site in 1962. Table ⁷ shows the yields of sugar on the Exhaustion Land with new K broadcast on the seedbed and Table 8 yields at Woburn when seedbed dressings and 72

VALUE OF RESIDUES FROM POTASSIUM FERTILISERS

(With \bullet and without \circ K residues.)

VALUE OF RESIDUES FROM POTASSIUM FERTILISERS

TABLE 6

Effect of new K, ploughed in or broadcast on the seedbed, on potato yields at Woburn, 1961-62

Tubers, tons/acre

TABLE 7

Effect of new broadcast dressings of K on the yields of sugar from beet grown on soils with and without K residues on the Exhaustion Land, Rothamsted, $1957 - 58$

TABLE 8

Effect of new K, ploughed in or broadcast on the seedbed, on sugar yields at Woburn, 1961-62

		Sugar, cwt/acre		
K given lb/acre	Wheat Site 1962		Barley Site 1961	
	Plot 9 with K residues	Plot ₇ no _K residues	Plot ₉ with K residues	Plot ₇ no _K residues
To seedbed				
$\bf{0}$ 84 168 336	42.0 42.5 59.7 48.8	31.6 41.9 46.2 50.8	31.4 $35 - 2$ 39.6 43.7	25.5 29.7 39.3 41.8
Ploughed in				
$\bf{0}$ 84 168 336	45.5 43.2 $50-2$ 45.3	$38 - 0$ 40.9 43.7 52.5	$29 - 1$ 42.0 36.6 43.6	18.2 $34 \cdot 1$ $33 - 1$ 33.0

ploughed-in new K were tested in amounts up to 336 lb K/acre. On the Exhaustion Land beet yielded less in 1957 than in 1958, partly because of a severe attack by virus yellows. On the starved soil in 1957 the position of the microplots within the old Classical Experiment plot had a larger effect on yield than the new drcssings of K. The microplots dressed with 28 and I 12 lb/acre of new K, which were on the south side of the plot, gave a smaller mean yield than the other pair on the north, which had 0 and 56lb new K. However, in 1958, yields were more consistent because the arangement of the microplots was improved, and on the starved soil new K increased yield by 12 cwt of sugar/acre. On the enriched soil there was no response to new K.

Table 7 also shows that, without new K the effect of the residues was to increase sugar yield by l0 cwt/acre on the Exhaustion Land. At Woburn the residues increased yield by between 5 and l0 cwt/acre without new K (Table 8). The yield of sugar was the same on starved and enriched soils with new K at the largest amount tested. The residues on the Exhaustion Land could not be valued in terms of a new dressing of K (Fig. 3), but at Woburn they were worth between 75 and 85 lb of fresh K/acre.

TABLE 9

Effect of new broadcast dressings of K on the yields of swedes and kale grown on soils with and without K residues on the Exhaustion Land, Rothamsted, 1957-58

tons/acre Classical Experiment K given plot lb/acre 1957 1958 Mean Response Swede roots 1 no K residues $\frac{10 \cdot 7}{11 \cdot 9}$
11.8 19.4 15.0 Ω 21.9 1.9 14 16.9 2a 20-9 16.4 1.4 56 20.6 11.5 16.0 1.0 7 with K residues Ω 12.4 24-9 18.6 14 $12 - 7$ $25 - 3$ 19.0 0.4 12.9 24.8 28 18.8 0.2 25.0 56 12.9 19.0 0.4 Swede tops I no K residues 0 2.6 3.8 3.2 14 2.5 4.3 3.4 0.2 2.2 28 4.4 3.3 0.1 2.4 56 $4 - 1$ 3.2 0.0 7 with K residues 0 2.3 4.0 3.2 14 2.2 4.4 3.3 0.1 $\frac{2.5}{2.2}$ 28 4.3 3.4 0.2 56 3.2 0.0 4.2 Kale 0 $17 - 3$ I no K residues $23 - 1$ 20.2 $\frac{21 \cdot 1}{22 \cdot 6}$ 28 16.5 18.8 1.4
 1.0 56 19.8 $21 - 2$ 112 $17 - 4$ 19.1 18.2 2.0 7 with K residues 0 18.0 24.2 $21 \cdot 1$ 23.3 2E 18.4 20.8 0.3 56 23.0 18.4 $20 - 7$ -0.4
1.7 24.6 112 20.9 22.8

VALUE OF RESIDUES FROM POTASSIUM FERTILISERS

Swedes and kale. These two crops were grown only on the Exhaustion Land in 1957-58 and Table 9 gives yields of both. Swede roots responded to new K only on the starved soil, and maximum response (2 tons/acre) was to the smallest amount (14 lb/acre) of new K. However, the soil with residues yielded consistently more than the soil without, by about 3 tons/acre. The residues could not be valued in terms of a fresh dressing because the yield on starved soil with new K was less than on enriched soil without new K. The yields of swede tops were not increased by residues in the soil or by fresh K. Kale did not respond to new K on the starved soil, but on the enriched soil, the largest amount of K tested gave an extra 1.7 tons. The average yield was 2 tons/acre more with residues.

Discussion of the potassium tests

On the starved soils on the Exhaustion Land cereals without new K gave the same yield in both seasons. However, potatoes, sugar beet, kale and swedes all yielded more in I958 than in 1957. 1958 was wetter, but less virus yellows in the sugar beet and less mildew on the swedes contributed to better yields in 1958.

Table l0 summarises the responses of the crops to the largest amount of new K applied as a seedbed dressing. At both Rothamsted and Woburn new K increased yield of barley on starved soil by I to 2 cwt grain but had no effect on enriched soil. Spring wheat on the Exhaustion Land did not respond to new K, on either the starved or enriched soil. In all years, and at both Rothamsted and Woburn, new K greatly increased potato yields on both starved and enriched soils. Sugar beet yields were usually increased by new K on starved and enriched soils, but not on the enriched soil of the Exhaustion Land, where the yield with new K was less than might have been expected. Swedes at Rothamsted gave small increases in yield with new K especially on starved soils, but yields of kale did not always increase with new K.

When the fertiliser K residues are valued by the difference in yield on soils with and without residues but with adequate N and P, they have considerable value at both Rothamsted and Woburn, except perhaps for cereals. Table 11 summarises the increases in yield from the presence of residues in the enriched soil.

The large crops currently being grown on many well fertilised soils take up much K, and it is not known whether K is accumulating in soils as is P. The section on K uptake shows that much K goes into the straw of cereals and the tops of sugar beet and how much K is removed from the soil depends on what happens to these parts of the crop. The accumulation of K is also related to the release of native soil K by weathering and the equilibrium between readily soluble and 'fixed' K. The rates of weathering and fixation of K differ considerably in different soils. Recent work at both Rothamsted and Woburn shows that change in the amount of K soluble in 1N-ammonium acetate is a good indication of the depletion or accumulation of readily soluble soil K during a cropping cycle. Current work is examining the release of K from reserves of 'fixed' K accumulated from fertiliser dressings.

78

TABLE 10

ROTHAMSTED REPORT FOR 1969, PART 2

VALUE OF RESIDUES FROM POTASSIUM FERTILISERS

TABLE 11

Effect of old residues of fertiliser K dressings at Rothamsted and Woburn, $1957 - 62$

Yields/acre

Potassium concentration in the crops

Tables 12, 13 and 14 give the percentages of potassium in the dry matter of the crops.

Cereals. Johnston (1969) showed that the mineral composition of the grain and straw of winter wheat grown recently on Broadbalk confirmed Lawes and Gilbert's view that fully ripened grain has a consistent mineral composition whereas the composition of the straw varies considerably. Table 12 shows that the concentration of K in the grain grown on the starved soils on the Exhaustion Land and on the Barley Site at Woburn was 0.50%, slightly less than in the barley on the Hoosfield Continuous Barley plots. Barley on the Wheat Site at Woburn contained much less K (0.40%) for unknown reasons. K residues in the soil increased the concentration of K in the grain, but less on the Wheat Site than on the other two sites. On the enriched Exhaustion Land soil, the $\frac{9}{6}$ K in the grain almost equalled that in the grain from the Hoosfield Continuous Barley Experiment. Dressings of fresh K did not increase the $\%$ K in grain from either the starved or enriched soils. The K concentration in the straw from the Exhaustion Land $(1.16\%$ in the enriched soil without new K) was nearly equal to that in the straw from the Hoosfield Continuous Barley Experiment, but the straw at Woburn contained only about half as much. Both the residual K in the soil and new dressings increased the $\%$ K in the straw by about the same amount, 0.1 to 0.3% .

Potatoes. Table 13 shows that the $\%$ K in dry matter of potato tubers from the Exhaustion Land was affected much more by new K than by K residues in the soil. However, the effect of the residues was not lessened by new K. At Woburn, in 1960, with larger concentrations of K in the

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TABLE 12

Effect of Kresidues and new K on the percentage of K in the grain and straw of cereals grown at Rothamsted and Woburn, 1957-62

ROTHAMSTED REPORT FOR 1969, PART 2

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TABLE 13

VALUE OF RESIDUES FROM POTASSIUM FERTILISERS

dry matter, the residues increased the $\frac{9}{6}$ K more than at Rothamsted. Also at Woburn, 112 lb/acre of new K increased the % K more than the same dressing did at Rothamsted. This was true even though at Woburn the dressing was applied on the flat seedbed whereas at Rothamsted it was applied in the furrows. This again suggests that potato roots grow more easily and further in Woburn soil than in Rothamsted soil. This suggestion was supported when, in 1961-62, more K was tested at Woburn and seedbed dressings and ploughed-in new K increased the $\%$ K in dry matter similarly.

Sugar beet, swedes and kale. On the soil without residues or new K, swede tops and roots, sugar beet tops, and kale, all had nearly the same K concentration in the dry matter, but the sugar beet roots had much less (Table 14). K residues in the soil increased the $\frac{9}{6}$ K in swede tops and roots

TABLE 14

Effect of K residues and new K on the percentage of K in sugar beet, swedes and kale grown on the Exhaustion Land, Rothamsted, 1957-58

¹ 56 lb K to swedes, 112 lb K to sugar beet and kale.

and in kale by much the same amounts, but much less than in sugar-beet tops; however residues had little effect on the $\frac{9}{6}$ K in sugar beet roots. New K increased the $\frac{9}{6}$ K of all crops on starved soil much more than in the presence of residues.

Potassium content of the crops

Tables 15, 16, 17 and 18 give the uptakes of potassium by the harvested parts of the crops.

Cereals. Barley at Woburn and spring wheat at Rothamsted took up little more than 30 lb/acre K but the maximum uptake by barley at Rothamsted was twice as much (Table 15). More K was taken up from enriched than from starved soils and much of this extra K was in the straw. More K was taken up from newly applied K without than with residues, except for barley at Rothamsted, the uptake never exceeded 10% of the 56 lb/acre K newly applied.

TABLE 15

Effect of K residues and new K on the amount of K in the grain and straw grown at Rothamsted and Woburn, 1957-62

lb K/acre/year

83

VALUE OF RESIDUES FROM POTASSIUM FERTILISERS

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TABLE 16

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VALUE OF RESIDUES FROM POTASSIUM FERTILISERS

Potatoes. Uptake of K by potatoes on both sites (Table 16) varied very considerably, fron 34 to 173 lb K/acre. Without new K, potato tubers from the starved soil on the Exhaustion Land contained about as much K as did the barley (grain plus straw), but tubers from the enriched soil contained more K than barley. At Woburn without new K, the potatoes took up more K than from the Exhaustion Land. The amount was about twice that taken up by the barley. Very much more K was taken up from the residues by potatoes than by barley. About 50% of the 112 lb/acre K tested on the Exhaustion Land and at Woburn in 1960 was taken up by potatoes. Increasing the dressings of new K to 168 lb K/acre at Woburn in $1961-62$ did not increase K uptake from the fertiliser, so the apparent recovery of the added K by potatoes was only about $30\frac{\degree}{0}$ in 1961-62.

Sugar beet, swedes and kale. Without new K, sugar beet on the Exhaustion Land and at Woburn took up much the same amount of K (Table 17). By contrast potatoes took up less K on the Exhaustion Land than at Woburn, suggesting that they make less use of nutrients in Rothamsted soil than do sugar beet. From the starved soil without new K on the Exhaustion Land, sugar beet took up more than 100 lb K/acre and much more (180 lb) from the richer soil. Of the new K applied to the starved soil, the sugar beet took up 30 lb K (25%) but apparently none was taken up from the enriched soil. At Woburn the whole crop took up a maximum of 270 lb K. possibly because the amount of new K tested was much more than at Rothamsted, more was taken up from the starved soil with new K than from the enriched soil without new K. However, maximum uptake was always with new K and residues. Apparent recoveries of added K were 30% from starved soils and 15% from enriched soils.

Swedes and kale on Exhaustion Land both resembled sugar beet, and took up much more K from the residues than from starved soil with fresh K fertiliser (Table 18). Without new K, kale extracted 13 lb more K from the

TABLE 18

Effect of K residues and new K on the amount of K in swedes and kale grown on the Exhaustion Land, Rothamsted, 1957-58

lb K/acre/year

¹ 56 lb K to swedes; 112 lb K to kale.

86

TABLE 17

Effect of K residues and new K on the amount of K in sugar beet grown at Rothamsted and Woburn, 1957-62

lb K/acre/year

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ROTHAMSTED REPORT FOR 1969, PART 2

VALUE OF RESIDUES FROM POTASSTUM FERTILISERS

starved soil than did sugar beet and swedes 29 lb less. However, sugar beet extracted more K from the residues than did either kale or swedes. Apparent recovery of new K by swedes was altered by the residues; without them, 30% was taken up, with them, 12% . However, kale apparently recovered 20% of the new K from soils with and without residues.

Summary of the effects of K residues and new dressings of K fertiliser on K uptake

On the Exhaustion Land without new K, total uptake on the starved soil ranged from 25 lb by spring wheat to 121 lb/acre by kale, and on the enriched soil from 29 lb by spring wheat to 182 lb/acre by sugar beet. Thus, the recoveries from the residues ranged widely, from 4 lb by spring wheat to 74 lb by sugar beet. At Woburn there was a similar wide range of uptakes, 18 lb K by barley to 132 lb/acre K by sugar beet from the starved soil, and 21 lb K by barley to 203 lb/acre K by sugar beet from the enriched soil. In one comparison, barley obtained no extra K from the residues but sugar beet took up 89 lb K/acre. A large proportion of this extra K went into the straw of cereals, the tops of sugar beet and the roots of swedes. Except for potatoes and kale, the uptake from the residues was always decreased by new K fertiliser. Apparent recoyery of new K was always less with than without residues, except for potatoes and kale. Apparent recoveries of the newly applied K ranged considerably, but the amounts of K tested were not the same in all experiments.

Summary

All crops tested gaye larger yields on soils enriched with many past dressings of K fertilisers than on starved soils, when new K was not given but N and P fertilisers were.

Potatoes consistently responded well to new K on both starved and enriched soils, much more than the other crops.

All crops from soils enriched with residues contained more K than crops from starved soils. Thus, as for P, residues provide the growing plant with K throughout the cultivated soil. Except for potatoes, the concentration of K in each crop was increased more by residues than by the new dressings of fertiliser K. Much of the extra K taken up by cereals and sugar beet went into the straw and tops respectively.

Acknowledgements

We thank G. W. Cooke for advice with these experiments and preparing the papers and many members of the Chemistry Department for help with field work and crop and soil analyses.

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VALUE OF RESIDUES FROM POTASSIUM FERTILISERS

APPENDIX TABLE 2

Yields of potatoes grown on the Exhaustion Land at Rothamsted and on
the Wheat and Barley Sites at Woburn, 1957-62

Tubers, tons/acre

The Residual Value of Farmyard Manure and Superphosphate in the Saxmundham Rotation II Experiment, 1899-1968

G. E. G. MATTINGLY, A. E. JOHNSTON and MARGARET CHATER

Introduction

The Rotation II experiment on Harwood's field at Saxmundham started in autumn, 1899, in the same year and tested the same 4-course rotation (wheat, roots, barley and a legume), as Rotation I. It was designed by Sir William Somerville, the first Drapers Professor of Agriculture at Cambridge, to determine how Iimited amounts of farmyard manure (FYM), nitrogen (as sodium nitrate) and phosphorus (as superphosphate) could best be distributed throughout the rotation. There were four blocks, one for each crop, and ten manurial treatments in each block. The history, including changes in manuring and results from the experiment were described by Oldershaw (1941) and Boyd and Trist (1966).

By 1952, although the cropping and manuring were no longer relevant to East Anglian farming, it was decided to keep seven of the original treatments on two of the four blocks for a funher three rotations. The arrangement of these I4 plots, in relation to Rotation I, is shown schematically by Trist and Boyd (1966). They were manured and cropped, continuing the original rotation on the blocks known as Victors and Neals, until 1964.

In 1965 a new experiment was started on these plots to assess the value of soil P analysis on this soil. The adjacent two plots of treatment 8 of the original experiment, to which no P was added between 1952 and 1964, were included in the new experiment.

The sequence of cropping during the 4 years was barley, potatoes, turnips or sugar beet and barley. In 1969, the main plots of the experiment were divided into microplots to test, between 1969 and 1972, the value of the 'old' (1899-1964) and 'new' (1965-68) phosphate residues for three crops, potatoes, sugar beet and barley grown each year.

In this paper we describe:

1. the analysis of the soils, at the end of the original (1899–1964) manuring,

2. the changes in soil analysis between 1964 and 1968 and

3. the crop yields and nutrients removed between 1965 and 1968.

Methods of analysis

Soils were sampled 0-8 in. deep during autumn 1964 and 0-10 in. during autumn 1966 and 1968. These depths represented the plough layer, which was deepened in winter 1964/65 to improve the drainage and waterholding capacity of the surface soil.

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The methods of analysis used were those described for soils from Rotation I (Cooke, Mattingly & Williams, 1958), except that:

1. $CaCO₃$ was measured by the method of Tinsley, Taylor and Moore (1951) .

2. Total P was determined after fusion with $Na₂CO₃$ (Mattingly, 1970).

3. *Exchangeable-K* was measured by successively extracting 6.25 g of soil with N -ammonium acetate (250 ml).

4. Labile P (Pe) was measured by isotopic exchange in $0.02M$ KCl (Arambarri & Talibudeen, 1959) using a soil : solution ratio of I : ²⁰⁰ and a period of 150 hours for exchange.

Treatments, 1899-1964

Table I lists the treatments and mean yields of all crops, which were given previously by Boyd and Trist (1966). Although different crops in the rotation were dressed with FYM (10 tons/acre), sodium nitrate (25 lb N/acre) and superphosphate (73.5 lb P/acre), treatments 3 to 7 received the same total amounts of FYM, N and P in each 4-course rotation; treatment 8 received twice the amount of superphosphate (until 1952), treatment 2 received only FYM and treatment 1 was always unmanured.

Boyd and Trist stated in 1964:

'Perhaps the most important lesson to be learnt from the results of Rotation II came from the evidence it provided of the value of FYM and ^P fertiliser in raising yields of all crops in the rotation, not only those to which they were applied. Thus a single dressing of 10 tons FYM applied to wheat (treatment 2) not only increased the wheat yield by about a third compared with the unmanured plots (treatment l) but also doubled the yield of mangolds, increased barley yield by almost a quarter and the yield of beans and clover, three crops later, by about a third. The application of P in addition to FYM gave further large increases in yield for all crops of the rotation whether or not the P fertiliser was applied directly to them. Indeed it is obvious from a study of the yields of treatments 3 to ⁷ that profitability of the rotation as a whole was only slightly influenced by the particular crop of the rotation to which the P was applied.'

The small diflerences between yields of treatments 3 to 7 are important to the subsequent use of the site which, in 1964, consisted of large areas of two blocks (Victors and Neals) that had received the same manuring for 65 years and from which almost the same quantities of crops had been removed.

The exact amounts of P applied to this soil are not known as neither the FYM nor superphosphate were analysed. Table 2 gives the total weights of FYM and superphosphate applied between 1899 and 1964 and estimates of the total P and K applied. These estimates are based on the following assumptions :

https://doi.org/10.23637/ERADOC-1-4

TABLE 1

THE SAXMUNDHAM ROTATION II EXPERIMENT

1. that superphosphate contained 8.75% P, which very much overestimates the amounts applied in the early years of the experiment;

2. that FYM contained 44 lb P/10 tons, a value used previously for Rotation I (Cooke, Mattingly & Williams, 1958), which agrees well with analyses of the FYM applied in 1965 and 1966 (Table 6).

TABLE 2

Total amounts of FYM and superphosphate, and estimates of total P and K applied to Rotation II, 1899-1964

Soil analysis, 1964

Table 3 gives analyses of the soils taken from the experiment in 1964, as means of the two blocks. Analyses from the two blocks were similar except for values of NaHCO₃-soluble P, labile P and $\frac{1}{2}pCa + pH_2PO_4$, some of which are given for the separate blocks (Table 4) and are discussed further below.

All plots contain free CaCO₃ (0.3 to 0.6%) and pH values (in 0.01 M CaCl₂), greatest on treatment 1, range only from 7.05 to 7.36. Farmyard manure alone (treatment 2) increased $\frac{9}{6}C$, $\frac{9}{6}N$, total P, all values of soluble P and exchangeable K and decreased $\frac{1}{2}pCa + pH_2PO_4$. Where superphosphate was given once in the rotation, in addition to FYM (treatments 3 to 7), or twice until 1952 (treatment 8), the $\frac{9}{6}$ C was slightly (0.10 $\frac{9}{6}$) larger, the mean %N was the same and total soil P about 180 ppm more than with only FYM. The NaHCO₃-soluble P and labile P values for treatments 3 to 8 (averaging both blocks) range from 38 to 44 and 108 to 120 ppm P respectively and are approximately three times larger than on the FYM only plot (treatment 2). The monocalcium phosphate potentials ranged from 6.90 to 6.98 and are about 0.8 units less than on treatment 2.

The mean analyses of the two blocks (Table 3) conceal the differences between soluble and labile P analyses because of the year when the last dressings of superphosphate were applied. Table 4 shows values of NaHCO₃-soluble P, labile P, P concentrations in $0.01 M$ CaCl₂ and $\frac{1}{2}pCa + pH_2PO_4$ in 1964, for single plots given superphosphate in either autumn 1963 or autumn 1960. There was more soluble and labile P in soils given superphosphate one year before sampling than in soils given 94

THE SAXMUNDHAM ROTATION II EXPERIMENT

TABLE 3

TABLE 4

Soil analysis in relation to the application of FYM and superphosphate

phosphate four years before. Values of NaHcos-soluble P ranged from about 50 ppm, in the year when P was applied, to about 30 ppm three years later. The yields of cereals and mangolds, however, increased only slightly when P was given (Table 1), probably because small crops were grown with the little N (26 lb/acre in addition to FYM) applied in the old rotation.

Unlike Rotation I, which tested K, potassium fertilisers were not given in Rotation II but some K was applied in the FYM given to treatments 2 to 8. If the FYM applied between 1899 and 1964 contained the same amount of K $(100 \text{ lb K}/10 \text{ tons FYM})$ as that applied in 1965 and 1966, then only 25 lb K was given on average each year. Most of this small amount of K was probably removed by the crops because increases in exchangeable K in the soils shown in Table 2 were small. Cooke and Williams (1966) showed by crop analysis that in Rotation I in 1964 and 1965 nearly all the K (50 lb K/acre) applied annually as potassium chloride was removed in the crops when N and P were also given.

Comparison of soil analyses of Rotation I (1957) and Rotation II (1964)

Total C, N and P. All plots of Rotation I were sampled (0-8 in.) and analysed in March, 1957 (Cooke, Mattingly & Witliams, 1958), when the experiment was still ploughed to the same depth as Rotation II. Table ⁵

TABLE 5

Comparison of soil analyses $(0-8$ in.) on Rotation I^a (in 1957) and Rotation II (in 1964)

^a Some analyses of Rotation I are from Cooke, Mattingly and Williams (1958).
^b Measured by HClO₄ digestion (P_p) and calculated for fusion analysis (P_f) using the following relation $P_f = 38.8 + 1.0021 P_p$ (Mattingly, 1970).

THE SAXMUNDHAM ROTATION II EXPERIMENT

compares some analyses of soils taken from the two experiments in 1957 and 1964 respectively. The %C, %N and total P contents of the unmanured soils from both experiments were very similar. The increases in $\frac{9}{6}C$, $\frac{9}{6}N$ and total P contents ($\Delta\%C$, $\Delta\%N$, ΔP_t) of soils given FYM in both rotations (Rotation I, treatment 1; Rotation II, treatment 2) were:

The ratio of the increases in $\%C$ and $\%N$ are very close to the ratio (2.2) of the total amounts of FYM applied to the two rotations, which suggests that, for the same rotation, the accumulation of organic matter is proportional to the amounts applied and is the same at Saxmundham whether FYM is given each year (Rotation I) or every 4 years (Rotation ID.

In contrast to the good agreement between the accumulation of C and N and the amounts of FYM added in both rotations, proportionally more P remained in the soil from the larger amounts of FYM given to Rotation I. The amounts of P applied in FYM to Rotations I and II can be estimated assuming that a ton of FYM contained 4.4 lb P. The total amounts of P removed by crops in each experiment were estimated from the difference between the total applied and the increase in total soil P in the plough layer. Using a bulk density of 1.6 g/cm³ (Williams, 1966), the total weight of soil in an 8 in. plough layer is 2.8×10^6 lb.

On the basis of the above assumptions, the amounts of P applied to and recovered from both rotations were:

Despite the small amounts of N given in both rotations, between 46% and 72% of the total P applied has been recovered by cropping. Much less P would presumably remain in these soils had more N been used and larger crops grown.

Soluble and labile P. Figs. 1, 2 and 3 show the changes in labile P, NaHCO₃soluble P and $\frac{1}{2}pCa + pH_2PO_4$ in the soils of both rotations in relation to the net increase in total soil P (ΔP_t)) between 1899–1957 (Rotation I) or 1899-1964 (Rotation II). Values for the two rotations agree well. Soil P increased most (+290 ppm P) on FYM plots of Rotation I, which also contained the most labile P and maintained the smallest values of $\frac{1}{2}pCa + pH_2PO_4$. The NaHCO₃-soluble P (33 ppm) was less on these \overline{G} 97

plots than the *mean* value (41 ppm) for Rotation II (treatments 3 to 7), given in Table 3, which was derived from analyses of all 10 plots given 73.5 lb P/acre as superphosphate during the three years before the soils were sampled. The NaHCO₃-soluble P in the 4 plots, last given P in 1960 or 1961 (31 ppm), probably more nearly represents an equilibrium value for this treatment and is used in the calculations below and in Fig. 2.

Fig. 1, 2 and 3. Relationships between labile P (Fig. 1), 0.5*M* NaHCO₃-soluble P (Fig. 2) and $\frac{1}{2}pCa + pH_2PO_4$ (Fig. 3) and increases in total soil P (ΔP_i) for soils from Rotation I (1899–1957) and Rotation II (18

THE SAXMUNDHAM ROTATION II EXPERIMENT

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THE SAXMUNDHAM ROTATION II EXPERIMENT

Fitted regression lines give the following changes in $\frac{1}{2}pCa + pH_2PO_4$, NaHCO₃-soluble P and labile P for every 1 ppm (about 2.8 lb P/acre) that accumulates in the soil from residues of FYM or superphosphate.

- (a) $\Delta(\frac{1}{2}pCa + pH_2PO_4)/\Delta P_t = -57 \pm 5.3 \times 10^{-4}$
- (a) $\Delta(\frac{1}{2})$ Ca + pH₂PO₄)/ Δ P_t = -3/ \pm 3.3 ×
(b) Δ NaHCO₃-soluble P/ Δ P_t = +0.11 \pm 0.007
- (c) $\Delta P_e / \Delta P_t$ Δ NaHCO₃-soluble $P/\Delta P_t = +0.11 \pm 0.007$
 $\Delta P_e/\Delta P_t = +0.37 \pm 0.038$

These measurements provide an *approximate* guide to the changes in $\frac{1}{2}pCa + pH_2PO_4$, NaHCO₃-soluble P and labile P in Saxmundham soils, and probably also in similar Chalky Boulder-Clay soils, as P residues accumulate in them. The proportion of the total applied P that remains isotopically labile ($\approx 40 \%$) is about the same (30–40%) as in Rothamsted soils (Mattingly & Talibudeen, 1961). NaHCO₃-soluble P increased in about 60 years by about one-tenth of the total P remaining in the soil.

Yields and nutrient uptakes, 1965-68

After the deeper ploughing in autumn, 1964, new dressings of FYM and/or superphosphate were given from 1965 to 1967 to produce 'new' P residues to compare with the 'old' P residues on treatments 2, 3 and 8. Treatments 4 and 5 were given 40 tons FYM/acre between 1965 and 1966; treatments 5 and 6 were given a total of 220 lb P/acre, and treatment 7 a total of 440 lb P/acre as triple superphosphate $(21\% \text{ P})$ between 1965 and 1967. P was not given in 1968, to ensure mixing and equilibration of the new P throughout the plough layer. Table 6 gives the amounts of FYM, superphosphate and P added between 1965 and 1968.

The plots of the old experiment (1899-1964) were 132 ft long and 18 ft wide. Each plot was divided at harvest in 1965 into two halves, each 66 ft long and 18 ft wide. Between 1965 and 1968 yields were taken from each half-plot, making four replications for each treatment. Barley was drilled along the plots and rows of potatoes (at 28 in. spacing) and sugar beet and turnips (in split plots at 18 in. spacing) were planted across the plots. The varieties grown and basal manuring were:

Tables 7 to 11 give the crop yields and nutrients removed. Barley (grain and straw), potato tubers and sugar beet roots were all removed from the plots. Sugar beet tops and turnips (tops and roots) were all ploughed in on the plots where they grew.

Barley, 1965. Grain yields (Table 7) ranged from 16 to 34 cwt/acre. The residues of FYM given once every 4 years from 1899-1964 doubled yields (treatment 2) and the residues of $\text{FYM} + \text{P}$ (treatments 3 and 4) gave slightly better yields (34.4 cwt/acre). Fresh superphosphate given in 1965 (treatments 5, 6 and 7) gave no extra yield.

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https://doi.org/10.23637/ERADOC-1-4

pp 103

a All plots received N and K manuring (see p. 101).
b The same dressings were applied for barley (1965) and potatoes (1966).
e 20 tons FYM to potatoes, 1966.

THE SAXMUNDHAM ROTATION II EXPERIMENT

Potatoes, 1966. Potatoes, which were planted in an excellent seedbed and grew well throughout the season, gave yields ranging from about 7.5 to more than 20 tons tubers/acre (Table 8). Yields were doubled by residues of farmyard manure (treatment 2) and increased by a further 1.7 to 2.3 tons/ acre where $FYM + P$ was given before 1964 (treatments 3 and 8). In contrast to barley, potatoes gave bigger yields with new P in 1966 in the presence of residues. Compared to $FYM + P$ residues (treatment 3), which gave 16.8 tons/acre, 73.5 and 147 Ib P/acre as fresh superphosphate (treatments 6 and 7) both produced a further increase of about 2 tons/acre, whereas the largest yields, about 20-4 tons/acre, were on plots given 20 tons FYM/acre the previous autumn, either without (treatment 4) or with (treatment 5) fresh superphosphate.

The following table compares yields and uptakes of N, P and K with and without FYM.

Potato tops remained greener throughout the season on plots given FyM and this better growth, which may have increased yield, was associated with larger uptakes of N, P and K.

Turnips and sugar beet, 1967. Early growth of both crops was good, but during the dry weather later the turnips flowered before lifting and were dry and poor quality when harvested in July. Yields of turnip roots (Table 9) increased from 2'2 tons/acre (treatment l) to 7 tons/acre on plots with old residues (treatments 3 and 8). Adding fresh P, either as FYM or superphosphate (treatments 4, 5, 6 and 7), gave only 1 ton/acre more roots. As the potatoes, turnips removed more N, P and K (Table 9) from plots given fresh FYM than from those given fresh superphosphate but, in contrast to potatoes in 1966, or sugar beet in 1967, yields were not larger.

Sugar-beet yields (Table l0) ranged from 8.3 to 19'6 tons of roots/acre and sugar yields from 26 to 67 cwt/acre. 'Old' residues of FYM (treatment 2) and of $FYM + superphosphate$ (treatment 3) increased sugar yields by 21 and 33 cwt/acre respectively. Compared to treatment 3 (59 cwt/ acre), fresh superphosphate (treatments 6 and 7) increased yields by ^a further 4 to 5 cwt/acre, and fresh FYM, alone or with superphosphate (treatments 4 and 5), gave a further 3 cwt sugar/acre. The larger yields of tops and roots with fresh FYM contained more N and K and slightly more P and Mg.

Barley, 1968. The yield without P (treatment 1) in 1968, 24 cwt/acre (Table 11) was 8 cwt/acre more than in 1965 (Table 7). The crop, especially on treatments 4 to 8, lodged and yields with 'old' and 'new' P residues were

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ROTHAMSTED REPORT FOR 1969, PART 2

pp 105

THE SAXMUNDHAM ROTATION II EXPERIMENT

https://doi.org/10.23637/ERADOC-1-4

²to 3 cwt smaller in 1968 than in 1965. Straw yields in 1968 were doubled by 'old' residues of FYM and superphosphate (treatment 3), but were not increased further by 'new' residues (treatments 4 to 7).

Soil analyses, 1966 and 1968

Changes in total P and exchangeable K. Tables 12 and 13 give analyses of soils from all treatments sampled before ploughing in 1966 and 1968. It is impossible to compare them quantitatively with those from 1964 (Table 2) without allowing for the increase in the depth of ploughing (from about 8 to about l0 in.) between 1964 and 1966. Table 14 shows that deeper ploughing diluted the mean concentration of soil C, N and P on treatments 1, 2, 3 and 8 (to which no P was added between 1965 and 1968) by a factor of 0.85 to 0.89. In contrast, ploughing increased $\%$ CaCO₃ in the surface soil because the soil below 8 in. is calcareous. There was no further significant change between 1966 and 1968.

TABLE 14

Mean $\frac{9}{6}C$, $\frac{9}{6}N$, total P (ppm) and $\frac{9}{6}CaCO_3$ in soils from treatments 1, 2,3. and 8 in 1964, 1966 and 1968

				Ratio	
	1964	1966	1968	1966 1964	1968 1966
$\frac{6}{6}C$ $\sqrt[6]{N}$ Total P (ppm) $\%$ CaCO ₃	1.06 0.154 577 0.44	0.94 0.138 489 0.47	0.97 0.134 491 0.48	0.89 0.89 0.85 1.07	1.03 0.97 1.00 1.02

Between 1965 and 1968 the amounts of both P and K applied as fertilisers and in FYM exceeded the amounts removed by cropping. Table ¹⁵ gives a balance for the additions and removals of P and K and the changes in total P and exchangeable K in the soils between 1964 and 1968 . In these calculations we assume :

l. the effective plough depth was 8'0 in. in 1964 and 9'5 in. in 1968' (This is consistent with the dilution factor of 0.85 for total P measured between 1964 and 1968).

2. The weight of soil per acre per in. $= 0.35 \times 10^6$ lb, corresponding to a bulk density of 1.6 g/cm³.

3. No P and K in turnip tops and roots and sugar beet tops was lost before they were ploughed back into the soil.

Except for treatments I and 2, the net loss or gain of P by manuring and cropping agreed well with the change in total soil P in the plough layer, and the average of the two values for all 8 treatments differed by only 30 lb P/acre.

Fig. 4 shows the decline in the total P content of all the soils between 1964 and 1966 as a result of deeper ploughing. Where P was not given (treatments l, 2,3 and 8), there was little further change between 1966 and 1968, but where it was total soil P increased, especially where the most 106

THE SAXMUNDHAM ROTATION II EXPERIMENT

TABLE 15

Changes in total P and exchangeable K in surface soils between 1964 and 1968 and net gains or losses of P and K

FIGS. 4 and 5. Changes in total soil P (Fig. 4) and labile P (Fig. 5) in Rotation II between 1964 and 1968. **D** annliad

FYM and superphosphate were given (treatments 5 and 7). However, the largest P contents in 1968 (696 ppm) were still smaller than in 1964, even though 440 lb P/acre was given as superphosphate (treatment 7) and 426 lb P/acre as FYM and superphosphate (treatment 5).

In contrast, the exchangeable K in the plough layer increased less than the net gain in applied K. Where FYM was given the increase in exchangeable K in the top 9.5 in. of soil was only one-half and one-third of the gain in K from manuring on treatments 4 and 5 respectively. Much of the apparent loss probably reflected fixation in non-exchangeable forms 108

THE SAXMUNDHAM ROTATION II EXPERIMENT

FIGS, 6 and 7. Changes in 0.5M NaHCO₃-soluble P (Fig. 6) and $\frac{1}{2}pCa + pH_2PO_4$ (Fig. 7) in Rotation II between 1964 and 1968. (For key to treatments, see Figs. 4 and 5.)

(which were not measured) in this slightly calcareous soil, but some K may have leached below plough depth.

Changes in NaHCO₃-soluble and labile P. Values of labile P (Fig. 5) either declined or remained almost constant, and NaHCO₃-soluble P values (Fig. 6) all declined where fresh P was not given (treatments 1, 2, 3 and 8), not only between 1964 and 1966 but also between 1966 and 1968. Soluble and labile P increased where most fresh FYM or superphosphate were given (treatments 5 and 7) and were maintained at the 1964 amounts in treatments 4 and 6. This increase occurred even though the residues of 'fresh' FYM and superphosphate did not increase total soil P content (ppm) because they were distributed through more soil in 1968 than in 1964. The increases in NaHCO₃-soluble P and labile P between 1964 and 1968 were:

The net gains in total P in the top 9.5 in. of soils from new residues (treatments 5 and 7) were 340 and 305 lb P/acre respectively (Table 15). The 109

increases in NaHCO₃-soluble P and labile P (Pe), per unit increase in total soil P, for 'old' and 'new' residues were:

Changes in the solubility of soil P. Values of $\frac{1}{2}pCa + pH_2PO_4$ (Fig. 7) show that the solubility of soil P declined (treatments 1, 2, 3 and 8) between 1964 and 1968 and was maintained, but not appreciably increased, (treatments 4, 5, 6 and 7) where fresh P was given. In contrast to soils from some of the Classical Experiments at Rothamsted (Aslyng, 1954), all the Saxnundham soils from Rotations I or II are undersaturated with octacalcium phosphate.

Soil analysis and crop response

Table 16 summarises yields of barley, potatoes, turnips and sugar beet between 1965 and 1968 in relation to soil P analysis. Yields of barley, grown on soils with $20-40$ ppm NaHCO₃-soluble P and adequate N and K, were not increased by fresh superphosphate (73.5 lb P/acre) in 1965 or by fresh residues of cumulative dressings (1965–67) in 1968. Yields of potatoes, turnips and sugar beet, however, were all more with fresh superphosphate than with residues alone.

TABLE 16

Yields and responses of barley, potatoes, turnips and sugar beet in relation to soil analysis, 1965-67

 a At 85% dry matter.

At the end of 1968 the soils ranged widely in NaHCO₃-soluble P (about ³to 67 ppm) and in labile P (about 28 to 166 ppm). Residues of 'old' and 'new' FYM and P are now being evaluated, relative to fresh superphosphate applied in the seedbed, in a crop rotation of potatoes, barley (without P), sugar beet and barley (without P) to compare crop response and soil analysis on the Chalky Boulder-Clay soil at Saxmundham with crop response at Rothamsted and Woburn.

Conclusions and Summary

l. Between 1899 and 1964 more P was applied in FYM alone (10 tons/ acre/rotation) and in FYM (10 tons/acre/rotation) plus superphosphate 110

THE SAXMUNDHAM ROTATION II EXPERIMENT

(about 74 lb P/acre/rotation) than was removed by cropping. NaHCO₃soluble P and isotopically-exchangeable (labile) P were directly proportional, and $\frac{1}{2}pCa + pH_2PO_4$ inversely proportional, to the increase in total $P(\Delta P_t)$ in the soil. NaHCO₃-soluble P and labile P increased by the same amounts, per unit increase in total soil P, in Rotation I (when sampled in 1957) as in Rotation II in 1964, and were about 10 $\%$ and 40 $\%$ respectively of the increases in total soil P that accumulated from 'old' P residues.

2. NariCO₃-soluble P, labile P and $\frac{1}{2}pCa + pH_2PO_4$ in 1964 were
6 ppm, 20 ppm and 8.36 on plots without P, 12 ppm, 44 ppm and 7.79 2. NaHCO₃-soluble P, labile P and $\frac{1}{2}pCa + pH_2PO_4$ in 1964 were where FYM only was given (treatment 2) since 1899 and 41 ppm, 113 ppm and 6.92 where FYM and superphosphate were given (treatments 3 to 7) in the old rotation.

3. The only K applied in the old rotation came from FYM which supplied about 100 lb K/acre/rotation. Negligible amounts remained in the soil as exchangeable K in 1964.

lessened the total P content of the soil by a factor of about 0.85 where 4. Between 1964 and 1968, deeper ploughing (from about 8 to 10 in.) further P was not applied (treatments 1, 2, 3 and 8). Where FYM (40 tons/ acre containing 206 lb P) or superphosphate (220 lb P/acre) were given between 1965 and 1967 (treatments 4 and 6), total P was less in 1968 than in 1964; where FYM plus superphosphate (total P 426 lb/acre) or 440 lb $P/$ acre were given as superphosphate (treatments 5 and 7), the extra P applied just maintained the original P content (in ppm) of the soil. The 'fresh' P given between 1965 and 1967 was incorporated within the deeper (9.5 in.) plough layer and increased both the concentration of NaHCO₃-soluble P and labile P (ppm) and the total amounts (lb P/acre) in the plough layer. The increases in NaHCO₃-soluble P and labile P were about 25% and 60% respectively of the increases in total soil P that accumulated from 'new' P residues.

5. Between 1965 and 1968 more K was applied as FYM and/or inorganic K than was removed by cropping. Exchangeable K (in ppm) increased during this period despite dilution by ploughing.

6. Yields of barley in 1965 and 1968, with adequate NK fertiliser, ranged from 16 to 35 cwt/acre and increased in the order: no $P < FYM$ residues \langle FYM + superphosphate residues. Fresh superphosphate in 1965 did not increase yields further. Yields of potatoes in 1966, given NK fertilisers, ranged from 7.4 to 20.5 tons/acre. Yields with FYM + P residues (treatment 3) were 16.8 tons/acre and 'fresh' superphosphate (74 lb P/acre) increased yields by 1.4 tons/acre and 'fresh' superphosphate (74 lb P/acre) plus FYM (20 tons/acre) by 3.5 tons/acre. Yields of turnips $(2 \text{ to } 8 \text{ tons/acre})$ and sugar beet $(8.3 \text{ to } 19.6 \text{ tons/acre})$, given NK fertilisers were greater by 1.3 and 2.6 tons roots/acre respectively with 'fresh' FYM plus superphosphate than with only residues of 'old' dressings.

7. The treatments given between 1965 and 1968 modified the soils which now contain different amounts of soluble P. The range of soils include 'no P' since 1899 (treatment 1), P residues from FYM alone or

with superphosphate, applied between 1899 and 1964 (treatments 2, 3 and 8). P residues from 'old' FYM and superphosphate with (i) new FYM alone (treatment 4); (ii) new superphosphate alone (treatments 6 and 7); (iii) new FYM and superphosphate together (treatment 5).

Cultivations have ensured, and soil analyses have confirmed, that both P and K residues are distributed throughout a plough layer of about 0-10 in. These residues will be evaluated, relative to fresh superphosphate, in a crop rotation of potatoes, barley (without P), sugar beet and barley (without P) between 1969 and 1972.

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The Effects of Partially Sterilising Agricultural Soils with Formalin, and of Applying Nitrogen Fertilisers, on the Yields and N Contents of Spring and Winter Wheat, of Barley and of Grass

F. V. WIDDOWSON and A. pENNy

Partial sterilization with steam or with formalin solutions has for long been used in horticulture to maintain yields in glasshouses where the same crops have been grown frequently. Russell (1961), quoting from work done in the early 1900s, stated that the larger yields after partial sterilization resulted not only from killing soil-borne pathogens, but also from an increase in mineralisable soil nitrogen, but that the full explanation of the better yields was lacking.

Benzian (1965) showed that in forest nurseries formalin and other soil sterilants greatly increased the height and vigour of conifer seedlings which otherwise were stunted. All other treatments, which included fungicides, soil conditioners, composts and inorganic fertilisers were ineffective unless the soil was drenched with formalin not less than 3 weeks before the seeds were sown. The fact that fungicides did not improve growth, whereas the formalin drench did, showed that more than killing soil fungi was involved and tests showed that the sterilised soils contained more ammonia and the trees grown on them more manganese. These experiments also showed that the increase from formalin was larger where it was given for the first time than where it had been given the year before, so that the benefits of successive treatments were not cumulative.

Cooke (1963) considered problems of growing cereals on some light soils in Hertfordshire and Lincolnshire, where promising crops had failed during dry weather in June, and summarised work then done to try to solve them. Similar problems with cereals had also occurred on light land at Woburn Experimental Station, where, as at the other centres, they were associated with generous N manuring, with dry weather before ear emergence, and with fungi causing root rots. Because the stunted growth in forest nurseries had been overcome by applying formalin to these soils we decided to test formalin for wheat, and included with it tests of other treatments that might help to overcome the problem. In our first experiment we used (1) a nonphytotoxic fungicide (Nabam) to control Fusarium spp. (2) irrigation during dry weather to prevent a moisture deficit and (3) a range of nitrogen dressings to apply stress. It was made in 1964 with spring wheat at Woburn; formalin trebled yields. In 1965 we extended the work to Rothamsted where, on heavier soils, cereals had not been harmed, so far as we knew, and we chose one site that had previously grown cereals for many years and another recently ploughed from grass. In 1967 another experiment with formalin was begun on Chalky Boulder Clay at Saxmundham (Suffolk), because barley in a Iong-term rotation experiment there had yielded disappointingly; the amount of pathogens in the soil was unknown. Also in 1967 another

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experiment was begun with newly sown meadow fescue and timothy at Rothamsted, to establish whether a crop less likely to be damaged by soil pathogens benefited from drenching the soil with formalin before sowing and, if it did, for how long.

The main purposes of the experiments therefore were:

(l) to measure the effect of formalin on the yield of cereals;

(2) to examine the effect of formalin on the nitrogen content of the crops and so the need for fertiliser N;

(3) to examine the effects of formalin and fertiliser nitrogen on the takeall fungus (Ophiobolus graminis) and other soil-borne pathogens (D. B. Slope and G. A. Salt), and hence the amount of N needed by uninfected and infected crops.

Also, because D. B. Slope's root samples showed that cereal cyst eelworm (Heterodera awnae) was abundant on Butt Close, Williams (1969) measured the effects of the treatments on its incidence.

Experimental methods and treatments

Butt Close, Woburn, 1964-65. This field previously had grown many arable crops; the soil is a light sandy loam over Lower Greensand, holding less than I in. of water per foot of soil. In 1963 winter wheat following beans became stunted during dry weather in late May and June, especially on plots given much N; on these plots many ears failed to emerge normally and at harvest yields were small.

In 1964 spring wheat tested these four factors in all combinations:

(l) 38% formaldehyde (at 250 cc/sq yd) applied in water as a drench.

(2) Nabam (a fungicide) sprayed over the seedbed and over the crop.

 (3) Water applied to give, with rain, 1 in. of water per week.

(4) Nitrogen fertiliser ('Nitro-Chalk') to give 0.6, 1.2 or 1.8 cwt N/acre.

These 24 treatments were arranged in two blocks of 12 plots; there were two replicates; individual plots were 7 ft wide and 20 ft long (0'0032 acre).

The formalin was applied by watering-can in December 1963 and repeated in February 1964 because too little rain fell after the first drench to wash it in. Then, in March, basal PK fertiliser (0-20-20 at $2\frac{1}{2}$ cwt/acre) and half of each N dressing were broadcast by hand, Nabam (at 10 lb/acre) was sprayed over appropriate plots and then the wheat (Jufy I) was sown with a hand-drill in rows 6 in. apart. The seedbed was made with handrakes to limit the movement of sterilised and unsterilised soil from plot to plot. Nabam (at 5 lb/acre) was sprayed over the wheat at the 3-leaf stage and again when it covered the ground completely; the other half of the N was applied in early May. From l8 May to 27 July water was applied weekly by hand-hose to give, with the rain that fell, 1 in. of water per week (4.7 in. ofwater was applied). At harvest the centre 13 rows of wheat on each plot were cut by hand and threshed, and the grain and straw were weighed. Samples of grain and straw were taken to measure dry matter and $\frac{9}{6}$ N.

FORMALIN AND NITROGEN

In 1965 formalin was applied again (in December 1964) in all combinations with the 1964 treatments giving a single replicate of each combination. Nabam was not tested again, calcium nitrate replaced Nitro-Chalk (to eliminate any effect formalin might have on nitrification) and Opal wheat replaced Jufy I. The 1965 summer was wet and water was applied for the wheat only from 25 May to 16 June (1.2 in. of water was added), because after that ample rain fell each week. Other treatments and methods were the same.

Little Knott and Pastures, Rothamsted, 1965-68. The Little Knott experiment was made on a field that had been ploughed from grass in 1943 and then had grown cereals in 19 of the next 21 years; the Pastures experiment was made on a field that had grown grass for 10 years and then was ploughed for spring wheat in 1964. In 1965 the effect of a formalin drench $(250 \text{ cc of } 38\%$ formaldehyde per sq yd) was tested on spring wheat without N and with 0.5 , 1.0 or 1.5 cwt N/acre (as calcium nitrate). The eight treatments were arranged in a randomised block; there were four blocks on Little Knott and two on Pastures. Individual plots were 7 ft wide and 20 ft long (0'0032 acre).

The formalin drench was applied by watering-can and basal PK by hand over spring-tined land in February. The first half of the N was applied during March and then Opal wheat was sown by hand-drill in rows 6 in. apart. The remaining N was applied in May. At harvest the wheat was cut by sickle and threshed.

In 1966 the same amount of formalin was tested again in all combinations with the 1965 drench, on whole plots on Little Knott and on half plots on Pastures. The same amounts of N were given to the same plots and at the same times to Kloka spring wheat. The wheat was cut by sickle and threshed.

the 1965 and 1966 drenches) either to the stubble, or shortly after plough-In September 1966 formalin was applied again (in all combinations with ing; the N dressings again were cumulative. Basal pK was given and winter wheat (Cappelle) was sown by hand drill in late October. In spring, N (at 0.5 , 1.0 or 1.5 cwt/acre) was re-applied to appropriate plots, half-of each dressing in March and half in May. On Little Knott the wheat was combine-
harvested, but on Pastures it was cut by sickle and threshed.

In September 1967, after ploughing, formalin was again applied in all combinations with the three previous drenches. In October, Cappelle wheat was sown and in spring N was applied to appropriate plots. Both experiments were combine-harvested. Each year the grain and straw were weighed and sampled for dry matter and $\%$ N.

Grove Plot, Saxmundham, 1967-68. The experiment was made to test factors that may limit yield on this sandy clay soil with a poor structure. Formalin, lime and two amounts of nitrogen (applied in either March or May) were tested in all combinations on two barley varieties (Maris Badger and Deba Abed). The 32 treatments were arranged in two blocks of 16 plots; individual plots were 7 ft wide and 14 ft long (0.0022 acre) .

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In February 1967 a formalin drench (500 cc of 38% formaldehyde per sq yd) and lime where appropriate and basal PK were applied over the ploughed land. In March the soils were sampled and then the barley was sown-by hand-drill in rows 7 in. apart; N at 0.6 or 1.2 cwt/acre (as calcium nitrate) was broadcast by hand either on the seedbed or in May over appropriate plots. At harvest the barley was cut by sickle, threshed, and the grain and straw weighed and sampled for dry matter and $\%$ N.

In 1968 formalin was tested again in all combinations with the ¹⁹⁶⁷ drench. All the other treatments were repeated on the same plots to give ^a half replicate of 32 plots. In March the soils were sampled again for mineralisable N. The results given here are averaged over varieties, lime and times of applying N.

Fosters, Rothamsted, 1967-68. This experiment was made on a field that had grown many arable crops. It measured the effects of a February soil drench of formalin (at 500 cc/sq yd) without nitrogen and with 0.3 , 0.6 or 0.9 cwt N/acre/cut (as calcium nitrate) on the yield of a March-sown timothy (Scots) and meadow fescue (S.53) ley. The eight treatments were arranged in a randomised block; there were four blocks. Individual plots were 6 ft wide and 12 ft long (0.0016 acre). In 1967 the grass was cut three times (in July, September and November) and in 1968 twice (in May and July); N was re-applied for each cut. The grass was weighed and sampled for dry matter and $\%$ N.

Observations

Butt Close, Woburn, 1964-65. On 6 May 1964, wheat growing on soil drenched with formalin was taller and more vigorous than wheat on untreated soil and also was almost weed-free, whereas the other wheat was infested with many weed seedlings (mainly Matricaria and Polygonum sp.). It was all sprayed to kill the weeds. On 9 June irrigated wheat had larger broader leaves than unirrigated, even though 1.5 in. of rain had fallen the week before, but with so much rain in June none of the wheat failed, and the expected symptoms of scorching did not ocaur, even though July was

dry and sunny.
On 22 April 1965 we observed that wheat growing on soil drenched with formalin in 1964 was inferior to wheat growing on untreated soil; much of it was stunted and had yellow leaves. Also, the large benefits from the new formalin drench were diminished by the residues of the 1964 drench, so that the formalin was most beneficial where it had not been used the year before; these differences persisted until harvest.

Little Knott and Pastures, Rothamsted, 1965-68. On 3 May 1965 wheat on Little Knott growing on soil drenched with formalin was much superior to wheat growing on untreated soil, but on Pastures the wheat showed no benefit, presumably because this soil contained few pathogens, and was rich in N.

In 1966, freshly applied formalin improved growth greatly on Little 116

FORMALIN AND NITROGEN

Knott, but only slightly on Pastures. There was no visible benefit or harm, on either field, from the residues of the formalin given in 1965.

In 1967, formalin applied the previous autumn did not visibly benefit the wheat on Little Knott until mid-June, but did after then. By contrast, formalin given the year before was harmful, for in July the wheat growing on nine plots was stunted, had bluish stems and leaves, and the leaves were erect and rolled inwards from the margins; all had been given formalin in February 1966. On Pastures new formalin improved growth during March, but the drench applied over the stubble improved growth less than the drench given after ploughing. The beneflts from the formalin persisted until severe lodging occurred well before harvest; the most vigorous wheat lodged most.

In 1968, freshly applied formalin benefited the wheat greatly on pastures, but had little effect on growth on Little Knott (by contrast to the first two years), but losses from giving formalin the year before were not evident. The wheat responded greatly to N on Little Knott, but there was less visual response on Pastures. At harvest there was little lodging on Little Knott, but on Pastures all the wheat given N was flat.

Grove Plot, Saxmundham, 1967-68. In 1967, formalin improved growth only a little and in 1968 little more; its benefits were evident only with 0.6 cwt N/acre and not when 1.2 cwt N/acre was given. By contrast, N greatly increased growth each year and so the visual effects were mainly from rates and times of N.

Foster's, Rothamsted, 1967-68. The grasses established only slowly during wet weather in May and so, in June, they were topped and a second dressing of N given. Then they grew quickly and growth was better with formalin than without. In 1968 there was little visible benefit from the formalin.

Results

Butt Close, Woburn, 1964–65. Appendix Table 1 shows that in 1964 grain yields (averaged over Nabam) ranged from 9.1 (with 0.6 cwt N/acre) to 37.2 cwt/acre (with 1.2 cwt N/acre, formalin and water). Trebling the amount of nitrogen (to 1.8 cwt N/acre) increased grain yields by 5.7 cwt/ acre without irrigation or formalin, by 11.8 cwt/acre with irrigation alone, by only 0.2 cwt/acre with formalin alone, but 5.9 cwt/acre when both formalin and water were given, so that water increased and formalin decreased the need for nitrogen. Appendix Table I also shows that in ¹⁹⁶⁴ straw yields ranged from 14.3 (with 0.6 cwt N/acre) to 53.0 cwt/acre (with 1.8 cwt N/acre, water and formalin), so that the straw benefited from one more increment of N than the grain. However, the gains from formalin and from water were proportionally as large for straw as for grain. The table also shows that applying formalin did not consistently change the percentage of N in the wheat grain, but, because it increased yields so much, it more than doubled the amount of N removed by wheat given 0.6 cwt N/acre, and increased by a half the amount of N removed by wheat given 1.8 cwt N/acre. Applying water decreased $\frac{9}{6}$ N in the grain in five of six

comparisons, presumably because it increased yields without increasing the amount of mineralisable N in the soil, whereas formalin probably increased it. However, watered wheat removed approximately one fifth more N than unwatered, so that water increased its ability to use N. Nabam increased yields little and so its results are not shown.

Appendix Table I shows that in 1965 grain yields ranged from 6'0 (with 0.6 cwt N/acre alone) to 37.4 cwt/acre (with 1.2 cwt N/acre, formalin in 1965 and water), so that although the range was greater in 1965 than in 1964 maximum yields were almost the same in the two years. The Table also shows that formalin was most effective where none had been applied the year before, so that there was a negative interaction between the fresh application and the residues of that given the year before.

The table also shows that giving the wheat 1.8 rather than 1.2 cwt N/ acre decreased yields where formalin had been given that year, but that it increased them a little where it had not, showing again the interaction between nitrogen and formalin. Also, the benefits from giving extra N were made larger by giving water, providing that formalin also had been given, but not where it had not. Evidently the residual effects of water were harmful on this sandy soil, because in 1965 water increased grain and straw yields (in 9 or 12 comparisons) where formalin was also newly given and decreased yields (in 9 or 12 comparisons) where it was not. Presumably the water given in 1964 allowed cereal cyst eelworm to multiply faster and so decrease yields in 1965, unless formalin was newly given (Williams, 1969). Appendix Table 2 also shows that straw yields ranged from l1'8 (with 0.6 cwt N/acre and water) to 44'8 cwt/acre (with l'2 cwt N/acre, water and formalin only in 1965). There was no obvious relationship between the increases from the largest amount of N and formalin.

Formalin tended to diminish $\%$ N in the grain, presumably because yields with it were larger, and water also tended to do so, whether or not it increased yields. Formalin greatly increased the amount of N removed by the wheat; it more than trebled the amount by wheat given 0'6 cwt N/acre and almost doubled the amount by wheat given 1'8 cwt N/acre; water increased the amount only where it also increased yields.

Table I shows that, in 1964, mean grain and straw yields were almost doubled by formalin, but that the residues of this drench decreased the yields of the wheat that followed in 1965. By contrast the formalin given in 1965 more than doubled grain and straw yields, but, even so, mean yields were smaller than in 1964 (maximum yields were not (Appendix Table 1)). Table I also shows that the second increment of 0'6 cwt N/acre increased grain and straw yields in both years, but the third increased only straw yields. Water significantly increased yields during dry weather in 1964, but had little effect in 1965.

Table 2 shows that giving formalin in 1964 increased yields slightly in 1965, but the plots drenched in both 1964 and 1965 yielded less than those drenched in 1965 only, i.e., drenches in two successive years had less effect than one drench immediately before the wheat crop. On this soil, formalin was more effective than N in increasing yield but, even with formalin newly applied, maximum yield needed l'2 cwt N/acre, which is usually regarded as a Iarge dressing.

Mean yields (cwt/acre) of spring wheat (at 15% moisture content) without and with formalin, with three amounts of nitrogen,
and without and without and with irrigation on Butt Close, Woburn, 1964 and 1965

TABLE 2

The residual and the direct effects of formalin on the yields (cwt/acre) of spring wheat (at 15% moisture content) given three

amounts of nitrogen, on Butt Close, Woburn, 1965

FORMALIN AND NITROGEN

Little Knott, Rothamsted, 1965-68. Appendix Table 2 shows that, in 1965, grain yields ranged from 17.0 (without N or formalin) to 35.4 cwt/acre (with 1.0 cwt N/acre and formalin), and that formalin increased yields with each amount of N. Although 0.5 cwt N/acre increased yield of grain by approximately l1 cwt/acre and straw by even more, there was little or no advantage from giving the wheat more N, whether or not formalin also was given. $\frac{9}{6}$ N in the grain was increased by each increment of N; wheat given 1.5 cwt N/acre contained approximately 50 $\%$ more N than wheat given none. By contrast, formalin did not consistently change $\frac{9}{6}$ N in the grain, but, because it increased yields so much, it increased the amount of N removed (in the grain plus straw) by approximately a quarter, at each rate of N tested. Wheat given 0.5 cwt N/acre and formalin together recovered as much N as wheat given 1.5 cwt N/acre alone, so that the effect of formalin then was approximately equivalent to giving the wheat 1.0 cwt more N/acre.

Appendix Table 2 shows that, in 1966, the residual effects of formalin applied in 1965 greatly decreased yields and that, although these losses were diminished by applying N, they were not eliminated by the largest amount given (1.5 cwt N/acre). The table also shows that these harmful residual effects were diminished by a formalin drench in 1966, which gave larger yields than on Plots not drenched in either year. However, the largest yields of grain and straw were obtained by formalin applied for the firsi time in 1966. The table also shows that this treatment tended to increase $\%$ N in the grain; as in 1965, it consistently increased the amount of N recovered by the wheat, and again its effect was approximately equivalent to giving the wheat $1·0$ cwt more N/acre.

Appendix Table 2 shows that in 1967 winter wheat on soil not given formalin either in 1966 or in 1967 yielded the most grain, and that it gave approximately the same yield as the spring wheat grown before it. The residual effects of the formalin given in 1966 greatly diminished yields of grain and of straw and the wheat not given N almost failed. A formalin drench repeated in 1967 only partly overcame the harmful residual effects, for even with formalin in both years, both grain and straw yields were smaller than from untreated soil. However, straw yields were increased by formalin applied in 1967 only, and this also increased grain $\%$ N, but it did not consistently increase the amount of N recovered by the wheat.

Appendix Table 2 shows that, again in 1968, grain yields tended to be larger without than with newly applied formalin, so that the effectiveness of formalin seemed to be diminishing on this site. AIso, by contrast to results in 1967, straw yields were not increased by newly applied formalin. The residual effects of formalin again decreased yields, but much less than in 1967, and their harmful effects were diminished by applying formalin again for the 1968 wheat. The newly applied formalin consistently increased grain $\%$ N, but it did not consistently increase the amount of N recovered by the wheat. However, by 1968, only two of the 32 plots in the experiment had not been given any formalin during the four years, which suggests that subsequent applications given to some plots in 1967 and in 1968 were less beneficial than the initial ones.

Table 3 shows that although formalin increased yields each year on 120

121

https://doi.org/10.23637/ERADOC-1-4

pp 122

³ Applies to other yields in 1968. " Appuss to yields trom 1966 formalin.
3 Does not apply to yields from 1965 formalin.

FORMALIN AND NITROGEN

Little Knott, it increased them more in 1965 and 1966 (when applied in February for spring wheat) than in 1967 and 1968 (when applied in September for winter wheat). However, the losses from the residues of formalin given the year before were as large, or larger, with winter wheat than with spring wheat, so that, in contrast to its direct effects, its residual effects were the same for both spring and winter wheat. In 1967 and 1968 the experiments also measured the effects of giving formalin two years earlier, and Table 3 shows that grain yields were a little larger with than without these formalin treatments. In 1968 the wheat also measured the residual effects of formalin given three years earlier; these also slightly increased yields.

Pastures, Rothamsted, 1965-68. Appendix Table 3 shows what happens when wheat is grown on a nitrogen-rich soil and given too much N. In 1965 N consistently decreased yields of grain, which with l'5 cwt N/acre were almost halved. By contrast, 0.5 cwt N/acre increased straw yields by more than l0 cwt/acre, but giving more N than this decreased them. Formalin increased grain yields provided that N was not given, but had no consistent effect when it was, although formalin consistently increased the yields of straw. The large amount of N in the soil was confirmed by the large $\frac{9}{6}$ N in the grain and by the fact that unmanured wheat recovered twice as much N here as on Little Knott (Appendix Table 2) in the same year.

Appendix Table 3 also shows that, in 1966, yields were not diminished by residual effects of the formalin given in 1965 (in contrast to Little Knott). Grain yields were sizeably increased by the new formalin drench only when N was not given, but straw yields were increased independently of N. Yields without N fertilisers were smaller than in 1965 and grain yields were greatly increased by giving 0.5 cwt N/acre (except where formalin also had been given in 1965 and 1966), but not further by giving more. Straw yields also were greatly increased by 0'5 cwt N/acre (whether or not formalin was given), but little more with more N.

The fact that yields of straw, but not of grain, were larger when formalin and nitrogen were given together, suggests that potential grain yield was lost through lodging. Hence, effects were better judged by straw than by grain. The table also shows that newly applied formalin did not consistently increase % N in the grain, but that it did increase the total amount of N removed by the grain and straw in seven of eight comparisons.

Appendix Table 3 shows that, in 1967, wheat yields were diminished by formalin given in 1966, but that most of this loss was prevented either by drenching with formalin again in 1967 or by giving the wheat more than 0.5 cwt N/acre. A new drench greatly increased the yields of grain where the wheat was not given N, and slightly increased them when only 0.5 cwt N/ acre was given, but, with more N than this, formalin decreased grain yields. It consistently increased straw yields. The largest yields of grain and of straw were obtained by giving formalin to soil that had been given none the year before, but the best amount of N for each was different. New formalin increased $\frac{9}{6}$ N in the grain in 7 of 8 comparisons and it also increased the total amount of N removed by the grain and straw, except when 1.5 cwt N/acre was also given. The effect of this new drench on the 122

FORMALIN AND NITROGEN

amount of N removed by the wheat was less than that of giving the wheat 0'5 cwt N/acre.

Appendix Table 3 shows that the formalin given for the 1968 wheat consistently decreased grain yields and slightly decreased those of straw, presumably because it made lodging worse in this wet summer. By contrast, the residual effects from the 1967 drench increased grain yields, presumably because this wheat was poorer, lodged less and so yielded more. Nitrogen increased yields a little providing that only 0.5 cwt N/acre was given. With more N, grain yields were consistently diminished and straw yields were irregular. Newly applied formalin usually increased grain $\%$ N, but because it decreased yields it usually decreased the total amount of N recovered by the wheat, although fertiliser N consistently increased it.

Table 4 shows that newly applied formalin (averaged over N) increased grain and straw yields only a little each year from 1965 to 1967, and that it greatly decreased yields of grain and slightly decreased yields of straw in 1968.

The residual harmful effects of formalin the year after it was given were far less than on Little Knott; they appreciably diminished yields of grain only in 1967 and of straw in 1967 and in 1968. Formalin given two or three years previously had only small effects on yields, but they were positive in four of six comparisons.

Grove Plot, Saxmundham, 1967-68. The 1967 barley followed a summer fallow. Appendix Table 4 shows that, without formalin, 0.6 cwt N/acre increased grain yields by 14.1 cwt/acre, but with it, by 17.9 cwt/acre. Applying 1.2 cwt N/acre rather than 0.6 increased grain yields further (by 4.9 cwt/acre), but then formalin slightly diminished yields. Formalin also increased straw yields, but more with the single than with the double amount of N, and it also increased $\frac{9}{6}$ N in the grain, however much N was given. Thus, more total N was always removed by the barley with than without formalin.

than in 1967, but that the response to N was larger, so that maximum yields Appendix Table 4 shows that, in 1968, yields without N were smaller were nearly the same in the two years. As in 1967, newly applied formalin increased yields a little, but more with 0.6 than with 1.2 cwt N/acre. The residual effects from the formalin given in 1962 also increased yields, but

TABLE 5

Mean yields (cwt/acre) of spring barley (15 $\%$ moisture content) without and with formalin at Saxmundham in 1967 and 1968

usually less than did the new drench. Formalin applied in either year increased $\frac{9}{6}$ N in the grain, but the combined effect of both drenches was not consistently greater than that of a drench in 1968 only.

Table 5 shows that newly applied formalin increased mean grain and straw yields each year, though by much less than on soils with a long history of arable crops at Woburn (Butt Close) and at Rothamsted (Little Knott). Also, in contrast to the other experiments, the residual effects of formalin were beneficial rather than harmful, which suggests that at Saxmundham the effects of formalin were mainly from an increase in mineral N and not from a decrease in soil pathogens. Table 6 shows the amounts of mineralisable N in soil samples taken just before the barley was sown in March 1968 and then incubated in the laboratory for 24 days at 25"C (by J. K. R. Gasser). These show that the soil contained litde mineral N; formalin increased the amount of N mineralised after incubation, either when it had been given in 1967 or in 1968, but giving it in both years increased mineral N most. Judged by yields, this increase in mineral N was

TABLE 6

The total amounts of mineralisable N in Saxmundham soils in March, 1968

Formalin applied

probably equivalent to giving the barley only another 10 lb N/acre; the extra N from giving formalin in 1967 and in 1968, rather than in 1968 alone, was not reflected in larger yields or in larger amounts of N removed by the barley.

Fosters, Rothamsted, 1967-68. Appendix Table 5 shows that, in 1967, formalin greatly increased the yields of grass at the first cutting and slighdy increased them at the second and third cuttings. At the first cut, $\frac{9}{6}$ N was

TABLE 7

Total yields (cwt/acre) of dry grass from five cuts, the mean percentage of N in dry grass and the total amounts (cwt/acre) of N taken up (in five cuts) in an experiment testing nitrogen and formalin for grass, 1967-68

decreased, but total N increased, whereas at the second and third cuttings formalin increased both $\frac{9}{6}$ N and the total amount removed by the grass.

In 1968 the residual benefits of formalin were small but consistent. They increased yields at the first and the second cuttings (16 months after the formalin had been applied), but they increased $\%$ N and the yield of nitrogen only at the first, and of grass not given N at the second cutting.

Table 7 shows that over the two years formalin increased yields by $11·0$ cwt/acre without N and by 9.1 cwt/acre with most N, so formalin had proportionally most effect when N was not given. Nitrogen alone increased yields by 83.6 cwt/acre, so that its effect was approximately eight times larger than that of formalin. Formalin did not consistently change $\%$ N in the grass, but it did increase the total amount of N recovered by the grass.

Discussion

The results illustrated well the problems involved in making experiments with formalin and other sterilants, for not only did the formalin control soil with formally and other sternality, for however, but it also increased the amounts of N recovered by the crops and so presumably the amounts of N mineralised in the soils (Gasser & Peachey, 1964). However, because of these interactions and because we did not measure the effects of formalin on mineraliscrops grown with formalin (Slope, 1966; Salt, 1966) used the existing able soil N (except at Saxmundham) we cannot tell whether the healthier reservoir of soil N more efficiently, or whether their larger yields depended partly on the additional N provided by the partial sterilisation of the soil. However, except at Woburn (where cereal cyst nematode was abundant) fertiliser nitrogen and formalin were to some extent interchangeable, when was comparable to that of giving nitrogen alone, but it never exceeded that each was tested alone. At Rothamsted the effect of giving formalin alone was comparable to that of giving nitrogen alone, but it never exceeded that
of giving 0.5 cwt N/acre. Nevertheless, when formalin and 0.5 cwt N/acre were given together, they interacted, and it was seldom possible to obtain as large a yield from nitrogen alone, however much was given.

Fig. 1 shows mean results for pairs of years in each cereal experiment. It is very evident that the effects of nitrogen and formalin were far better measured by the straw than by the grain, for the yields of straw were always larger with formalin than without, whereas formalin sometimes diminished grain yields, presumably because the larger crop that it gave lodged more severely. Apparently lodging did not diminish straw yields, otherwise formalin would have diminished these as well as those of grain.

Fig. 2 shows mean results (averaged over nitrogen dressings) of giving formalin for the previous crop, for the current crop or for both, in each of formally for the previous crop, for the carrent ereption of formally sometimes
the four cereal experiments. Residual effects of formally sometimes increased and sometimes decreased yields, but they always diminished the
benefit from freshly applied formalin, which consistently increased yields. benefit from freshly applied formalin, which consistently increased yields. Formalin had similar effects on grain and on straw yields, except on the Pastures experiment, where lodging spoilt the comparison for grain. So again the effects of formalin were best measured by yields of straw.

This paper is intended to give the yields obtained from the experiments in full, and to show and discuss the interactions between nitrogen fertiliser and 128

FORMALIN AND NITROGEN

formalin. It also shows the amounts of N recovered by the crops and that formalin increased this whether or not soil pathogens were abundant. It does not discuss the effects of formalin on cereal cyst nematode (Heterodera avenae) in the Butt Close experiment, because these have already been published (Williams, 1969); nor effects on take-all (Ophiobolus graminis) and other soil fungi, because D. B. Slope and G. A. Salt will give their results in other papers.

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APPENDIX TABLE 1

Yields of spring wheat grain and straw, the percentage of N in grain, and the amounts of N taken up by grain plus straw on Butt Close field at Woburn,
1964 and 1965

131

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Spring wheat in 1965 and 1966, winter wheat in 1967 and 1968.

FORMALIN AND NITROGEN

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APPENDIX TABLE 2

APPENDIX TABLE 3

Yields of wheat¹ grain and straw, the percentage of N in grain, and the amounts of N taken up by grain plus straw,

132

ROTHAMSTED REPORT FOR 1969, PART 2

FORMALIN AND NITROGEN

APPENDIX TABLE 4

Yields of barley grain and straw, the percentage of N in grain, and the N taken up by grain plus straw at Saxmundham (Suffolk), 1967 and 1968

Chemical Control of Plant Growth

E. C. HUMPHRIES

That the form of plants, and the relative proportions of their different parts, can change greatly is evident from the differences between plants of one variety when grown in different environments. The sequence of environmental changes that gives the greatest yield of either total dry matter or the economically important parts of the plant can be discovered experimentally, but the scope for increasing yield of field crops by changing the environment is small. There is more scope in changing the morphology and development of the plant to suit the environment, and the larger potential yield of new than of old varieties of some crop plants reflect the success of the plant breeder in doing this. However, plant breeding is a slow process, and with the knowledge that the effects of the environment are mediated by the changes in the content and distribution of endogenous growth substances (chemicals produced within the plant that affect such processes as cell division and extension), there comes the possibility of altering the growth and morphology of existing varieties in ways that will increase yield.

This paper discusses this possibility and describes how growth regulators affect plant form; a growth regulator is defined as either a naturally occurring or a synthetic chemical that, when applied to plants in small amounts, changes their form by altering the relative proportions of its component parts (Humphries, 1967).

Hormone weedkillers are growth regulators, but I shall not consider them though they represent by far the largest use yet of growth regulators in agriculture. I shall deal only with chemicals applied to change the form and growth of crop plants directly. Research on such chemicals was stimulated by the discovery of gibberellic acid, gibberellin A₃, first identified as a metabolic product of the fungus Fusarium moniliforme. This greatly increased the growth of some plants, especially of their stems, but sometimes also of leaves, and increased total dry weight. Regrettabiy the early promise that gibberellic acid could be used to increase crop yield has not been realised, although only few tests have been made on field crops because it is expensive. However, a claim that cheaper unrefined preparations increase yields of sugar cane (Tanimoto & Nickell, 1966) implies the need for further tests.

The chemicals whose efects and interactions I shall consider are:

Gibberellic Acid, a naturally occurring growth regulator that increases both cell division and cell growth.

CCC(2-chloroethyl-trimethylammonium chloride), a synthetic chemical that inhibits gibberellin synthesis, slows cell division, lessens apical

dominance, causing more branches to develop, and strengthens stems of cereals,

B9 (N-dimethylaminosuccinamic acid), a synthetic chemical that stunts plant growth, probably by interfering with auxin synthesis (e.g. Cooper et al., 1968).

Morphactins, which are synthetic derivatives of fluorene carboxylic acid, and chemically related to the gibberellins, but with very different properties. The morphactins stunt plant growth at smaller concentrations than CCC or 89.

Ethrel (2-chloroethylphosphonic acid), a chemical that causes growth changes by liberating ethylene in the plant.

Effects of growth regulators on potatoes

The yield of potatoes could be increased if a greater proportion of the total dry weight could be made to pass into the tubers, or if the dry weight could be increased by increasing the leaf area or by prolonging the life of the haulm. Gibberellic acid usually increases stem extension, but not of potato plants except when nitrogen is deficient (Humpbries & French, 1960) or when potato seed pieces are soaked in concentrated solutions (Dyson & Humphries, 1966). It increased the areas of some leaves and increased the yield of dry matter, (Humphries & French, 1960, 1961, 1963) and sometimes tuber yield (Humpbries & French, 1963). Treated leaves had larger cells and more cells per leaf (Humphries & French, 1963). Apparently gibberellic acid affected only growing leaves or those that had reached a minimum size in the apical primordium, but by enough to increase dry matter. It also increased tuber number but made them smaller and shortened the dormant period (Humphries, 1958; and Humphries & French, 1960). Gibberellic acid increases the activity of hydrolysing enzymes and this may be why treated potato leaves have less total nitrogen and protein per unit area than untreated (Humphries & French, 196l). As gibberellic acid also makes the root system smaller, the paler colour of the leaves could imply that the roots were not absorbing enough nitrogen, but spraying the leaves of treated plants with urea did not affect their appearance (Humphries & French, 1963).

The ability of gibberellic acid to break tuber dormancy could be an advantage if the precocious growth were subsequently checked by applying inhibitors. Krug (1963) found a balanced combination of the inhibitor CCC and gibberellic acid produced compact plants in the dim light of winter, but Dyson (1965) found that applying CCC to soil containing seed pieces soaked in 50 mg/l gibberellic acid did not counteract the effect of GA. Effects depend on the concentration of the growth substances and when they are applied. For instance, Dyson and Humphries (1966) found that CCC or B9 had diflerent effects on Majestic potato plants treated with gibberellic acid when applied at different times. When growth of lower lateral branches was retarded, upper laterals often grew more than in untreated plants. However, Bruinsma and Swart (1966) controlled the growth of potato plants from tuber buds by giving gibberellic acid and 89 simultaneously.

CHEMICAL CONTROL OF PLANT GROWTH

The effects of applying gibberellic acid at different concentrations and times and its interaction with growth inhibitors, are still far from fully known, but none has yet proved to be useful. However, it might be better to treat a plant with a gibberellin that occurs naturally in it. Gibberellic acid itself is not a common constituent of most plants but Gibberellin A₅ is; Wheeler and Humphries (1963) found when potato plants were sprayed with gibberellic acid it was converted to another gibberellin, possibly A_5 .

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اما Stimulating the growth of one plant part at the expense of another may lead to compensating effects later when the stimulation stops. This happens with gibberellic acid and is one reason why it is not useful. An effective stimulator should accelerate the growth of all plant parts equally, so that its effects would resemble those of increasing temperature on plant growth. This could be achieved if the substance increased cell division in all parts of the plant so that their relative growth rates were maintained. This seemed possible with the discovery of the phyokinins, but although they stimulate cell division and growth in isolated plant parts they have little effect when applied to intact plants (e.g. Humphries, l95g), perhaps because they do not penetrate or move easily in the intact plant. Small amounts of some herbicides (especially triazole compounds) seem to have the desired properties of a growth stimulator and need further study.

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he Increasing leaf growth, especially at first, increases yieid but when crops become dense part of their leaf area is inefficient and uses dry matter that might otherwise have been diverted to increase the economic part of the plant (e.g. see Humphries & Wheeler, 1963). As already mentioned the relative distribution of dry matter in different parts of a plant is determined by the environment working through endogenous growth substances, but the distribution is altered by applying growth regulators. CCC and B9 slow growth of stems and leaves and divert assimilates to other parts. Such diversion could be valuable in the potato. Humphries and Dyson (1967a) showed that a potato crop can have more leaf area than is necessary for maximum tuber yield; some leaves contribute little to useful dry matter production, for Majestic potato plants sprayed with $\overline{B9}$ (5 g/l) at tuber initiation and two weeks later had $20\frac{\degree}{\degree}$ less leaf area than unsprayed plants at the time of maximum leaf area index. but yielded the same weight of tubers. B9 speeded tuber growth and increased the number of tubers. This result suggests poteniial uses of growth regulators in potato culture, and in preliminary tests, Humphries, French and Williams (1967) found that different potato varieties may respond differently and that yield increased more in early than in main crop varieties. Whereas CCC increased tuber yields of Arran Pilot by 37% and B9 of Craigs Alliance by 28%, neither chemical increased the yield of Maris Peer or Pentland Dell by more than 5%
(Table 1). Whether such effects can be obtained consistently remains to be seen. Bodlaender and Algra (1966) found that B9 also increased yield of the varietyAlpha. Shibles and Weber (1966) concluded that converting aslittle as 8% of the top vegetative dry matter of the soybean plant to beans would increase yields by about 15% .

CCC hastens tuber growth (Dyson, 1965) and this earlier development of tubers increases sinks for carbohydrate and increases net photosyrithesis of the leaves (Dyson & Humphries, 1966; Gifford & Moorby, 1967). The

TABLE 1

Effect of the growth regulators CCC and B9 on $\%$ change in (a) total fresh weight of tubers, and (b) tuber number of some potato varieties

factors determining the number of tubers that a potato variety produces are not fully understood but it is certain that the potential number is greater than the actual number. For instance, Nösberger and Humphries (1965) found that removing tubers caused more to form. In the variety Epicure, 98 tubers formed on a plant when they were continually cut off, but only 45 formed when they were undisturbed. This result suggests that tuber number can be altered by appropriate treatments and this might have practical benefits. For instance the potato-seed grower requires the maximum number of tubers in the seed-size range, and the canner small evenlyshaped tubers. These requirements are met, to some extent, by suitable varieties or cultural practices, but growth regulators can also change tuber size and number. Thus, 89 increased mean tuber number in Majestic by nearly 30% (Humphries & Dyson, 1967b). In this experiment, seed tubers of different sizes were planted and, as expected, the smaller seed produced plants with fewest tubers, but 89 also affected tuber number, so the number of tubers per plant in this experiment ranged widely. 89 increased tuber number in some other varieties but CCC did not, and sometimes decreased the number. The effect of a growth regulator depends on whether it is applied before or at the time of tuber initiation.

Preliminary results with potatoes grown in pots show that Morphactin slows haulm growth, and this has beneficial effects on stolon and tuber development. Sprays of I or l0 mg/l completely stopped growth of new leaves and stimulated growth of axillary shoots, especially at the base of the main stem, and increased the leafy stolons i.e. branches originating beneath the soil and emerging to bear leaves. In the field, with greater depth ofsoil and more competition for light, these branches might have remained in the soil and produced tubers. Increase in growth activity at the base was also reflected by greater weight and length of stolons. Morphactin also increased the number of small tubers (Humphries & Pethiyagoda, 1969).

Effect of CCC on white mustard (Sinapis alba)

CCC increases leafiness in some plants-for example length and dry weight of the main stem of white mustard decreases with increasing amounts of CCC, whereas leaf weight may increase. The net effect of moderate amounts of CCC is a greater total leaf area (Humphries, 1963a), a good example of how a growth regular may be used to increase the useful part of the plant (leaf) and decrease the less desirable part. CCC and 89 also 138

CHEMICAL CONTROL OF PLANT GROWTH

delay the decrease with age in total-N and protein-N of bean leaves, probably because the shoot grows more slowly and demands less nitrogen (Humphries, 1968a).

Effect of CCC and gibberellic acid on sugar beet

CCC hastened leaf production by sugar beet and gibberellic acid slowed it. Both changed the shape of the crown of the plant, CCC flattening it and gibberellic acid elongating it, and this change was associated with the rate leaves were produced (Humphries & French, 1965). More leaves on the sugar-beet plants did not affect the dry matter produced because they were smaller; nor did the fewer leaves of plants treated with gibberellic acid, because they were larger and persisted longer than on untreated plants. The result showed that dry weight can depend more on size and longevity of leaves than on total number of leaves.
Although CCC hastened leaf production of sugar beet, it had no such

effect on potatoes or cereals. When CCC was applied to sugar-beet seedlings with only two leaves, its effect persisted for the rest of the season, as do the effects of environment in which sugar-beet seedlings are raised, (Humphries, 1966; French & Humphries, 1969; Humphries & French, 1969a, 1969b). Suitable growth regulators might change the relative proportions of plant parts in the same way as environment does. If this is done at an early stage it may be possible to increase yield in other plants with organs that store carbohydrate (Humphries, 1969). For example, CCC applied to sweet potato (Ipomoea batatus) grown in pots increased the weight of tubers. Possibly some growth substances may also increase net photosynthesis in leaves, for there is evidence that the leaves of sugar beet do not always photosynthesise to full capacity.

CCC and cereals

Up to now the growth regulator most studied on cereals is CCC. Soon after it was described by Tolbert in 1960 it was used to prevent lodging of cereals and many papers show its practical value (see Humphries, 1968b). Although its main efect is to shorten and strengthen the stems, and so lessen losses caused by lodging, it has other effects that increase yield.

the untreated crops did not lodge, but CCC increased grain yield by In the first experiments with CCC on wheat on Rothamsted farm in 1964, 2 cwt/acre, mainly by increasing the number of ears; a decrease in grain size by CCC was offset by more grains/ear (Humphries, Welbank & Witts, 1965a). Leaf area index of sprayed plants was $70-80\%$ of unsprayed. With less leaf more light penetrated the canopy of crops sprayed with CCC than of unsprayed crops, and at first this was thought to be the reason why more shoots survived, but later experiments did not support this explanation.

In the following years, experiments were done mainly to see how CCC affected lodging and yield of crops given different amounts of nitrogen fertiliser, spaced at diflerent row widths or irrigated. Some experiments also

studied the effects of CCC on leaf area, the number of ear-bearing shoots, grains per ear and grain size.

Spacing experiments. In 1965, spring wheat, Opal, was sown in rows 4 in. or 8 in. apart at usual and twice usual seed rates, with 0.5 or 1.0 cwt nitrogen/acre. Yield was slightly increased by CCC at 4 in. spacing, but not at 8 in.; however, the interaction was not significant (Humphries & Bond, 1969a). Yield was less with the larger seed rate, although it increased leaf area duration after anthesis.

Similar results were obtained in 1968, when CCC was tested on both winter wheat (Cappelle) and spring wheat (Kolibri) grown at different spacings. Nitrogen fertiliser was applied at 0.8 , 1.6 or 2.4 cwt N/acre. The winter wheat did not lodge and mean yield of grain was 28.8 cwt/acre; closer spacing increased it by 0'9 cwt/acre and spraying with CCC increased it by 1.9 cwt/acre, but there was no indication that CCC had a greater effect with closer spacing.

The mean yield from Kolibri was 3l'8 cwt/acre and closer spacing increased grain yield by l'3 cwt/acre, spraying with CCC increased it by 4.7 cwt/acre but, as before, there was no interaction between CCC and row width. Thus, although the shortened shoots of CCC plants allow more light to penetrate to the base of the plants (Humphries, Welbank & Witts, 1965b), this seems to have little effect on yield (Humphries & Bond, 1969b).

Irrigation experiments. In 1964 and 1965, CCC-treated plants pulled by hand from the soil had more attached roots than untreated plants. Hanus (1967) found that CCC usually increased the amount of wheat roots at all soil depths. Others have reported similarly and it can be accepted that CCC usually makes root systems larger, especially of spring wheat, whose stems are shortened more by CCC than are stems of winter varieties. The enlarged root suggested that CCC may increase yield by enabling shoots to avoid water stress during the period near ear emergence, so that more survive to produce ears. CCC increases tillering of wheat growing in pots (Humphries, 1963b, Tolbert, 1960); but in a field crop, where competition causes many tillers to die before maturing, CCC presumably increases the number of fertile tillers by allowing some tillers to survive that otherwise would have died. Humphries, Welbank and Witts (1965b) showed that the shoot number of an untreated crop declined from about $700/m^2$ in mid-May to $450/m^2$ at the end of June. The survival of an additional 20 ears/ m^2 would increase grain yietded about 2 cwt/acre (Humphries, 1968c). The dependence of yield on the number of ear-bearing shoots per acre is illustrated by results obtained in 1966 from the Woburn Irrigation Experiment (see Fig. l, wbich shows the partial regression of yield on shoot number at constant ear weight). Yields ranged from about 25 cwt/acre with 300 shoots/m² to about 50 cwt with more than 500 shoots/m².

Soil moisture deficits at Rothamsted for the 3 weeks after ear emergence, calculated by Penman's method, were more than 2 in. in 1964 and 1966, when CCC increased yield, but less than 1 in. in 1965 when CCC had no effect on yield of a normally spaced crop. The conclusion that the enlarged root system of CCC plants is important in drought was 140

Shoots/m²

FIG. 1. Partial regression of yield on shoot number. Woburn Irrigation Experiment, 1966.

further tested in 1966 on the Irrigation Experiment at Woburn Experimental Farm by spraying half of each irrigated and unirrigated plot of spring-wheat with $2\frac{1}{2}$ lb/acre CCC at 5-leaf stage. The experiment also tested N at 0.4, 0.8, 1.2 or 1.6 cwt/acre in all combinations with CCC and irrigation.
Both irrigation and CCC increased grain yield, but CCC had no effect on

irrigated plots and the effect of irrigation was less on plots sprayed with CCC. On plots receiving 1.2 or 1.6 cwt N/acre, CCC increased grain yield
by 6 cwt/acre, and irrigation by 10 cwt/acre, mainly by increasing ear number (Humphries, Welbank & Williams, 1967; Humphries, 1968c). In an identical experiment in 1967, irrigation increased yield but CCC did not, possibly because the dry spell in June and July was longer than in 1966.
Root sampling showed that CCC without irrigation increased total root
weight by 14%, and in the subsoil (25–60 cm) by 37%, but very little with
irri system most in the subsoil, where water would not be lacking during a brief

Interaction of CCC with nitrogen supply. Several experiments were made to test the possibility that shortening the straw of a wheat crop with CCC may allow larger N dressings to be given and the yield increased more without risk of lodging (Humphries & Bond, 1969b). In 1966 at Rothamsted, Kloka

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wheat was given 0, 0'8, l'6 or 2'4 cwt N/acre. Plots without CCC did not lodge, even with 2.4 cwt N, but CCC increased grain yield by an average of 2 cwt/acre as in 1964. Tests on grain from this experiment (Evers & Kent, 1968) show that CCC did not affect protein content. In 1967, when both winter (Cappelle) and spring wheat (Kloka) were given the same amounts of nitrogen as in 1966, CCC increased yield of Cappelle without N by 12 cwt/acre but by only 0.6 cwt/acre when N was given. The increase in yield with CCC came mostly from more ears and more grains per ear, offset to a small extent by smaller grains. More grains per ear is a usual effect of CCC but the cause is still in doubt and requires further investigation. That the slower development of CCC-treated plants allows more grains to form seems the most probable explanation. CCC did not affect grain yield of Kloka in 1967 and the maximum yield was obtained with 0'8 cwt N.

In 1968, more experiments were done with large N amounts, both on Cappelle and the new spring variety Kolibri; for the first time we could assess the benefits of CCC in conditions favouring lodging. Lodging occurred on all untreated plots of Kolibri, in amounts that increased with increasing N. Spraying with CCC increased the mean yield of grain by 4'7 cwt. Larly lodging on untreated plots caused slower development of grains than on treated plots, so by delaying and decreasing lodging CCC increased grain size. It makes grains smatler in unlodged crops. There were also more grains per ear on CCC-treated plots, so more, larger grains account for the increased yield. Cappelle did not lodge and CCC increased yield only with 1.6 cwt N, by increasing the number of ears.

TABLE 2

Summary of results of CCC experiments 1964-69; Rothamsted and Woburn

Mean 40.0 42.9

CHEMICAL CONTROL OF PLANT GROWTH

Table 2 summarises the results of experiments on wheat at Rothamsted and Woburn between 1964 and 1968. In ten out of eleven experiments CCC increased yields. In some experiments yield was increased when no lodging occurred on untreated plots, in othars the yield was increased because lodging was delayed or prevented. The mean increase in yield by CCC in.all experiments was 7% . There was no evidence that yields increased by giving more than the usual amount of nitrogen when CCC was applied to prevent lodging. I have done no experiments in which CCC was mixed and applied with herbicide spray, but this has been shown to be a practical procedure, and the extra cost of CCC is then only that of the chemical. The Rothamsted results suggest that the use of CCC would have been profitable in most years.

Effect on wheat diseases. In spite of modern stiff-strawed varieties, lodging often limits grain yield. The likelihood of lodging is increased when the eyespot fungus, Cercosporella herpotrichoides, invades and weakens the base of straws. CCC increases the resistance of infected crops to lodging, base of straws. CCC increases the resistance of infected crops to lodging,
but opinions differ on how it acts. Some claim it decreases the incidence of
the disease, others that it acts merely by strengthening the straws, s experiment with the susceptible variety Squarehead's Master grown in pots the disease, others that it acts merely by strengthening the straws, so experiments were done at Rothamsted to try and resolve the conflict. In an (Slope & Humphries, 1966) CCC applied to the soil lessened the number of lesions by the fungus but field experiments done in three years have not confirmed this effect. In 1966, CCC did not alter the number of eyespot lesions on Rothwell Perdix but it prevented lodging. In 1967 Champlein winter wheat was sprayed with CCC at the 3-leaf stage, the 5-leaf stage and
the 6-leaf stage. CCC had no effect on severity of lesions but although only
4% of the unsprayed crop lodged, it increased yield by 4 cwt/acre. Ev eyespot is most likely to spread, there were as many lesions as on spring treated or untreated plants, (Slope, Humphries & Etheridge, 1969). Thus, CCC did not affect the incidence of eyespot or the severity of its lesions. It decreases lodging of infected crops as of uninfected crops by shortening the decreases lodging of infected crops as of uninfected crops by shortening the straw. CCC is said to increase the incidence of ear diseases such as Septoria culmorum and Fusarium in some climates, but this has not been critically studied.

Semi-dwarf wheats. Dwarf wheat varieties that are less likely than taller ones to lodge may make the use of CCC unnecessary. However, CCC could benefit the yield of dwarf cereals by increasing the root system and increasing grains per ear, just as it does in current varieties. In a trial done
in 1966 with several dwarf wheats grown in pots. CCC at a dilution of in 1966 with several dwarf wheats grown in pots, CCC at a dilution of 1 in 200 (equivalent to 2 lb/acre) shortened the straws of all but one of the varieties and none as much as of Opal or Kloka (Table 3). However, effects

Effects on barley and oats. A treatment that shortens straw would be useful with barley which is more susceptible than wheat to lodging, but many experiments at Rothamsted and elsewhere show that CCC has little effect
TABLE 3

Effect of CCC on straw length of some semi-dwarf wheat varieties (cm)

on barley. In tests with six varieties grown in pots, CCC shortened the shoots of the old long-strawed variety Plumage Archer but not of Proctor, Maris Badger, Europa, Cambrinus or Impala (Humphries, Welbank & Witts, 1965a). Whether the lack of effect is because CCC does not penetrate into the plant readily, is not translocated, or is metabolised once inside the plant, was not determined. When dimethylsulphoxide, which aids penetration of chemicals into plant and animal tissues, was added to CCC spray, the mixture shortened barley plants grown in pots in the glasshouse more than CCC spray alone, suggesting that more CCC entered the plant. However, when the ears were ripe, the plants treated with CCC alone or together with dimethylsulphoxide were nearly as tall as untreated plants. The same result was obtained in the field; soon after spraying, plants were shorter but afterwards grew faster than untreated plants (Humphries & Williams, 1968). The peduncle and highest internode at maturity were longer on sprayed than unsprayed shoots, but the lower internodes, which were elongating when sprayed, were shorter (Humphries, 1968d). Why barley plants treated with CCC eventually grew faster than untreated plants is not known, but the effect suggests that CCC may increase the gibberellin content of barley. Apparently if enough CCC can be maintained in the barley plant the shortening achieved is comparable with that in wheat. Thus, Larter (1967) who sprayed successively at the 3-leaf, 5-leaf and flag-leaf stages reported that stems were shortened by 25% and lodging was prevented. Successive sprayings are neither practical nor desirable because of the risk of increasing harmful residues in the grain. Stoy (1968) showed that tetraploid rye responds to CCC much more than diploid strains. So genotype is probably concerned with response of cereals to CCC, but perhaps this is only a part of the problem because I have shown that strains of wheat that are unresponsive in the hot climates of Egypt and Kenya show the expected shortening when tested here.

To shorten oat straw would be very valuable, for oats are very susceptible to lodging, but unfortunately CCC is not a general help because it affects only some varieties (Humphries, 1968b). When tested on the responsive variety Maris Quest in 1968, given 0.5, 1.0 or 1.5 cwt N/acre, the effect of $2\frac{1}{2}$ or 5 lb/acre CCC was to shorten straws by 11% or 15% respectively; the effect decreased with increasing N supply. Slight lodging in July on plots 144

CHEMICAL CONTROL OF PLANT GROWTH

given 0.5 cwt N/acre was decreased by spraying with CCC, but plots with more N were severely lodged whether sprayed with CCC or not. On plots with 0.5 cwt N/acre, spraying with CCC at $2\frac{1}{2}$ lb or 5 lb/acre increased grain yields 2 cwt and 9 cwt/acre respectively, mainly by increasing grains per panicle. With more N, CCC did not affect yield (Humphries & Bond, 1969a).

A_ new growth regulator 'Ethrel' (2-chloroethylphosphonic acid) was tested on barley and oats in 1969. Plots of each crop sprayed with 1 lb or 2 lb/acre of active ingredient at 5-6 leaf stage lodged sooner than unsprayed plants but yields were not affected.

Effect of growth regulators on field beans

The first growth regulator experiments on field crops at Rothamsted were done by Moffatt and Hill (1960) between 1955 and 1957. They tested the effect of 4-chloro-phenoxyacetic acid and α -(2,4,5-trichlorophenoxy) propionic acid at 5 ppm on set of pods of spring-sown tick beans (Vicia faba var. minor). Two applications of the propionic acid decreased yield in 1955 and four applications of the phenoxy acid increased it in 1956. In 1957, it increased flower set on dunged plots and decreased it on irrigated plots.

In trials on field beans (McEwen, 1969), CCC did not shorten the stems and lessened yield by 1.9 cwt; B9 greatly affected growth and shortened stems by as much as $30\frac{\%}{\%}$, depending on time and amount applied. A single application in early June was most effective. However, B9 affected yields inconsistently; without fertiliser nitrogen it increased yield by about 2.5 cwt in 1966 and 1968 but decreased it by 2.1 cwt in 1967. The main effects of B9 were to increase the number of stems and pods per acre and lessen 1000 bean weight. Plants given B9 in 1968 produced half a million more beans per acre than untreated plants.

Conclusion

Applying chemicals to crops to alter their character and make them better able to withstand adverse conditions, or to alter their growth to produce more of the useful parts, is a new departure in agriculture but the success of CCC on cereals shows promise of future practical benefits. The search for gowth-regulating chemicals has been intensified and there are now several promising compounds that warrant thorough testing. Experience with CCC and other growth regulators shows that when a chenical is selected for ^a particular property, such as stem shortening, it is soon found to have other apparently unrelated effects. For instance, CCC usually also increases the number of grains, stem diameter and the root system in wheat. Such multiple effects make it important that each growth regulator be tested on many species in different conditions.

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hu It would be an advantage if a regulator also controlled pests and diseases, but the claim that CCC lessened eyespot disease of wheat has not been sustained, and it is now certain that it decreases lodging because it strengthens infected straws.

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There are other ways in which chemical regulators may aid crop production in the future. We still know little about the causes of flowering. The productivity of some crops, e.g. cereals, depends on time and amount of flowering, and perhaps suitable chemicals will be found to hasten flowering and seed set and shorten the crop cycle.

Little attention has yet been given to shortening the time a crop occupies the ground. Chemical regulators may eventually enable us to grow more crop in a shorter time. Yields of some crops in this country are limited by the length of the growing season. Potato plants for instance are easily frosted and a treatment to increase resistance to cold could increase yield by allowing earlier sowing. Both CCC and B9 are said to increase frost resistance of plants, including potatoes, but so far there is little reliable evidence.

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Rhizobium in the Soils of the Rothamsted and Woburn Farms

P. S. NUTMAN and G. J. S. ROSS

Introduction

This paper reports counts made of root nodule bacteria in the classical field experiments (except Broadbalk field, the results for which were given in Part 2 of Rothamsted Report for 1968), in the long-term fallow plots and in fields where legumes have been inoculated. Some other counts are summarised in the Rothamsted Reports for 1960 (p. 68), for 1962 (p. 79) and for 1965 (p. 86).

Species of nodule bacteria cannot with certainty be identified by cultural characteristics and so counted by plating. Enumeration depends on the nodulation of an appropriate host, grown in a sterile medium, from inocula of serially diluted samples of soil. The estimate of the number of nodules in the original sample is then obtained from the distribution of nodulated plants in the test, and rests on the assumption, verified by experiments with pure cultures (Date & Vincent, 1962), that a single cell of the appropriate Rhizobium introduced into the plant culture can suffice to produce nodules. Technical details and cultural methods are given by Date and Vincent (1962).

Serial dilutions used as inocula usually differed by a factor of 10, but occasionally by 4; 2-4 replicate samples of soil were used and each dilution was inoculated to 2-4 plants. Because test plants are sometimes attacked by fungi introduced in the soil suspension, each plant culture was classified as $+$ (nodulating), $-$ (not nodulating) or blank (dead or severely damaged), and the maximum likelihood method for estimating the most probable number of bacteria (MPN) in the original suspension was modified to take account of blank readings. In the tables and figures results are given as logarithms (base 10) of numbers per g dry soil. Variances of the estimated log densities have two independent components, the dilution series variance and the sampling variance. The dilution series variance depends mainly on the dilution factor and the number of tubes per dilution, and for two tubes in a tenfold dilution series averages 0.15, although the variance exceeds this figure if some plants die. The sampling variance and dilution series variance combined can be estimated from the sub-plot error in a replicated trial, which for Broadbalk over the four species averaged 0.30; results for Barnfield were similar (0.28). Where the range of dilutions chosen missed either the starting or end points for nodulation, numbers are given as fewer than, or more than, specified values. The counts recorded as zero in the tables are to be interpreted as fewer than one organism per 0.5 g dry soil. Rhizosphere counts are related to the dry weight of the soil adhering to the roots.

The four common species of *Rhizobium* found in arable farmland were separately counted by using different test legumes: viz Vicia hirsuta for Rhizobium leguminosarum, Trifolium pratense for Rhizobiwn trifolii, Medicago sativa or M. lupulina for Rhizobium meliloti, and Lotus corniculatus or L. uliginosus for Rhizobium lupini.

Test plants were grown on a N-free mineral salts agar medium (Jensen, 1942) so that their growth can be used to estimate the effectiveness with which the most numerous representatives of the bacteria present fixes nitrogen. This estimate may be affected by other soil micro-organisms introduced in the soil suspension and by the presence of both eflective and ineffective (non nitrogen-fixing) nodules on the same root. For this reason effectiveness is best judged from plants nodulating with the most dilute inoculum or by supplementary tests using bacteria re-isolated from single nodules taken from such plants.

Barnfield

The 0-l in. soil layer was sampled in February 1967 before Barnield was sown for the first time to field beans (Vicia faba). To count R. leguminosarum and R. trifolii four samples of soil were taken from each of the original plots (see Table l). Two of the samples were taken from each half plot sown in the previous year to mangolds (a) or potatoes (b), one from the sub-plot given no fertiliser (N_0) and one from the sub-plot (N_1) given 1.8 cwt ammonium sulphate per acre (except in the 0 and 3 strips which were not subdivided for the new fertiliser dressings). R . *lupini* and R . meliloti were not counted in the samples taken from the N_1 sub-plots.

The beans sown in Barnfield after February were inoculated with a peat culture of Rhizobium leguminosarum from Dr. D. A. van Schreven, Kampen, Holland, except those for strip 3 which were sown with uninoculated seed. In May 1967 bacteria in the rhizosphere and soil (between rows) were counted in duplicate samples taken from the 3 and 8 (no PKNaMg) and 0 (no nitrogen fertilisers), and A (ammonium sulphate) combinations only, and from winter beans growing in the neighbouring allotment field.

Table 1 shows the average numbers of the four Rhizobium species for each plot, combining (a) and (b) and (N_0) and (N_1) sub-plots.

Rhizobium trifolii and R. leguminosarum were about equally frequent, with average numbers per plot ranging several hundredfold. R. lupini and R. meliloti were very scarce; many samples contained none and no sample contained as many as 100/g dry soil. Analysis of variance showed significant differences between plots of each series $(1-8$ and $O-C)$ and a highly significant interaction between series. FyM seemed to decrease numbers, and nitrate and ammonium sulphate to increase numbers more than did rape cake, but because there is no true plot replication the interpretation of these effects is uncertain. The analysis also showed no effects of previous cropping or of supplementary dressings of nitrogen fertiliser recently applied.

Rhizobium numbers were quite unrelated to the long-term mangold yields, which ranged from 3 to 28 cwt/acre (Watson $\&$ Russell, 1943)

and so provided very different amounts of roots to indicate any rhizosphere stimulation.

The rhizosphere counts on the frst bean crop grown in this field showed that large populations of R. leguminosarum developed rapidly in the root zone, where numbers resembled those in the adjoining allotment field where beans have been frequently grown. Inoculation had no effect on the rhizosphere population but slightly increased the soil population, indicating that some of the peat inoculum was introduced into the interrow soil.

No isolates were taken for separate tests of the effectiveness of the bacteria in fixing nitrogen but the responses of the plants used in the counts showed that fewer than 5% of the most numerous bacteria present of R. leguminosarum and R. lupini were ineffective with Vicia hirsuta and. Lotus corniculatus respectively. However, 15% of the clover bacteria and about 20% of the medick bacteria were poorly effective or ineffective with Trifolium pratense and Medicago sativa respectively.

Long-term bare fallows

Continuous fallows were begun in 1960 in sections of Highfield (Rothamsted) and in 1959 in Stackyard (Woburn). The site on Highfield was ploughed from permanent grass, the Woburn site from potatoes after an arable sequence without legumes since 1944.

Counts were begun at Woburn in June 1960 and at Rothamsted in December 1960. Because numbers in the surface (0-1 in.) and sub-surface (3-4 in.) soil were similar, counts for the two samples were combined. Table 2 shows the logarithms of the mean numbers per g dry soil at each time of sampling. Initially numbers of R . trifolii and R . leguminosarum were similar in the two fields but there were more R . *meliloti* at Woburn than at Rothamsted. During 1961, which was very dry during early summer, numbers fell sharply, especially of R. meliloti at Woburn, but later the rates of decline of each species were less; at Rothamsted numbers of R. trifolii and R. leguminosarum tended to fluctuate rather than decline.
At Woburn R. trifolii remained slightly more numerous than R.

leguminosarum whereas at Rothamsted R. trifolii was constantly about $100 \times$ more abundant than R. leguminosarum. In both fields the R. meliloti were few. Many samples from both sites taken since 1961 contained no recoverable cells.

The increase in the numbers of R. trifolii and R. leguminosarum immediately after the drought in 1961 and in 1963 may have been caused by leguminous and other weeds that grew when cultivations were impossible because of soil conditions (at Woburn 8 cultivations were done in 1960 and 1961, 4 in 1962 and 3 in 1963). The possible effect of weed growth was examined in soil sampled from the plots in August and December 1963 into pots, and kept moist. R. trifolii and R. leguminosarum were counted in the soil and in the rhizospheres of some of the weeds that developed (and in the rhizoid zone of the moss layer that formed on some of the pots). Table 3 shows the logaritbms of numbers in the rhizosphere and the ratios of numbers in the rhizosphere to numbers in soil (R/S) . Fifteen of

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TABLE 2

TABLE 3

The stimulation of Rhizobium trifolii and R. leguminosarum in the rhizosphere of weed species in Woburn and Rothamsted fallow soils

Log estimated no./g dry rhizosphere soil and ratio of numbers in rhizosphere (R) and soil (S)

the eighteen R/S values were greater than unity, and in most comparisons the rhizosphere effect was appreciable, indicating that some plants other than members of the Leguminosae stimulate the multiplication of nodule bacteria. Most R. trifolii were found among the roots of the single medick plant that grew in these pots (which, however, was not nodulated, indicating the absence of R. meliloti). Most R. leguminosarum was found in the rhizosphere of Urtica urens. That seeds of leguminous weeds are scarce at the Woburn site was also shown by Thurston, who found only three viable seeds each of Medicago lupulina and Trifolium repens in 30/Kg of soil sampled between 1960 and 1962, and none in 1963 (personal communication).

Miscellaneous counts in arable fields

Table 4 summarises counts of R. leguminosarum and R. meliloti made in fields before starting inoculation experiments.

R. leguminosarum. This species occurred in all fields sampled, but numbers were very few in the acid soil of Sawyers III, where beans were not known to have been grown before. The rhizosphere of young bean plants during early spring (in Delafield and Great Field I) already contained as many bacteria as recorded in the much older plant's rhizosphere (Table 1); numbers in soil under cereals after beans were about one-tenth as large as in the bean rhizosphere.

R. meliloti. In fields growing good trefoil (Stackyard A in 1960 and Stackyard C in 1962), R. meliloti was abundant, specially in the rhizosphere.

Butt Close field, which is not known to have been sown to trefoil but probably contains medick weeds had a small population of R. meliloti in

TABLE 4

Miscellaneous counts

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1962. The field was slightly less acid at one end than the other, and populations were larger in the less acid areas.

Counts were made in Stackyard C and Lansome fields in 1960 to investigate the poor establishment of trefoil grown from uninoculated seed in land not previously known to have grown trefoil. Soil from plots in the experiment growing ryegrass contained either none or very few R. meliloti, but the rhizosphere of the trefoil contained R. meliloti in numbers ranging from fewer than 100 to more than 100 million per g of dry soil. Stackyard C seemed to be more favourable than Lansome to the bacteria and to nodulation. Numbers of nodules were correlated with rhizosphere populations at Lansome but not at Stackyard C, and in both fields neither nodules nor rhizosphere populations were related to vigour of growth of the plants. The poor growth of individual plants was probably caused by late, and consequently ineffective, nodulation from the small scattered population of R. meliloti present in these fields, and did not recur when inoculated seed was sown (Rothamsted Report for 1962, p. 79).

TABLE 4 (continued)

Miscellaneous counts

* Rhizosphere counts; remainder soil counts Each soil count mean of 4 or 8 samples \ldots = no observations

Garden Clover

The garden clover plot, measuring 8×12 ft, was established in 1854 to grow red clover continuously on rich garden soil at Rothamsted Manor. The equivalent of more than 20 tons/acre of green matter was harvested per year from this plot at first. But yields then declined, sometimes to less than 1 ton/acre, and for many years the plot has been resown or partly resown annually. The plot or part of the plot has been given dressings of lime, fertilisers (including molybdenum) and treated with formalin, carbon bisulphide, clover nodule bacteria and soil extract but without appreciably increasing yields.

Two soil samples were taken in February 1967 from the sub-plot given molybdenum and not treated with formalin. These contained averages of 154 000 cells per g dry soil of R. trifolii, 9 cells of R. leguminosarum, (capable of fixing nitrogen on T. pratense and Vicia hirsuta respectively) and none of R . *lupini* or R . *meliloti*. The numbers of clover nodule bacteria have probably been sustained partly by inoculation and partly by the continuing presence of the host, and the poor growth of clover cannot be attributed to lack of effective bacteria.

156

Numbers of Rhizobium trifolii, R. leguminosarum, R. lupini and R. meliloti, and occurrence of their hosts in plots of the Park Grass Experiment

ROTHAMSTED REPORT FOR 1969, PART 2

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Park Grass

Samples were taken during the winter from the limed and unlimed sections of certain of the plots given no manure or given nitrogenous, mineral or organic fertilisers (see Table 5). Each sample consisted of either the 0-1 in. (surface) or 3-4 in. (sub-surface) parts of ten half inch cores taken at random from each sub-plot. The ten part-cores were mixed and duplicate 2-3 g sub-samples taken for counting. In addition, some plots were sampled to a depth of 12 in. and samples of clover rhizospheres were taken from plots containing clover.

Table 5 shows the numbers of the four species of Rhizobium in the surface and sub-surface soil samples and in the clover rhizosphere (r), and also the occurrence and relative abundance of the leguminous species in each plot and the pH of the 0-3 in. layer of soil.

The most striking result is the absence (i.e. fewer than about 1 organism per 0.5 g soil) of *Rhizobium meliloti* from all plots sampled; this correlates with the fact that none of the hosts of this nodule bacterium-species of Medicago, Melilotis or Trigonella-has been recorded in the plots. Populations of the other three species in the soil of the different plots also depended on the presence of appropriate hosts, except (i) for R. leguminosarum in the nitrate plot without lime and in the mineral plot without PK, both of which adjoin plots containing Lathyrus or Vicia in their herbage, and (ii) for R. lupini in the limed halves of plots 1 and 9, both of which contain a few R. lupini but not their host plants. The average soil populations of R. trifolii were about ten times larger than those of R. leguminosarum or R. lupini.

Provided there are some host plants present, the populations of nodule bacteria in the soil are only slightly influenced or are unaffected by the abundance of the host. In view of this, the large effect of the clover rhizosphere was unexpected. This effect is restricted to R. trifolii except for the limed sections of plot 18 where R. leguminosarum and R. lupini are also stimulated. On all plots not given nitrogen fertiliser, the rhizosphere of clover seems to have fewer R . *lupini* than the soil. Some rhizosphere populations of R. trifolii were very large, and the dilution series used failed to give any negative readings for half of the samples. This rhizosphere stimulation of R. trifolii was greatest where the soil was somewhat acid, as in the unlimed half of plot 3 and in plots $5/1$ and $5/2$, although the largest populations were in the limed plots. The clover nodule bacteria of some of the limed plots were a major constituent of the total bacterial population of the soil counted on a soil-extract agar.

Populations of R . trifolii and R . leguminosarum but not R . lupini were usually 7-8 times larger in surface than in sub-surface soil. Table 6 shows additional counts made in samples from plots 7, 9 and 13 to a depth of 12 in. On the unlimed parts, specially of plots 9 and 13, numbers of R. trifolii and R. leguminosarum decreased regularly with depth, and at 11-12 in. were about one-hundredth of numbers in the surface soil. R. lupini occurred more irregularly through the profile, and showed no clear trend with depth. All species were irregularly distributed and not especially abundant in the top 1 in. of soil.

TABLE 6

Distribution of nodule bacteria in the soil profiles of Park Grass plots 7, 9 and 13

Log estimated no./g dry soil

Liming greatly increased Rhizobium numbers, probably partly indirectly by its effect in increasing the amount of host species in the herbage. Each host and its bacterium was found only in plots with soil less acid than pH 4.0 and they were usually more abundant on the alkaline plots. Plots sampled were either acid (pH 4.2-5.7) or slightly alkaline (pH 7.0-7.6). Between these groups, but not within them, there was a consistent effect of pH, with more nodule bacteria occurring in the soils (and in the clover rhizospheres) of the alkaline than of the acid group. The alkaline soils averaged 148 times more R. trifolii, 13 times more R. leguminosarum and 140 times more R. lupini than the acid soils.

The principal grasses of the unlimed part of plot 9 are Holcus lanatus in clumps, and Agrostis tenuis. Soil samples taken from the soil under the Agrostis tenuis areas yielded no nodule bacteria whereas soil under the Holcus lanatus area contained a few R. trifolii, which because of their unusual symbiotic characteristics (see next section) are probably indigenous to this plot.

The symbiotic characteristics of Park Grass strains of Rhizobium trifolii. The dominant (most numerous) members of the Rhizobium populations in the plots were obtained by isolating from nodules formed on test seedlings inoculated with the most dilute soil suspensions that produced nodules. These came from the limed and unlimed parts (when present) of Plots 1, 3, 5/1, 5/2, 7, 9, 13 and 18. Each isolate was tested on four replicated plants of Trifolium pratense grown aseptically on N-free mineral salts 158

medium in test tubes kept in a glasshouse. Comparison was made with uninoculated plants, and with plants inoculated with either the effective strain 0403 or the outstandingly effective strain 5 (Rothamsted collection strain numbers). The extent of nodulation was recorded and growth measured by grading for size at intervals and by measuring dry weight at harvest (80 days).

Isolates did not differ in the time at which they formed nodules, but varied considerably in their symbiotic effectiveness and in numbers of nodules produced. Fig. 1 shows the distribution of effectiveness of isolates measured in relation to the dry weight produced by strain 0403 (100 $\%$). With the exceptions discussed below, dry weight was distributed normally for each set of isolates; the variation was predominantly of host origin and corresponded to that expected in tests with four replicated plants.

The most effective strains (equal to or more effective than strain 5) came from the limed halves of plots given ammonium sulphate (plots 1, 9) and 18 II), although some strains from other plots (e.g. the unlimed section of the PKNaMg and nitrate plots, plots 7 and 17) were of more than average effectiveness. Strains from limed plots given minerals only and from the heavily limed plot 18 II differed more. Most strains isolated from these plots were as effective (or slightly more effective) than strain 0403, but of 20 strains two were ineffective and 3 poorly effective.

Plot 5, which has not been limed was colonised by bacteria more effective than 0403, except for an ineffective isolate from the rhizosphere of a plant from the section given PK. Only two of the eight bulked samples yielded any rhizobia, and these were of average effectiveness.

Isolates from limed and unlimed halves of plot 17, which is given sodium nitrate, were slightly less effective than those from plots 1 and 9. The small lime dressing applied to plot 18 III had no influence on strain variability, but the heavy liming of 18 II increased it; of the 16 strains examined from 18 II, two were more effective than the average, one less and one very poorly effective.

The acidity of unlimed plots usually either eliminated the clover nodule bacteria altogether or left as survivors only ineffective or poorly effective strains. Of the 8 strains isolated from the very acid (pH 3.8) section of plot 9 (from a *Holcus lanatus* patch) 4 were completely ineffective, and of those isolated from plots given no manure or PKNaMg only (pH 5.1) and 4.8), about one-quarter were ineffective, one-quarter poorly effective and one-half effective.

Nevertheless, neither acidity nor absence of lime were invariably associated with a decline in effectiveness; strains from plot 5/2 (pH 4-4), from the unlimed half of plot 17 (pH 5.7) and from plot 18 I (pH 4.2), were of average or more than average effectiveness. In all plots, isolates from the soil and from the corresponding rhizosphere were of similar effectiveness.

The mean number of nodules formed by each strain provided criteria for further strain differentiation, as shown in Table 7. Ineffective and poorly effective strains from all plots, except 18 II, formed many more and smaller nodules than did their effective counterparts. Differences between effective ones isolated from one plot section were not larger (except in the limed section of plot 17) than those with the strains 0403 and 5, and can be

attributed to host variation. However, there were large and significant differences in numbers between effective strains from different plots. Many more nodules were formed by effective strains from plot 5/2 (PK and no lime) and plot 7 (PKNaMg and lime) than by effective strains from the other plots. Strains from the limed sections of plot 13 (FYM) and plot 18 formed fewer nodules than strains from other plots. The single ineffective strain from plot 18 II was unique in its very sparse nodulation.

Exceptions to the general similarity in nodule number produced by effective strains from within a plot were three strains from the limed half

† Number of isolates tested.

161

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TABLE 7

ROTHAMSTED REPORT FOR 1969, PART 2

Numbers of nodules formed by Park Grass isolates in relation to efectioeness Unlimed Limed Plot $\begin{array}{c|c} 26 & 17 \\ 68 & 20 \end{array}$ $\frac{3}{7}$ 74 68 67 108 58 22 18 37 72 64 $\begin{array}{|c|c|c|c|c|} \hline 19 & 20 & 15 \\ \hline 20 & 20 & 20 \end{array}$ 20 $\overline{1}$ $\begin{bmatrix} 19 \\ 22 \\ 14 \\ 9 \end{bmatrix}$ $\begin{bmatrix} 20 \\ 23 \\ 19 \\ 9 \end{bmatrix}$ $\begin{bmatrix} 15 \\ 28 \\ 28 \end{bmatrix}$ 18 $\frac{21}{18}$ $\overline{9}$ 65 81 $\begin{bmatrix} 21 \\ 18 \\ 31 \end{bmatrix}$ $\begin{bmatrix} 19 \\ 8 \\ 8 \end{bmatrix}$ $\begin{bmatrix} 80 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$ $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 10 \end{bmatrix}$ $\begin{bmatrix} 30 \\ 10 \end{bmatrix}$ 17 17 34 27 13 $30-40-50-60-70-80-90-100-110$ $30-40-50$ - 60-70-80-90-100-110-120 Relative effectiveness (Strain $0403 = 100$) Plot l7 l5 12 ll 18r l3 l1 9 l8rrr l2 6 l6 19 l312 l8rr l8 2t $5/1$ 49 39 42 $5/2$ 78 21 36 Strain 0403 29 25 29 Strain 5 $30 - 40 - 50 - 60 - 70 - 80 - 90 - 100 - 110 - 120$ Relative effectiveness (Strain $0403 = 100$)

of plot l7; although these seemed to conform to the normal efrective group, as its least effective members, they produced many more nodules, viz 37, 38 and 52 compared with 16 for the remaining member of the group.

The distribution of nodulated plants in the dilution series

In the above counts no adjustment was made for 'skips', i.e. plants without nodules at lower dilutions than plants with nodules. The distribution of skips in the Barnfield, Broadbalk, Long-Term Fallows and Park. Grass counts was examined by tabulating the number of skip tubes per dilution series (Table 8). A 'skip' tube is defined as any negative tube above a positive one in the dilution series. This simple definition somewhat overestimates their true incidence, because where a 'skip' negative and a terminal positive are produced by adjoining dilutions, its normal prob-' ability of happening is up to 50% .

Because of the different lengths of the dilution series, statistical tests of the distribution of skips could not be made, but the results show some definite trends. Skips occurred in the counts of the four Rhizobium species in the following order of increasing frequency (neglecting manurial effects) : R. leguminosarum or R. trifolii, R. meliloti and R. lupini. This order occurred in each field and was also observed in other experiments where results were too few to be tabulated. Skips were least prevalent in the Broadbalk samples. Long-term fallowing at Rothamsted and Woburn decreased the incidence of skips in the counts of R. meliloti, but seemed not to affect their frequency in counts of the other species. In Broadbalk, 162

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RHIZOBIUM IN SOILS

TABLE 8

Number of skip negatives per dilution series

neither one year's fallow nor applying herbicide affected the number of skips.

Combining results for the different Rhizobium species, both Broadbalk and Park Grass show very similar differences caused by manuring. Plots given nitrate provided dilution series with fewest skips, followed by those given ammonium sulphate or PKNaMg or left unmanured. On Park Grass FYM increased the incidence of skips and liming greatly decreased it in all except one set of the paired plots where skips were few. The results for Barnfield showed no consistent plot differences, but in view of the Park Grass results it is of interest that the FYM plot gave most skips.

Discussion

The counting method. The method gave consistent results but with large differences between replicates; the standard errors commonly ranged from 10 to 100% of the mean most probable number.

Estimates of numbers were affected by skips in the expected sequence of

positives and negatives which led to sporadic and sometimes gross underestimation of actual numbers present in the original suspension, and also increased replicate variation. Thompson and Vincent (1967) showed that skips in dilution tubes used for counting R. trifolii were unaffected by conditions of growth of the test seedlings, but were commoner with soil containing few bacteria than with soil containing many. Adding soil to a dilution series of a pure culture of nodule bacteria decreased the count, especially when the soil was added to the tubes some time before the bacteria. Thompson and Vincent also showed that the contents of skip tubes when used to inoculate fresh seedlings sometimes produced nodules and sometimes did not, indicating that the nodule bacteria may be suppressed or eliminated, presumably by microbial antagonism, lysogeny or predation. There is much evidence that rhizobia are subject to microbial antagonism in soil and in pure culture studies (Hely, Bergersen, & Brockwell, 1957; Wieringa, 1963; van Schreven, 1964; Visona & Tardieux, 1964; Hattingh & Louw, 1966a, 1966b; Holland & Parker, 1966; and Robinson, 1968).

The consistent differences between Rhizobium species in liability to this counting aberration, and of effects of manuring and liming, are interpretable in terms of microbial antagonism encouraged by dung and acidity and discouraged by nitrogen fertilisers. The fields at Rothamsted and Woburn provide valuable soils for further study of this phenomenon.

Populations of Rhizobium and their effectiveness. Populations of the four species of Rhizobium studied occurred widely in the arable fields of the Rothamsted and Woburn farms but in numbers that varied many-fold, usually in relation to the presence or recent presence of their respective host plants, and to soil acidity. R. trifolii was most widespread and usually most abundant, followed by R. leguminosarum, with R. meliloti and R. lupini much less abundant and more restricted in distribution.

At the time Broadbalk was surveyed (Rothamsted Report for 1968, Part 2, p. 180), this field had been cropped with nothing but wheat since 1843. Numbers were unaffected by manurial treatment or by fallow the previous year or by herbicide. Numbers were not simply related to the distribution or abundance of leguminous weeds, although the absence of clover may have been a contributory cause of the fewer R. trifolii found in Broadbalk than in other arable fields. There are no records of leguminous weeds on the plot area of Barnfield (J. M. Thurston, private communication), but clovers, vetches and medick are common on the field boundaries and in neighbouring fields.

In the continuously fallowed fields, numbers declined progressively in the early years but later more erratically, particularly at Rothamsted. That the host plant is not entirely necessary for multiplication of nodule bacteria in soil was shown by experiments on their stimulation by some non-leguminous weeds. Such multiplication was sporadic and uncertain and is probably unimportant in maintaining populations. This is also indicated by the absence of any correlation of populations with wheat yields on Broadbalk, or of mangolds or potatoes on Barnfield. The counts from all the arable fields indicate that nodule bacteria from areas where 164

they are abundant are transferred to neighbouring fields, probably in soil blown by wind or brought on implements. Such agents probably suffice to provide inocula for clovers and beans, and possibly lotus, but not lucerne or trefoil grown on the farms. Adverse physical conditions, such as drought and heat accelerate decline of the soil population but when these do not operate, biological factors may be important, and it may not be coincidental that the species of Rhizobium most liable to decline in numbers are also most prone to show skips in their MpN count.

Development of appreciable populations from bacteria in the soil or from artificial inoculation, seems mainly to be restricted by soil acidity, with the four species again showing differential susceptibility to this factor in the environment. R. trifolii was occasionally isolated from soil more acid than $pH_1 + q_2$, but R. *meliloti* very rarely from soil more acid than pH 6.0. Alkalinity stimulated rhizosphere increase, though whether directly or by increasing root exudation is not known. Loneragan and Dowling (1958) and Mulder and van Veen (1960) also showed that acidity was important in restricting multiplication.

The symbiotic effectiveness of strains occurring in the arable areas was not studied in detail but the response of the count-test plants showed that most of the rhizobia were effective in fixing nitrogen on their test hosts.

The distributions and relative abundance and effectiveness of R. trifolii and R. meliloti at Rothamsted and Woburn parallel those reported by Jensen (1969) for more than two hundred arable soils of Denmark, where abundance was clearly related to presence of host and to soil pH. By experiment Jensen also showed that R. trifolii only survived well in soil above pH 4.9 and R. meliloti only above pH 5.9.

. The partial survey of the Park Grass plots demonstrated the dominating influences on rhizobia in pasture of host and soil reaction, for there was an almost exact correspondence between the occurrence of each species of Rhizobium in the soil and of its host, and indicated that a continuous plant cover prevents movement of bacteria from plot to plot. The survey also showed that the prolonged differential manuring had some effects on the symbiotic properties of R. trifolii. Where manures had not been given but lime had, strains were effective, but in plots without lime, and where pH had fallen to 5.1, strains were only poorly effective. Mineral fertilisers without nitrogen decreased effectiveness, even with liming. The use of nitrogenous fertilisers (nitrate of soda, ammonium sulphate or organic manures) over very long periods of time did not lessen ability of strains to fix nitrogen, provided that lime was also applied to the plots given ammonium sulphate.

Acidity tended to favour ineffective or poorly effective strains, although even acid plots contained some fully effective strains. Completely ineffective strains occurred irregularly and some were found in plots otherwise occupied by populations of strains of more than average effectiveness. Thornton (1954), Masterson (1961), Jones et al. (1964) and Jones (1966) showed that strains from hill pastures in the U.K. and Eire were often poorly effective. This was usually, but not always, associated with acidity. Holding and King (1963) attributed the poor effectiveness of strains from Scottish hill pastures to the soils being deficient in bases.

The classical fields at Rothamsted and Woburn provide unique sites for ecological studies on the relationship between nodule bacteria, their host species and the soil, and for the collection of strains adapted to acidity and to nitrogen fertilisers, which could have agricultural value, but this still has to be assessed.

Summary

Rhizobium trifolii, R. leguminosarum, R. meliloti and R. lupini were counted in some of the arable fields of Rothamsted and Woburn, and in selected plots of the Park Grass experiment. All species were widely distributed throughout the arable areas, with R. trifolii and R. leguminosarum usually much more abundant than R. meliloti or R. lupini, especially in fields cropped by the host. When the host plants were not grown, numbers decreased in a few years from tens or hundreds of thousands per g dry soil to very few or none (as for example R. meliloti and R. lupini in most plots of Barnfield). Numbers were unaffected or only slightly affected by mineral or nitrogenous fertilisers or by moderate infestation with leguminous or other weeds but were reduced by acidity. The results suggest that numbers in arable soil without a recent legume crop are maintained by transfer by natural agents or farm implements from areas of abundance. Most nodule bacteria from these fields were effective in fixing nitrogen with the test hosts used.

The Park Grass survey showed striking correspondence between the occurrence of Rhizobium in the soil of each plot and the presence of a host species in the herbage. Numbers were few or absent in the acid plots and were more on the limed plots but were unaffected by mineral fertiliser. R. trifolii was strongly stimulated in the clover rhizosphere, even after more than a century of clover cover. The numbers of nodules produced and the nitrogen-fixing effectiveness of isolates of R. trifolii differed between plots than a century of clover cover. The numbers of nodules produced and the and were affected by liming and fertilisers. The most effective isolates came from limed plots given nitrogen fertiliser and the least effective from unmanured or somewhat acid plots.

The MPN estimate of numbers varied in reliability according to the species enumerated and soil treatment and was best for limed soil given nitrogenous fertilisers and worst for acid plots or those given organic fertilisers.

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Rothamsted Insect SurveY

L. R. TAYLOR and R. A. FRENCH

Suction traps

Three new traps operated in 1969, at the Rosewarne Experimental Horticultural Station, Camborne, in Cornwall, England, at the Welsh Plant Breeding Station, Plas Gogerddan, Nr. Aberystwyth, Wales, and at the Department of Agriculture and Fisheries for Scotland, East Craigs, Edinburgh 12, Scolland. The weekly bulletins listing 11 trap counts of 34 species, or groups, of aphids of economic interest was maintained with only one hiatus, during the third and fourth weeks of July when each week comprised only four days because full catches were too large to count in time to be included in the bulletin. This year the airflow characteristics of the trap were investigated and next year the volumetric air sample will be halved during July and August to lessen the risk of similar oversampling. The converse problem, that of increasing the sample size during April and May to increase sensitivity when incoming migrants are infesting crops, has proved to be less tractable because of the internal resistance of the trap at high air speeds; another attempt will be made to solve this problem during the coming season. It is hoped to complete the east/west-transect next year with traps near Exeter, Bristol and Wageningen in Holland.

These tables are given here to publish records quickly, the final table being completed just in time for press. It may be possible to comment on them in Part 1 of the Report which is compiled later. The tables contain the same species as the bulletins. To save space, counts are given per 4-week period using the 'standard' weeks devised to coincide from year to year for convenience in analysis; the bulletin weeks are 'working' weeks from Monday through Sunday, chosen for convenience in despatching and sorting catches. The second trap at Rothamsted, formerly referred to as Rotharnsted Farm, has been omitted from both bulletins and table to save space. Its function is entirely experimental and its adds little to the information on distribution on a large scale. A few days have been lost by accident or breakdown but, thanks to the lively co-operation of the operators and other members of staff to whom we are deeply indebted, there are no serious gaps in the record. Zero catches are left blank in the table for simplicity.

Light traps

In the Rothamsted Report for 1968, Part 1, 210-213, the annual catch of 26 species of moths of economic interest from light traps at 32 sites in Great Britain during 1967, and for some of these sites in 1966 and 1965 were tabulated. The catches of the same 26 species at sites in 1968 are given in Table 2 and those for 1967 repeated for comparison.

ROTHAMSTED INSECT SURVEY

throughout the year are included in the table. Unlike the aphid records, Many more traps are now in operation, but only those that operated it is not possible to publish these catches in the year they are obtained because most of the identification is done by voluntary workers and hence cannot be done immediately. Light traps give only a relative sample because their efficiency is subject to the behavioural response of the insect, so the catches of different species cannot be compared until the relative efficiency of the trap for the species has been assessed. At present, only the differences between sites and years can be usefully considered. The sites, which have been numbered sequentially as they began to operate, are arranged in latitude sequence, north to south, in the table. The species have been arranged according to their preferred latitude, north on the left to south on the right. The distribution of some species is erratic, and all are affected by the immediate environment of the trap, which ranges from urban streets through farmland to uncultivated moorland. Nevertheless, the latitudinal limits of some species are clearty defined and this may help to locate likely outbreak areas when we have more seasons' distributions. It is striking that the recognised pest species are not necessarily widespread nor generally common, some species being restricted to a fairly narrow band of latitudes. The spatial distribution of nearly all species in 1968 closely resembles that in 1967, except for Plusia gamma, an immigrant, Gortyna micacea and Alsophila aescularia, all of which were more common in 1968 than in 1967. Dashes indicate missing records; 0s record zero counts.

TABLE 1 The Rothamsted Insect Survey-Suction Traps is on pages 170-176. TABLE 2 The Rothamsted Insect Survey-Light Traps is on pages 178-185.

TABLE 1(a)

The Rothamsted Insect Survey-Suction Traps: 4-weekly total catches of aphids of economic interest reported in the Weekly Bulletin

Week Nos 17-20: 23 April-20 May

ROTHAMSTED INSECT SURVEY

TABLE $1(b)$

The Rothamsted Insect Survey-Suction Traps: 4-weekly total catches of aphids of economic interest reported in the Weekly Bulletin

Week Nos 21-24: 21 May-17 June

TABLE 1(c)

The Rothamsted Insect Survey-Suction Traps: 4-weekly total catches of aphids of economic interest reported in the Weekly Bulletin

Week Nos 25-28: 18 June-15 July

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ROTHAMSTED INSECT SURVEY

TABLE $1(d)$

The Rothamsted Insect Survey-Suction Traps: 4-weekly total catches of aphids of economic interest reported in the Weekly Bulletin

Week Nos 29-32: 16 July-12 August

TABLE 1(e)

The Rothamsted Insect Survey-Suction Traps: 4-weekly total catches of aphids of economic interest reported in the Weekly Bulletin

Week Nos 33-36: 13 August-9 September

ROTHAMSTED INSECT SURVEY

TABLE 1(f)

The Rothamsted Insect Survey—Suction Traps: 4-weekly total catches of aphids of economic interest reported in the Weekly Bulletin

Week Nos 37-40: 10 September-7 October

TABLE $1(g)$

The Rothamsted Insect Survey-Suction Traps: 4-weekly total catches of aphids of economic interest reported in the Weekly Bulletin

Week Nos 41-44: 8 October-4 November

176

https://doi.org/10.23637/ERADOC-1-4

Table 2

The Rothamsted Insect Survey—Light Traps: two years' records of the moths
of economic interest (1967 and 1968)

See pages 178-185

M

TABLE

The Rothamsted Insect Survey-Light Traps: two years'

ROTHAMSTED INSECT SURVEY

 $2(a)$

records of the moths of economic interest (1967 and 1968)

ROTHAMSTED REPORT FOR 1969, PART 2

TABLE

The Rothamsted Insect Survey-Light Traps: two years'

ROTHAMSTED INSECT SURVEY

 $2(b)$

records of the moths of economic interest (1967 and 1968)

ROTHAMSTED REPORT FOR 1969, PART 2

TABLE

The Rothamsted Insect Survey-Light traps: two years'

ROTHAMSTED INSECT SURVEY

 $2(c)$

records of the moths of economic interest (1967 and 1968)

ROTHAMSTED REPORT FOR 1969, PART 2

TABLE

The Rothamsted Insect Survey-Light Traps: two years'

 Ω

ROTHAMSTED INSECT SURVEY

 $2(d)$

records of the moths of economic interest (1967 and 1968)

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INDEX

Agdell Rotation Experiment
brief history, 24
cereal yields, 64
effect of phosphate residues, 42 microplot experiments, fertilisers, 29, 35
microplot experiments, fertilisers, 29, 35
microplot experiments, layout, 29
residues of fertilisers on, 14, 40–63, 66–67 rotation plots, 34 soils, 26
total P and K applied, 25
Aphids caught in traps, 168, 170–176 B9(N-dimethylaminosuccinamic acid)
effect on field beans, 145 effect on frost resistance of plants, 146 effect on leaf protein, 138
effect on plant growth, 136
effect on potatoes, 136–138 **Barley** Continuous Barley Experiment, Hoosfield, 18
yields at Saxmundham, 93, 100–104, 133 See also Cereals **Barnfield** Barnell

effect of K fertiliser residues on, 10

effect of N fertiliser residues on, 9

effect of rape cake residues on, 19
 Rhizobium in, 149

root-crop experiments, 7
 Beans See Field beans

Broadbalk fertilisers for cereals on, 7-9, 13, 20 rape cake for wheat on, 20 CCC(2-chloroethyl-trimethylammonium chloride) dimethylsulphoxide as aid to penetration, 144
effect on cereals, 139–145
effect on field beans, 145 effect on frost resistance of plants, 146 effect on frost resistance of plants, 146
effect on giberellin content of barley, 144
effect on leaf protein, 139, 142
effect on lodging of cereals, 139, 141, 143, 144
effect on plant growth, 135
effect on potatoes, 136–13 effect on wheat diseases, 143
effect on wheat varieties, 141–142
effect on white mustard, 138 harmful residues in grain, 144 Cereals effect of CCC on, 139–145
effect of farmyard manure on, 15, 91–112
effect of formalin on, 140 effect of prouth substances on, 139–145
effect of growth substances on, 139–145
effect of irrigation on, 140
effect of K fertilisers on, 69–90
effect of N fertilisers on, 113–133
effect of P fertilisers on 39–68, 93, 100, effect of rape cake on, 19 effect of soil sterilisation on, 113–134

K content of, 79–83

P content of, 54–58

seedbed dressings on,⁵39

yields with and without fertiliser residues,
8, 10, 13, 16, 51-58, 64, 69, 78, 83, 88
See also Barley, Oats, Wheat 4-chloro-phenoxyacetic acid as growth regulator, 145 Ethrel (2-chloroethylphosphonric acid) effect on barley and oats, 145
effect on plant growth, 136
Exhaustion Land chaustion Land
cereals on, 7, 10, 13, 17, 18, 23, 28, 32–33,
40, 52–55, 57–58, 64–65
crops grown, 32
effect of farmyard manure on, 16, 17 effect of residues of fertilisers on, 10, 11, 13, 17, 69-90 effect of residues of manure and NPK on, 17 effect of residues of manure and **NFR**
history of, 23
microplot experiments, fertilisers, 33
microplot experiments, layout, 28
soils, 26
total P and K applied, 23
yields, 66–68
Eyespot (*Cercosporella herpotrichoides*)
eff Farmyard manure

applied at Rothamsted, 15

applied at Saxmundham, 91–112

applied at Woburn, 25

early experiments with, 15, 23, 91

effect of residues of, at Rothamsted, 15–19

effect of residues of, at Saxmundham, 91–1 Farmyard manure yields at Saxmundham, 93 Formalin direct and residual effects, 120, 121, 123 effect on cereals, 113–133
effect on cereals, 113–133
effect on grass, 115, 117, 126, 134
effect on N content of crops, 114, 117, 118
120, 122, 123, 126, 130–134
effect on take-all in cereals, 114 effect on weeds, 116
Fosters field soil sterilisation on, 116, 117, 126 Garden Clover plot

Rhizobium in, 155 Gibberellic acid noversion to Gibberellin A_5 in plants, 137
cenversion to Gibberellin A_5 in plants, 137
effect on activity of hydrolysing enzymes, 136
effect on potatoes, 136–138
effect on sugar beet, 139

Growth substances
chemical control of, 135-147 effect on field beans, 145
effect on potatoes, 136–138 endogenous, 135, 137

INDEX

herbicides as, 137 time of application, 138
See also B9, CCC, Ethrel, Gibberellic acid, Morphactins Grass effect of formalin on, 116, 117, 126, 134
effect of N fertilisers on, 113–129, 134
effect of residues of farmyard manure on, 15
effect of residues of K fertilisers on, 11, 15 effect of soil sterilisation on, 113-134 Hoosfield Continuous Barley Experiment, 7, 18 rape cake on, 20 See also Exhaustion Land Insect survey, 168-185
insects in suction traps, 168, 170-176
insects in light traps, 168, 178-185 Irrigation effect with CCC, 140-141
effect with formalin, 117, 119 Kale effect of fertiliser residues on, 50–55, 57, 61, 68, 76–79, 82–85
K content of, 82, 85 P content of, 57, 61 Lime effect on nodulation in clover, 158
effect on *Rhizobium* in soil, 157–163 **Little Knott** soil sterilisation at, 115, 116, 120-127, 131 Mangolds effect of K fertiliser residues on, 11
effect of rape cake on, 20
yields at Saxmundham, 93 Morphactins effect on plant growth, 136
effect on potatoes, 138
Moths caught in traps, 168, 178–185 Nabam, 113, 118
Nitrogen fertiliser
effect of residues of, 7–12
effect on cereals, 7–9, 114–128
effect on grass, 114–128
effect on *Rhizobium* in soil, 149–166 Oats, effect of CCC on, 143 **Park Grass plots** ark Grass proise
early experiments, 7, 11, 15
effect of fertiliser residues on, 11
effect of sawdust on, 11
residual farmyard manure on, 15
Rhizobium in, 156–166 Pastures field soil sterilisation on, 115, 116, 121-127, 132 Phosphorus fertiliser nospitualism

application methods, 43, 47, 49

combined effect with farmyard manure, 17

combined effect with K fertiliser, 12

value of residues, 12, 17, 39 Phosphorus in crops, 54-61 Phosphorus in soil
at Rothamsted, 27
at Saxmundham, 94, 103-111 et banges after ploughing, 106
changes after ploughing, 106
changes on cropping, 106
labile, 97, 109
soluble, 97, 103, 109 Phosphorus residues in soil crop yields with and without, 12, 17, 39-68 188

Phytokinins
stimulation of cell division by, 137 Potassium fertiliser Followshind effect with farmyard manure, 17

combined effect with P fertiliser, 12

effect of residues of, 10

values of residues of, 69

Potassium in crops, 79–86 Potassium in soil rotassium in soil
at Rothamsted, 27
at Saxmundham, 103–109
Potassium residues in soil
crop yields with and without, 10, 17, 69–90 by the detect of farmyard manure on, 16, 100, 103
effect of farmyard manure on, 16, 100, 103
effect of growth regulators on, 136
in rotation with cereals, 9
K content of, 54, 56, 57, 59
P content of, 54, 56, 57, 59
respon Potatoes Rape cake applied on Agdell field, 24
early experiments with, 19
effect of residues of, 19 effect of residues of, 19

Rhizobium in soils

effect of farmyard manure on, 149, 163

effect of ferrilisers on, 149, 156–163, 165

effect of liming on, 156–163, 165

effect of soil acidity on, 164

effect of weds on, 151 numbers in thizosphere, 1
test legumes for, 149, 151
Root nodule bacteria, 148 151 Sawdust, effect on Park Grass, 11 Saxmundham Saxmundnam
soil sterilisation at, 115, 117, 123, 126
see also Saxmundham Rotation Experiment
Saxmundham Rotation Experiment
C and N accumulation in soils, 96
changes in P content of soil, 97, 105–110
comparison of soils i fertilisers applied, 92–94
monocalcium phosphate potentials, 94
P in soils, labile and soluble, 97, 109
phosphate recovery, 97
profitability of the rotation, 92
residual value of farmyard manure, 91–112
residual value of C ama is accumulation, 96
comparison of Rotations I and II at Sax-
mundham, 96
crop response and, 110
methods, 26, 91 Soil sterilisation, effects on cereals and grass,
113-134 Sugar beet effect of farmyard manure on, 102, 103
effect of growth substances on, 139
effect of seedbed dressings on, 47, 49

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INDEX

K content of, 82, 86

P content of, 57, 59, 60

yields at Saxmundham, 102, 103

yields with and without fertiliser residues, 11,

47, 52–54, 57, 59–62, 67, 72, 78–79, 82, 85,

86, 102

Superhosphate

annlied at Saxmundham uperphosphate
applied at Saxmundham, 94, 99
effects on soils, 96
recovery of, 97
residual value of, 91–112
value of residues for arable crops, 39–68
wedes Swedes Swedes

K content of, 82, 85

P content of, 57, 61

yields with and without fertiliser residues, 8,

10, 50–54, 57, 61, 68, 76–79, 82–85

Sweet potato (*Ipomoea batatus*)

effect of CCC on, 139 α -(2,4,5-trichlorophenoxy) propionic acid
as growth regulator, 145
Turnips

effect of farmyard manure and P fertiliser on,
102, 103

effect of residues of K fertiliser on, 10
yields, 102, 103

Wheat
semi-dwarf, effect of CCC on, 143
yields at Saxmundham, 93
See also Cereals
White mustard (Sinapis alba) White mustard (Sinapis alba)
effect of CCC on, 138 Woburn Francesco
creases at, 13, 22–90, 114, 116, 117–119, 124,
127, 130
Rhizobium in soils, 148–167
See also Woburn Permanent Wheat and Barley
Experiment Woburn Permanent Wheat and Barley Experi-Formulated and Barley Exposition
ment
brief history, 25
effect of fertiliser residues on, 13, 22–90
microplot experiments, fertilisers given, 37
microplot experiments, layout, 30, 36
soil, 26

total P and K applied, 25

CONVERSION FACTORS

Factors for the Conversion of Imperial to Metric Units

The following factors are accurate to about 2 parts in 100:

1 lb/acre = $1 \cdot 1$ kg/ha 1 gallon/acre = 11 litre/ha $1 \text{ ton/acre} = 2.5 \text{ tonnes/ha}$

In general reading of the text there will be no great inaccuracy in regarding:

 $1 lb = 0.5 kg$ 1 lb/acre = 1 kg/ha

Temperatures

To convert °F into °C subtract 32 and multiply by $\frac{5}{9}$ (0.556) To convert °C into °F multiply by $\frac{9}{5}$ (1.8) and add 32

Factors for the Conversion of Metric to Imperial Units

Plant nutrients

Plant nutrients are best stated in terms of amounts of the elements (P, K, Na, Ca, Mg, S); the old 'oxide' terminology P_2O_5 , K_2O , Na_2O , CaO, MgO, SO₃) is still used in work involving fertilisers and liming sinc

For quick conversions

(accurate to within 2%) the following factors may be used:

For accurate conversions:

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