



Manure Phosphorus: Mobility in Soils and Management Strategies to Minimize Losses

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Abstract

Manure is a valuable source of plant nutrients; however, continuous application to soils may lead to accumulation of phosphorus (P), increasing the risk of P loss into waterways triggering freshwater eutrophication. This review paper summarizes and critically evaluates relevant research findings published within the last 5 years on manure P mobility in soils and management strategies to mitigate losses identifying future research needs. Past and recent research evidence on manure P mobilization and losses from soils have yielded inconsistent and often confounding results, because of the interactive effects of source factors and the existence of concurrent transport pathways. Although far from being conclusive, a few general trends are worth noting; P losses were greater with (a) increasing soluble P applied with manure, (b) vulnerable soils with limited P sorption capacity and/or susceptible to preferential flow/erosion, (c) conditions conducive to P release and transport, and (d) reduced soil-manure P interaction following application. Effective mitigating strategies included (a) generating low-P manure, (b) processing manure to reduce total and/or soluble P, and (c) adopting best management practices (BMPs) during and post-manure application. Future research should focus on a better understanding of the interactive effects of source factors on short- and long-term manure P loss via different transport pathways. Existing mitigation efforts and new directions should focus on reducing P buildup in soil by employing a combination of strategies during generation, processing, and application of manure, coupled with site- and time-specific BMPs selected based on the dominant pathway of P loss.

Keywords Manure phosphorus · Mitigation · Phosphorous losses · Soil · Source factors · Transport factors

Introduction

Global livestock production has rapidly expanded and intensified over the last century, generating large quantities of livestock manure, annually. Livestock sector is estimated to occupy 30% of the world's ice-free terrestrial surface area using large areas of rangelands and arable croplands that provide livestock feed [1]. The estimated stocks of livestock in 2014 was 21.3 billion chicken (*Gallus gallus domesticus*), 1.48

billion cattle (*Bos Taurus*), 1 billion pigs (*Sus scrofa domesticus*), and 1.21 billion sheep (*Ovis aries*) globally, with a global manure production rate of about 15 million tons of dry matter/day [2]. Cattle contribute the most to the global manure production (~60%), while pigs and poultry contribute ~9 and ~10%, respectively [3].

Livestock manures are intrinsically heterogeneous organic material containing animal feces and urine, often mixed with bedding material such as straw, sawdust, and/or other foreign matter such as lime, sand, and soil, depending on the collection method. Based on the total solid (TS) content, animal manure can be categorized as solid (>20% TS), slurry (4–20% TS), or liquid (<4% TS). Since livestock manures are valuable sources of plant macro- and micronutrients [4], they can be recycled by application to croplands and grasslands [5], thus serving as a low-cost source of plant nutrients replacing significant amounts of commercial fertilizers. Besides being a valuable source of plant nutrients, manure application improves soil physical, chemical, and biological properties mainly through increasing soil organic carbon [6], which in

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turn improves water infiltration, enhances nutrient retention, promotes microbial activity, and reduces soil erosion [4, 7].

Despite the many benefits of livestock manure applications to soils, there are some concerns over the potential negative impacts on the environment and human health. Phosphorus (P) accumulation in soils with continuous manure applications [5•, 8•, 9, 10] is a serious environmental concern because of the potential P transport to freshwater bodies [11, 12••] that may lead to eutrophication, a process that is primarily controlled by concentrations of dissolved P in fresh water [13, 14]. Ratio of N/P of most livestock manures are much lower relative to plant uptake; thus, manure application rates based on crop N requirements often lead to an excess application of P [15, 16•], leading to a P buildup in soils. Moreover, large amounts of livestock manure is generated in localized areas with manure disposal mainly via on-farm applications in excess of crop nutrient needs, which aggravates the P buildup in localized areas.

Phosphorus accumulation in soil and losses from soils to waterways with the land application of manure had been extensively reviewed and documented [11, 14], and possible management strategies to mitigate P loadings to water bodies have been identified and evaluated [17–19]. The goal of the current review paper is to summarize and critically evaluate recent advances on mobilization of manure P in soils focusing mostly on research published within the last 5 years, and to present an overview on recent management efforts to mitigate P losses from manure-amended soils and their implications. The term “P losses” in this review paper refers to mass loss of P from soils in kilograms per hectare.

Mobility of Manure Phosphorus

Agricultural soils receiving continuous applications of manure have a greater potential for P transfer to water bodies, thus becoming a non-point source of P if not properly managed. The concept of critical source area, defined as the overlap of land area with a high P source and high P transport potential, has been widely used in assessing the risk of P loss from agricultural soils, and planning management strategies [20•]. In the following section, we summarize recent research findings that have focused objectively on the influence of source and transport factors on P mobility in manure-amended soils with an attempt to place recent findings in context with earlier published work.

Source Factors

Soluble and Total P in Manure

Recent research corroborates previous findings that dissolved reactive P (DRP) losses through surface and subsurface

pathways from manured soils are closely related to the water extractable P (WEP) rather than total P (TP) in manure, irrespective of animal species generating manure [21, 22•, 23]. This trend was observed mostly for freshly applied manure where runoff or leaching event occurred immediately after or within a few days of manure application. In situations where runoff or leaching event occurred a few weeks after manure application, WEP in some studies was poorly related to DRP loss with runoff and leaching [24, 25]; whereas, labile-P concentrations in manure measured as water + NaHCO₃ extractable P [25] was better related to dissolved P losses. The WEP may not be a good predictor of P loss when contribution from particulate P (PP) loss to TP loss is high as in preferential flow, tile drainage, and surface erosion, since analytical procedure of WEP involves measuring dissolved P in filtered (0.45 μ) extracts, thus excluding the P bound to large (> 0.45 μ) suspended particulates [26]. Although WEP, by itself, may not be a good predictor of potential P transport from a manure source, WEP combined with other factors is widely used in P indices to evaluate risk of P runoff loss from manure-amended soils [27, 28].

Total carbon (C), TP, and ratio of C/P in manure can influence the amount of P loss from manured soils; however, the effect of manure TP and the ratio of C/P in manure on P losses is inconsistent. In a field lysimeter study, greater P leaching was observed with dairy and poultry manure containing low P than high P, when surface applied to provide the same amount of TP [22•]. This effect was attributed to the higher quantity of manure, and thus, greater C added with low-P manure, which may improve soil structure, promotes the activity of microorganisms and earthworms, and thereby maintain macropore flow paths through which unreactive P can leach [22•]. Increased dissolve C with application of high C-containing manures or applying at higher rates significantly reduced P sorption capacity and thereby increased the mobility of P, posing greater risks of P losses [29, 30]. In contrast, leaching losses of soluble P decreased when more C was added (e.g., with manures of high C/P compared with low C/P manure compost). This may be attributed to enhanced decomposition and mineralization with application of low C/P composts releasing soluble P [31••].

Manures from Different Animal Species

Estimated potential risk of P loss and actual P loss from manure-applied soils reported by various researchers for manures from different animal species show inconsistencies when ranked. For example, liquid swine > liquid dairy > solid poultry > solid beef (based on P source coefficient calculated using extractable P after incubation) [32]; ruminant + horse species > non-ruminant species (based on inorganic P extracted by water + NaHCO₃) [33]; dairy manure > boiler litter > swine manure (based on water + NaHCO₃ extractable P

concentrations) [34]; liquid swine manure > solid cattle manure (based on water + NaHCO₃ extractable concentrations and actual runoff P loss with simulated rain) [25]; and solid fraction of swine manure > cattle manure compost (based on actual total P loss with runoff and sediments) [35]. Somewhat contradicting findings confirm that making generalized comparisons on the potential risk of manure P loss based on the animal species can be misleading, since manure P composition within an animal species is highly variable depending on factors such as the diet, manure collection, processing, and storage [34, 36, 37]. For example, supplementing P in dairy heifer diet increased WEP in manure by 100% [37]. Other studies showed that increasing dietary P supplementation with diets containing wheat dried distillers' grain with solubles (DDGS) increased not only manure TP but also the proportion of WEP [31•, 38]. Manure processing techniques such as composting, increased TP content by about 10–55%, with a corresponding decrease in WEP by about 5–17% [34].

Comparison of actual or potential P loss from liquid manure/manure slurries with solid manure however, showed a consistent trend; greater and more rapid losses from liquids and slurries than solids [25, 32, 39]. With high TS and less water contents, solids require a large amount of rain or irrigation water to be absorbed prior to P release, during which mixing and dilution occurs [26], which slow down the P losses as well as reduces P concentration in runoff or leachate generated.

Manure Rate, Timing and Placement

Results of recent research investigating the effects of manure application rates, time, and placement methods more or less confirm and reiterate previous findings; (a) actual and potential runoff and leaching losses of manure P are greater at higher rates of manure P added to soil [40–42]; (b) with surface applications, the risk of P losses are high when manure application is immediately followed by a runoff event [43], and decrease with increasing time duration between manure application and the first runoff event [43–46]; (c) high risk of P losses with runoff when manure is surface-applied to frozen and/or snow-covered ground particularly when runoff occurred soon after manure application [39, 47]; and (d) total and dissolved P loads in runoff and leaching is less with manure injection or incorporation as compared with surface application without incorporation [37, 46, 48•, 49•]. Some exceptions to these general trends do exist; for example, while runoff dissolved P losses were greatest at the first runoff event after application of dairy manure [44], the leachate-dissolved P losses were greatest when the soils had the highest P saturation which coincided with leaching at 4 weeks after surface application of poultry manure [50]. A study comparing tillage and liquid swine manure application method showed reduced overland runoff PP with minimum tillage and injected manure

compared with conventional tillage and broadcast manure but not the DRP load [51]. Inconsistent and often confounding effects of source factors on manure P losses arises because of their cumulative interactive effects as well as the existence of concurrent transport pathways that are influenced differently by source factors.

Transport Pathways

Manure P can be transported from soils in two forms, particulate P or dissolved P, via a number of surface and subsurface flow pathways namely, soil erosion, surface runoff, matrix leaching, and preferential flow [11, 20•, 27, 41, 51]. The dominant mechanism/s under a given situation depends on soil, climate, topography and management factors. Significant correlations have been observed between total P loads in runoff with storm intensity, runoff/leachate duration and volumes, snow water equivalent, and sediment losses [12•, 26, 43, 46, 52].

Contrary with the traditional misconception that surface runoff of particulate and dissolved P is the major pathway of P loss from soils, the significance of leaching and preferential flow has been clearly demonstrated and documented [11, 19, 48•, 53]. Greater P leaching was observed in soils with preferential flow pathways [22•], compared with soils lacking preferential flow pathways that allowed dissolved P to diffuse into the soil matrix. In tile-drained field, mobilization of P with leaching contributed to more than 40% of total P loss [54], where P transfer to tile drains mostly occur through preferential flow [48•, 54, 55•, 56]. While the vast majority of documented research focused predominantly on rainwater- and irrigation-driven mobilization of particulate or dissolved P from manure [41, 43, 48•, 57], recent efforts included manure P mobilization via snowmelt-driven overland runoff and drainage [51, 57, 58, 59•], two major pathways of P loss under colder climates. Estimated contribution of snowmelt-driven P loss from soils could be > 50% of the runoff and dissolved P load over the year [58]. Using SurPhos computer model with over 100 site-years of weather and runoff data, the estimated P loss with winter application of manure was 2.5 to 3.6 times greater than with non-winter applications [12•]. Complexity of manure P mobility is further compounded in soils prone to prolonged seasonal flooding during snowmelt or storm events, since anaerobic conditions often result in greater P mobilization from soils, thus enhancing the risk of runoff and leaching losses [60]. Research on P release from manured soils under prolonged flooding is limited to a few laboratory scale studies [60] and showed substantial increases in P release from manured soils to pore water and floodwater, with the magnitude of increase varying depending on soil properties. More research on redox-induced losses of manure P under flooded conditions is needed to assess the risks and identify mitigation

measures for soils prone to flooding with snowmelt and precipitation.

Transport Factors

Phosphorus losses from manure are influenced by factors that influence transport pathways such as soil characteristics, drainage, land use, hydrology, and climatic conditions. Dissolved P and PP behave differently with regard to the means of their transport [61] and thus on their response to changes in source and transport factors influencing manure P loss. For example, manure P losses through preferential flow were greater from fine-textured, well-structured soils than coarse-textured soils [62], while manure P mobility through matrix leaching was greater in a coarse-textured than a fine-textured soil [63]. Thus, there is a need for long-term field scale research adopting a holistic approach to understand the interactive effects of multiple source and transport factors on manure P loss via various pathways that occur concurrently. Since field scale research evaluating multiple factors on P loss from soils is expensive and time consuming, mathematical models are increasingly being used to evaluate the potential impact of different management options in reducing P loss from soils, of which some models (e.g., SurPhos, APLE, SWAT) are designed to include P loss from manure applications [12, 64, 65]. The use of models can complement long-term field studies in evaluating the interactive effects of source and transport factors on manure P losses via different pathways and identify alternative management options to reduce P losses.

Management Strategies to Mitigate Losses

Manipulation of source and transport factors has been extensively researched as means of mitigating manure P losses from soils through different pathways [19, 37, 44, 49, 55, 66, 67, 68, 69], with greater emphasis on control at the source level which is more effective and less complex than controlling transport factors. Management efforts that have been evaluated at different scales to manipulate source and transport factors to mitigate manure P losses are summarized in Fig. 1. Transport of manure P at a given time occurs through both particulate and dissolved forms via concurrent pathways; thus, attempts to minimize P loss through one pathway may enhance losses through another. It has been noted that some of the best management practices (BMPs) effective in reducing erosion and particulate P (PP) transport such as minimum or zero tillage, buffer strips, etc. can inadvertently increase DRP export via surface runoff and subsurface drainage [70, 71]. Research into mitigating manure P losses from manure-amended soils should therefore, address both dissolved and particulate P forms and also take into account the lower

bioavailability of PP in aquatic ecosystems [61], posing a different level of environmental threat to water quality than dissolved P.

Controlling Source Factors

Reducing the rate of P applied with manure undoubtedly, is the most cost-effective approach to mitigate P losses from manured soils. Many countries have established strict regulations regarding manure P application rates to agricultural fields based on soil P thresholds [48, 72] where STP is often used to establish an upper limit to P application. Various approaches to reduce the rate of manure P loading to soils include, but not limited to, (a) generating manure with low TP and/or WEP (b) processing manure to reduce TP and/or WEP, (c) converting soluble P in manure to less available forms prior to or during application, and (d) decreasing manure application rates and transporting excess manure elsewhere. Based on data reported in recent literature, the relative change in TP and WEP of manure that were generated and/or processed through various P-reducing techniques, as compared with unprocessed manure or manure generated under conventional methods, are summarized in Table 1. The amount of WEP added with the same rate of TP was calculated and compared among different techniques tested with various manure types (Table 1).

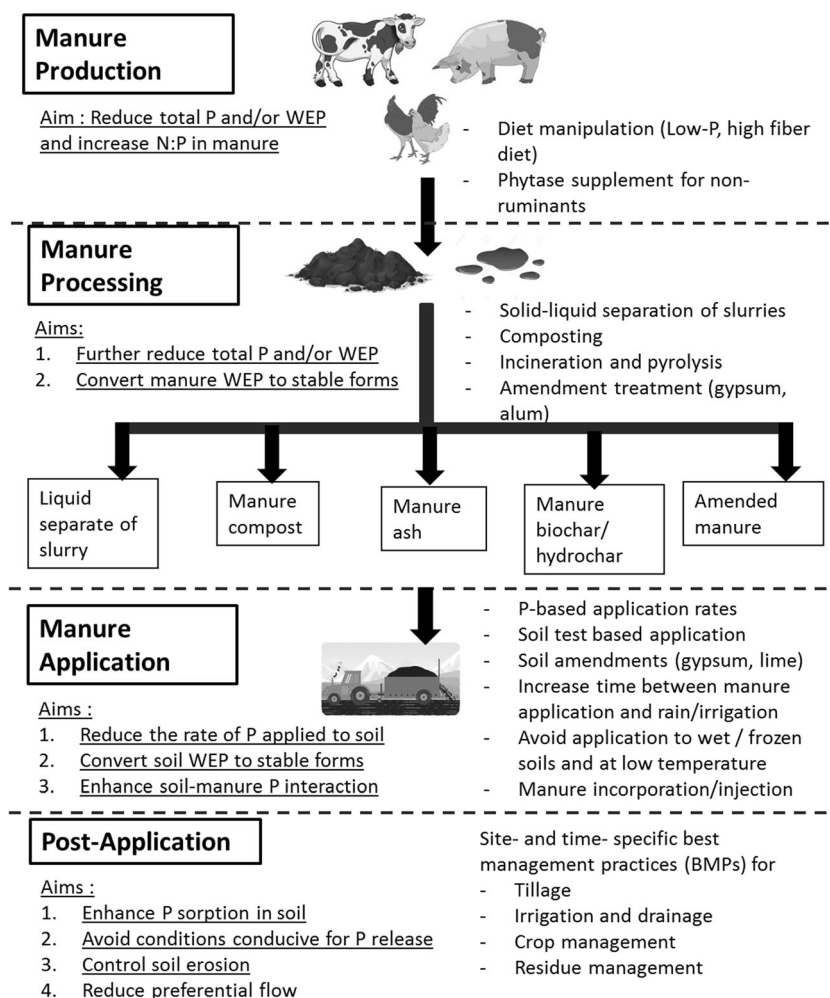
Generating Low P Manure

Reducing TP concentration in manure and thereby increasing N/P in manure is an attractive option to effectively control soil P buildup even with an N-based manure application rates. Various approaches such as livestock diet manipulation, manure separation and processing, and amendment treatments have been used with varying success in reducing TP and/or WEP concentrations in manure (Table 1). Reduced P supplementation in feed [82], increasing fiber content in diet [83], and supplementing monogastric animal diets with phytase to increase the bioavailability of phytate-P and thereby reduce inorganic P supplementation, have resulted in manure with lower TP and/or WEP [84, 85].

Manure Processing to Reduce P Content

A number of manure processing techniques have been evaluated and are presently being used [86] while emerging technologies continue to develop to process manure with the target of reducing TP and/or WEP contents. For manure slurries such as swine and dairy slurries, solid-liquid separation is an option to reduce the rate of P applied, since separation usually results in an N-rich liquid separate (LS) with less TP, which can be used on-farm as a N fertilizer, while P-rich solid separate could be transported elsewhere [77–79, 87–89]. Average N/P

Fig. 1 Schematic illustration of mitigation strategies for controlling P accumulation in soils with manure application at various levels



ratio increased by 1.5- to 6-fold in LS compared with raw slurry (RS) of swine manure depending on the separation technique [77–79], an advantage since more N is provided per unit P than unseparated RS. Estimated TP loadings with the application of LS of swine slurry were only 50 to 70% of that of RS at equivalent rates of total N applied [88], which may or may not result in a reduction in WEP loading, since WEP/TP in LS can be more than RS depending on the separation technique (Table 1). Moreover, for manure slurries with a larger proportion of dissolved inorganic P, solid-liquid separation may result in LS with even greater TP than RS [90].

Composting of manure mixed with high C materials may result in a stable product with lower TP and higher C/P ratio and a lower risk of runoff and leaching losses when applied to soils [73•, 80, 91, 92]. Depending on the materials used in composting, TP may increase [31••, 73•] or decrease [92], resulting in a wide variation of C/P [31••, 73•, 80]. Composting often resulted in a significant reduction in water-extractable P [31••, 73•, 74] via the formation of recalcitrant P forms [74]. Thus, when added to provide the same rate of TP, composted manure resulted in about 26–52%

reduction in WEP added than uncomposted manure (Table 1). Greater TP leaching losses with composted versus uncomposted cattle manure had been observed [31••] despite lower WEP in composted manure, which was attributed to the relatively lower C/P ratio in composted manure used. The contradicting results emphasize the need for careful selection of composting material that will reduce C/P while decreasing TP and WEP during composting. It has also been documented that P losses with runoff could be high during the early stages of composting which has to be contained [93].

Manure incineration (direct combustion in the presence of air) is a process that converts fresh manure to a P-rich ash [94•], which essentially contain zero nitrogen because of gaseous losses of nitrogen during the incineration process [86•], thus reducing its value as a nutrient source. Compared with fresh manure, manure ash releases P slowly [95]; thus P release with cattle manure ash-amended soil was found to be significantly lower than compost amended soil at the same P application rate [96].

Producing biochar from manure through incomplete combustion under anaerobic conditions (pyrolysis) immobilizes P

Table 1 Total P (TP) and water extractable P (WEP) in manure generated/processed through various P-reducing techniques and in corresponding manure generated under conventional methods/unprocessed raw manure, with calculated relative change in TP and WEP and the percentage reduction in WEP for same rate of TP added (based on data reported in recent literature)

Process	Manure type	Description	TP ^a (g kg ⁻¹)	Relative change in TP	WEP ^a (g kg ⁻¹)	Relative change in WEP	Reduction in WEP for same TP rate (%)	Reference	
Diet manipulation	Dairy manure	P supplemented	3.9	–	0.99	–	–	[37]	
	Dairy manure	P not supplemented	3.1	0.79	0.63	0.64	19.9		
Composting	Dairy manure	P supplemented	5.1	–	0.94	–	–		
	Broiler litter	P not supplemented	4.3	0.84	0.42	0.45	47.0	[73•]	
	Beef cattle	Uncomposted	8.9	–	2.27	–	–		
		Composted	9.8	1.10	1.21	0.53	51.5	[31••]	
	Cattle manure fed with DDGS	Uncomposted	5.2	–	1.29	–	–		
		Composted	5.8	1.12	1.06	0.82	26.4	[31••]	
		Uncomposted	8.8	–	2.57	–	–		
		Composted	13.7	1.56	2.44	0.95	39.0	[74]	
	Pyrolysis	Poultry litter	0 day of composting	49.4	–	12.4	–	–	
		Dairy manure	7th day of composting	53.2	1.08	5.53	0.45	58.6	[75]
Dairy manure		Raw manure	5.6	–	1.47	–	–		
		Biochar (350 °C)	10.0	1.78	0.38	0.26	85.6		
Paved feedlot		Biochar (700 °C)	16.9	3.01	0.10	0.07	97.8	[75]	
		Raw manure	7.1	–	3.07	–	–		
Poultry litter		Biochar (350 °C)	11.4	1.61	0.46	0.15	90.7	[75]	
		Biochar (700 °C)	17.6	2.49	0.18	0.06	97.6		
Swine solids		Raw manure	13.9	–	2.90	–	–		
		Biochar (350 °C)	20.8	1.50	0.43	0.15	90.1	[75]	
	Biochar (700 °C)	31.2	2.24	0.90	0.31	86.2			
	Raw manure	24.7	–	11.0	–	–			
Turkey litter	Biochar (350 °C)	38.9	1.57	0.39	0.04	97.7	[75]		
	Biochar (700 °C)	59.0	2.39	0.06	0.01	99.8			
Dairy manure	Raw manure	16.1	–	9.11	–	–			
	Biochar (350 °C)	26.2	1.63	1.06	0.12	92.8	[67]		
	Biochar (700 °C)	36.6	2.27	1.75	0.19	91.5	[75]		
	Raw manure	8.6	–	0.76	–	–			
Poultry litter	Biochar	25.2	2.93	0.04	0.05	98.2	[76•]		
	Raw manure	13.7	–	2.95	–	–			
Hydrothermal carbonization	Biochar	27.1	1.98	0.17	0.06	97.1	[66•]		
	Raw manure	~14	–	6.80	–	–			
	Hydrochar	~19	~1.35	<2.0	~0.29	~78.3	[77]		
	Raw slurry	30.1 ^b	–	2.11 ^b	–	–			
Solid-liquid separation	Liquid separate (CN)	27.9 ^b	0.93	1.77 ^b	0.84	9.1	[77]		
	Raw slurry	22.1 ^b	–	3.32 ^b	–	–			
	Liquid separate (CF)	31.0 ^b	1.41	4.79 ^b	1.44	–2.8	[77]		
	Raw slurry	26.4 ^b	–	3.49 ^b	–	–			
	Liquid separate (RF)	28.9 ^b	1.10	5.07 ^b	1.45	–32.7	[77]		
	Raw slurry	20.9 ^b	–	12.2 ^b	–	–			
	Liquid separate (SP)	8.3 ^b	0.46	8.08 ^b	0.76	–66.8	[78]		
	Raw slurry	2.1 ^b	–	0.23 ^b	–	–			
	Liquid separate (SP)	3.0 ^b	1.42	0.30 ^b	1.35	5.1	[79]		

Table 1 (continued)

Process	Manure type	Description	TP ^a (g kg ⁻¹)	Relative change in TP	WEP ^a (g kg ⁻¹)	Relative change in WEP	Reduction in WEP for same TP rate (%)	Reference
Amendments	Chicken manure compost	Liquid separate (FD)	2.2 ^b	1.04	1.11 ^b	4.93	-374	[80]
		Liquid separate (CN)	1.2 ^b	0.54	0.23 ^b	1.02	-88	
		Compost alone	16.1	-	0.09 ^b	-	-	
		Biochar-blended compost	15.0	0.93	0.06 ^b	0.65	29.8	[81]
	Dairy slurry	Dairy slurry	10.9 ^b	-	2.86	-	-	
		Alum amendment	11.1 ^b	1.02	0.003	0.001	99.9	
		Lime amendment	6.81 ^b	0.63	0.03	0.009	98.6	
		PAC amendment	12.9 ^b	1.19	0.003	0.001	99.9	
		FeCl ₃ amendment	10.4 ^b	0.95	0.02	0.0071	99.3	

CN, separated using centrifuge, without a flocculant [79]; CF, separated using centrifuge, with a flocculant; RF, separated using rotary press, with a flocculant [77]; SF, screwpress [78]; FD, flocculate and drain

^a Dry weight basis

^b Converted to dry weight basis using wet weight basis concentrations and total solids (or moisture) contents

and consequently reduces the risk of runoff and leaching losses [67, 76•, 94•, 97]. Pyrolysis of various manures resulted in an increase in TP, with increment ranging from ~24 to >200% depending on pyrolysis temperature [67, 75, 76•, 94•, 98], with greater TP at higher temperatures of up to 1000 °C [75, 94•]. Despite the increase in TP, pyrolysis reduced the WEP dramatically [67, 75, 76•, 94•, 98] by transforming labile P in manure to more stable forms such as Mg/Ca phosphate minerals [67, 99]. The decrease in WEP with manure pyrolysis in different studies ranged from 68 to 99% and is influenced by manure type [67, 75, 76•]. Based on the TP and WEP of biochars reported in recent literature, application of biochar may result in a reduction of >85% of WEP for the same rate of TP added compared with raw manures (Table 1). When applied to soils, P release rate was slower and steadier over a longer time period with biochar than from raw manure; thus biochar could potentially be a slow-release P source that may result in more efficient uptake by plants and reduced losses from soils [76•, 95].

Compared with manure biochar, much less is known about manure hydrochar produced through direct pyrolysis of wet manures through hydrothermal carbonization. Since this relatively new technology avoids the step of evaporating water, and uses a relatively low temperature (180–350 °C), the energy requirement is much less than pyrolysis for wet manures [86•]. Hydrothermal carbonization of cow manure increased the TP content substantially by ~30% with a significant decrease in WEP by >70% [66•]. More research on P release characteristics and P speciation of hydrochars produced through this emerging technology is needed for different manures under varying conditions.

Converting Manure P to less Soluble Forms

Various amendments can be added to manure prior to or during manure application to convert the soluble manure P to more stable, recalcitrant forms. Use of industrial by-products as amendments to reduce soluble P concentrations in animal manure, and thereby minimize the potential for P transport to surface waters after land application of the manure was recently reviewed [18]. Flue gas desulfurization (FGD) gypsum is one of the most evaluated industrial by product as a manure amendment as well as a soil amendment. The FGD gypsum was effective in reducing P concentration of dairy liquid manure in the settling tanks within about 4 h of reactions, thus could be used prior to field application of manure [100]. This amendment showed a reduction of 53–91% in leachate P compared with unamended poultry litter [73•, 91], a 54% reduction in runoff P during initial runoff event compared with unamended poultry litter [101•], and 47–81% reduction in leachate when amended to composted manure [73•]. Reduction in runoff P loss with FGD gypsum continued over successive runoff events indicating a persistent effect over the

growing season [101•]. Other amendments that were evaluated recently showing significant reductions in P losses from soils include alum and alum mud with a 29–84% decrease in DRP loss with runoff compared with unamended poultry manure and swine slurry [23, 69, 102], liquid ferric chloride and liquid poly-aluminum chloride, both with a 84% reduction in DRP runoff losses compared with unamended swine slurry [69] and combined amendments of zeolite with polyaluminum chloride with an 87 and 81% reduction in runoff TP losses compared with unamended dairy and pig slurries, respectively [103]. Other amendments such as activated red mud [104], mine drainage residue [105], lime [81], bauxite [68•, 106], and sulfuric acid mixed with alum and bauxite [68•] were effective in reducing WEP in various manures (Table 1) and warrants field scale evaluation in reducing P losses from manured soils. Enhanced reduction of P losses through combined amendments compared with single amendment [68•, 103] indicate the possible synergies among different amendments, which needs to be better understood and utilized.

Reducing Manure Application Rates

Repeated land applications of manure based on plant N needs results in excessive P concentrations in soils because of low N/P ratio of manure compared with crop requirement [107, 108]; thus, shifting from N-based to P removal-based manure application has been recognized as a potential alternative to reduce P buildup in soils with continuous manure applications [16•, 109•, 110]. Recent research evidenced approximately 40% less P accumulation in soil from P-based compared with N-based application of dairy manure compost [15, 110], while the reduction in P accumulation with liquid dairy manure with P-based manure application was about 7% [110].

Manure rates should also be adjusted based on soil properties, adding less to high runoff-prone and leaky soils. Both leaching and runoff losses of manure P are enhanced when soils have low P sorption capacity with high degree of P saturation [23]. While low application rates of manure P can reduce P buildup in soils with repeated manure application, it may involve hauling excess manure generated from livestock farms elsewhere. Granulating and pelletizing of manure can enhance the ease of transporting [86•]. Solid-liquid separation of manure slurries is also effective since N-rich liquid can be applied on-farm, while P-rich solid which is about one-tenth of the total mass of slurry [77] could be easily transported off-site to be used as a P fertilizer.

Comparing different processing techniques, P availability was shown to decrease in the order of drying > composting > pyrolysis > combustion with increasing degree of processing, with negligible WEP with pyrolysis above 700 °C or combustion above 400 °C [94•]. Based on proportion of WEP to TP calculated using recent data from various processing techniques and manures, P bioavailability generally decrease in

the order solid-liquid separation > composting > pyrolysis (Table 1).

Controlling Transport Factors

While manipulating at source level is the more effective approach to minimize P accumulation in soils with manure applications, controlling transport factors is effective in reducing P mobility from manure-amended soils to sensitive locations such as fresh water bodies. Past and recent approaches to regulate manure P transport from soils to waterways focused mainly on enhancing manure P-soil interaction (e.g., proper timing, placement, and methods of manure application), and controlling soil erosion, surface runoff, and preferential leaching (e.g., minimum tillage, terracing, controlled drainage, etc.) [17–19, 20•].

Enhancing Manure P Interaction with Soils

Soil particles can retain manure P; therefore, enhancing manure P interaction with soils can reduce P mobility. Manure application to wet soils, frozen ground, and during late fall and winter seasons when temperatures are low, can significantly increase manure P losses because of low P retention, and thus, should be avoided [12•, 111, 112]. Incorporation and injection of manure enhances soil-manure contact and facilitates P retention. When compared with surface application of pig slurry, incorporation and injection resulted in a > 50% reduction in TP and dissolved P loads with runoff and leaching [46, 48•] and is usually a recommended practice to reduce manure P losses.

Controlling Soil Erosion, Surface Runoff, and Preferential Leaching

Loss of PP from manured soils is highly correlated with sediment loss [41] and can be greatly reduced through controlling soil erosion and preferential flow. While strategies commonly used for erosion control such as conservation tillage, terracing, contour tillage, and cover crops were often effective in reducing PP loss from soils via surface runoff, they are less effective in reducing dissolved P losses and may increase the total dissolved P in losses over time [19, 20•]. For example, a study analyzing a database of drainage-associated nutrient loads indicated that conservation tillage, an effective measure for reducing PP losses with surface runoff, can increase DRP loss with rain water- and snowmelt- driven surface and subsurface pathways [53], largely due to P accumulation in surface soils with conservation tillage leading to vertical stratification in relation to STP.

Controlled drainage reduced manure P loss to tile drainage, with a 40-fold reduction in leachate DRP concentration compared with free drainage 1 week after manure application

[55••]. This was attributed to a reduction of preferential flow through macropores allowing more time for P sorption to occur. A significant redox-induced DRP release was not observed during 3-week subsurface water retention; however, other studies reported significant increase in P release from manured soils with longer periods of water retention [60]. Lack of redox-induced P release in the former study [55••] could be soil specific; thus, more research is needed using soils with a wide range of properties. While controlled drainage decreased DRP losses in leachate through preferential flow [55••], how it influences P loss from other pathways is uncertain; and authors cautioned that the impact of controlled drainage on surface water hydrology, erosion potential, and overall P loss risk, need to be evaluated.

Increasing time between manure application and runoff event can reduce both particulate and dissolved P losses, particularly with surface-applied manures as shown by actual P loss from manured fields and predicted P loss using different models [12••, 44–46, 113]. Predictions using SurPhos model suggest that enhanced soil-manure P interactions is not the dominant mechanism that decreased available P for runoff as thought earlier; rather, decreased runoff P loss was primarily caused due to less runoff generated from drier soils with increasing time after manure application [46], which may also result in more manure P infiltration into soil. Thus, it is clear that storm hydrology is the driver of manure P loss when manure is applied on soil surface, rather than the time gap between manure application and runoff event.

The complexity of concurrent processes of manure P transport clearly indicates that effectiveness of BMPs tested for a particular scenario may not be transferable to a different location, or moment of time. Selection of appropriate BMPs therefore should be site and time specific based on the dominant mechanism/s by which manure P is transported.

Conclusions

Manure is a rich source of plant nutrients that can significantly reduce the use of mineral fertilizers in crop production; however, proper management is crucial to avoid non-point pollution of freshwater with P. Manures differ in their P content and forms of P present, and when applied to soils with varying properties under a range of environmental conditions, a large number of interactive factors influences manure P accumulation and mobility in soils. Based on research findings, P losses from manure-applied soils in general, is greater with (a) increasing soluble P applied with manure, (b) vulnerable soils with limited P sorption capacity and/or susceptible to preferential flow/erosion, (c) physical/chemical conditions conducive to P release and transport (e.g., water-logged conditions), and (d) reduced soil-manure P interaction following application (e.g., manure application when rainfall is imminent).

Since manure P can be transported as particulate P or dissolved P from soils, via a number of surface and subsurface flow pathways which occur concurrently, attempts to minimize P loss through one pathway may enhance losses through another. Future research therefore, should focus on a better understanding of the interactive effects of source factors on short- and long-term manure P loss via different transport pathways that occur concurrently. Special attention should be paid to vulnerable conditions such as water-logged and frozen soils, with more research on snow-melt driven P losses to better understand the factors controlling manure P loss under such conditions.

Mitigating strategies to reduce P transport from amended soil to waterways can be achieved at multiple stages; during manure generation, processing, application and post-application. Future research should continue to hone existing techniques to reduce P buildup in soils with manure applications while developing novel cost-effective and environmentally friendly options. Mitigation efforts should focus on reducing P buildup in soil by employing a combination of strategies during generation, processing, and application of manure, coupled with site- and time-specific BMPs selected based on the dominant pathway of P loss.

Compliance with Ethical Standards

Conflict of Interest On behalf of all authors, the corresponding author states that there is no conflict of interest.

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