TARC Notes

Phosphate sorption by Indonesian paddy soils

The process of decrease in solubility or availability of phosphates added to soil has been referred to as phosphate retention, fixation or sorption which implies the participation of both adsorption and absorption mechanisms. So far, it is believed that the process involves the reaction of phosphates with iron, aluminum, calcium and clay in soil. To compare the phosphate sorbing capacity of soils, the phosphate sorption coefficient has been routinely determined in soil laboratories in Japan, as the coefficient obviously enables to discriminate an andosol from other soils by its extremely high value⁶⁾.

The phosphate sorption coefficient is represented by the amount of phosphate sorbed by a 50 g soil sample bathing for 24 hrs in 100 ml solution of 2.5% ammonium phosphate, $(NH_4)_2HPO_4$, adjusted to pH 7.0 by phosphoric acid, with intermittent hand shaking. The amount is expressed as mg of P₂O₅ per 100 g of an oven-dry soil¹⁰⁾. In this paper, the phosphate sorption coefficients of some Indonesian and Japanese paddy soils were correlated with several soil properties to estimate the possible mechanisms of phosphate sorption by different types of soils.

Indonesian soil samples Nos. 1, 2 and 3 consisted of red-yellow podzolic soils; No. 4 was a yellow podzolic/gray hydromorphic soil; Nos. 5, 6, 7 and 8 were dark gray grumusols; No. 9 was an alkaline grayish brown regosol of volcanic origin; No. 10 was a gray hydromorphic/grayish brown planosol; No. 11 was a strongly acid gray regosol/lithosol of volcanic origin; No. 12 was a reddish brown latosol. Japanese soil samples Nos. 13, 14 and 15 consisted of andosols from Iwate; No. 16 was a gray lowland soil from Ibaraki; Nos. 17 and 18 were surface and subsoil of a dark red soil from Okinawa. A study on the phosphorus availability of those soils was presented in the previous report⁸⁾.

Clay content was determined by the sodium hexametaphosphate-pipette method. Free iron was extracted by the dithionite-EDTA method as described by Asami and Kumada¹⁰⁾. Soluble Al was extracted by acetate buffer (pH 4.0) and its content was measured by the aluminon method³⁾. Cation exchange capacity (CEC) was determined by the neutral NH₄OAc method and exchangeable cations were measured on acetate leachate by the atomic absorption method³⁾. Organic and inorganic carbon contents were determined by the acid dichromate oxidation method as described by Kosaka, Honda and Iseki³⁾.

The relation between the P sorption coefficient and clay content in soil is shown in Fig. 1. The CEC/clay ratios of the Nos. 9



Fig. 1. Relation between the P sorption coefficient and clay content in soil (O indicates the corrected clay content)

and 11 regosols amounting to 1.20 and 1.18 respectively were much higher than those of other soils of non-volcanic origin, implying that the porous volcanic ash has an active inner surface in addition to the activity of the outer surface of the particles. An average CEC/clay ratio of non-volcanic soils, 0.48, was applied to both soils to calculate the corrected clay contents which were 20.0 and 38.8% for Nos. 9 and 11, respectively, as plotted in Fig. 1.



Fig. 2. Relation between the P sorption coefficient and free iron content in soil

As shown in Fig. 1, the soils could be divided into 4 groups. Positive correlation was observed for the group I soils. The same trend could be recognized for the group II soils, although the group consisted of only two soils and the curve tended to move to the higher part of the coefficient. All of the group III soils were grumusols with high clay contents and large coefficients, but relation between both parameters was not proportional. As for the group IV andosols, clay did not play any significant role in the process of P sorption.

In Fig. 2, a positive correlation between the free iron content and the coefficient could be demonstrated for all the groups, although the gradient and position of regression lines varied depending on the groups.

Inorganic carbon contents of the grumusols Nos. 5, 6, 7 and 8 were 0.61, 0.16, 0.02 and

120 III:Y=-135.6 0.1011 X r=0.998*** 100 Exchangeable & carbonate 80 mc/100g 60 40 3 26 0 500 1000 1500 2000 2500 P-sorption coefficient P2 O3 mg/100g

Fig. 3. Relation between the P sorption coefficient and exchangeable and carbonate calcium in soil

0.03%, respectively. The inorganic carbon was assumed to be derived from CaCO₃ and was added to the exchangeable calcium. As shown in Fig. 3, the P sorption coefficient of group III grumusols increased proportionally to the amounts of exchangeable and carbonate calcium, accounting for their very high coefficients.

As seen from the definition of P sorption coefficient, the larger the amount of phosphate sorbed by a soil, the smaller the phosphate concentration in the solution equilibrated with the soil, suggesting that P sorption capacity for the soil of high coefficient, such as andosol, might be relatively underestimated. Honya and Yoshino²⁾ revealed that the P sorption reaction ranging from 10 to 10,000 ppm P in the equilibrated solution follows Freundlich's adsorption isotherm, $x = KC^{1/n}$, in which x is the amount of P (mg) sorbed by 1 g of soil, C is P (ppm) in equilibrated solution and, K and n are constants whose values vary depending on soil and other conditions. Determination of the K and n for each soil enables to calculate the P sorption capacity at a certain P concentration in the equilibrated solution. For andosols, such coefficient at high P concentration may be more representative as compared with the ordinary P sorption coefficient. Then, in addition to the ordinary P sorption coefficient determined with 2.5% ammonium phosphate solution, the P sorbing capacity was also evaluated by using 0.25 and



Fig. 4. Relation between the P sorption coefficient equilibrated with 4000 ppm P solution and soluble aluminum



0.025% solution to draw the regression line, log x = log K + (1/n)log C. With this equation the P sorption coefficient of C at 4000 ppm P was calculated for each soil, as the P concentration in the equilibrated solution for soil of moderate coefficient (about 1000) is approximately 4000 ppm P.

In Fig. 4, the Al contents soluble in acetate buffer at pH 4 were plotted against the calculated coefficients. Three andosols, Nos. 13, 14 and 15, showed positive correlation between them, although the correlation coefficient was not high enough to be significant. A similar trend was observed between the P sorption coefficient at 4000 ppm P and organic carbon content in andosols, as shown in Fig. 5. Close relation between both parameters was reported by Kato on andosols in Japan⁵⁾ and by Bezama and Aomine on andosols in Chile¹⁾. Yoshida and Miyauchi showed that Fe and Al coordinately bound with humus, allophanic Al and free Fe and Al oxide gel are the origin of P sorption capacity in an andosol¹¹). Extremely high P sorption coefficients of andosols can be attributed to their very high soluble Al contents. This can not be applied to No. 11 regosol as its coefficient is not as high as its soluble Al content. Possible explanation is that the low pH of No. 11 soil due to the presence of sulfuric acid hinders the sorption of phosphate by soil.

Soils other than the andosols and acid regosol gave no indication to assume that the P sorption is related to the presence of soluble Al. Study on the phosphate sorption of South Brazilian acid tropical soils showed that the sorption of added P was always better correlated with the Al parameters such as exchangeable, oxalate and citrate-dithionitebicarbonate soluble Al than with the Fe parameters⁹⁾. Another study on the inorganic P fractionation in Indonesia revealed that the phosphate sorbed by soil was found mostly in Al-P fraction followed by Fe-P fraction⁷⁾. As all the soils examined showed that their P sorption was somehow related to free Fe content, it is natural to consider that the P sorption of these soils bore some relation with aluminum components in the soils, although the soluble Al content failed to illustrate apparently the relation with P sorption for the soils of group I, II and III, as shown in Fig. 4. When log C is taken as 0 in the equation $\log x = \log K + (1/n) \log C$, then, C = 1 ppm Pin solution, x=K, and K(mg P/g) is the amount of P sorbed by a soil equilibrated with 1 ppm P solution. From the value of K,



Fig. 6. Relation between the P sorption coefficient at 1 ppm P and 4000 ppm P (each line shows P. S. C. 4000/P. S. C. 1 ratio)

the P sorption coefficients at 1 ppm P were calculated and plotted against the P sorption coefficients at 4000 ppm P, as shown in Fig. 6. The ordinary P sorption coefficients for grumusols (group III) were comparable to those of andosols, while those at 4000 ppm P were somewhat distinct from those of andosols and those at 1 ppm P showed marked differences. These facts indicate that the nature of phosphate sorbing components in both soils are different.

On the average, ratio of P sorption coefficient at 4000 ppm P to that at 1 ppm P was 61. The average ratio for the grumusols (group III) was 129, for andosols (group IV) 78, and for the groups I and II 31. Large reduction rate in the amount of phosphate sorbed by a grumusol parallel to the reduction in phosphate concentration in the equilibrated solution suggests that the decrease in availability of phosphate added to a grumusol may be small though the soil shows very high P sorption coefficient.

The following conclusions were drawn from the relation between P sorption coefficients and several soil properties. P sorption coefficients of group I soils, which included redyellow podzolic soils, a regosol of volcanic origin, a gray hydromorphic/yellowish brown planosol, a reddish brown latosol, a gray lowland soil and dark red soils, correlated with clay and free iron contents, suggesting that the aluminum and iron oxides coating on clay particles were responsible for the phosphate sorption. Group II soils consisting of a yellow podzolic/gray hydromorphic soil and a strongly acid regosol of volcanic origin showed a pattern similar to that of group I, although their coefficient was higher in proportion to clay or free iron contents. This may be due to the fact that the ability of P sorption of aluminum and iron oxides in the group II soils is higher than that in group I, owing to the lower crystallinity of oxides4,8). Soils of group III were dark gray grumusols. Their high P sorption coefficients were primarily attributed to their high exchangeable and carbonate calcium contents, and partly associated with aluminum and iron oxides coating on the clay. Extremely high P sorption coefficients of andosols (group IV) showed a correlation to the carbon, soluble Al and free Fe contents, indicating that the aluminum and iron combined with humus are the main sources of P sorbing capacity of these soils.

- Bezama, B. N. & Aomine, S.: Phosphate retention on soils in the Central Valley of Chile. Soil. Sci. Plant Nutr., 23, 427-435 (1977).
- Honya, K. & Yoshino, T.: Fundamental studies on the application of phosphorus to crops. Res. Bull. Tohoku Nat. Agr. Exp. Sta., 32, 41-60 (1965).
- Ishizawa, S. ed.: Dojoyobun Bunsekiho (Analytical Methods for Soil Nutrients) Yokendo, Tokyo (1970) [In Japanese].
- 4) Juo, A. S. R. & Ellis, B. G.: Chemical and physical properties of iron and aluminum phosphate and their relation to phosphorus availability. Soil Sci. Soc. Amer. Proc., 32, 216-221 (1968).
- Kato, Y.: General properties of "Kuroboku" soils in Tokai District. In comparison with those of volcanic ash soils. J. Sci. Soil & Manure, Japan, 41, 173-177 (1970) [In Japanese].
- Kawaguchi, K. & Kyuma, K.: Lowland rice Soils in Thailand. The Center for Southeast Asian Studies, Kyoto University (1969).
- 7) Leiwakabessy, F. M., Koswara, O. & Sudjadi, M.: Preliminary study on P fixation of major soil groups in Java. *Proc. 2nd. ASEAN Soil Conf.* II, 145–154, Soil Res. Inst. Bogor Indonesia (1973).
- Miyake, M.: Soil testing methods for available phosphorus in paddy soils of Indonesia. Jap. J. Trop. Agr., 22, 133-138 (1978).
- Syers, J. K. et al.: Phosphate sorption parameters of representative soils from Rio Grande to Sul, Brazil. Soil Sci., 112, 267-275 (1971).
- Yamada, N. ed.: Laboratory manual for soil chemical analysis for assessment of fertility of paddy field soil. Trop. Agr. Res. Cener, Japan (1973).
- Yoshida, M. & Miyauchi, N.: Method for determining phosphate fixation capacity of soil in acidic condition. J. Sci. Soil & Manure, Japan, 46, 89–93 (1975) [In Japanese].

Received for publication, December 27, 1978.

Masanori MIYAKE Tropical Agriculture Research Center, Japan

Differentiation in sorghum varieties caused by tropical and temperate environments

It is well known from a large number of studies so far reported that many characters of varieties or hybrid populations vary depending on natural environments under which they grow²). These changes occur primarily due to differences in the response of their genotypes to different environments. In 1958, Akemine and Kikuchi¹) tried to cultivate F_2 to F_6 hybrid populations, derived from crosses between early and late varieties of japonica rice, at 13 locations without carrying out any selection, and they reported conspicuous changes occurred in the genetic constitution of these populations in response to environmental conditions.

In the present paper, changes in the genetic constitution with respect to heading time and culm length will be demonstrated with sorghum varieties grown under diverse environments: tropical and temperate regions. The work has been carried out by the authors at the University of the Philippines at Los Banos from 1976 to 1978.

Of the world collection of sorghum varieties by the All-India Coordinated Sorghum Improvement Programme (AICSIP), 20 varieties which were first introduced to Thailand and subsequently to the Philippines (hereafter referred to CS group), and 18 varieties which were introduced to Japan and later to the Philippines (IS group) were used as the experimental material. These varieties were grown in experimental fields of the University during the 1976 wet season (July 19 to October 28), the 1977 dry season (January 19 to April 20), and the 1977 wet season (April 20 to August 8) for a ratoon crop.

Each plot was composed of 4 rows: 2 for a parent (P_2) and 2 for a hybrid (F_1) between P_2 and a male sterile line. Each row was 4 m long and 75 cm wide. No replication was made. A check variety, cosor-1, was inserted every 36 rows so as to estimate the uniformity

of the field conditions.

The characters studied were heading time (days to heading), culm length and internode length. Variations of each character observed in the parents, the crosses, and the variety groups in response to different growing seasons are shown in Fig. 1. Remarkable variations are recognized in the response of the P_2 and F_1 of each variety and that between variety groups. Variations of heading time and culm length in response to different growing seasons were more apparent in the CS group than in the IS one. The response to different growing seasons was compared between P_2 and F_1 with all combinations, and it was found that the response of F_1 reflected the genetic characteristic of P2 used as pollen parents.

The difference in the response of heading time and culm length as observed between the CS and IS populations suggests the possibility that such a difference might have resulted from different environments of the countries of transit of these two groups, namely Thailand and Japan. For sorghum cultivation, important environmental differences between tropical and temperate regions are related to day-length and temperature. Therefore, some analysis of the above result will be made from this point of view.

Heading time In Japan, sorghum is grown during the warm season from May (planting time) to September (harvesting). With early varieties, their vegetative growth period is not sufficiently long, while with late varieties their ripening occurs at low temperature after the end of the warm season. Therefore, intermediate varieties between early and late ones are selected for the purpose of breeding. Therefore, when the varieties which became adapted to the condition of Japan are brought back to the tropics, they must show a reduced genetic variability for heading time as compared to the original varieties. It is interesting to note that such varieties showed a stable pattern of variations of heading time among different planting seasons in the Philippines.

On the other hand, it can be assumed that the purpose of introducing varieties from



Fig. 1. Histograms showing responses of heading time (days to heading) and culm length of 2 groups of varieties to different planting seasons

India to Thailand was to search for resistances to lodging and diseases, rather than earliness or lateness under the tropical condition of short day and high temperature all the year round. Selection for heading time such as that in Japan might not have occurred. To prove such a hypothesis, it would be necessary to examine the heading response in Japan of varieties showing different heading times in the Philippines.

Culm length Although plant growth increases generally in proportion to growth durations, no such relation was clearly shown in the present experiment. To elucidate the reason for this phenomenon, culm length and internode length were measured at each season of the experiment. As shown in Fig. 2, it was found that the culm elongation could be classified into 3 types. In the first type, the culm elongation takes place through the internode differentiation (increase in number of internodes), and in the third type, it oc-



- Note: ●: Dry season, ▲: Wet season, ×: Ratoon (Wet), i: Internode, C: Culm length Only 3 upper internodes are shown as an example for each hybrid.
- Fig. 2. Histograms showing different patterns of culm elongation of F_1 hybrids grown in different planting seasons.

curs through the increase in length of each internode, while in the second type both mechanisms are involved. Existence of such different patterns of culm elongation is considered to have disturbed the relationship to be shown between heading time and culm length among different planting seasons.

Moreover, it was recognized that the CS group followed the first pattern, while the IS group showed the third one. Based on this finding, it is suggested that the IS group had been exposed to the selection for heading time under the condition of Japan where photoperiod is longer than in the tropics, resulting in the differentiation of the internode elongation pattern.

As a result of varietal differentiation caused by natural selection under different environments, both groups, CS and IS, showed not only different responses to the cultivation in different seasons, but also different levels of F_1 heterosis, when used as pollen parents for male sterile lines. Namely, the IS varieties manifested a higher level of heterosis than the CS varieties. To elucidate the cause of such difference, it is necessary to enlarge the genetic base of the material to be used or to carry out investigations on the inter-action between variety and environment from the standpoint of ecological genetics.

- Akemine, H. & Kikuchi, F.: In "Studies on the bulk method of plant breeding" (Sakai, K., Takahashi, T. & Akemine, H. ed.), 89-105 Yokendo, Tokyo (1958) [In Japanese].
- Allard, R. W. & Hansche, P. E.: Some parameters of population variability and their implications in plant breeding. Advan. Agron., 16, 281-325 (1964).

Received for publication, April 1, 1979.

- Takanori IMAI Tropical Agriculture Research Center, Japan.
- Arturo A. GOMEZ University of the Philippines at Los Banõs, The Philippines.