

1 **Organic phosphorus in the terrestrial environment: A perspective on the state of the art and future**  
2 **priorities**

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## 62 **Abstract**

63 **Background:** The dynamics of phosphorus (P) in the environment is important for regulating nutrient cycles in  
64 natural and managed ecosystems and an integral part in assessing biological resilience against environmental  
65 change. Organic P (P<sub>o</sub>) compounds play key roles in biological and ecosystems function in the terrestrial  
66 environment, being critical to cell function, growth and reproduction.

67 **Scope:** We asked a group of experts to consider the global issues associated with P<sub>o</sub> in the terrestrial environment,  
68 methodological strengths and weaknesses, benefits to be gained from understanding the P<sub>o</sub> cycle, and to set  
69 priorities for P<sub>o</sub> research.

70 **Conclusions:** We identified seven key opportunities for P<sub>o</sub> research including: the need for integrated, quality  
71 controlled and functionally based methodologies; assessment of stoichiometry with other elements in organic  
72 matter; understanding the dynamics of P<sub>o</sub> in natural and managed systems; the role of microorganisms in  
73 controlling P<sub>o</sub> cycles; the implications of nanoparticles in the environment and the need for better modelling and  
74 communication of the research. Each priority is discussed and a statement of intent for the P<sub>o</sub> research community  
75 is made that highlights there are key contributions to be made toward understanding biogeochemical cycles,  
76 dynamics and function of natural ecosystems and the management of agricultural systems.

## 77 **Keywords**

78 , Ecosystems services, Method development, Microbiome, Modelling, Organic Phosphorus, Stoichiometry.

## 79 **Abbreviations**

80  $\delta^{18}\text{OP}$  – oxygen-18 isotope ratio

81 16S rRNA = 16S ribosomal Ribonucleic acid

82 Al = Aluminium

83 ATP = Adenosine triphosphate

- 84 C = Carbon
- 85 DNA = Deoxyribonucleic acid
- 86 Fe = Iron
- 87 N = Nitrogen
- 88 P = Phosphorus
- 89 Pho = Pho regulon transcription factors
- 90  $P_i$  = Inorganic orthophosphate
- 91  $P_o$  = Organic phosphate compounds
- 92 S = Sulphur

### 93 **The Importance of Phosphorus and Organic Phosphorus**

94 The dynamics of phosphorus (P) in the terrestrial environment is critical for regulating nutrient cycling in both  
95 natural and managed ecosystems. Phosphorus compounds fundamentally contribute to life on earth: being  
96 essential to cellular organization as phospholipids, as chemical energy for metabolism in the form of ATP, genetic  
97 instructions for growth, development and cellular function as nucleic acids, and as intracellular signalling  
98 molecules (Butusov and Jernelöv 2013). Plant growth is limited by soil P availability, so turnover of organic  
99 phosphorus ( $P_o$ ) represents a source of P for ecosystem function and, critically, P supply affects crop production  
100 (Runge-Metzger 1995). Phosphorus deficiency constrains the accumulation and turnover of plant biomass and  
101 dictates community assemblages and biodiversity in a range of natural ecosystems (Attiwill and Adams 1993;  
102 McGill and Cole 1981).

103 Chemically, P is a complex nutrient that exists in many inorganic ( $P_i$ ) and organic ( $P_o$ ) forms in the environment.  
104 Through the utilization of orthophosphate, plants and other organisms drive the conversion of  $P_i$  to  $P_o$ . Death,  
105 decay and herbivory facilitate the return of both  $P_o$  and  $P_i$  in plant materials to soil. Inputs of P to soil through  
106 these processes may contribute  $P_o$  directly to soil or indirectly, following decomposition, accumulation, and  
107 stabilization of  $P_o$  by microorganisms (Harrison 1982; Lang et al. 2016; Magid et al. 1996; McGill and Cole 1981;  
108 Stewart and Tiessen 1987; Tate and Salcedo 1988). In its simplest definition,  $P_o$  is any compound that contains  
109 an organic moiety in addition to P, while a wider definition would include phosphate which is associated with

110 organic matter. Such discrete  $P_o$  compounds are categorized into similarly structured forms and these forms and  
111 their relative lability in soil is shown in Figure 1, taken from Darch et al. (2014). The  $P_o$  compounds, which are  
112 considered to be biologically relevant include monoesters, inositol phosphates, diesters and phosphonates. The  
113 relative lability and accumulation of these different groups varies in the environment, but overall the labile  
114 monoesters and diesters tend to be less prevalent and the inositol phosphates tend to be less labile and accumulate  
115 in the environment (Darch et al. 2014). In general, soil organic P forms have a smaller affinity to the soil solid  
116 phase than inorganic P forms and a large proportion of the P forms found in leachate are found to be in organic  
117 forms (Chardon & Oenema, 1995; Chardon et al. 1997; Espinosa et al. 1999) and can therefore have large impacts  
118 on ecosystem function (Sharma et al. 2017; Toor et al. 2003). All  $P_o$  compounds have a range of chemical bonds,  
119 and all require specific catalytic enzymes to make them biologically available in the form of orthophosphate. The  
120 hydrolysis of  $P_o$  is mediated by the action of a suite of phosphatase enzymes which may have specificity for single  
121 compounds or broad specificity to a range of compounds (George et al. 2007). Unlike for organic nitrogen, there  
122 is no evidence for direct uptake of dissolved  $P_o$  compounds by biology, apart from the uptake of phosphonates by  
123 bacteria in marine systems (Dyhrman et al. 2006). Plants and microbes possess a range of phosphatases that are  
124 associated with various cellular functions, including; energy metabolism, nutrient transport, metabolic regulation  
125 and protein activation (Duff et al. 1994). However, it is the extracellular phosphatases released into the soil that  
126 are of particular importance for the mineralisation of soil  $P_o$ . Extracellular phosphatase activity is induced under  
127 conditions of P deficiency and is either associated with root cell walls or released directly into the rhizosphere  
128 (Richardson et al. 2009).

129 There have been a number of important advances in our understanding of  $P_o$  dynamics at the ecosystem and  
130 rhizosphere scale in the past decade, with particular advancement in understanding of plant-soil-microorganism  
131 interactions and concomitant advances in techniques used to assess these dynamics. It is now timely to start to  
132 consider how to integrate this information and extract further understanding of the dynamics of  $P_o$  in the managed  
133 and natural environment and this will have a number of potentially important impacts on how we tackle some of  
134 the most pressing global issues of today. Here we summarise the state of the art of  $P_o$  research and identify  
135 priorities for future research, which will help meet these goals.

### 136 **Establishing Priorities for Organic Phosphorus Research**

137 There has been a large increase in the number of publications in the  $P_o$  research field in the last two decades, with  
138 ~400 publications in 2016, compared to 150 in 2000. In September 2016 a workshop on Organic Phosphorus was

139 held (<https://op2016.com>), gathering together 102 experts in the field of P<sub>o</sub> research from 23 countries to identify  
140 research priorities. Contributors were asked, in five groups, to consider the global issues associated with P<sub>o</sub>,  
141 methodological strengths and weaknesses, benefits to be gained from understanding the P<sub>o</sub> cycle, and priorities  
142 for P<sub>o</sub> research. The information from the five groups was collected and the concepts, where consensus between  
143 at least two of the groups was reached, are summarized in Table 1. It is clear from this that research into P<sub>o</sub> has  
144 the potential to have impacts on global biogeochemical cycles of P both in natural and managed systems and will  
145 therefore potentially impact food security, agricultural sustainability, environmental pollution of both the aquatic  
146 and atmospheric environments and will be profoundly affected by environmental change both in geopolitical terms  
147 and through man-made climate change. We are well placed to tackle these as there are a number of strengths in  
148 the way the research is performed and the weaknesses are well understood. It was considered that P<sub>o</sub> research will  
149 have a range of impactful outcomes on our understanding of how natural and agricultural systems work and has  
150 the potential to give society a number of important tools to help manage the environment more effectively to either  
151 prevent or mitigate against some of the major global threats. A number of research priorities were identified and  
152 grouped into specific opportunities which are detailed below. The key opportunities to improve the effectiveness  
153 of P<sub>o</sub> research identified here are similar to those highlighted in Turner et al. (2005), although it is clear that some  
154 progress has been made since that set of recommendations were made. However, the similarities and consistency  
155 between the outcomes of these two studies suggests we still have some progress to make. A number of new priority  
156 areas were identified here that were not identified in Turner et al. (2005), including the need for greater  
157 understanding of the metagenomics and functional microbial genes involved in organic P turnover, greater  
158 understanding of the impact of nanoparticles in the environment on organic P turnover and the need to integrate  
159 the system more effectively in the form of models. It is clear that P<sub>o</sub> research field is evolving, but some of the  
160 issues of a decade ago still persist.

### 161 **1) Opportunities in organic phosphorus analytical methodologies**

162 The core analytical tools for the P<sub>o</sub> discipline are <sup>31</sup>P NMR spectroscopy (Cade-Menun and Liu 2014; Cade-Menun  
163 2005; Cade-Menun et al. 2005; Turner et al. 2005), which is used to identify P<sub>o</sub> compounds in several  
164 environmental matrices, along with more traditional soil extraction methods, such as those to measure total P<sub>o</sub> and  
165 the fractionation method developed by Hedley et al. (Condon and Newman 2011; Hedley et al. 1982; Negassa  
166 and Leinweber 2009). There is discussion and debate focused around the suitability of these analytical  
167 methodologies for characterizing P<sub>o</sub> in soil and terrestrial systems (Liu et al. 2014; Doolette and Smernik, 2011)

168 and this debate revolves around the identity of the broad base of the inositol hexaphosphate peak on NMR spectra,  
169 which some contest is resolved and other suggest is unidentified (Jarosch et al. 2015). Despite this, research into  
170  $P_o$  is still limited methodologically and many methods are operationally-defined. Importantly, there is a need to  
171 link the results from these methods to biological and biogeochemical processes in the environment. In the process  
172 of achieving this, there is debate over the benefits of (i) standardization or homogenization of analytical methods,  
173 versus the merits of (ii) promoting diversity of analytical procedures.

174 It is critical to develop non-destructive methods to analyse soil pools and their dynamics without the need for  
175 extraction. Some solid-state methods, such as solid-state NMR or P-XANES (X-ray Adsorptive Near Edge  
176 Structure) spectroscopy are limited by the naturally low concentrations of  $P_o$  forms in soils (Liu et al. 2013; 2014;  
177 2015). Visible Near-Infrared Reflectance Spectroscopy (VNIRS) has shown some promise for determining total  
178  $P_o$  in soils (Abdi et al, 2016), but further testing is needed. Another priority for  $P_o$  methodologies is the  
179 development of standard analytical quality controls through the use of standardized reference materials for cross-  
180 comparison and checks on analytical methods. These standardized reference materials will include reference soils  
181 and chemicals. There is a need for the community to identify standardized natural reference materials such as soils  
182 and manures, but a large amount of effort would be needed to put together a collection of appropriate materials as  
183 well as a means to share them internationally. Standardization of  $P_o$  compounds could be achieved through the  
184 use of simple, relatively pure, and inexpensive  $P_o$  compounds (e.g. Na-phytate, glucose 1-P) purchased from a  
185 single supplier operating in many countries with a guaranteed long-term production commitment. And there is a  
186 need to develop a commercial supply of other commonly identified  $P_o$  compounds in soils, such as scyllo-inositol  
187 hexakisphosphate, to allow the use of appropriate substrates for research fully understand the biological and  
188 chemical processes controlling the behaviour of this and other  $P_o$  compounds in the environment. It is a priority  
189 for researchers to further develop methods, while also refining existing  $P_o$  methods and standards, to generate  
190 useful and comparable datasets and to build a consensus with respect to  $P_o$  dynamics and function in agricultural  
191 and natural ecosystems.

## 192 **2) Opportunities from understanding stoichiometry – interactions of organic phosphorus with other** 193 **element cycles**

194 Comparing element ratios of living organisms and their non-living environment has been at the centre of scientific  
195 debate for many years. In oceans, planktonic biomass is characterized by similar C:N:P ratios as marine water  
196 (106:16:1) (Redfield 1958). While similar characteristic element ratios also exist for terrestrial ecosystems with

197 much greater heterogeneity across a range of spatial scales (Cleveland and Liptzin 2007). The comparison of  
198 C:N:P ratios in the microbial biomass of soils with that of soil organic matter (SOM) may therefore help to identify  
199 the nutrient status of the soil (Redfield 1958). Following this concept, the stoichiometric ratios of resources (e.g.,  
200 SOM) over the microbial biomass has been calculated as a proxy for nutrient imbalances (Cleveland and Liptzin  
201 2007). An understanding of stoichiometric ratios in soils and their relationship to those in crop plants and for the  
202 decomposition of litter and SOM will provide an important indicator of nutrient status in terrestrial ecosystems  
203 and better management of systems.

204 Until now, the large temporal and spatial heterogeneity of soil systems and the heterogeneous distribution of SOM  
205 constituents have made the analysis and interpretation of ecosystem stoichiometry a challenge because for  
206 microbial decomposers the elemental composition of micro-sites in soils might be more relevant than the overall  
207 element ratio of the soil. For example, by analysing the C:N:P ratio of bulk soils only, information on relevant  
208 and spatially-dependent processes may be lost (e.g., rhizosphere, soil horizons). The most obvious reason for soil-  
209 specificity and heterogeneity among stoichiometric ratios is that part of the SOM is separated from  
210 microorganisms and roots via physical and physicochemical barriers. By re-analysing the results of C:N:P:Sulphur  
211 (S) analyses of SOM obtained from 2000 globally distributed soil samples, Tipping et al. (2016) demonstrated  
212 that there is both nutrient-poor and nutrient-rich SOM, with the latter being strongly sorbed by soil minerals  
213 (Tipping et al. 2016). This may be explained by the incorporation of SOM into aggregates (Stewart and Tiessen  
214 1987) or the adsorption of P-containing organic and inorganic molecules to mineral surfaces (Celi et al. 2003;  
215 Giaveno et al. 2010). Clay and metal (oxy)hydroxide minerals can sequester  $P_o$  and  $P_i$  released by microbial- or  
216 plant-driven processes and/or affect enzyme activities, while limiting P biocycling (Celi and Barberis 2005). This  
217 highlights the need to understand the tight interrelationship between chemical, physical and biological processes  
218 and the potential for stoichiometric assessment as an indicator of P and organic matter availability in soils. Modern  
219 analytical techniques which enable to analyse the stoichiometry of the soil constituents at a high resolution might  
220 help provide this knowledge (Mueller et al. 2012).

221 There are many known mechanisms by which organisms can improve access to  $P_o$  (Richardson et al. 2011), but  
222 there are several novel mechanisms being identified that target key components of SOM, such as polyphenols and  
223 tannins, to mobilise P (Kohlen et al. 2011). A priority will be to understand the plant and microbial mechanisms  
224 involved in the accumulation and mobilization of P from organic matter. It is important to attempt to determine  
225 the optimal stoichiometry between C:N:P, and understand the role  $P_o$  plays in this, to allow sustainable



226 management of P in arable soils and to identify anthropogenic nutrient imbalances in natural, agricultural and  
227 forest ecosystems (Frossard et al. 2015).

### 228 **3) Opportunities from understanding interactions of organic phosphorus with land management**

229 An ability to utilise P<sub>o</sub> to sustain agronomic productivity with declining conventional fertiliser inputs drives  
230 research into interactions among P<sub>o</sub>, land use and management (Nash et al. 2014; Stutter et al. 2012). The  
231 conditions to better utilise P<sub>o</sub> may bring benefits for other soil quality factors (e.g., SOM status and microbial  
232 cycling), but may require management of potentially adverse effects on wider biological cycles and water quality  
233 (Dodd and Sharpley 2015). Societal drivers for food and timber production underpin much of the research into P<sub>o</sub>  
234 speciation, biological turnover and integration with agronomic systems. Numerous studies have reported P<sub>o</sub> stocks  
235 and changes associated with management; fewer have studied the time-course of transformations and turnover  
236 with management change, linked with soil chemical and biological processes. The interactions between P  
237 speciation, (bio)availability and SOM are of prime importance since land management greatly affects SOM in  
238 space and time (in beneficial or detrimental ways) and exert strong geochemical and microbial controls on P<sub>o</sub>  
239 cycling.

240 The interactions of land cover, use and management are important for understanding the role of P<sub>o</sub> across  
241 ecosystems. In agricultural systems, the information on soil P<sub>o</sub> stocks is well represented have been quantified by  
242 numerous studies in North America (Abdi et al. 2014; Cade-Menun et al. 2015; Liu et al. 2015; Schneider et al.  
243 2016), Europe (Ahlgren et al. 2013; Annaheim et al. 2015; Keller et al. 2012; Stutter et al. 2015), China (Liu et  
244 al. 2013), South America (de Oliveira et al. 2015), and Australia (Adeloju et al. 2016). In forestry, such  
245 information is available in tropical (Zaia et al. 2012) and temperate systems (Slazak et al. 2010) and orchards (Cui  
246 et al. 2015). However, an important improvement will be to better understand the reasons as to why particular  
247 stocks exist under certain geoclimatic-land cover combinations. Key opportunities exist to understand P<sub>o</sub> dynamics  
248 for sustainable P use in tropical systems and for forests growing on marginal soils, both of which depend on  
249 effective management of P<sub>o</sub> resources.

250 It is known that both land cover and management factors (tillage, fertilizer type, application rate and timing)  
251 interact with abiotic factors in controlling P<sub>o</sub> stocks and cycling, such as SOM, stabilizing surfaces [e.g., Fe- and  
252 aluminium (Al)-oxides, calcium (Ca) forms, clays] and soil moisture, (Adeloju et al. 2016; Cade-Menun et al.  
253 2015; Stutter et al. 2015). Chemical fractionation studies of P<sub>o</sub> stocks provide a snap-shot in time, missing  
254 temporal aspects of cycling associated with management-induced change at seasonal or to longer term

255 management. As a result, short periods of rapid change in P speciation and turnover may not be appreciated. The  
256 utilization of ‘legacy P’ (Haygarth et al. 2014; Powers et al. 2016), following declining fertiliser inputs or altered  
257 cropping practices, has been studied following long-duration manipulations. Often these look at the end point of  
258 change (Cade-Menun et al. 2015), but have not ‘followed’ the dynamic. Although powerful methods for  $P_o$   
259 assessment are developing rapidly, studies that preceded these have the opportunity to incorporate them with  
260 archived samples or control soils (Keller et al. 2012; Liu et al. 2015). Long-term understanding of  $P_o$  dynamics in  
261 management systems should be pursued, while short-term seasonal observations (for example Ebuele et al. 2016)  
262 will be needed to understand the influence of microbial dynamics on P speciation and turnover under various land-  
263 use and management scenarios. If studies of short-term perturbations (via management, climate etc) can show  
264 benefits for providing greater  $P_o$  resources into available pools then these processes may be beneficially  
265 incorporated in future land management.

266 ‘Organic’ farming brings a commercial stimulus to substitute agro-chemicals (including chemical P fertilisers)  
267 with sustainable management, such as use of organic amendments, for example enhancing soil P cycling with the  
268 aim of better utilizing P already present and moving towards a ‘closed’ system (Annaheim et al. 2015; Gaiind and  
269 Singh 2016; Schneider et al. 2016). The same approaches can be applied to less intensive, or developing,  
270 agricultural systems. Canadian pastures managed under an organic regime, had a greater abundance of  $P_o$  (65%  
271 vs 52% of total P) compared to conventional pastures and were able to maintain yield without inorganic fertilisers  
272 (Schneider et al. 2016). These authors concluded that plants were using  $P_i$  rather than  $P_o$  and supported by other  
273 studies showing no indication that the greater microbial activity under organic farming caused utilization of  
274 stabilized  $P_o$  forms (Keller et al. 2012). Therefore, the management conditions and actions required to promote  
275 better acquisition of  $P_o$  pools remain elusive.

276 The consensus is that a key question remains: How long could the turnover of  $P_o$  sustain crop yields under  
277 scenarios of reduced P inputs and maintained or increased outputs and thus contribute to agricultural production  
278 and feed supplies? The mechanistic understanding required to answer this question lies in the role of biota (in the  
279 context of their abiotic setting) in  $P_o$  turnover and the potential pathways of  $P_o$  loss to be managed (e.g. runoff).  
280 In order to progress, a systems approach is needed to fully assess the opportunities and role of  $P_o$ , as well as the  
281 interactions of soil chemical, physical and biological processes and impacts of land use change that control P  
282 availability.

#### 283 **4a) Opportunities from understanding microbial $P_o$ : functional genes and metagenomics**

284 As our abilities to analyse and interpret the complexity inherent in the soil microbiome improves, interest is  
285 burgeoning around the functional ecology of microorganisms. Organic P dynamics across ecosystems, along with  
286 development of many techniques that will aid in this understanding, are beginning to emerge. Scavenging of P  
287 from P-containing organic compounds by soil microbes is tightly controlled by intracellular P availability through  
288 the Pho pathway in yeast (Secco et al. 2012) and the Pho regulon in bacteria. In both cases, transcription of  
289 phosphatase and phytase, which act to release orthophosphate from phosphate esters, and high affinity transporters  
290 which transport  $P_i$  into the cell, are up-regulated under  $P_i$  limitation, affecting the organisms' ability to utilise  $P_o$ .  
291 The Pho regulon also acts as a major regulator of other cellular processes, including N assimilation and ammonium  
292 uptake (Santos-Beneit 2015). The C:N:P elemental ratios of the soil bacterium *Bacillus subtilis* range between  
293  $C_{53-125}:N_{12-29}:P_1$  under N- and P-limited culture conditions (Dauner et al. 2001), although environmental  
294 assemblages may exhibit greater stoichiometric flexibility (Godwin and Cotner 2015). Given this regulatory cross-  
295 talk, nutrient stoichiometry will be important to cellular and community metabolism meaning that the cycling of  
296 P must be considered within the context of other biogeochemical cycles, as highlighted earlier.

297 Soil type, nutrient inputs, and plant species have been shown to determine microbiota species composition and  
298 function (Alegria-Terrazas et al. 2016). However, plant root exudation drives recruitment of specific microbes  
299 and microbial consortia to the rhizosphere and may outweigh the impacts of soil and its management in shaping  
300 community composition and function (Tkacz et al. 2015). As yet, there is only limited understanding of how  
301 specific root exudates affect microbial recruitment (Neal et al. 2012), let alone specific microbiota responsible for  
302 phosphatase expression and production. A better understanding of interactions between plants and microbes would  
303 facilitate identification of functional redundancy among them, which could ultimately help manage the availability  
304 of P in soils and sediments by selection of the optimal plant rhizosphere complement.

305 Alkaline phosphatase and phytase genes are distributed across a broad phylogenetic range and display a high  
306 degree of microdiversity (Jaspers and Overmann 2004; Lim et al. 2007; Zimmerman et al. 2013), where closely  
307 related organisms exhibit different metabolic activities. It is therefore not possible to determine community  
308 functional potential from 16S rRNA gene abundance – functional gene abundance information is required and  
309 this can be provided by employing sequencing techniques to assess the soil metagenome. In marine systems, there  
310 is evidence from metagenomic sequencing of environmental DNA that alkaline phosphatase genes *phoD* and  
311 *phoX* are more abundant than *phoA* (Luo et al. 2009; Sebastian and Ammerman 2009) and the  $\beta$ -propeller phytase  
312 is the most abundant phytase gene (Lim et al. 2007). The dominant alkaline phosphatase gene in terrestrial

313 ecosystems is also *phoD* (Tan et al. 2013), which is more abundant in soils than other environments (Courty et al.  
314 2010; Ragot et al. 2015; Fraser et al. 2017). From a functional standpoint, abundance of *phoD*-like sequences  
315 correlate well with estimates of potential alkaline phosphatase activity (Fraser et al. 2015), although this is not  
316 always the case (Ragot et al. 2015). Moreover, in soils there is little information regarding other phosphatases and  
317 little is known about the distribution and abundance of bacterial acid phosphatases, but there is some information  
318 related to *phoX* (Ragot et al. 2016). In contrast, fungi are well known for their capacity to secrete acid phosphatases  
319 (Plassard et al. 2011; Rosling et al. 2016), especially ectomycorrhizal fungi. Since only a small percentage of soil  
320 microorganisms are cultivable, research will need to rely upon culture-independent approaches to generate a  
321 thorough understanding of the abundance and diversity of genes associated with  $P_o$  turnover. Environmental  
322 metagenomic sequencing can form the basis of an efficient molecular toolkit for studying microbial gene  
323 dynamics and processes relevant to  $P_o$  mineralization (Neal et al., 2017). Such an approach will need to prioritize  
324 generating comprehensive understanding of the distribution of alkaline and acid phosphatase and phytase genes  
325 within soils, coupled with activity measurements, and a sense of their relative sensitivities to edaphic factors. This  
326 will allow explicit incorporation of microbial  $P_o$  turnover in the new generation of soil models, as well as allowing  
327 rapid assessment of a soil's capabilities for  $P_o$  cycling. Improved knowledge will allow the exploitation of  
328 microbial activity to sustain and improve soil fertility and allow the tailoring of new fertilizers based upon the  
329 capacity of microbes to exploit  $P_o$ .

#### 330 **4b) Opportunities from understanding microbial $P_o$ : measuring stocks, mineralisation and dynamics of** 331 **turnover**

332 The apparently large diversity of genes associated with  $P_o$ -hydrolysing enzymes suggests that changes in  
333 community composition are unlikely to result in a loss of ecosystem function. This confers resilience to  $P$ -cycling  
334 processes, although many of these genes have very specific functions intracellularly. However, trait differences  
335 are likely to have significant implications for community function in soils, e.g., the contrasting effects of  
336 arbuscular and ectomycorrhizal fungi upon the cycling of  $P$  in forest soils, where it has been shown that  $P_o$  is more  
337 labile in ectomycorrhizal dominated systems than arbuscular mycorrhizal systems (Rosling et al. 2016). The fact  
338 that enzyme activity in soil appears to be disconnected from soil  $P$  status is at odds with the apparent influence of  
339 the *Pho* regulon or pathway upon gene expression and indicates that much of the observed activity derives from  
340 multiple enzyme sources, which have been stabilised by soil colloids (Nannipieri et al. 2011). This also suggests  
341 that soil enzyme activity does not directly represent microbial activity or simply reflects the complexity in current

342 P requirements of different microbial species. However, visualization of acid and alkaline phosphatase activity  
343 associated with roots by zymography (Spohn and Kuzyakov 2013) does provide an exciting means to determine  
344 regulation of soil phosphatase activity with P availability and illustrates the clear spatial separation among the  
345 activities of physiologically different enzymes. It is a priority to develop and couple techniques that resolve the  
346 distribution of active enzymes in soil with estimates of gene expression derived from functional genes or meta-  
347 transcriptomic studies.

348 The stock of microbial P is an easy-to-determine component in soils, which is widely used to characterize the P  
349 status of microbial communities and ecosystems (Brookes et al. 1982; 1984). Nevertheless, its analysis relies on  
350 many different protocols (Bergkemper et al. 2016). Building on the previous work, further insights into both  
351 microbial-mediated and enzyme-mediated P transformations in soils may now be gained from measurement of  
352 the isotopic composition of oxygen associated with phosphate ( $\delta^{18}\text{O}_\text{P}$ ) (Tamburini et al. 2014; von Sperber et al.  
353 2014) and the use of radiolabelled ( $^{32}\text{P}$  or  $^{33}\text{P}$ )  $\text{P}_\text{o}$  compounds to measure mineralisation and immobilisation rates  
354 directly (Harrison 1982). A powerful tool for quantifying soil P pools and transformation rates is the isotope  
355 dilution technique [reviewed in Bünemann 2015; Di et al. 2000; Frossard et al. 2011]. The decrease in  
356 radioactivity with time is caused by the exchange of the added radiolabelled P (either  $^{32}\text{P}$  or  $^{33}\text{P}$ ) with  $^{31}\text{P}$  from the  
357 sorbed/solid phase and by the release of inorganic  $^{31}\text{P}$  from the organic pool via hydrolysing enzymes (Bünemann  
358 2015). Determination of gross  $\text{P}_\text{o}$  mineralization rates from  $\text{P}_\text{o}$  to  $\text{P}_\text{i}$  remains a critical approach, helping understand  
359 the processes and rates of P cycling in different soils and under different environmental conditions (Frossard et  
360 al. 2011). These techniques present new opportunities to link P cycling to other biogeochemical cycles, such as C  
361 and N.

## 362 **5) Opportunities in the emerging area of interactions between $\text{P}_\text{o}$ dynamics and nanoparticles**

363 Reactive nanoparticles can take the form of natural soil colloids or man-made particles and are potential  $\text{P}_\text{o}$   
364 carriers, sources and sinks in ecosystems. Up to 90% of P in stream water and runoff is present in nano- and  
365 colloidal sized materials (Borda et al. 2011; Gottselig et al. 2014; Uusitalo et al. 2003; Withers et al. 2009).  
366 Colloidal P may comprise nano-sized aggregates (Jiang et al. 2015) bound to Fe, Al and SOM (Celi and Barberis  
367 2005; Celi and Barberis 2007), including inositol phosphates. However, the influence of nanoparticles on the  
368 dynamics and bioavailability of P in soil-plant systems is unclear (Bol et al. 2016). Nanoparticles such as C-  
369 magnetite, which adsorb and retain  $\text{P}_\text{i}$  and  $\text{P}_\text{o}$ , are used to enhance the recovery and recycling of P from P-rich  
370 wastes (Magnacca et al. 2014; Nisticò et al. 2016). It may also be possible to enhance soil enzyme activity with

371 amendments containing mesoporous nanoparticle materials (Zhou and Hartmann 2012). Phytase encapsulated in  
372 nanoparticles was shown to be resistant to inhibitors and proteases and to promote the hydrolysis of phytate for P  
373 uptake by *Medicago truncatula* (Trouillefou et al. 2015). Nanotechnology has also been used to develop new  
374 fertilizers and plant-growth-enhancing materials (Liu and Lal 2015), representing one potentially effective option  
375 for enhancing global food production. A better understanding of the P<sub>o</sub> nanoparticle interaction may improve our  
376 understanding on P fluxes in natural and agricultural systems, and provide innovative technologies for fertilizer  
377 production and environmental remediation.

#### 378 **6) Opportunities to use modelling of P<sub>o</sub> in soil and ecosystems**

379 The use of all types of modelling approaches to study P<sub>o</sub> is generally overlooked and there is a dearth of P<sub>o</sub> based  
380 models, but development of such models would be extremely beneficial. Modelling should facilitate the  
381 development of a systems-based perspective and help to identify knowledge gaps in the current understanding of  
382 P<sub>o</sub>. Models of all types are needed including those that are conceptual, mechanistic or empirical in nature and in  
383 general there is a lack of focus on all the types of models that exist for P<sub>o</sub>. The potential benefits of advances in  
384 modelling for P<sub>o</sub> include:

- 385 • Prediction of the relationship between soil P<sub>o</sub> and plant uptake, which should be developed in both conceptual  
386 and mechanistic models of P dynamics in the environment.
- 387 • Application at different scales to determine the relationship between P<sub>o</sub> with land use and management should  
388 be possible by building empirical models based on existing data.
- 389 • Application of modelling to help understand the role of microbial traits in soil (Wieder et al. 2015), which  
390 may determine the effects of gene expression, enzyme activities and the stoichiometric ratio of C:N:P in the  
391 microbial biomass relative to that of SOM
- 392 • Application of complete Life-Cycle Analysis for relying of the run-down of soil P<sub>o</sub> as a replacement to  
393 inorganic fertilisers will help us develop adequate conceptual models for management of the system.
- 394 • Modelling could also be used to help in the quantification of soil P pools for estimating flow among P<sub>o</sub> pools.

395 In general, there is a great opportunity for the development of modelling in all areas of P<sub>o</sub> research and this will  
396 be of considerable benefit to the subject if this can be developed and integrated with all areas. The cooperation of  
397 modellers and empiricists is essential for building models with great potential use to predict changes in P<sub>o</sub>  
398 bioavailability due to land-use and management change and to infer the sustainability of the system as a whole.

399

400 **7) Opportunities to better communicate and translate research**

401 Organic P represents a small, albeit critical component of biogeochemical research. The marginal nature of the  
402 subject to date creates a need to communicate the importance of this science for the future of P sustainability. As  
403 for other scientific disciplines, communication priorities include (1) strengthening communication among  
404 scientists within and outside of the P<sub>o</sub> research community; (2) engagement with stakeholders; and (3)  
405 dissemination of knowledge to the public and specific end-users.

406 Conferences and workshops on the topic of organic P promote the exchange of ideas and forging of new research  
407 partnerships (Sharpley et al. 2015; Turner et al. 2015). Online platforms are also powerful tools to connect  
408 researchers and stakeholders on issues of global P sustainability (e.g., European Sustainable Phosphorus Platform,  
409 [www.phosphorusplatform.eu](http://www.phosphorusplatform.eu), North America Partnership for Phosphorus Sustainability) (Rosemarin and Ekane  
410 2015). The ‘Soil Phosphorus Forum’ ([www.soilpforum.com](http://www.soilpforum.com)) provides a platform for the exchange of information  
411 relating to P<sub>o</sub>. Specific protocols and conference presentations are also featured in archived YouTube channels  
412 (<https://www.youtube.com/channel/UCtGI3eUZscCgByewafsQKdw>). A central platform for P<sub>o</sub> research and  
413 communications is still needed, to connect existing forums to global research networks and would include features  
414 such as researcher membership, methodological resources, links to relevant organizations and platforms, and a  
415 clearing house of P<sub>o</sub> data for future meta-analysis and modelling efforts.

416 Key stakeholder groups such as land managers, farmers and extension services are a natural link between industry,  
417 government, and academia (FAO 2016). These key groups hold traditional knowledge on sustainable farming  
418 techniques, which serve as a potential basis for future P<sub>o</sub> research. Industry initiatives such as the 4R Nutrient  
419 Stewardship framework provide feedback from end users and practitioners on research priorities associated with  
420 the management of agricultural nutrients (Vollmer-Sanders et al. 2016). The engagement of P<sub>o</sub> researchers with  
421 existing nutrient initiatives such as these will be critical for bolstering public understanding of P<sub>o</sub> and its important  
422 role in global P dynamics.

423

424 **Conclusion - Statement of intent for the P<sub>o</sub> research community**

425 Organic P research has a critical role to play in tackling a number of important global challenges and there are  
426 key contributions to be made toward understanding biogeochemical cycles, dynamics and function of natural  
427 ecosystems and the management of agricultural systems. In particular, we must reduce our reliance on inorganic  
428 P fertilisers and strategies to do this will increase the relevance of soil P<sub>o</sub> for plant nutrition. Secondly, there is a

429 need to develop a circular P economy and close the P cycle which will likely lead to an increase in the amounts  
430 of organic P “waste” products being recycled to land shifting the  $P_o/P_i$  balance in the soil. To address these global  
431 environmental changes and challenges, we should concentrate our efforts on understanding the biological  
432 significance of  $P_o$  by considering its interactions with other elements in SOM, soil microorganisms and active soil  
433 surfaces. We should consider these interactions with respect to changes in land use and management and as a  
434 function of geochemical conditions in the wider biophysical and socio-economic environment. We need to  
435 integrate this understanding through the production of models for  $P_o$ , which capture both whole systems and fine-  
436 scale mechanisms. In addition, we need to develop novel and standardised methodologies that can integrate the  
437 dynamics and function of  $P_o$  on appropriate scales in a non-invasive manner. To achieve a step-change in the  
438 impact of  $P_o$  research, we need to engage with researchers outside of the discipline, align the research with pressing  
439 societal issues, and become more global, collaborative, inclusive, interdisciplinary, and longer-term in nature. The  
440 key to fostering this change will depend on logically communicating the importance of  $P_o$  to society at large,  
441 engaging with stakeholders on important global issues, and ultimately pushing this important area of research up  
442 the agenda of policy makers and funding bodies on a global scale.

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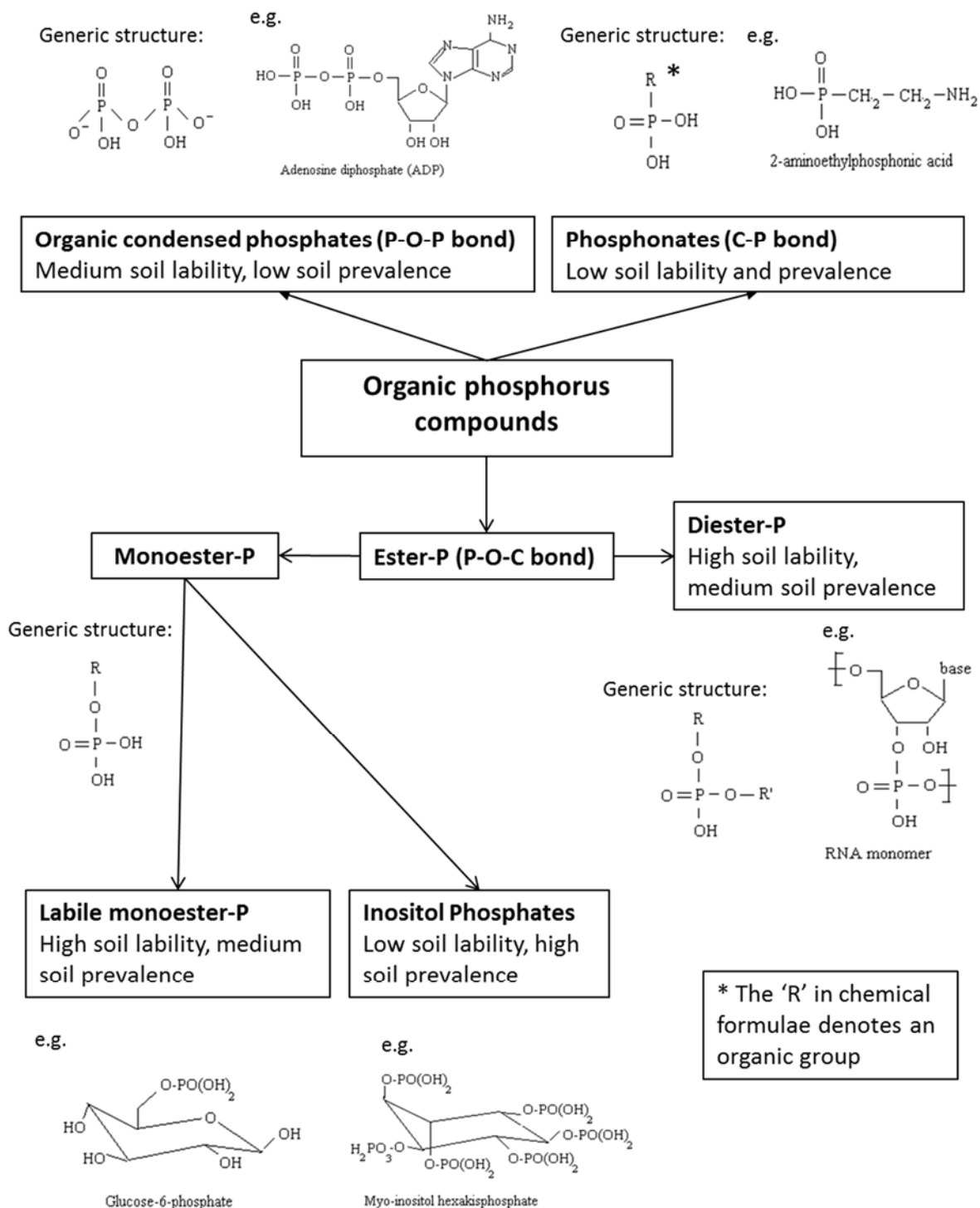
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754

755 FIGURE 1. Organic phosphorus forms with generic and example structures and information on the relative lability  
756 and prevalence in soil. (Adapted from Darch et al. (Darch et al. 2014))

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760 **Table Legend**

761

762 Table 1: Synthesis of expert opinions on the global issues associated with organic phosphorus, how the research  
763 community can potentially contribute to solutions to such issues, and identification of opportunities for research  
764 to allow this to happen.

765

What are the global issues associated with P <sub>o</sub> ?	What are the methodological strengths and weaknesses?	What are benefits of understanding dynamics of P <sub>o</sub> ?	What are the priorities for P <sub>o</sub> research?	Opportunities in P <sub>o</sub> research
<p><b>Food Security and agricultural sustainability</b> P<sub>o</sub> has a role as a source of P for agricultural crops</p>	<p><b>Strengths</b></p> <p>Strong collection of well-developed methods</p>	<p>Management of plant P nutrition</p> <p>Assessment of soil P availability</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Use existing datasets more effectively</li> <li>• Avoid repeating experiments by being aware of past research</li> <li>• Better access to shared facilities</li> <li>• Training programmes in P<sub>o</sub> related techniques and concepts</li> <li>• Interdisciplinary and long term research</li> </ul>	<p><b>General advances in the research model</b></p>
<p><b>Nutrient cycling in natural ecosystems</b> P<sub>o</sub> buffers ecosystem function with effects on ecosystem resilience and biodiversity</p>	<p>Wide range of techniques</p> <p>Capacity for multi-disciplinarity</p>	<p>Understanding biological system function</p> <p>Input into climate and biogeochemical models</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Link operationally-defined pools with biological processes</li> <li>• Some standardisation of protocols</li> <li>• Development of in situ, non-destructive techniques for P<sub>o</sub></li> <li>• Develop a minimum dataset and an accessible database</li> </ul>	<p><b>Opportunities in organic phosphorus analytical methodologies</b></p>
<p><b>Renewable resources</b> Use of wastes containing P<sub>o</sub> as fertilisers to close the loop</p>	<p>Strong international networks</p> <p>Potential for commercialisation of techniques</p>	<p>Potential to close the P cycle</p> <p>Manage ecosystem services and resilience</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Link the P<sub>o</sub> cycle with other biogeochemical cycles</li> <li>• Optimise stoichiometry between P<sub>o</sub> and other elements for system function</li> <li>• Integrate soil physics, chemistry and biology to understand P<sub>o</sub> and how it fits with wider soil fertility</li> </ul>	<p><b>Opportunities from understanding stoichiometry – interactions with other element cycles</b></p>
<p><b>C storage in soils</b> Utilisation of soil P<sub>o</sub> may be counter to our need to store C in organic matter</p>	<p>Range of field based applications</p>	<p>Understand the role of soil biology – fungal vs bacterial dominated systems</p> <p>Assess stability of P forms in soil</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Design tailored systems for specific managed environments that optimise use of P<sub>o</sub></li> <li>• Optimise P<sub>o</sub> utilisation over loss</li> <li>• Improve soil P testing</li> <li>• Develop a P credits system</li> <li>• Utilise P<sub>o</sub> more effectively by using what's in soil, what's added to soil and what's lost</li> </ul>	<p><b>Opportunities from understanding interactions with land management</b></p>
<p><b>Environmental pollution</b></p>	<p><b>Weaknesses</b></p>			

<p>Need to manage the balance of food security vs environmental P pollution</p> <p><b>Environmental change</b> Warmer temperatures will shift the biogeochemical cycle of P<sub>o</sub></p> <p><b>Biogeochemical cycling from global to cellular scales</b> P<sub>o</sub> compounds are vital for cell function and are moved globally as part of biogeochemical cycles and in the food chain</p> <p><b>Geopolitical stability</b> P<sub>o</sub> as an alternative to mined P resources</p>	<p>'Snap-shot' rather than dynamic techniques</p> <p>Operational methodologies lack biological relevance</p> <p>Lack of standardisation and quality control</p> <p>Methodological limitations (matrix issues)</p> <p>Loss of training/education in soil science</p> <p>Lack of replication and appropriate statistical approaches</p> <p>Limited access to advanced techniques for all</p>	<p>Identify mechanisms from natural systems that can be applied in managed systems</p> <p>Separate plant and microbial contributions to soil functions</p> <p>Develop indicators for tipping points in ecosystem function – identify conditions of resistance, resilience and “points of no return”</p> <p>Allow scaling up in time and space through input to models</p> <p>Extend our understanding of global nutrient dynamics beyond what can be ascertained empirically</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Understand which genes and transcripts control the microbial response to P<sub>o</sub></li> <li>• Understand microbial impacts on P<sub>o</sub> cycles</li> <li>• Understand the P limits to plants and microbes</li> <li>• Produce a molecular toolkit for studying microbial structure and function</li> </ul>	<p><b>Opportunities from understanding Microbial Po: Function and dynamics</b></p>
			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Understand P<sub>o</sub> interaction with natural and manmade nanoparticles</li> <li>• Assess the utility of nanoparticles to help manage the system</li> </ul>	<p><b>Opportunities from interactions with nanoparticles</b></p>
			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Model P dynamics in the environment</li> <li>• Develop conceptual models of cycling at a range of scales</li> <li>• Build empirical models using existing data</li> <li>• Produce a life cycle analysis of P<sub>o</sub></li> </ul>	<p><b>Opportunities to use modelling of Po in soil and ecosystems</b></p>
			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Promote discussion of P<sub>o</sub> within the scientific community</li> <li>• Better communication with stakeholders and the public on the importance of P<sub>o</sub></li> <li>• Develop a central platform for knowledge exchange</li> <li>• Understand the needs and motivations of land managers and policy makers with respect to P<sub>o</sub></li> <li>• Emphasise educating the public in issues associated with P<sub>o</sub></li> <li>• Understand the socio-economic factors influencing P<sub>o</sub> dynamics</li> <li>• Improve the translation of research in P<sub>o</sub> to impactful outcomes</li> </ul>	<p><b>Opportunities to better communicate and translate research</b></p>