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2 The fate of nutrients and heavy metals in energy crop plantations amended with organic
3 by-products

4

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2 **Keywords:** Mass-balance; overland flow; groundwater quality; soil quality; biosolids;
3 distillery effluent; *Miscanthus x giganteus*; short rotation coppiced willow.

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8 **Abstract**

9 Organic by-products (OB) can provide nutrition to energy crops but there is a potential
10 risk of pollution to soil, groundwater (GW) and surface water (SW). A mass-balance
11 inventory for two energy crops spread with biosolids (BS) and distillery effluent (DE)
12 was created in order to study the fate of nutrients. Biosolids and distillery effluent (DE)
13 were spread on both *Miscanthus x giganteus* and short rotation coppice willow
14 (SRCW). Applications were conducted at rates of 100%, 50% and 0% (control) of
15 permissible P loads. Losses of nutrients (N, P) and heavy metals (Cd, Cu, Cr, Pb, Ni,
16 and Zn) to groundwater and overland flow (OLF), and crop uptake were determined.
17 Total inputs (from soil, OB amendment and atmospheric deposition) and losses were
18 calculated and compared. The greatest input was from the soil, the smallest input was
19 atmospheric deposition. The largest output was crop off-take; the smallest was loss to
20 OLF. Elemental uptake by *Miscanthus* was lower than that of willow but losses to
21 groundwater and overland flow was similar for both crops. This study has shown that
22 organic by-products can be used to enhance the nutrition of energy crops without
23 deleterious environmental consequences.

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6 1. Introduction

7 Energy crops provide a fast growing supply of renewable energy which can replace
8 fossil fuels and mitigate emissions of greenhouse gases (Finlayson et al., 2012; Murphy et
9 al., 2014). However, energy crop plantations can also offer other services to society
10 such as the treatment of organic wastes and wastewaters (Dimitriou et al., 2006;
11 Rosenqvist et al., 1997; Figala et al., 2015).

12

13 Willow (genus *Salix*, family *Salicaceae*) (Angus 1997) is a native plant in Ireland. The
14 high transpiration and low nutrient requirements of willow (Hasselgren, 1998)
15 facilitates disposal of large volumes of watery waste (Guidi et al., 2008). Short rotation
16 coppice willow (SRCW) exhibits good juvenile growth with yields of 7-12 t DM ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹
17 in Ireland when grown as short rotation coppice (Caslin et al., 2015b; Dieterich et al.,
18 2008). It is also thought that the high transpiration rate and composition of willow
19 allow it to phytoremediate soils receiving OBs (Hasselgren 1998; Dimitriou, 2005).

20

21 *Miscanthus* (*Miscanthus* × *giganteus* Greef J. M., Deuter ex Hodk. and Renvoize) is a
22 perennial Southeast Asian C4-grass which is established by planting rhizomes from
23 existing plants (Jones and Walsh, 2001). The crop can be used for bioremediation
24 (Figala et al., 2015) and can produce yields of up to 12 t ha⁻¹ in Irish conditions; the

1 crop's useful lifetime is approximately 20 years (Caslin et al., 2015a). Both
2 *Miscanthus* and SRCW are leading candidates for commercial energy in Ireland and
3 elsewhere (Caslin 2015a; 2015b; Rosenqvist et al., 1997; Clifton-Brown et al., 2007).

4

5 Energy crops, as non-food crops offer a means of disposing of OB on farmland as the
6 risk of direct contamination to the food chain is minimal (Dimitriou et al., 2006).

7 Energy crops are usually resilient and can often remove heavy metals (HMs) and other
8 toxins from soil with minimal effects on themselves (Britt and Garstang 2002; Figala et

9 al., 2015). Tsadilas (2005) claims that OB amendment aids crop nutrition and
10 improves soil quality via increased organic matter content, water retention, improved

11 soil structure and better infiltration. Energy crops utilise nutrients to maximise yield
12 although nutrient requirements are low compared to other crops (Caslin et al., 2015a;

13 2015b). The use of sewage sludge and wastewater to fertilize SRCW offers both
14 environmental and economic benefits through decreased fertilization costs and

15 increased biomass production (Dimitriou and Rosenqvist, 2011). Additionally, the use
16 of SRCW for the bioremediation of effluent from rural waste water treatment plants

17 offers an effective and practical treatment for wastewater management (McCracken and
18 Johnston 2015).

19

20 However, there are concerns that applications of OBs may result in the leaching of
21 pollutants to ground waters (GWs) or runoff to surface waters (SWs) (Merrington

22 2002). Build-up of both nutrients and HMs in soil receiving BS amendment is of
23 particular concern (McBride, 1995; 2003). Incorrect application of fertilizer can result

24 in excess nutrients in soil (Addiscott, 2005) which also applies to OBs (though nutrient
25 content and release profiles differ). Links between OB-amendment and SW pollution

1 have already been identified (Epstein 2003; Korboulewsky et al. 2002); however,
2 studies with wastes such as distillery effluent are limited. Additionally, links between
3 OB amendment to energy crops and GW pollution have also been established by
4 Curley (2009) and Dimitriou and Aronsson (2004).

5

6 Increases in nutrients and HMs in soil have been noted following application of OBs in
7 several studies (Haynes, 2009). Incorrect amendment of OBs can therefore result in
8 build-ups of HMs. Tian (2006) identified OB constituents that contaminate soil and
9 result in loss of NO_3^- , PO_4^{3-} , HMs and organic matter to SW. The presence of these
10 constituents in DE and BS raises concerns regarding impacts from OB application
11 (Haynes, 2009; Merrington 2002). However, build-up of HMs in soil after OB
12 application may be mitigated by the bioremediation capacity of energy crops which
13 have been reported to have good ability to absorb HMs from soil (Dimitriou et al., 2012;
14 Figala et al., 2015).

15

16 In previous decades, untreated organic wastes were spread to Irish farmland used for
17 food production; this practice was banned in the early 1990s (McGrath and
18 McCormack, 1999). Following this, land filling and sea dumping were used before
19 these routes were restricted by European Commission (EC) directive (1999/31/EC) on
20 land filling of waste and EC directive (91/271/EEC) on sea-dumping in the late 1990s.
21 The regulations were introduced to improve treatment of OBs at source, and stimulate
22 sustainable solutions to disposal (EPA, 2008). There is relatively limited information
23 on the environmental impact of OB amendment to Irish SRCW and *Miscanthus*.
24 Experiments were therefore conducted between 2007 and 2009 to assess such impacts
25 and compare results obtained to those from other studies (Galbally et al., 2012; 2013;

1 2014a; 2014b). The work was carried out with two energy crops (*Miscanthus* and
2 willow) and involved two different waste products (distillery effluent and sewage
3 sludge). The results showed that there was little risk to surface water from OB
4 amendment on suitable sites (Galbally et al., 2014a&b) although it was found that
5 amendment could lead to groundwater contamination in certain instances (Galbally et
6 al., 2012;2013).

7

8 The objective of this present study was to study the fate of the nutrients and heavy
9 metals applied to energy crops in OB amendments in the context of all inputs and
10 outputs of nutrients and heavy metals to the soil-crop-water system. In order to achieve
11 this objective, a mass-balance approach was used to create a complete inventory of
12 nutrient and heavy metals entering and leaving the system.

13

14

15 2. Materials and Methods

16

17 2.1 Study Area

18 The experiments were conducted at Oak Park Research Centre, Carlow, Ireland. The
19 facility (52°51'55" N lat / 0°54'43" W long) occupies 350 ha and is situated 55.8 meters
20 above mean sea level (A.M.S.L).

21 All experiments were conducted on a soil type known as the Athy Complex (Conry and
22 Ryan, 1968). The parent material of this soil are calcareous, fluvio-glacial gravels of
23 Weichsel Age, composed mainly of limestone with small proportions of sandstone and
24 granite. Three horizons are described; an upper horizon with a depth of approximately
25 25 cm described as a sandy loam, a second horizon with a depth of between 25 and 85

1 cm described as a gravelly sandy loam and a third horizon below 85 cm consisting
2 mainly of coarse sand.

3

4 **2.2 Plot establishment**

5 Twelve plots were laid out in total. In 2006, six plots were laid out in plantations of
6 *Miscanthus* (established in 1993), three plots in the Barley Field (FF) (52°51'47.9" N
7 lat 6°90'86.6" W long) for application of DE and three in the Near Avenue Meadow
8 (NAM) (52°51'31.7" N lat 6°90'77" W long) for BS. All *Miscanthus* plots had an area
9 of 0.1174 ha (42 m x 28 m). In 2007, a plantation of mixed *S. Viminalis* L. and *S.*
10 *Schwerinii* L. willow hybrids was established in the Near Avenue Meadow (FAM). All
11 SRCW plots were 0.0588 ha (14 m x 42 m) in dimension. Six plots were established in
12 this plantation (arranged in two sets of three); three at 52°51'29.83" N lat 6°54'19.94" W
13 long for DE and three at 52°51'31.7" N lat 6°54'14.15" W long for BS. The SRCW
14 plots were spaced with 5 meters between their facing edges, to minimize interaction
15 across plot surfaces.

16

17 Plots were labelled according to treatment; i.e. plots subject to DE applications are
18 denoted DE_x and BS are denoted BS_x, the subscript *x* denotes treatment application level
19 (0, 50, 100%). Codes are preceded by an "M" or "W" to indicate *Miscanthus* or SRCW,
20 respectively (e.g. M-BS_x).

21

22 **2.3 Climate Conditions**

23 Ireland has a temperate climate dominated by Atlantic weather systems and typified by
24 mild, year-round precipitation. This results in soils that rarely dry out and are saturated
25 where drainage is poor (Keane and Collins 2004). Precipitation is low intensity; most

1 agricultural soils drain well and do not become waterlogged. A summary of conditions
2 during experiments is presented in Table 1. Climate conditions were slightly different
3 for the crops because of start times and durations of experiments; however prevailing
4 conditions were the same. Data was obtained from Met Eireann's synoptic
5 meteorological station in Oak Park. Temperature and rainfall were above 30-year
6 averages (1960-1990) during the 30 month experimental period. Atmospheric
7 deposition rates were obtained from the literature (Aherne and Fallon, 2002; Jennings et
8 al., 2003; Nicholson et al., 2003). Average deposition rates are presented in Table 2.

9

10

11

12 **2.4 Organic waste application**

13 The OBs were obtained from a commercial waste-management company, Ormonde
14 Organics (Co. Kilkenny, Ireland). All BS were sourced from municipal waste-water
15 treatment plants in Ireland. Distillery effluent was sourced from First Spirits Ireland
16 Ltd (Co. Laois, Ireland). All OBs applied underwent analysis for nutrient- and HM-
17 concentrations at FBA Laboratories, Co. Waterford, Ireland, prior to spreading; to
18 ensure that all OBs complied with Irish Regulation SI. No.148/1998. The OBs were
19 applied at treatment rates of 100% (W-BS₁₀₀, W-DE₁₀₀), 50% (W-BS₅₀, W-DE₅₀) and
20 0% (W-BS₀, W-DE₀) on the basis on permissible P application (Caslin et al. 2015a and
21 2015b).

22 Biosolids (Tables 4&6) were spread by a disc-spreader during the experimental-period.
23 Annual treatment-rates varied due to variation in P-content and dry matter content of
24 each batch. The spreading duration differed between *Miscanthus* (30 months) and
25 willow plantations, the duration being lower for willow plantations (20 months).

1 The DE was spread during the September-October period (DE materials was not
2 available prior to this period) using an irrigation system. The total DE-amount (and a
3 breakdown of constituents) are provided in Tables 3&5. Further details are available in
4 Galbally et al. (2012, 2013, 2014 a&b).

5

6

7

8 **2.5 Monitoring of Losses**

9 The quantities of nutrients (N&P) and HMs (Cu, Cr, Pb, Ni and Zn) lost to GW
10 (Galbally et al., 2012 and 2013) and SW via OLF (Galbally et al., 2014a and 2014b)
11 was quantified. Concurrent with monitoring GW and SW, crop and soil samples were
12 obtained from each treatment prior to (and following) OB applications.

13

14 **2.5.1 Groundwater Sampling**

15 A series of three wells were drilled in each plot to obtain groundwater samples, samples
16 were extracted once per month and were bulked, further details are provided in Galbally
17 et al., (2012).

18

19 Volumes of water ingressing to groundwater were calculated by first calculating
20 effective rainfall by subtracting overland flow and evaporation from precipitation. In the
21 case of treatments amended with distillery effluent, volumes of DE added were added to
22 precipitation amounts. Curneen and Gill (2016) reported that evapotranspiration from
23 willow systems in Ireland substantially exceeded reference evapotranspiration during
24 summer months. On the basis of their figures, it was conservatively assumed that
25 reference evapotranspiration values for both crops doubled during the months of
26 August, September and October but were equal to reference evapotranspiration figures

1 for the remaining months of the year. Effective rainfall was then multiplied by a
2 recharge coefficient which reflects the permeability of the subsoil. It was assumed that
3 the subsoils under the study area had a high permeability corresponding to Irish soils
4 with a recharge coefficient of 0.81-0.85.

5

6

7 2.5.2. Over Land Flow (OLF) Samples and Data

8 The occurrence and duration of overland flow events were connected to data loggers
9 fitted to sensors designs to record OLF events. Both basic ‘grab’ samples and samples
10 which were proportionally accurate representations of OLF were obtained. Further
11 details are provided in Galbally et al., 2014a; 2014b).

12

13 2.5.3. Soil and Crop Sampling

14 Topsoil samples were taken from each plot to a depth of 10 cm; each topsoil sample
15 was a bulked-composite of 6 sub-samples. To obtain four complete bulk-samples per
16 plot, 24 sub-samples were taken using a “W” pattern; this sampling-scheme was used
17 for all plots.

18 Crop samples were obtained annually at the end of each growing season by sampling
19 the above ground part of at least five plants per plot. Plants were cut into small pieces
20 and mixed to ensure a representative bulk samples before being weighed and dried.
21 Dried samples were sent for elemental analysis.

22

23 2.6 Mass Balance

24 To assess all inputs and outputs (and compare treatment effects), all results were
25 compiled into a useful whole value and therefore, a mass-balance budget was created.

1 Analysis involved creating an inventory of the available mass of each nutrient (kg) or
2 HM (g) (different units were used for reasons of utility) and determining availability
3 loss during the course of the experiment. A mass balance of nutrient and heavy metal
4 inputs and losses was constructed for each plot. The mass balance of nutrient and heavy
5 metal availability included deposition by atmosphere, nutrient and heavy metals added
6 by OB amendment together with quantities of HMs and nutrients in soil. The mass
7 balance of nutrient and heavy metal loss included losses to GW and SW (via OLF)
8 together with crop uptake. Mass in crop was determined by consideration of
9 concentration in crop samples by yield. Volatilization of nutrients and HMs was not
10 considered. Comparison of all plots was equalized in terms of duration and plot areas.

11

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14

15 3. Results

16

17 3.1 Introduction

18 Mass balance results are presented in several sections. The first section deals with
19 available nutrients and HMs; values for nutrients are in kilos and HMs in grams (as
20 values for nutrients were an order of magnitude greater than HMs). The second section
21 looks at individual element losses to GW, OLF and crop uptake. Loss via volatilization
22 was not considered and total losses will be greater for volatilizable species (such as N).
23 Results for nutrients and HMs are presented in separate figures (for clarity).

24

25

26

27 3.2 Available nutrients and total metals present on plots

28

1 Tables 3 to 6 show total available (and unavailable) nutrients and HMs for all plots,
2 including existing soil nutrient pools, the amount applied in OB and deposited material
3 from the atmosphere. Distillery effluent application (Table 3 and 4) made a
4 considerable contribution to available nutrients. Atmospheric deposition of P was
5 minimal but N deposition was significant compared to N application. The contribution
6 of DE to total nutrients was important; increasing DE amendment increased the
7 quantity of nutrients available. Background levels of P in soil were high (see Tables 3
8 to 6).

9
10 Table 3 shows HMs in *Miscanthus* plots treated with distillery effluent; the largest pool
11 of HMs was in soil, HMs from OB application were small; the exception was Zn and
12 Cu. Atmospheric deposition provided highly solubilised metals to *Miscanthus* plots. In
13 general, quantities of metals from atmospheric deposition were considerably smaller
14 than the quantities of metal applied through DE amendment although concentrations of
15 Zn deposited through atmospheric deposition were significant and comparable with DE
16 amendment.

17
18 Table 4 shows sources of nutrients and heavy metals in *Miscanthus* plots treated with
19 biosolids, as with the *Miscanthus* plots treated with distillery effluent, OB application
20 made a large contribution to the available nutrients (particularly P). Atmospheric
21 deposition of P was minimal. Deposition of N was significant in relation to BS
22 application (5% of all OB amendment N). Variability in soil HM was observed
23 between individual plots (and between *Miscanthus* sites receiving either biosolids or
24 distillery effluent). Metals deposited through atmospheric deposition were
25 considerably smaller than the quantities of metal applied through BS amendment

1 although concentrations of Zn deposited through atmospheric deposition were
2 significant and comparable with BS amendment. Atmospheric deposition of Zn was
3 12% of that supplied by BS amendment (at the 50 % treatment rate).

4

5 Table 5 shows sources of nutrients and heavy metals on SRCW plots treated with
6 distillery effluent; it can be seen that P added to the soil-plant system through DE
7 amendment was comparable to the P concentrations in soil whereas P deposition was
8 low. The quantity of nutrients supplied by DE to SRCW plots was lower than supplied
9 to *Miscanthus* plots receiving distillery effluent (Table 3). Rates of deposition were
10 lower (due to slight scale differences). Background soil nutrients varied between sites
11 (Tables 3-6) demonstrating variability in soil conditions at field scales.

12

13 Soil HMs in SRCW plots receiving distillery effluent were a much greater potential
14 source of metals than amendment or deposition (Table 5). Ratios of individual HMs in
15 willow soils was approximately equivalent to *Miscanthus* plots.

16

17 Table 6 shows available nutrients and heavy metals for SRCW plots receiving BS;
18 quantities of P in soil were similar to quantities of P added through BS amendment but
19 much higher than quantities added through atmospheric deposition. In terms of OB
20 application, rates of N were higher for SRCW plots receiving BS compared to SRCW
21 plots receiving DE due to greater concentrations of these nutrients in BS; P-applications
22 were approximately equivalent. The largest source of potentially available heavy metals
23 was from the soil. In comparison, the quantities of potentially available heavy metals in
24 BS amendment were small.

25

1 Table 6 also shows sources of input metals to SRCW plots receiving BS; and the large
2 pool of HMs bound in the soil organic matter is again evident. The concentrations of
3 metals in these plots were smaller than in the corresponding *Miscanthus* plots or in
4 SRCW plots receiving DE (despite the latter's proximity) again demonstrating
5 variability in soil HMs over very short ranges. However, the amount of HMs
6 introduced to these plots via BS was greater than HMs introduced to SRCW plots
7 receiving DE via DE application.

8

9 **3.3 Nutrient and heavy metal losses**

10

11 In this section, losses of nutrients and HMs from plots are broken down by fractions lost
12 to crop uptake, leaching to GW and loss to OLF. Figure 1(a) shows fractions (loss to
13 GW, OLF and crop uptake) of nutrient loss from *Miscanthus* plots receiving DE. The
14 role of crop uptake and positive correlations between DE treatment rate and loss of P
15 and N are evident. Crop uptake increased with DE amendment rates. High rates of N
16 were lost to drainage relative to P and losses of N to drainage were influenced by DE
17 application rate. Crop uptake of P was lower than that of N but P losses to drainage
18 were lower than those of N but increased with application rates. Losses of N and P
19 through OLF were very small but there was a relation between application rate and loss.

20

21 Figure 1(b) shows loss of nutrients from *Miscanthus* plots receiving BS; loss of nutrient
22 from *Miscanthus* plots spread with BS were greater than from plots to which DE had
23 been applied. This correlates with the greater quantities of nutrients supplied by BS
24 compared to DE (Tables 3 and 4). Losses of N to GW increased with BS application
25 rate. However, losses of P to GW were lower than those of N and were unrelated to BS

1 application rate. However, nutrient loss in OLF, although very small, was significant but
2 unrelated to application rate.

3

4

5 Figure 1(c) shows loss of HMs from *Miscanthus* plots receiving DE, Zn had the
6 greatest loss rate of all metals and losses of Zn were dominated by crop uptake. Losses
7 of all metals generally increased with DE application. For most metals, losses to
8 groundwater were greater than losses to crop uptake. The Zn pool in soil (Table 3) was
9 considerably smaller than the Ni pool although quantities of Ni in DE were smaller than
10 quantities of Zn. However, loss of Ni was low compared to Zn. The patterns of loss for
11 Zn, Ni and Cu corresponded with OB amendment rates rather than soil pools (Table 3).
12 Results suggested that this was also the case with Cu and Pb. Losses to OLF were very
13 small, with the exception of Cu and Zn where losses to OLF increased with application
14 rate. The results showed that almost all HM losses occur through leaching or crop
15 uptake up, OLF was not a major loss pathway for metals, indicating OLF is not a major
16 issue for metals (even for more mobile species such as Zn).

17

18 Figure 1(d) shows the loss of HMs to crop, GW and OLF from *Miscanthus* plots
19 amended with biosolids. A high uptake of Zn and Cu is evident (as with *Miscanthus* DE
20 plots plots) which was related to the level of BS amendment. Results from Figures 1c
21 and 1d show commonalities in how HMs are mobilized, regardless of OB type. Losses
22 of Zn and Cu tended to be dominated by crop uptake. Losses of Cd, Cr, Pb and Ni
23 tended to be dominated by drainage losses. Losses to OLF were very small in
24 comparison to losses to drainage and crop uptake.

25

1 Figure 2(a) shows nutrient losses from SRCW plots amended with DE by crop uptake ,
2 leaching to GW and surface OLF loss. Comparison with Figure 1 shows take up of
3 nutrients by SRCW was greater than take up by *Miscanthus*. Nutrient losses were
4 dominated by crop uptake although there were drainage losses in the case of N but not
5 P. In contrast, losses to OLF were very small. Figure 2(b) shows the loss of nutrients
6 from willow plots amended with BS and their breakdown into crop uptake, leaching
7 through profile and loss to OLF. Again, crop uptake was greater than loss to either GW
8 or OLF. Losses via the OLF pathway were very small. The uptake of nutrients by
9 SRCW on BS plots was comparable to DE plots. Figure 2 (a), though rates do not
10 correlate with rates of BS applied. Nutrient loss to OLF was similar for DE and BS
11 plots, Leaching of nutrients to GW were comparable between both types of waste.

12
13 Figure 2(c) shows loss of HMs from W-DE plots; when compared to Figure 1, results
14 show the higher uptake up of Zn by SRCW compared to *Miscanthus* for both DE and
15 BS. Crop uptake of Ni and Cr was comparable but low, possibly because of the smaller
16 levels of these metals in DF. Surface loss of HMs via OLF from SRCW DE plots was
17 low. Differences in HM losses in OLF (between *Miscanthus* and SRCW plots) were
18 similar to patterns of nutrient loss. Leaching of HMs to GW from SRCW DE plots
19 (Figure 2) was lower than leaching from *Miscanthus* DE plots (Figure 1). Figure 2(d)
20 shows total HM losses from SRCW BS plots. Metal uptake by crop, leaching to GW
21 and loss to OLF were similar to patterns of loss for SRCW DE treatments, with
22 significant take up of Zn. Soil HM pools and HMs derived from OB application were
23 higher for SRCW BS plots (deposition from the atmosphere was equivalent); however,
24 HM losses were lower (or equivalent) for SRCW BS plots compared to SRCW DE
25 plots, indicating lower HM mobility in BS. Based on these results, greater

1 concentrations of HMs in BS did not automatically equate to greater HM losses from
2 plots spread with BS materials.

3

4

5

6 4. Discussion

7 By far the largest pool of (potentially available) nutrients and metals is from the soil
8 which far exceeds the quantities of nutrients and heavy metals in OB amendment and
9 atmospheric deposition pools. However, the vast majority of soil HMs will be bound in
10 the soil (Haynes et al. 2009) and only a very small percentage becomes bioavailable
11 (Alloway & Jackson 1991; McGrath et al. 2008). Some OB borne nutrients and HMs
12 will also be immobile; however, a substantial quantity of elements in OB will be
13 available immediately while more becomes available over time (Haynes et al. 2009).
14 This is particularly true of HMs, organic by-products contain a very high percentage of
15 bioavailable metals (Pacyna and Ottar, 1989). Although the availability of soil HMs is
16 lower than from OB or deposition (Alloway & Jackson 1991), the size of this (soil) pool
17 will result in large losses if a small fraction becomes available. Metals introduced via
18 amendment were greater from BS applications than DE agreeing with previous reports
19 of the composition of these materials (Carton, 2007) although concentrations of Zn in
20 both materials were approximately equivalent.

21

22 Nutrients and HMs from atmospheric deposition will be very bioavailable as solutes
23 within rainfall (Pacyna & Ottar, 1989). Deposition also occurs directly on plot surfaces
24 giving this vector a disproportionately important impact on OLF. The relatively large
25 quantities of HMs deposited on plots by the atmosphere over the experimental period,

1 puts the potential impact of BS and DE amendments into perspective. That said, the
2 quantities of HMs derived from OB amendments (even DE) were larger than from
3 atmospheric deposition (despite increases in atmospheric metals such as Pb in recent
4 years) (EPA 2008). Most metals had low deposition rates compared to DE or BS
5 amendments; however, this was not true of all metals, particularly those present in small
6 concentrations (such as Cd). Deposition of some HMs was comparable (or even
7 greater) than from DE amendment (Zn supplied by DE to SRCW DE plots was a tenth of the Zn
8 introduced via the atmosphere). For Cu, this was more pronounced (with Cu from DE
9 being 5% of deposition to SRCW DE plots) implying DE application would not
10 contribute significantly to risks of quality degradation from HM losses (at these
11 amendment rates).

12
13 Due to HM immobility in soil (Alloway and Jackson, 1991), soil pools do not
14 significantly influence short-term metal losses, although long-term impact on crop
15 uptake and GW is important. Surface flows of HMs are strongly affected by
16 atmospheric deposition and OB applications relative to soil pools. This is less true of
17 nutrients, as nutrient pools in healthy soil usually provide significant amounts of N and
18 P in bioavailable forms (Merrington 2002). In terms of the nutrient mass balance, the
19 total input of available N in this work does not include available soil-N (as there is no
20 reliable Irish test); the soil-N status of the soils was typical for Irish grasslands (based
21 on the Index-scale system) (Coulter and Lawlor 2008). Existing soil-N is likely to
22 contribute to total N budgets for each crop. In terms of deposition of nutrients, there is a
23 small though important contribution (given almost all deposited nutrients will be
24 bioavailable and remain on the surface) (Aherne and Farrell 2001); they will therefore
25 have a disproportionate impact on OLF and uptake (relative to the other sources).

1
2 Previous results show that OB applications can result in nutrient loss (Galbally et al.
3 2012; 2013; 2014a; 2014b). It is likely that deposition of nutrients is also a factor in
4 losses to OLF; however, this is equivalent across plots and difficult to detect. The
5 greater uptake of nutrients by SRCW was noticeable, though leaching to GW was low
6 (and similar for both crops). Additionally, there was not always a clear relationship
7 between OB application and nutrient drainage loss suggesting that nutrient losses were
8 influenced as much by background soil nutrient levels as by nutrients in OB
9 applications as reported previously by Galbally et al (2011). Losses of nutrients to
10 drainage differed between the two crops as *Miscanthus* had greater losses of N
11 compared to willow. Dimitriou et al., (2012) previously reported high P losses to
12 leaching under willow crops. Nutrient losses via the OLF pathway were influenced by
13 OB application but losses were very small in comparison to losses to drainage and crop
14 uptake as reported previously by Galbally et al. 2014a &b. Losses of HMs to OLF were
15 influenced by OB application and were small in relation to drainage losses. For willow,
16 HM losses were dominated by crop uptake. Cadmium, considered the most hazardous
17 element in the food chain, is readily taken up by SRCW (Dimitriou et al., 2006; 2012)
18 and this research found that losses to drainage and OLF were miniscule in relation to
19 crop uptake. In contrast, offtakes of Cd by *Miscanthus* were much lower, comparable to
20 drainage losses, possibly attributable to greater concentrations of Cd in roots and
21 rhizomes compared to shoots (Fernando & Oliveira, 2004). Zn was the element which
22 was most readily taken up by both crops, crop uptake increasing with OB application.
23 Dos Santos Utmazian and Wenzel (2004) previously reported much higher
24 concentrations of Zn compared to Cd in willow grown on contaminated soils. Similarly,
25 Kocon and Matyka (2012) reported much higher concentrations of Zn compared to Pb

1 in *Miscanthus* grown on contaminated soils even though the concentrations of both
2 these elements in soil were equivalent.

3

4 Crop uptake was the largest nutrient output pathway for both crops although willow
5 took up approximately three times the quantity of nutrients and heavy metals taken up
6 by *Miscanthus*, thus the superior phytoextraction performance of willow is evident.
7 Dimitriou (2005) previously reported that willow could be used in phytoremediation
8 systems. Lower uptake of nutrients, and perhaps heavy metals, by *Miscanthus* is
9 possibly related to the greater nutrient use efficiency of *Miscanthus* which is attributable
10 to its C4 photosynthetic system (Naidu and Long, 2004) whereas willow has a C3
11 photosynthetic system with lower nutrient use efficiency. Willow, typically, has higher
12 nutrient requirements compared to *Miscanthus* (Caslin et al., 2015 a&b) while N
13 fertilization experiments which were conducted close to the experimental sites in this
14 study have demonstrated that willow crops have higher N requirements compared to
15 *Miscanthus* (Finnan and Burke, 2014; Finnan et al., 2014). Crop uptake involves
16 absorption through roots and requires soluble elemental forms being accessible to root
17 systems. The depth of both crops' roots was >1.5 m (Finch et al. 2004); however the
18 topsoil in which HMs tend to be present does not extend below 25 cm. This mass
19 balance does not account for nutrients and heavy metals which are absorbed by and
20 remain concentrated in the root and rhizomes systems of both energy crops. For
21 example, Koccon and Matyka (2012) found that Zn was concentrated in the aerial parts
22 of *Miscanthus* whereas Pb was concentrated in the roots. *Miscanthus* and willow have
23 extensive rooting systems (Finnan and Burke, 2014; Matthews and Grogan, 2001;
24 Cunniff et al., 2015) which can potentially store significant quantities of nutrients and
25 heavy metals. *Miscanthus* has an extensive rhizome system just under the surface of the

1 soil, the weight of the underground part of the crop can exceed that of the aerial parts of
2 the crop (Finnan and Burke, 2014). Willow plants also have an extensive shallow
3 rooting system which is concentrated in the 0-25 cm depth, the proportion of
4 underground biomass is lower for willow than *Miscanthus* although underground
5 biomass under willow plantations can still be significant (~10 t DM/ha; Cunniff et al.,
6 2015). However, given that underground biomass is greater for *Miscanthus* than for
7 willow, it is possible that the *Miscanthus* rhizomes system may store greater quantities
8 of nutrients and heavy metals than for willow. For both species, nutrients and heavy
9 metals retained by roots remain on the soil-plant system, at least temporarily, and are
10 not lost from the system unless translocated to aerial parts of the plant. This study
11 quantified losses from the system, including losses from harvesting but harvest offtakes
12 underestimate the quantity of nutrients and heavy metals absorbed by the crop.

13
14 The greatest source component are the soil pools (demonstrating the influence of
15 background soil conditions); and the largest output is crop uptake. The smallest input
16 is (often) atmospheric deposition, and the smallest losses are from OLF. Atmospheric
17 deposition has a disproportionate impact on OLF loss due to mobility of species
18 introduced by this pathway. Input from OB application is considerable for nutrients and
19 less so for metals (though Zn and Cu are supplied in large quantities by both OBs). In
20 some instances, HMs applied via amendment are lower than deposition, suggesting low
21 risks of quality degradation from OB-derived metals.

22
23 Leaching of nutrient and HMs to GW make up a substantial fraction of the total losses,
24 greater than comparative loss to OLF (though risk profiles for GW and OLF are
25 different and needs to be considered). Loss of individual species to GW are relatively

1 large for nutrients but much less so for metals (with exception of Zn). There is some
2 correlation between the loss of (some) nutrients and HMs and the rate and application of
3 BS and DE, implying both forms of OB application can impact losses. This relationship
4 is most evident for loss to OLF and the most serious potential risk from such losses
5 arises from loss of P to OLF (there was also evidence of loss of Cu to GW). The uptake
6 of nutrient and HMs by both types of crop was strongly influenced by existing levels in
7 soil and the soil conditions; this was particularly the case for all the HMs.

8 In this study, nutrient removal at harvest (crop uptake) was the largest loss pathway.
9 Loss of nutrients at harvest, unless replaced will lead to a reduction in soil fertility and
10 ultimately in yield and nutrient off-takes are the basis for calculating the fertilizer
11 requirements of both *Miscanthus* and willow (Casida et al., 2015a, 2015b). Thus, the
12 replacement of nutrient off-takes is the primary reason for the application of organic by-
13 products to energy crops. Energy crop fertilization may be accompanied by increases in
14 growth and productivity, nitrogen fertilization of willow crops grown on this site
15 increased yield by 35% (Finnan et al., 2014) while nitrogen fertilization of recently
16 sown *Miscanthus* crops increased yield by 35 – 43% (Finnan and Burke 2016)..
17 However, on the same site, nitrogen fertilization of a mature *Miscanthus* crop did not
18 stimulate spring harvested yields (Finnan and Burke, 2014). Similarly, Adegbidi et al.,
19 (2003) found that the application of organic amendments increased yield of willow
20 crops by 30-38% whereas other studies have not found any yield benefit from the
21 application of organic wastes to willow (Quaye et al., 2011; Quaye and Volk, 2013).
22 Irrespective of whether willow yields are stimulated by the application of organic
23 amendments, the primary purpose of organic fertilization is the replacement of nutrient
24 off-takes and the prevention of any loss of soil fertility and subsequent yield reduction.
25 Secondary advantages of organic amendment to energy crops, however, arise from the

1 disposal of potentially difficult wastes in a manner which does not contaminate the food
2 chain and in this study we have demonstrated that organic byproducts can be used to
3 enhance the nutrition of energy crops without deleterious environmental consequences.

4 5 **Conclusions**

6 The quantities of nutrients and heavy metals supplied to soil/plant systems in OB
7 amendments are often substantially smaller than the quantities of such elements in soil
8 or even the quantities supplied to the system by atmospheric deposition, this is
9 particularly the case for heavy metals. Losses of nutrients and heavy metals to
10 groundwater and surface water can increase with OB amendment but the principal
11 component of such loss pathways is often made up of elements lost from soil or
12 atmospheric deposition. Losses to groundwater and surface water are often
13 substantially lower than crop uptake, the main loss pathway. Willow had much greater
14 phytoremediation potential compared to *Miscanthus* although nutrient losses to
15 groundwater and surface water did not increase as a result of reduced uptake by
16 *Miscanthus*.

17
18 Organic wastes can be applied to energy crops without causing significant increases in
19 the quantities of nutrients and heavy metals entering groundwater and surface water
20 bodies. The quantities of environmentally sensitive elements supplied in organic wastes
21 are typically smaller than corresponding elemental pools in soil, particularly for heavy
22 metals. Thus, the dominant influence on the quantities of elements entering
23 groundwater and surface waters are the concentrations of such elements in soil,
24 element deposited from the atmosphere can also have an important influence on
25 elemental flows to surface waters. Crop offtake is the principal output pathway from

1 the system although elemental removal varies with crop type. This study has shown that
2 organic byproducts can be used to enhance the nutrition of energy crops without
3 deleterious environmental consequences.

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21 May they rest in peace.

22

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1

2 **Figure Captions:**

3

4

5 **Figure 1:** Pathways of loss of nutrients and heavy metals from *Miscanthus* plots
6 applied with distillery effluent (graphs a and c) and biosolid (graphs b and d), loss of
7 nutrients given in kilograms and metals in grams for convenience. 20 months.

8

9 **Figure 2:** Pathways of loss of nutrients and heavy metals from a short rotation coppice
10 willow plots applied with distillery effluent (graphs a and c) and biosolid (graphs b and
11 d), loss of nutrients given in kilograms and metals in grams for convenience. 20
12 months.

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ACCEPTED MANUSCRIPT

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Table 1: Climate conditions[†] during the experimental period

Start Date	17/03/2007
End Date	31/12/2009
Total days, d.	1019
Total Rain, mm	265.7
Rainfall during experiment (as % of 30 year mean)	115%
Total evaporation, mm	1724
Net rain (total for 1019 d.)	1638
Mean daily evaporation (1019 days), mm	1.69
Mean daily rainfall (1019 days), mm	2.61
Mean net rainfall, mm	0.92
Evaporation (mean for January), mm	11.3
Evaporation (Mean for June), mm	108.7
Rainfall, mean (January), mm	109.4
Rainfall, mean (June), mm	87.3
Net rain (Jan), mm	98.0
Net rain (Jun), mm	-21.5

[†]: Climate figures are for 25 month period of the experiment.

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2

3 **Table 2:** Atmospheric deposition during the experimental period

Type	Species	Units	Values
Nutrients	N	kg ha ⁻¹ yr ⁻¹	12
	P	kg ha ⁻¹ yr ⁻¹	0.4
Heavy Metals	Cd	g ha ⁻¹ yr ⁻¹	0.6
	Cr	g ha ⁻¹ yr ⁻¹	0.7
	Cu	g ha ⁻¹ yr ⁻¹	13
	Pb	g ha ⁻¹ yr ⁻¹	13.3
	Ni	g ha ⁻¹ yr ⁻¹	1.6
	Zn	g ha ⁻¹ yr ⁻¹	235

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1 **Table 3:** Sources of nutrients and heavy metals in *Miscanthus* plots treated with distillery effluent (DE), all figures per ha

Plot	Nutrient	Background nutrients in topsoil	Nutrients in DE amendment	Nutrients in atmospheric deposition	Heavy metal	Background metals in topsoil	Metals in DE amendment	Metals in atmospheric deposition
M-DE ₁₀₀	N kg ha ⁻¹	n/a	82.6	30.0	Cd, g ha ⁻¹	593	2.7	1.5
M-DE ₅₀	N kg ha ⁻¹	n/a	40.0	30.0	Cd, g ha ⁻¹	445	1.3	1.5
Control	N kg ha ⁻¹	n/a	0.0	30.0	Cd, g ha ⁻¹	371	0	1.5
M-DE ₁₀₀	P kg ha ⁻¹	64.2	8.0	1.0	Cu, g ha ⁻¹	41510	5894	32.4
M-DE ₅₀	P kg ha ⁻¹	88.7	46.0	1.0	Cu, g ha ⁻¹	37063	2939	32.4
Control	P kg ha ⁻¹	79.6	0	1.0	Cu, g ha ⁻¹	38545	0.0	32.4
M-DE ₁₀₀					Cr, g ha ⁻¹	25203	138.0	1.79
M-DE ₅₀					Co, g ha ⁻¹	22238	69.0	1.79
Control					Cr, g ha ⁻¹	22238	0.0	1.79
M-DE ₁₀₀					Pb, g ha ⁻¹	29650	235.9	33.2
M-DE ₅₀					Pb, g ha ⁻¹	26685	118.4	33.2
Control					Pb, g ha ⁻¹	26655	0.0	33.2
M-DE ₁₀₀					Ni, g ha ⁻¹	10037	128.6	4.0
M-DE ₅₀					Ni, g ha ⁻¹	96362	63.9	4.0
Control					Ni, g ha ⁻¹	93398	0.0	4.0
M-DE ₁₀₀					Zn, g ha ⁻¹	40028	487.0	588
M-DE ₅₀					Zn, g ha ⁻¹	34098	2399	588
Control					Zn, g ha ⁻¹	34098	0.0	587.7

Table 4: Sources of nutrients and heavy metals in *Miscanthus* plots treated with biosolid (BS), all figures per ha

Plot	Nutrient	Nutrients in topsoil	Nutrients in BS amendment	Nutrients in atmospheric deposition	Heavy Metal	Background metals in topsoil	Metals in BS amendment	Metals in atmospheric deposition
M-BS ₁₀₀	N, kg ha ⁻¹	n/a	336.5	30.0	Cd, g ha ⁻¹	2162	0.5	1.5
M-BS ₅₀	N, kg ha ⁻¹	n/a	184.0	30.0	Cd, g ha ⁻¹	2328	0.3	1.5
Control	N, kg ha ⁻¹	n/a	0	30.0	Cd, g ha ⁻¹	2162	0	1.5
M-BS ₁₀₀	P, kg ha ⁻¹	79.5	155.0	1.0	Cu, g ha ⁻¹	51547	1405	32.4
M-BS ₅₀	P, kg ha ⁻¹	26.3	83.5	1.0	Cu, g ha ⁻¹	44896	767	32.4
Control	P, kg ha ⁻¹	10.6	0	1.0	Cu, g ha ⁻¹	56536	0	32
M-BS ₁₀₀					Cr, g ha ⁻¹	34919	250	1.79
M-BS ₅₀					Cr, g ha ⁻¹	36582	136	1.79
Control					Cr, g ha ⁻¹	33256	0	1.79
M-BS ₁₀₀					Pb, g ha ⁻¹	49884	544	33.2
M-BS ₅₀					Pb, g ha ⁻¹	58198	324	33.2
Control					Pb, g ha ⁻¹	58198	0	33.2
M-BS ₁₀₀					Ni, g ha ⁻¹	19123	135	4.0
M-BS ₅₀					Ni, g ha ⁻¹	19537	74	4.0
Control					Ni, g ha ⁻¹	20781	0	4.0
M-BS ₁₀₀					Zn, g ha ⁻¹	66512	2378	588
M-BS ₅₀					Zn, g ha ⁻¹	69838	1263	588
Control					Zn, g ha ⁻¹	59861	0	588

Table 5: Sources of nutrients and heavy metals in short rotation coppice willow plots treated with distillery effluent (DE), all figures per ha

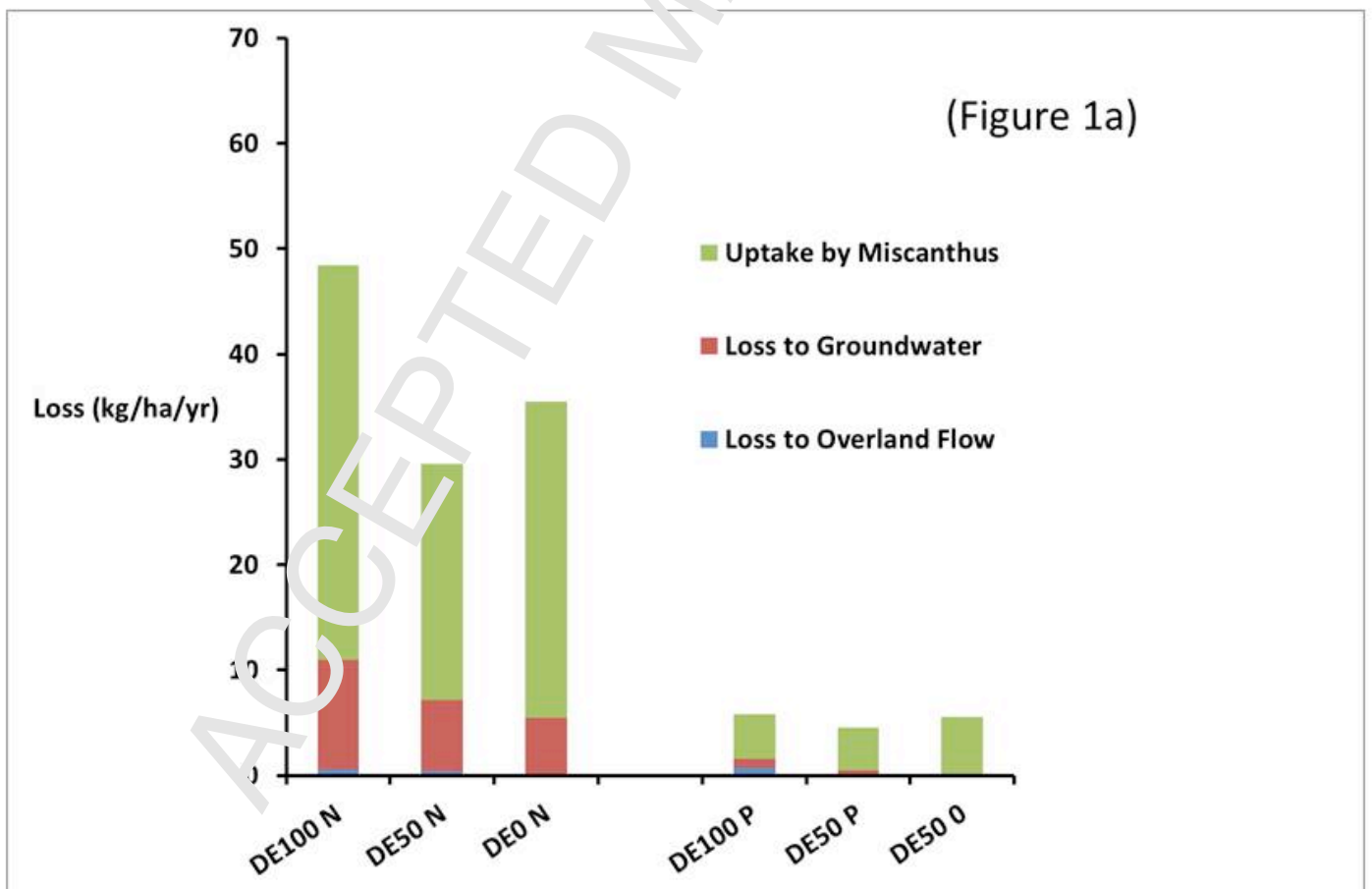
Plot	Nutrient	Background nutrients in topsoil	Nutrients in DE amendment	Nutrients in atmospheric deposition	Heavy Metal	Background metals in topsoil	Metals in DE amendment	Metals in atmospheric deposition
W-DE ₁₀₀	N kg ha ⁻¹	n/a	45.4	19.0	Cd, g ha ⁻¹	1876	1.2	1.0
W-DE ₅₀	N kg ha ⁻¹	n/a	22.8	19.0	Cd, g ha ⁻¹	3248	0.5	1.0
Control	N kg ha ⁻¹	n/a	0	19.0	Cd, g ha ⁻¹	2156	0	1.0
W-DE ₁₀₀	P kg ha ⁻¹	84.0	3.0	0.68	Cu, g ha ⁻¹	14725	1.19	20.6
W-DE ₅₀	P kg ha ⁻¹	84.0	17.0	0.68	Cu, g ha ⁻¹	26505	0.51	20.6
Control	P kg ha ⁻¹	84.0	0.0	0.68	Cu, g ha ⁻¹	21877	0.0	20.6
W-DE ₁₀₀					Cr, g ha ⁻¹	8975	13.6	1.19
W-DE ₅₀					Cr, g ha ⁻¹	11920	5.10	1.19
Control					Cr, g ha ⁻¹	10378	0.0	1.19
W-DE ₁₀₀					Pb, g ha ⁻¹	17670	3.40	21.09
W-DE ₅₀					Pb, g ha ⁻¹	25744	1.70	21.09
Control					Pb, g ha ⁻¹	71596	0.0	21.09
W-DE ₁₀₀					Ni, g ha ⁻¹	61787	3.40	2.55
W-DE ₅₀					Ni, g ha ⁻¹	122006	1.70	2.55
Control					Ni, g ha ⁻¹	85825	0.0	2.55
W-DE ₁₀₀					Zn, g ha ⁻¹	16127	95.2	572.4
W-DE ₅₀					Zn, g ha ⁻¹	25523	40.8	372.4
Control					Zn, g ha ⁻¹	19773	0.0	572.4

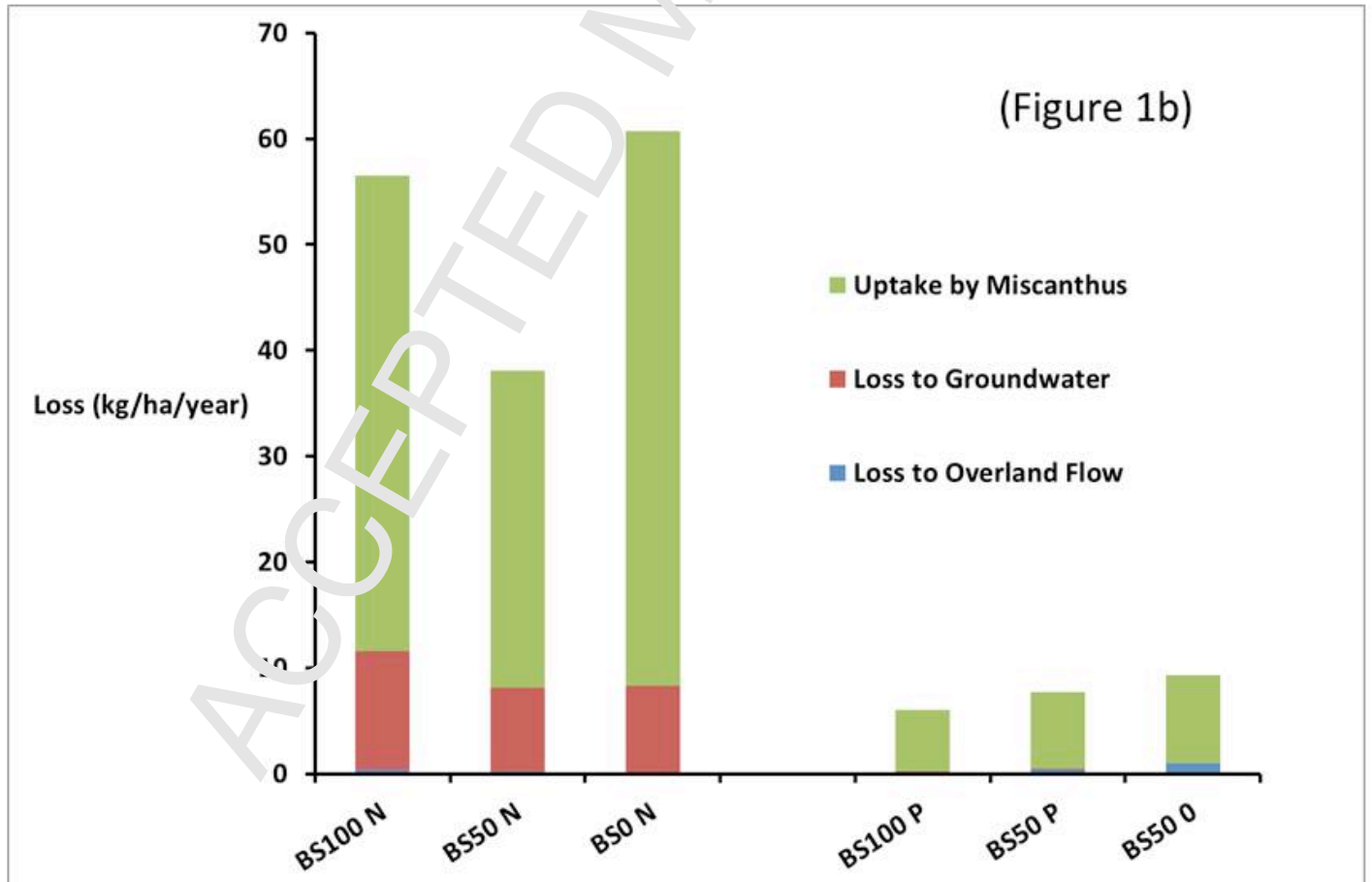
Table 6: Sources of nutrients and heavy metals in short rotation coppice willow plots treated with biosolid (BS), all figures per ha

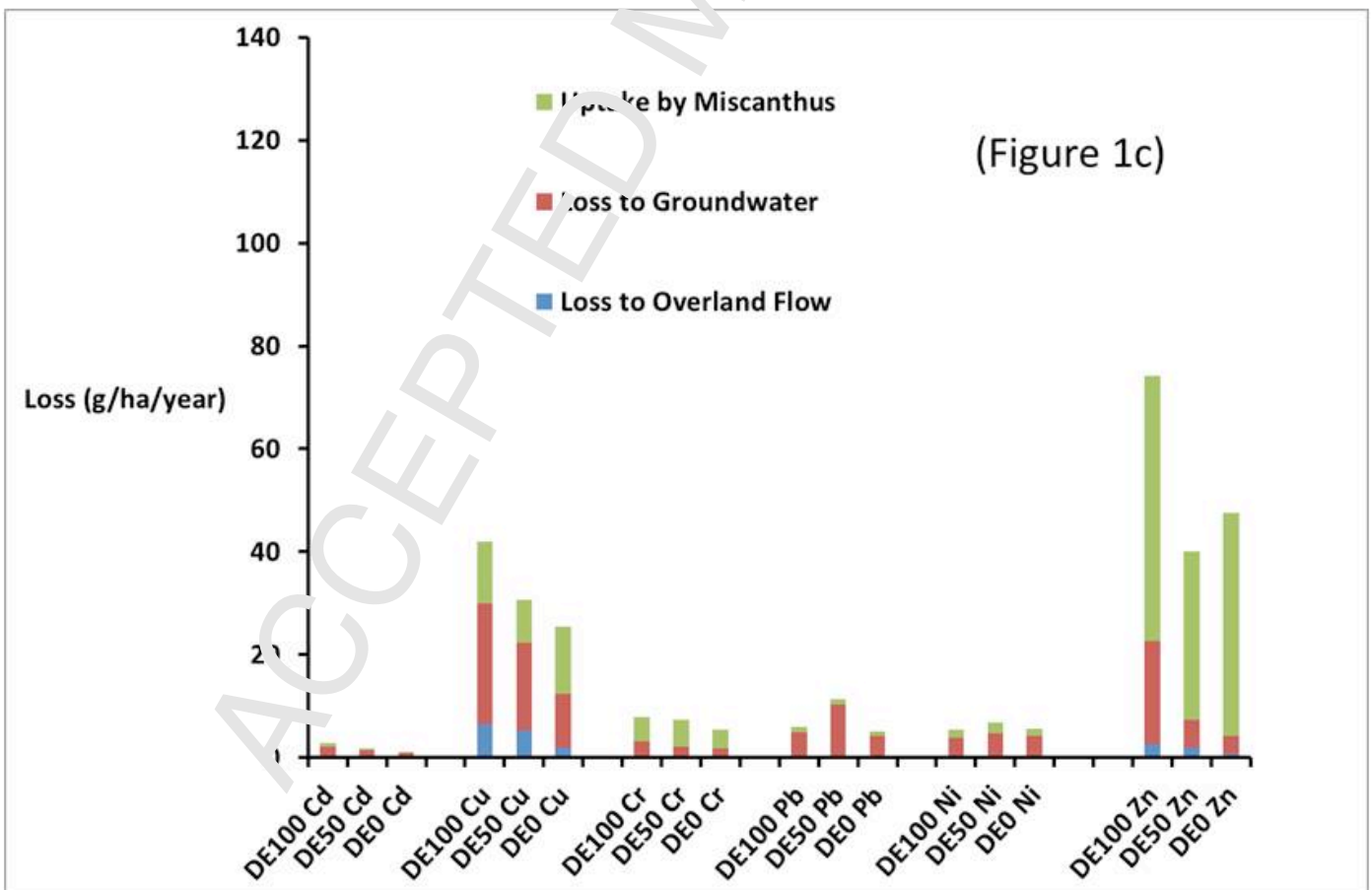
Plot	Nutrient	Background nutrients in topsoil	Nutrients in BS amendment	Nutrients in atmospheric deposition	Heavy Metal	Background metals in topsoil	Metals in BS amendment	Metals in atmospheric deposition
W-BS ₁₀₀	N kg ha ⁻¹	221.1	19.0	Cd, g ha ⁻¹	1260	2.0	1.0	
W-BS ₅₀	N kg ha ⁻¹	71.4	19.0	Cd, g ha ⁻¹	1848	0.7	1.0	
Control	N kg ha ⁻¹	0	19.0	Cd, g ha ⁻¹	1176	0.0	1.0	
W-BS ₁₀₀	P kg ha ⁻¹	4.2	0.7	Cu, g ha ⁻¹	17639.8	66.3	20.6	
W-BS ₅₀	P kg ha ⁻¹	26.0	0.7	Cu, g ha ⁻¹	26599.7	20.4	20.6	
Control	P kg ha ⁻¹	5.0	0.7	Cu, g ha ⁻¹	17919.8	0.0	20.6	
W-BS ₁₀₀				Cr, g ha ⁻¹	10919.8	377.6	1.19	
W-BS ₅₀				Cr, g ha ⁻¹	10919.9	129.3	1.19	
Control				Cr, g ha ⁻¹	13719.8	0.0	1.19	
W-BS ₁₀₀				Pb, µg ha ⁻¹	21559.7	389.5	21.1	
W-BS ₅₀				Pb, g ha ⁻¹	51079.5	183.7	21.1	
Control				Pb, g ha ⁻¹	24079.7	0.0	21.1	
W-BS ₁₀₀				Ni, g ha ⁻¹	78675.0	35.1	2.55	
W-BS ₅₀				Ni, g ha ⁻¹	108918.7	11.9	2.55	
Control				Ni, g ha ⁻¹	86518.9	0.0	2.55	
W-BS ₁₀₀				Zn, g ha ⁻¹	20439.8	716.0	372.4	
W-BS ₅₀				Zn, g ha ⁻¹	29959.6	226.2	372.4	
Control				Zn, g ha ⁻¹	23799.7	0.0	372.4	

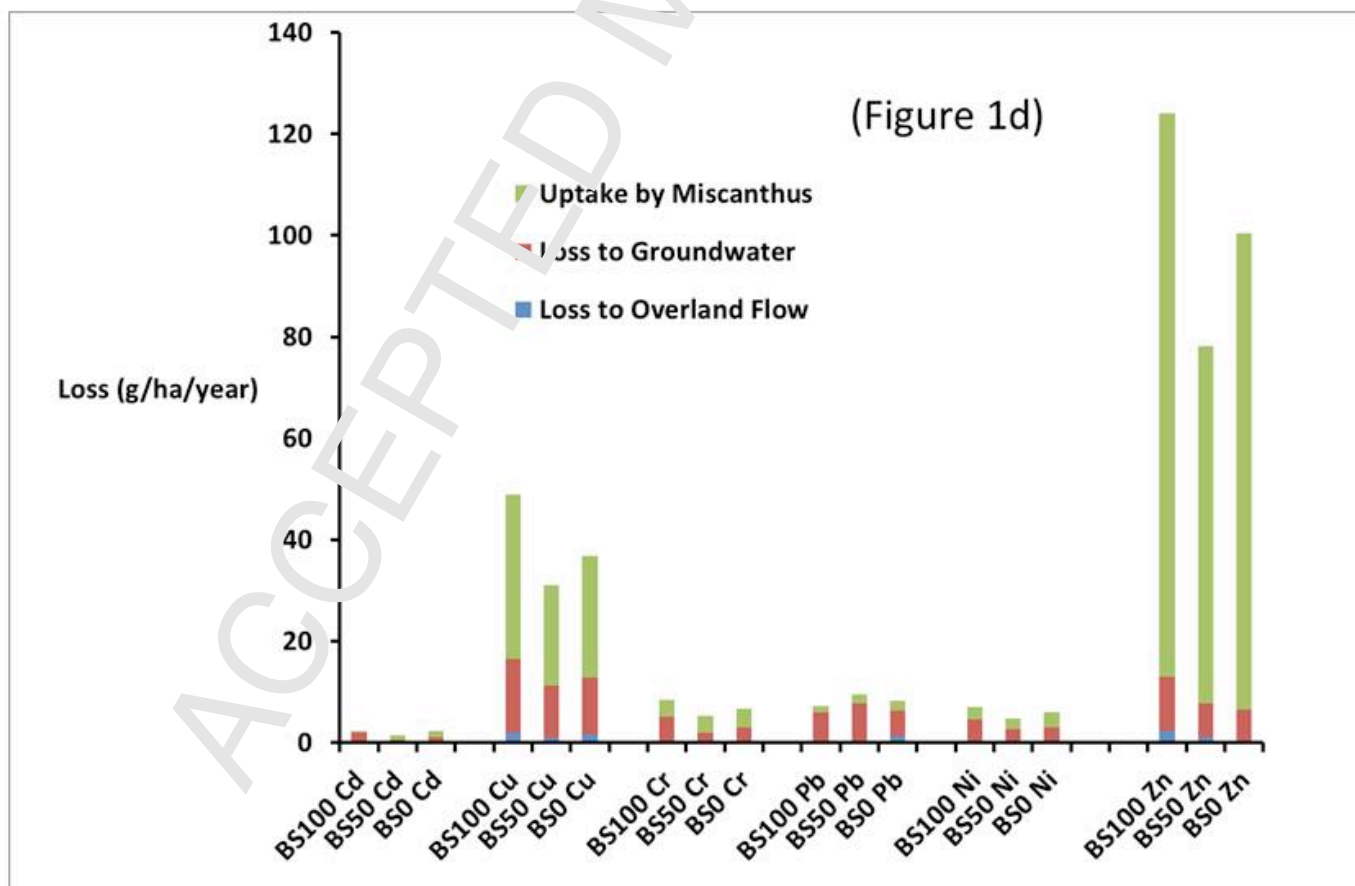
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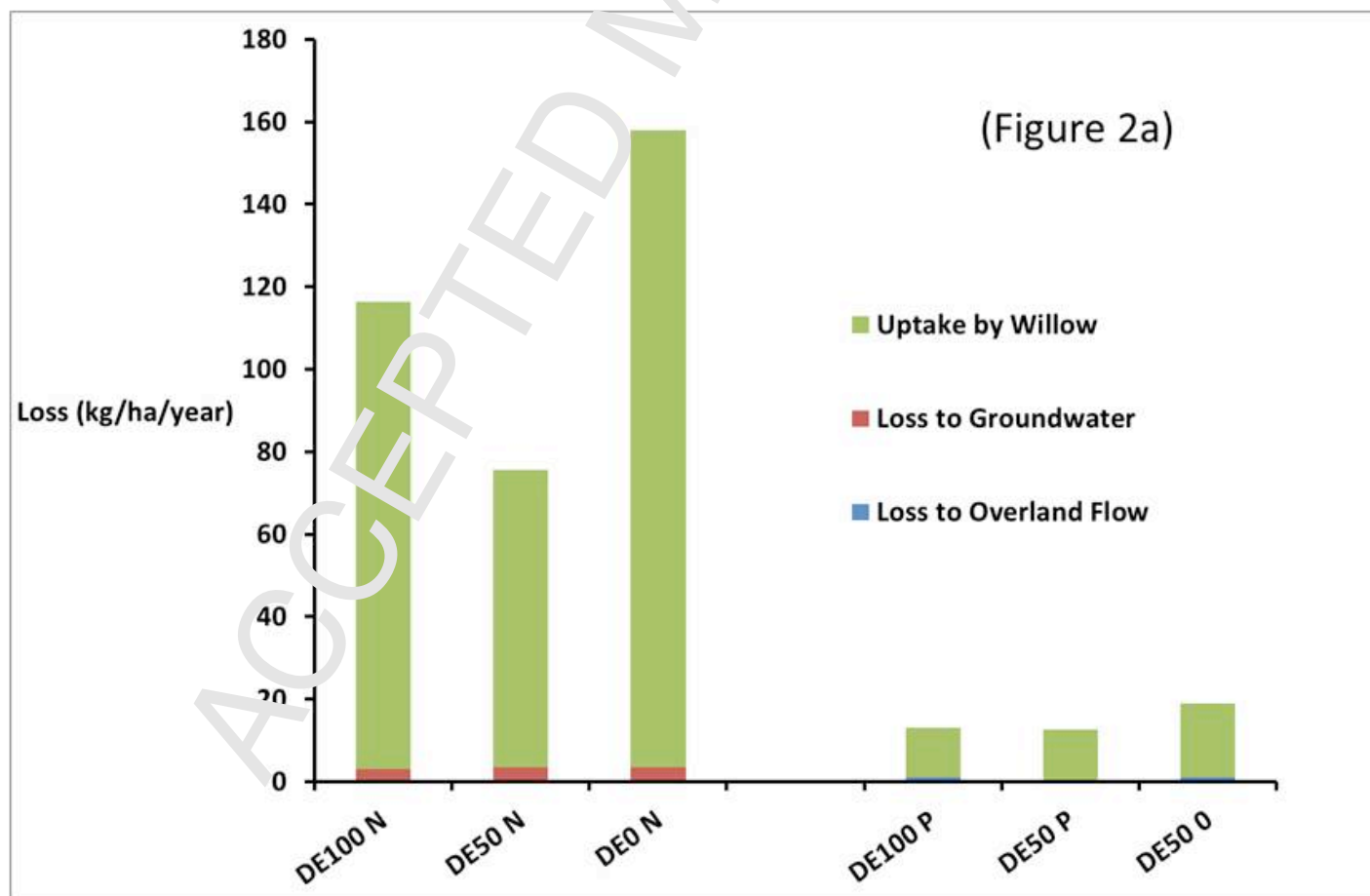
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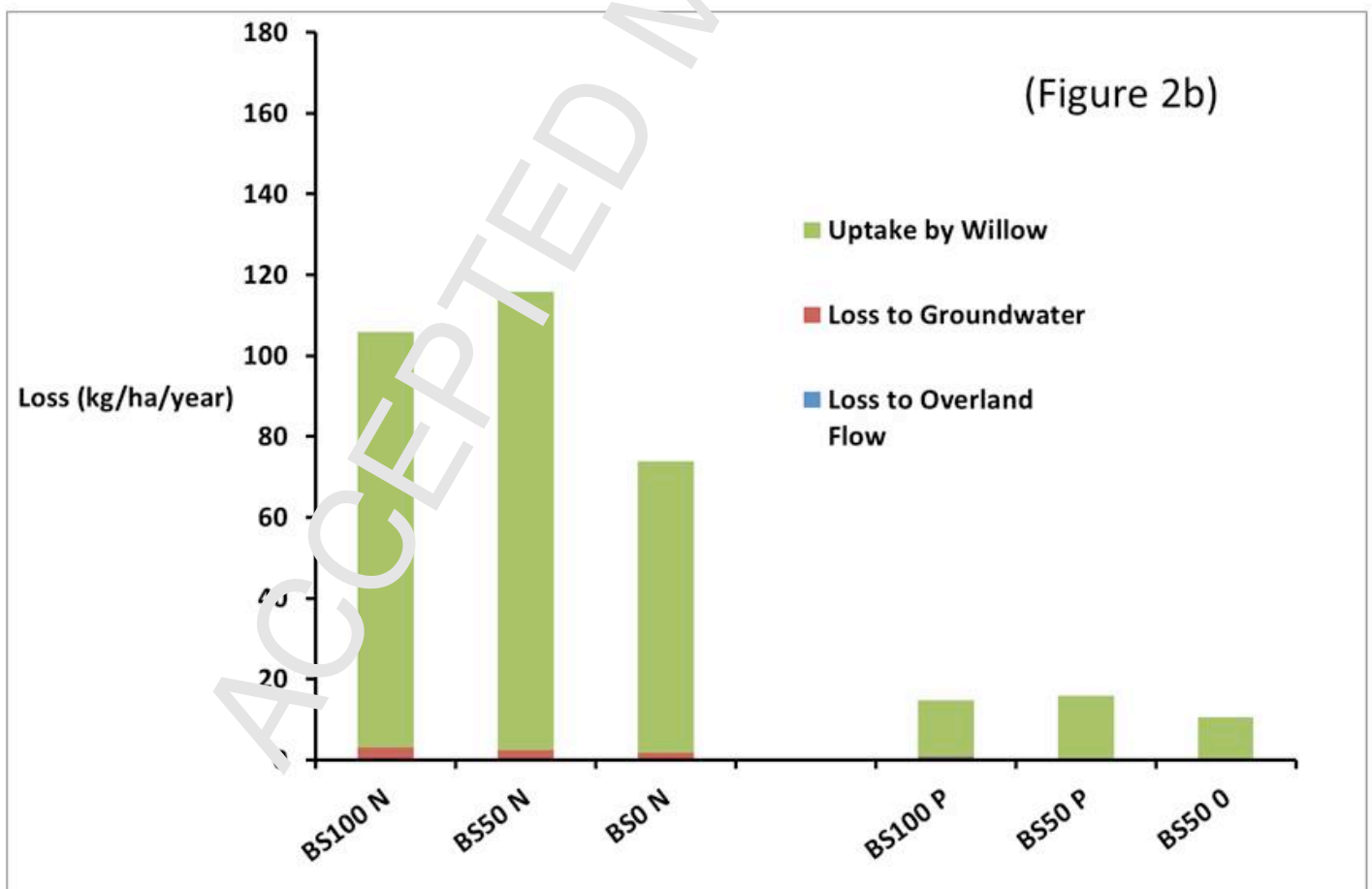


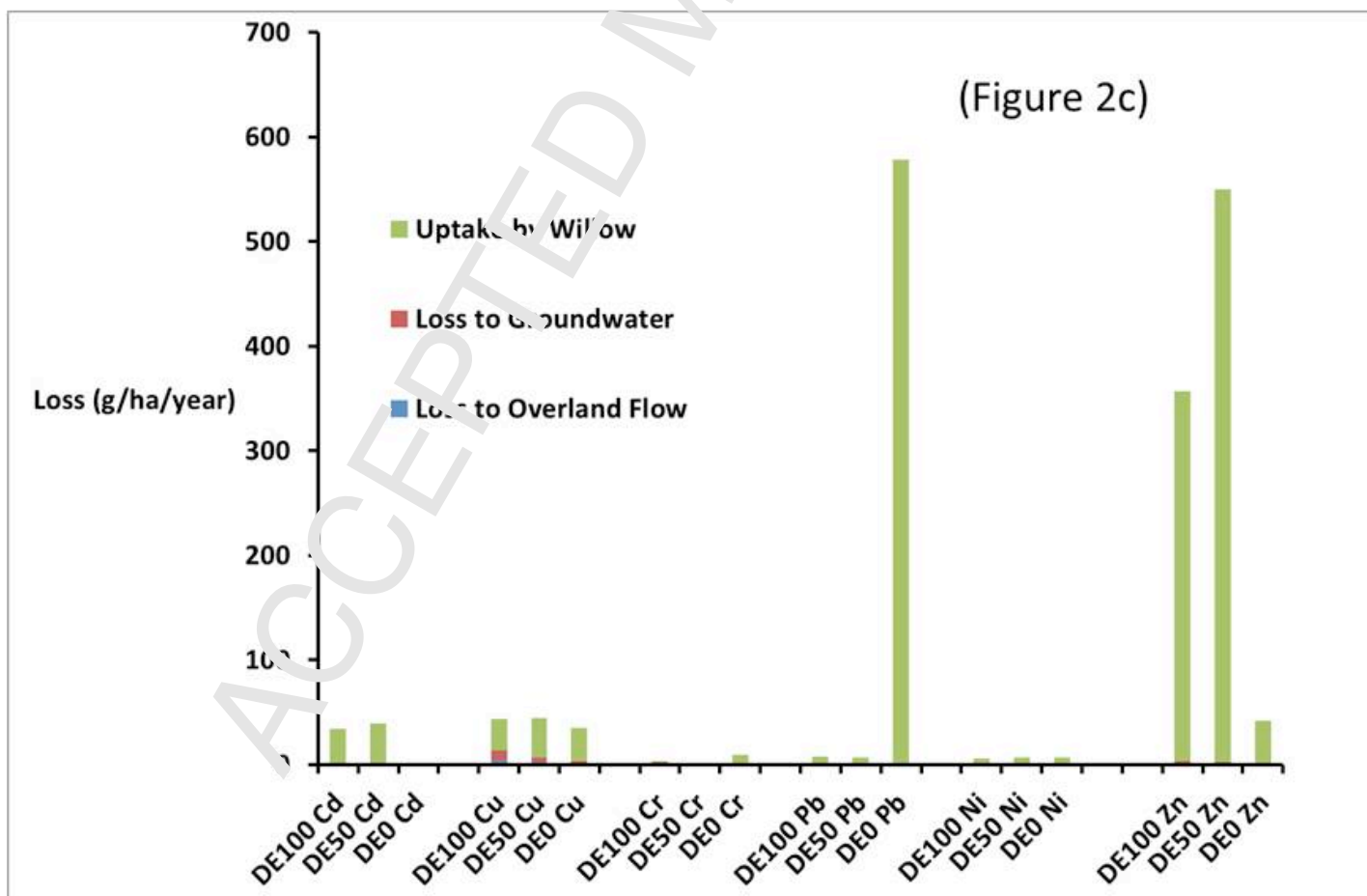


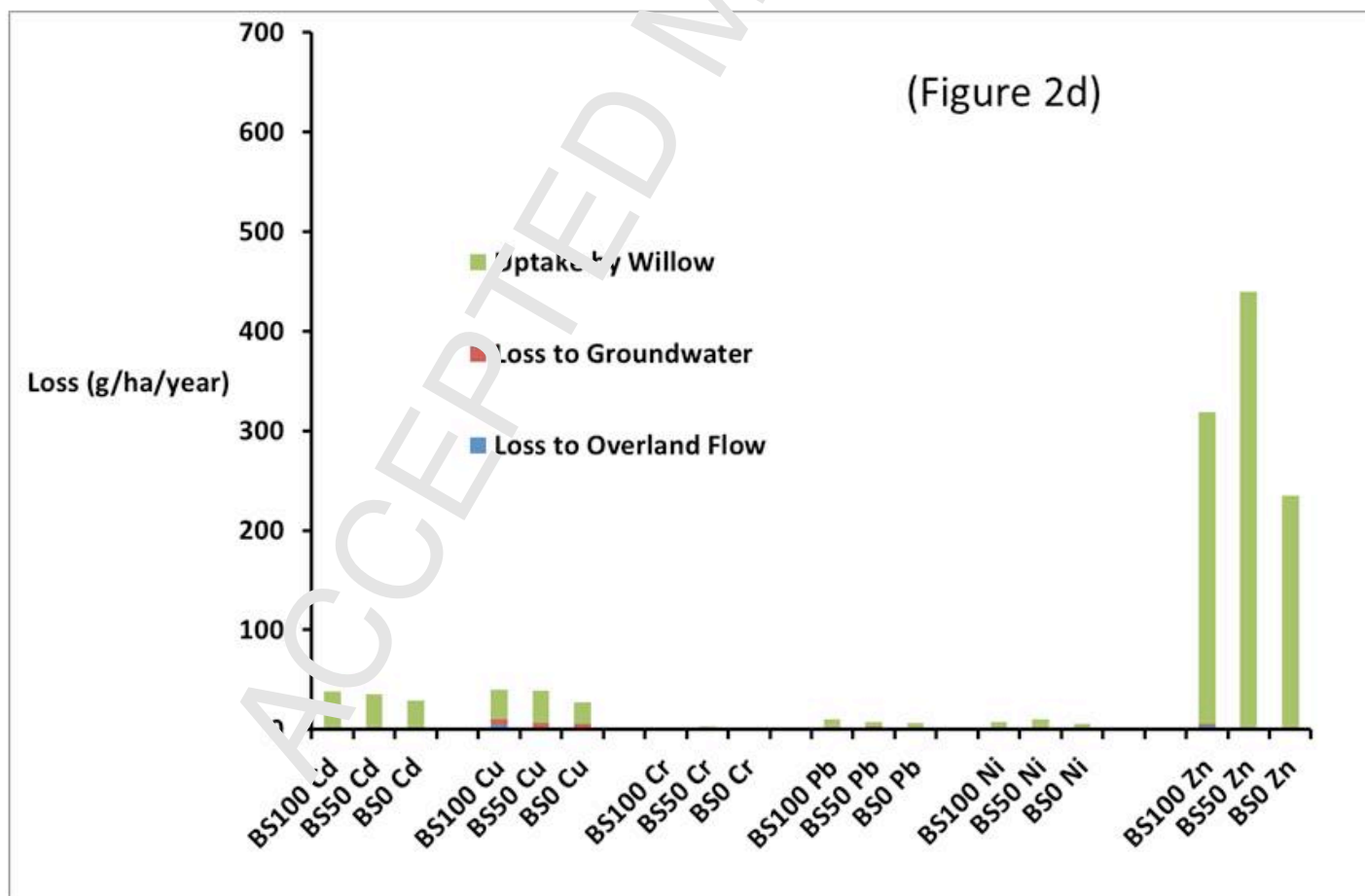












The fate of nutrients and heavy metals in energy crop plantations amended with organic by-products

Highlights:

- The greatest inputs to the system came from the soil, the smallest input was from atmospheric deposition.
- The largest output from the system was crop take up; the smallest was loss to OLF.
- Organic byproducts can enhance energy crop nutrition without deleterious environmental consequences.