

1 **The stocks and flows of nitrogen, phosphorus and potassium across a 30-year**
2 **time series for agriculture in Huantai county, China**

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16 **Abstract**

17 In order to improve the efficiency of nutrient use whilst also meeting projected changes in the demand
18 for food within China, new nutrient management frameworks comprised of policy, practice and the
19 means of delivering change are required. These frameworks should be underpinned by systemic
20 analyses of the stocks and flows of nutrients within agricultural production. In this paper, a 30-year
21 time series of the stocks and flows of nitrogen (N), phosphorus (P) and potassium (K) are reported for
22 Huantai county, an exemplar area of intensive agricultural production in the North China Plain.
23 Substance flow analyses were constructed for the major crop systems in the county across the period
24 1983-2014. On average across all production systems between 2010 and 2014, total annual nutrient
25 inputs to agricultural land in Huantai county remained high at 18.1 kt N, 2.7 kt P and 7.8 kt K (696 kg
26 N/ha; 104 kg P/ha; 300 kg K/ha). Whilst the application of inorganic fertiliser dominated these inputs,
27 crop residues, atmospheric deposition and livestock manure represented significant, yet largely
28 unrecognised, sources of nutrients, depending on the individual production system and the period of
29 time. Whilst nutrient use efficiency (NUE) increased for N and P between 1983 and 2014, future
30 improvements in NUE will require better alignment of nutrient inputs and crop demand. This is
31 particularly true for high-value fruit and vegetable production, in which appropriate recognition of
32 nutrient supply from sources such as manure and from soil reserves will be required to enhance NUE.
33 Aligned with the structural organisation of the public agricultural extension service at county-scale in
34 China, our analyses highlight key areas for the development of future agricultural policy and farm
35 advice in order to rebalance the management of natural resources from a focus on production and
36 growth towards the aims of efficiency and sustainability.

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49 **1 Introduction**

50 China is the largest single consumer of inorganic fertilisers in the world, responsible for approximately
51 30% of annual global fertiliser use for each of the macronutrients: nitrogen (N), phosphate (P₂O₅ total
52 nutrients) and potash (K₂O total nutrients) (FAOSTAT, 2014). The majority of China's demand for
53 inorganic fertilisers is met by internal reserves or by synthesis, with the exception of potassium (K) for
54 which China is heavily reliant on imports, to the extent that >15% of global imports of K entered China
55 in 2014 (FAOSTAT, 2014). However, China is also recognised as a global hotspot of relatively low
56 nutrient use efficiency within agricultural production (Foley et al., 2011; Vitousek et al., 2009). The
57 high demand for inorganic fertilisers within China, coupled with inefficient nutrient use, exerts
58 significant pressure on finite rock reserves (for K and phosphorus, P) and the global inorganic fertiliser
59 markets that depend on these reserves. As high-quality rock reserves may diminish within the near
60 future (Cordell and White, 2014; Wang et al., 2011), the pressure on fertiliser markets due to the
61 demand exerted by China is likely to increase substantially. Further, the environmental costs
62 associated with the production of inorganic fertilisers and with inefficient nutrient use within
63 agriculture, including greenhouse gas emissions, degradation of soil, freshwater and marine
64 ecosystems and declining air quality, are likely to grow and to be particularly pronounced within China
65 (e.g. Chen *et al.*, 2014).

66 Responding to these challenges requires new frameworks comprised of policy, practice and the means
67 of delivering change, in order to improve the efficiency of inorganic fertiliser use (Bellarby et al., 2015),
68 whilst also meeting projected increases in the demand for food within China (Zhang et al., 2011). These
69 frameworks should emerge from systemic understanding of the stocks and flows of nutrients within
70 agriculture. In this context, substance flow analyses (SFAs) can be used to quantify the stocks and
71 flows of a substance (in this case, individual nutrient elements) within a defined spatial unit and across
72 different sectors within that spatial unit (Cooper and Carliell-Marquet, 2013; Senthilkumar et al.,
73 2012). Previous SFAs within China have examined nutrient stocks and flows at country-level (Hou et
74 al., 2013; Ma et al., 2010), at province-level (Ma et al., 2012; Sheldrick et al., 2003) and at the level of
75 individual farm systems (Gao et al., 2012; Hartmann et al., 2014). These analyses reveal substantial
76 regional differences in nutrient management within agriculture, largely reflecting differences between
77 climatic regions and the resulting dominant production systems. In general terms, nutrient use
78 efficiency (NUE) is greater in arable crop production systems than in vegetable and fruit production in
79 China, whilst vegetable and fruit production demonstrate higher NUE than animal production systems
80 (Ma et al., 2012). Enhancing NUE within animal husbandry in China is recognised as a particular
81 challenge, due to increasing disconnection between concentrated animal production facilities and
82 land to which animal manure can be returned (Bai et al., 2013; Chadwick et al., 2015).

83 However, the majority of SFAs to date have either examined only one nutrient element (usually N or
84 P), or N and P in combination (Cooper and Carliell-Marquet, 2013; Ma et al., 2012; Senthilkumar et al.,
85 2012). Little research has examined the third macronutrient, K, in combination with N and P (Sheldrick
86 et al., 2003, Zhen et al., 2006), despite the fact that an imbalanced supply of the macronutrients N, P
87 and K can adversely impact crop yield and decrease NUE (Dai et al., 2013). Further, the majority of
88 SFAs have only focused on data from a single year, providing a snapshot of nutrient stocks and flows
89 for a given spatial unit (Chowdhury et al., 2014). However, such snapshots do not capture longer-term
90 trajectories of change in nutrient stocks and flows within a system, as driven by natural processes,
91 such as variation in rainfall or temperature regimes, by management practices, such as crop rotations,

92 by policies, such as variation in trade tariffs, farm input and fertiliser industry subsidies (Li et al., 2013;
93 Sun et al., 2012), or by regulation, such as the ban on the burning of crop straw in China from 2008
94 (Miao et al., 2011). The use of longer time series of data to construct SFAs would help to avoid the
95 risks associated with basing policy and practice on short-term analyses that may not accurately
96 account for longer-term changes in nutrient management within a system (Sheldrick et al., 2003).

97 Our previous research suggests that the county-scale is a key spatial unit at which to consider the
98 potential for change in nutrient management practices within China, particularly for largely rural
99 counties in which the management of nutrients in agriculture is clearly important (Smith and Siciliano,
100 2015). The county-scale is especially relevant in China because of the corresponding structural
101 organisation of the public agricultural extension service. Key decisions regarding agricultural policies
102 and farm advice provision are made for county-wide execution by the County Agricultural Bureau,
103 which has considerable autonomy with regard to such policies and advice (Bellarby et al., 2017; Smith
104 and Siciliano, 2015). For example, the bureau is responsible for undertaking soil nutrient surveys and
105 for the provision of fertiliser recommendations based on the resulting information. These
106 recommendations are often applied county-wide, and form the basis for compound fertiliser
107 formulations sourced from manufacturers for county-wide distribution. In the current paper, we
108 report a county-level analysis of nutrient use within agricultural production systems in China, based
109 on SFAs for the macronutrients N, P and K using a time series of data that spans 32 years from 1983
110 to 2014. The objectives of these analyses were: i) to quantify changes in N, P and K stocks and flows
111 within individual production systems at county-scale in China over a 30-year timescale; ii) to interpret
112 drivers of the observed changes in nutrient management over this timescale; and iii) to consider the
113 ways in which analysis of historical patterns of nutrient use in agriculture can inform future policy and
114 practice seeking more sustainable stewardship of N, P and K resources.

115 **2 Materials and methods**

116 **2.1 System boundary and design of the substance flow analyses**

117 Substance flow analyses were constructed for Huantai county in Shandong Province, China (Figure 1).
118 Huantai county covers approximately 520 km² with a total farmed area of 354 km² (68%) in 1980.
119 Agricultural production in the county is primarily an intensive rotational double cropping area of
120 summer maize and winter wheat, typical of agriculture within the North China Plain (Ha et al., 2015).
121 Crop production relies heavily on irrigation with groundwater (Chen et al., 2010; Liu et al., 2005). Other
122 arable crops (cotton, peanut, potato, soybean and sweet potato), vegetable, fruit (apple, apricot,
123 Chinese date, grape, hawthorn, peach and pear), as well as livestock, are produced in the county. In
124 this paper, other arable crops, vegetable, fruit, and livestock are each considered as individual
125 production systems (Figure 2). Approximately 250,000 of the county's 493,000 population are
126 engaged in farming (Huantai Agricultural Bureau, 2014).

127 The SFA approach uses mass balance principles to systemically identify and quantify an element from
128 source (here, input into one of the production systems within Huantai county), through internal stocks
129 and flows within the defined system boundary, to the final managed or unmanaged outflow of an
130 element across the system boundary (Cooper and Carliell-Marquet, 2013; Senthilkumar et al., 2012).
131 Stocks and flows for the nutrients N, P and K were quantified for Huantai county on an annual basis
132 from 1983 to 2014, incorporating multiple cropping cycles within a single year where relevant. The

133 corresponding conceptual design for the SFA is reported in Figure 3, alongside data describing the
134 average mass of nutrient elements over the most recent five years of our analyses (2010 – 2014). The
135 SFAs were differentiated between four individual crop systems (cereal (incorporating wheat and
136 maize), other arable crops, vegetable and fruit). Additionally, livestock production was included in
137 order to estimate nutrient flows from the crop systems to the livestock system as feed, alongside flows
138 from the livestock system to the crop systems as manure. Although livestock production occurs within
139 Huantai county, the focus of the current paper is the major crop production systems. Detailed
140 consideration of the individual stocks and flows of nutrient elements within livestock production in
141 the county was beyond the scope of the research reported here.

142 **2.2 Data sources and equations**

143 **2.2.1 Inputs, outputs and recycling of nutrients in agricultural production systems**

144 Agricultural statistics collated and reported at county-level in China provide a consistent database and
145 the foundation for constructing SFAs. Annual statistics for Huantai county have been published since
146 1980 by the Huantai Agricultural Bureau. Data from these yearbooks were used in the research
147 reported here from 1983 onwards, because earlier data were not complete for all components of the
148 SFAs. These yearbook data were supplemented by data and functions derived from the literature and
149 by expert knowledge where necessary. We acknowledge the uncertainties which are unavoidable
150 when constructing SFAs at this spatial and temporal scale, meaning that these uncertainties may
151 introduce apparent fluctuations in nutrient stocks and flows that cannot clearly be attributed to
152 changes in nutrient management practices. For example, these uncertainties include the application
153 rates of fertiliser and manure as well as residue management practices, which were not available
154 within statistical yearbooks (Table S1), but would have been valuable additions to the research
155 reported here. However, data that was not available in the yearbooks have been carefully estimated
156 based on interviews with local experts and farmers, and constitute the best information currently
157 available with which to undertake the type of analyses reported here. An initial representation of the
158 uncertainty associated with the individual components of the SFAs, alongside full details regarding the
159 sources and the derivation of the data used in the SFAs, are given in Table S1.

160 The amount of crop residue returned to soil was derived from the straw to grain ratio (Peng et al.,
161 2014, Table S3) which is then applied as crop input in the subsequent year. The exception was the first
162 year, which used the crop production of the same year instead. The nutrient flows of all the arable
163 systems were quantified using nutrient contents and straw/grain ratios (Tables S2 – S3). In the fruit
164 system it is assumed that the “residue” incorporates the biomass increase though it should be noted
165 that is likely an underestimate. In the livestock system, the nutrient flows were determined via the
166 lifespan of livestock and the nutrient content of livestock outputs (Tables S4 and S5). The amount of
167 livestock manure produced was calculated via livestock numbers and manure production rates per
168 head (MOA, 2009, Table S5). The nutrient input via feed into the livestock system was calculated to
169 balance all livestock outputs. All manure was assumed to be completely distributed between land
170 under different forms of crop production, according to expert knowledge and local farming practices
171 (e.g Huantai Agricultural Bureau, 2014). The actual mass of nutrient elements initially present in
172 manure was reduced by a total of 50.8% N, 48.1% P and 43.3% K on the assumption that a given mass
173 was lost during housing (Webb and Misselbrook, 2004) and during the storage of excreta, for example
174 by ammonia volatilisation, based on Jia et al. (2014). Further, it was assumed that the amount of
175 manure that was returned to land under fruit and vegetable did not exceed average nutrient

176 application rates according to Chadwick et al. (2015). Given a surplus supply of manure in excess of
177 these threshold values, the surplus manure was assumed to be exported out of Huantai county in
178 order to avoid unrealistic manure application rates. It is recognised that surplus manure may be
179 exported directly into water courses in other parts of China (Strokal et al., 2016). However, the SFAs
180 reported here assumed that this was not the case in Huantai county, which is at least partly supported
181 by strict environmental laws and low precipitation levels in the county resulting in low river flows that
182 would render this option impossible.

183 **2.2.2 Losses of nutrients to the environment across production system boundaries**

184 **2.2.2.1 Atmospheric losses**

185 For P and K, it was assumed that no gaseous losses occurred. Empirical models were used to estimate
186 losses of ammonia (NH₃) (Bouwman et al., 2002) and the nitrogenous greenhouse gases, nitrous oxide
187 (N₂O) and nitric oxide (NO) (Stehfest and Bouwman, 2006). Di-nitrogen (N₂) emissions were estimated
188 via the ratio of N₂ to N₂O produced during denitrification, using the spreadsheet model SimDen
189 (Vinther, 2005). Table S9 provides an overview of the factor class used in the published functions. A
190 slightly different approach was used for the calculation of N₂O and NO losses from the high nutrient-
191 input systems (vegetable and fruit production), which were beyond the range of N application rates
192 for the empirical functions developed by Stehfest and Bouwman (2006). In these cases, an emission
193 factor (EF) of 0.96% has been specifically developed for lowland horticulture in China (Shepherd et al.,
194 2015) and this EF was multiplied by the N application rate to estimate gaseous N losses as N₂O and
195 NO for the relevant systems within Huantai county.

196 **2.2.2.2 Aqueous losses – erosion, runoff and leaching**

197 Nutrient export via soil erosion was not estimated because existing approaches rely on estimates of
198 the total nutrient content within soil, which were not available for Huantai county. However, Huantai
199 county is located in the extremely flat North China plain (land gradient ratios ranging between 1/800
200 and 1/3500, Liu et al., 2005), meaning that nutrient export via erosion is expected to be low or
201 negligible, especially as open fields are also generally banded (Wang et al., 2013b). Export of nutrients
202 via runoff and leaching were determined using the empirical model developed for N (Velthof et al.,
203 2009). This model requires widely available information regarding slope, land use, soil type, soil and
204 rooting depth, soil clay content and precipitation surplus, in order to select a series of factor classes
205 that ultimately determine a loss factor (Table S10). With respect to the precipitation surplus, this was
206 assumed to be within the lowest factor class for Huantai county, because crops are irrigated, and in
207 order to generate a conservative estimate of aqueous losses which have been suggested to be
208 overestimated when applying this kind of empirical function to China (Ongley et al., 2010). The
209 algorithms for the calculation of nutrient export via runoff were considered to be the same for N, P
210 and K, which are related to fertiliser application rates. The leaching factor was multiplied by the
211 nutrient surplus at the soil surface (nutrient surplus = total nutrient input – crop uptake), after NH₃
212 emissions were accounted for. However, the mobility of P and K in soil (and thus leaching) is lower
213 compared to N (Lehmann and Schroth, 2003). Therefore, a leaching rate of 0.1 kg nutrient ha⁻¹ year⁻¹,
214 reported by Némery et al. (2005) for P, was assumed throughout for P and K.

215 **2.2.3 Nutrient use efficiency**

216 The concept of nutrient use efficiency (NUE) has been applied for many years to crop uptake in
217 agricultural systems (e.g. Moll et al., 1982). However, there are multiple definitions of NUE, especially

218 in regard to which nutrient inputs are considered. In the research reported here, NUE was calculated
219 as described by Ma et al., (2012) for N, P and K for each individual production system in Huantai County
220 based on the SFAs and using Equation 1:

221
$$\left(\frac{N, P \text{ or } K_{\text{product output}}}{N, P \text{ or } K_{\text{external inputs}}} \right) * 100 \quad [1];$$

222 Here, N, P or K_{product output} relates to marketable output, such as grain, and N, P or K_{external input} includes
223 all human and natural inputs, i.e. inorganic fertiliser, manure, atmospheric deposition, biological N
224 fixation and nutrients introduced via crop seeds or seedlings and irrigation. Additionally, Ma et al.,
225 (2012) included human wastes and by-products from the food processing industry as well, which are
226 not considered in this study.

227 **2.2.4 Historical fertiliser recommendations**

228 Fertiliser recommendations relating to wheat production in Huantai county for exemplar years were
229 sourced from the Huantai Agricultural Bureau (2014). The county fertiliser recommendations were
230 based on annual soil nutrient analysis, available fertiliser types and their nutrient contents, as well as
231 the predicted crop yield and weather conditions for the forthcoming year (Huantai Agricultural
232 Bureau, 1990). In the research reported here, these recommendations were compared to estimates
233 of the mass of nutrients taken up by a crop and to farmer fertiliser application practice, based on the
234 SFA results for the corresponding year.

235

236 3 Results

237 3.1 Summary of nutrient flows for all production systems during the period 2010-2014

238 Figure 3 reports annual nutrient flows for agricultural production in Huantai county, averaged for the
239 period 2010 to 2014, providing a summary of total nutrient flows to, from and between individual
240 production systems. Analysis of the 30-year time series for N, P and K is reported in subsequent
241 sections.

242 The total average annual input of nutrients to agricultural soils within Huantai county between 2010
243 and 2014 was 18.1 kt N, 2.7 kt P and 7.8 kt K (696 kg N/ha; 104 kg P/ha; 300 kg K/ha). The majority of
244 the overall input of nutrients was associated with inorganic fertilisers for N (67%) and P (81%). In
245 contrast, fertiliser and returned crop residue contributed relatively similar proportions of the total K
246 input (46% and 52%, respectively). Considering all production systems together, manure only
247 contributed between 1.6% and 3.4% of the total input across N, P and K, because the input of manure
248 is concentrated on a relatively small area of fruit and vegetable production within the county (Figure
249 2). The recycling of crop residue represented a larger input of nutrients to soil at county level (16% N,
250 15% P, 52% K) compared to the input via manure. For N, atmospheric deposition was also a more
251 significant nutrient input (c.11% N) compared to manure (Figure 3). However, manure contributed
252 more than 20% of the total P and K input, alongside around 19% of the total N input, to soil under fruit
253 and vegetable production.

254 In absolute terms, the largest nutrient flows were observed in the wheat/maize and vegetable
255 production systems in the county, driven by the large area of land under this form of production (for
256 wheat/maize) or by the intensive use of nutrients to support production (vegetable). The proportion
257 of nutrient input to a system that was subsequently taken up and incorporated into crop products
258 varied between individual production systems, as reflected in the NUE data reported in Table 1 and
259 discussed further in section 3.3. The balance term in the soil compartment of the SFA represents the
260 proportion of the total nutrient input to soil, which is not taken up by crops. This mass of nutrients
261 can either accumulate in the soil or be lost to the atmosphere or to receiving waters. Substantial
262 accumulation of N, P and K in soil was observed under every form of production within Huantai county,
263 although the absolute mass of nutrients that accumulated was particularly high under wheat/maize,
264 vegetable and other arable crop production. The mass of nutrients accumulating within soil exceeded
265 that in agricultural products for N, P and K under other arable crop and fruit production systems and,
266 for P alone, under vegetable production. The losses of nutrients to the atmosphere or to receiving
267 waters were at least 40% of the mass taken up by the different crops. In the extreme cases, losses of
268 nutrients exceeded the mass taken up by crops by a factor of two for other arable crops and three for
269 fruit (Figure 3).

270 The nutrients taken up by a crop are subsequently divided into fractions that are classed as product
271 (e.g. the nutrient content of grain for wheat/maize), residue (nutrient content returned to the soil
272 with crop residue) and waste (nutrient content within crop residue that is not returned to the soil).
273 For "other arable crop", the waste nutrient content was approximately double the nutrient content
274 within agricultural products themselves. However, the amount of waste nutrients in this production
275 system was surpassed by the losses to the environment for N. The mass of nutrients returned to soil
276 within residue was greatest in the wheat/maize production system, where 90% of residues are
277 returned to soil. This is particularly apparent for K, where the return of residue was responsible for

278 more than half of the total K input to soil. The wheat/maize and other arable crop systems also supply
279 an input of nutrient elements to the livestock production system via feed. The livestock system was
280 only differentiated between nutrients that are contained in livestock products (dairy, eggs and the
281 whole animal) and nutrients that are contained in the excreta produced during the lifetime of the
282 livestock. In the livestock sector, the amount of nutrients lost to the environment during housing and
283 storage was greater than the sum of the total mass of nutrients (N, P and K) in livestock products and
284 in manure returned to agricultural soils (Figure 3).

285 **3.2 Long term trends in nutrient inflows and outflows at county-level**

286 Total nutrient flows into and out of the soil surface across all production systems within Huantai
287 county generally remained relatively stable or increased only gradually between 1983 and 1989
288 (Figure 4). However, inputs increased dramatically for N and P between 1989 and 1993 to reach
289 maximum levels across the 30-year time series. The increase in K inputs was more prolonged,
290 beginning in 1983 but not peaking until 1998, followed by a secondary increase in K inputs between
291 2009 and 2012. Outflows tended to mirror the increased inputs of nutrients between 1989 and 1993,
292 although at a lower rate especially for P and K (Figure 4) in this period. After 1993, both inflows and
293 outflows of N and P to the soil surface generally exhibited small decreases in absolute terms, with
294 inflow and outflow of K remaining more constant. The outflow of each nutrient includes losses to the
295 atmosphere and to receiving waters, which are particularly high for N, alongside the outflow of
296 nutrient elements in agricultural products. Therefore, a positive net balance between inflows and
297 outflows in Figure 4 indicates nutrient accumulation within the soils of the county, which is the case
298 for N and, particularly, for P. The time series for K differs markedly compared to either N or P. A net
299 deficit for K at the soil surface was observed between 1983 and 1993. Across all production systems,
300 this deficit translated to approximately $8 \text{ kg ha}^{-1} \text{ year}^{-1}$ until 1989, after which the K deficit gradually
301 decreased until inputs and outputs achieved an approximate balance from 1994 until around 2011,
302 when a further increase in K inputs resulted in a net positive balance at the soil surface (Figure 4).
303 Despite the positive soil K balance from around 2011 onwards, the overall soil K balance for the entire
304 time series remains in deficit by 11.6 kg ha^{-1} when averaged across all production systems.

305 **3.3 Time series for individual crop production systems in Huantai county**

306 Due to substantial differences in the total area under production for individual crops in Huantai
307 county, inputs and outputs of nutrients for each production system were normalised by area and are
308 reported as $\text{kg nutrient ha}^{-1}$ in Figures 5-8, allowing direct comparison between individual systems.
309 Total nutrient inputs and NUE for each production system are reported as 5-year averages across the
310 period 1983-2014 in Tables 1 and 2.

311 **3.3.1 Wheat-maize production**

312 In the wheat and maize production system, N and P application rates via inorganic fertiliser have
313 fluctuated over the 30-year period, but have always remained by far the most significant source of
314 both nutrient elements, with application rates consistently exceeding 400 kg N/ha and 50 kg P/ha . In
315 comparison to inorganic fertiliser, other sources of N and P have remained relatively insignificant,
316 although inputs of N and P via the recycling of crop residue, alongside N input via atmospheric
317 deposition, have increased steadily between 1983 and 2014. For K, the input associated with recycling
318 of crop residues grew in parallel with increasing inorganic fertiliser input, to the extent that each
319 source contributed relatively equal masses of K to the total input to soil under wheat and maize
320 production. The increase of residue returned to the soil occurred in two stages with wheat initially

321 reaching a proportion of 90% being returned to the soil in 1995 followed by maize in 2008 (data not
322 shown). Indeed, during the period 2007 to 2011 the input of K via inorganic fertiliser decreased in
323 response to the increase of maize residue returned during that time, so that the return of crop
324 residues to soil represented the most significant source of K to land under wheat and maize
325 production. Manure application to wheat and maize always occurred at extremely low rates and finally
326 decreased to zero after 1999, with vegetable production becoming the main recipient for manure
327 generated in the county. The mass of nutrients that was estimated to be lost did not exhibit the same
328 increase as observed for the input of nutrients during the period 1983-1993, particularly for P and K.
329 Nutrient use efficiency for N and P increased substantially between the beginning and the end of the
330 30-year period, primarily as a result of increased output of nutrients within crop products rather than
331 any substantial decrease in nutrient input. For K, NUE >100% was observed at the beginning of the 30-
332 year period, reflecting greater offtake of K in agricultural products compared to the mass of K input to
333 land under wheat and maize production. With increased K inputs in both inorganic fertiliser and crop
334 residue from 1990 onwards, NUE decreased to below 100% and has remained relatively constant
335 across the period 1990-2014. However, cropland is the only production system that still exhibits a
336 negative soil accumulation for K (-995 kg ha^{-1}) across the whole time period.

337 Generally, the mass of inorganic fertilisers recommended by the Huantai Agricultural Bureau to be
338 applied for wheat production has decreased since 1997, although there was a substantial increase in
339 the recommended rate of K application comparing 1997 to 2004-2014 (Table 3). In 1997 and 2004, N
340 input via inorganic fertiliser, as determined in the SFAs reported above, was within or above the
341 recommended range. In contrast, in 2006 and 2014, fertiliser N input for Huantai county was below
342 the recommended levels and was well matched to the combination of grain and straw uptake.
343 Fertiliser P input was also within or below the recommended range across 1997-2014, being only
344 slightly above combined grain and straw uptake in 2014 and 2006, but in excess of these outputs in
345 2004 and 1997. Other than for 1997, fertiliser inputs of K remained below recommended rates for
346 wheat in Huantai county. For all years, fertiliser K inputs were below the combined uptake in wheat
347 straw and grain, which was also the case for fertiliser recommendations although these
348 recommendations were higher than recorded inputs in the SFAs (Table 3). In all years reported in Table
349 3, the application of N as inorganic fertiliser exceeded wheat grain output by factors between 1.3 and
350 1.6. The application of P as inorganic fertiliser was also at least 1.3 times the wheat grain output and
351 reached a maximum of 1.9 times grain output. For K, recommended fertiliser application rates were
352 at least twice the crop grain output.

353 **3.3.2 Other arable crops (soybean, peanut, cotton, potato and sweet potato)**

354 On other arable crops, inorganic fertiliser was also the main source of nutrients, with application rates
355 that approach those for land under wheat/maize production, despite much lower output of nutrients
356 in crop products for these other arable crops (Figure 6). The application rates for inorganic fertiliser
357 fluctuated dramatically over the 30-year time series, ranging from $<50 \text{ kg ha}^{-1}$ to $>400 \text{ kg ha}^{-1}$ for N
358 between 2003 and 2008, and from $<40 \text{ kg ha}^{-1}$ to approaching 100 kg ha^{-1} for P between 2006 and
359 2009. These variations in the input of inorganic fertiliser for N and P show no consistent trend over
360 the 30-year period. The input of inorganic K fertiliser remained below 50 kg ha^{-1} until 2000, after which
361 it increased rapidly to reach approximately 150 kg ha^{-1} in 2014. The mass of both N and P output from
362 Huantai county in crop products has been approximately equal to the mass of each element lost to
363 the environment between 1983-2014, with some periods in which the losses exceeded the output in
364 crop products, including between 2006 and 2013 for N where losses exceeded crop output by a factor

365 of up to 4.3. For K, the output in crop products has remained substantially above the mass lost to the
366 environment throughout the 30-year period. Nutrient use efficiency for these other arable crops in
367 Huantai county was extremely low (around 10%) for all nutrients in the period 2010 - 2014 (Table 2).

368 **3.3.3 Vegetables**

369 Vegetable production was associated with the highest nutrient input rates across all three elements
370 throughout the 30-year time series (Table 2), which is at least partly justified by the relatively high
371 nutrient output associated with vegetable products compared to other production systems in Huantai
372 county (Figure 7). This is consistent with a relatively high NUE for vegetable production, certainly with
373 respect to N and K, compared to other production systems (Table 2). The inorganic fertiliser
374 application rates for N and P decreased gradually between 1983 and 2000 (Figure 7), before increasing
375 dramatically between 2005 and 2010, reaching (for N) or even exceeding (for P) fertiliser application
376 rates in 1983. The greatest proportion of the manure produced by livestock in the county has always
377 been applied to land under vegetable production, which could reach levels of over 90% of the total of
378 the total manure produced in the county, with the rest distributed between the other production
379 systems (data not shown). It is reflected in the large proportion of the total nutrient input to land
380 under vegetable production that is associated with manure, especially for P and K. The amount of
381 manure applied has fluctuated with the livestock numbers within the county. However, a maximum
382 threshold for N input via manure has been set beyond which excess manure is assumed to be exported
383 from the county. This threshold has been met for most years for land under vegetable production
384 (data not shown). The output of nutrients within vegetable products remained fairly constant between
385 1983 and approximately 2000, after which it almost doubled for N, P and K. Estimated losses of N to
386 the environment from land under vegetable production exceeded losses from land under all other
387 forms of production in the county, approaching 400 kg ha⁻¹ both in the early and later stages of the
388 30-year time series. Substantial losses of P and K were also estimated from vegetable production, with
389 only fruit production being associated with similar losses for these elements.

390 **3.3.4 Fruit**

391 Nutrient inputs to land under fruit production have followed similar patterns to vegetable production
392 in Huantai county (Figure 8), reaching total input rates that are second only to land under vegetable
393 production (Table 1). Because the mass of nutrients output in fruit products has remained relatively
394 low, NUE for fruit production in Huantai county is also low, reaching a maximum of only 10% for N,
395 9% for P and 25% for K (Table 2). Manure has been a particularly important source of both P and K,
396 and second only to inorganic fertiliser as a source of N, for fruit production. The estimated losses of N
397 and P to the environment from land under fruit production have exceeded the mass of N and P output
398 in fruit products for much of the period 1983-2014. However, between 1997 and 2000 there was a
399 substantial increase (a factor of 13 across all elements) in the output within fruit production. At least
400 for K, this resulted in the nutrient output in products exceeding the estimated losses to the
401 environment from 1999 onwards.

402

403 4 Discussion

404 4.1 Nutrient use efficiency in Huantai county

405 When averaged across all production systems, NUE for both N and P increased by approximately 20%
406 within Huantai county between 1983 and 2014 (Table 2), although the most pronounced increases in
407 NUE occurred before the late 1990s, particularly for N. Because the definition of NUE in the research
408 described above deliberately includes all nutrient inputs other than crop residue, absolute NUE is
409 lower than has been reported for similar production systems when only the input of fertiliser is
410 considered. For example, in a recent analysis of wheat-maize production in Huantai county, Zhang et
411 al. (2017) reported a NUE for wheat that approached 83% in 2012. However, our underlying analyses
412 are consistent with those of Zhang et al., with NUE for wheat in the period 2010-2014 exceeding 76%
413 when only fertiliser input is considered (Table 3). The substantial reduction in NUE that is observed
414 when additional sources of nutrients beyond inorganic fertiliser are considered highlights the
415 importance of properly accounting for all inputs in nutrient management plans, if more sustainable
416 agricultural production is to be realised.

417 Variation in NUE over time has also been examined at larger spatial scales across the whole of China.
418 For example, Ma et al. (2012) examined NUE for N and P across 31 provinces in China for 1980 and
419 2005, highlighting a declining trend in N-NUE (40 to 33%) and P-NUE (65 to 37%) for Shandong
420 province, within which Huantai county is located, consistent with the overall development across all
421 of China (N-NUE: 32 to 26%; P-PUE: 59 – 36%). The contrasting trajectories for NUE at province level
422 and at the level of Huantai county indicates that other counties in Shandong province are likely to
423 have seen substantial reductions in NUE over the past 30 years, in contrast to the increase we report
424 for Huantai county. This can simply be due to a different crop mix in different areas as was pointed
425 out by Zhang et al., (2015). This highlights the likely heterogeneity of nutrient stocks and flows when
426 considered at different spatial scales. In turn, this emphasises the importance of undertaking analyses
427 of nutrient stocks and flows at spatial scales that are aligned with the structural organisation of bodies
428 able to deliver change in agricultural policy and practice, specifically the county agricultural bureau in
429 the research reported here.

430 Increasing NUE in Huantai country between 1983 and 2014 was primarily due to increases in nutrient
431 output associated with higher crop yields, rather than decreases in N or P inputs. Substantial yield
432 increases (69% for cereals, 43% for vegetables and 23% for fruit) have been observed globally during
433 this time period, with China being no exception (FAOSTAT, 2014). The drivers of increased yields
434 around the world are associated with the introduction of improved crop varieties, but also with
435 changes in management practices such as fertiliser input and mechanisation (Hazell, 2009). Huantai is
436 considered one of the most advanced counties in China with respect to the introduction of agricultural
437 technology, including compound fertiliser formulations and mechanisation (Zhang et al., 2017;
438 Huantai Agricultural Bureau, 1993). The introduction of higher-yielding varieties of wheat and maize
439 in the 1990s and 2000s has been responsible for increases in NUE for land under this form of
440 production within Huantai county, whilst local government support for the purchase of agricultural
441 machinery has enhanced crop residue incorporation within soil and reduced excessive fertiliser
442 application (Zhang et al., 2017). However, production systems in Huantai county other than wheat-
443 maize have also seen distinct increases in yield due to changes in agricultural practices over the past
444 30 years that have enhanced NUE. For example, a substantial increase in yield was also associated
445 with the switch from open-field to greenhouse vegetable production around 2000, resulting in higher

446 nutrient masses associated with crop outputs that has persisted until the end of the time series in
447 2014.

448 Despite the increase in NUE for N and P between 1983 and 2014 when averaged across all crop
449 production in Huantai county, considerable differences in NUE were observed between individual
450 production systems, consistent with previous research (Miao et al., 2011). Particularly low NUE was
451 observed for the production of other arable crops and fruit, where NUE remained $\leq 25\%$ across all the
452 nutrients in the period 2010-2014. To our knowledge, no previous research has assessed the NUE
453 associated with the production of other arable crops in China, such as cotton, peanut, soybean, potato
454 and sweet potato. This group of crops as well as fruit was associated within the lowest NUE values for
455 N, P and K in our analyses, indicating that further research would be helpful in order to better
456 understand how NUE associated with these crops can be enhanced. Particularly, in regard to fruit a
457 better estimation of the nutrient uptake associated with biomass increase would be desirable. Still,
458 our data are consistent with other research in China that has shown low NUE in fruit and vegetable
459 production, due to excessive inputs of inorganic fertiliser and manure (Gao et al., 2012; Lu et al., 2016).
460 This partly reflects risk-aversion among farmers who are concerned not to reduce the yield of high-
461 value fruit and vegetable crops, which is also reflected in fertiliser recommendations that often advise
462 nutrient applications in excess of crop demand (Bellarby et al., 2017; Lu et al., 2016, 2014; Smith and
463 Siciliano, 2015). Furthermore, manure is not widely recognised as a nutrient source in fruit and
464 vegetable production, but rather as a soil improver (Bellarby et al., 2017). However, our analyses
465 suggest that manure, in combination with crop residue, could account for a significant proportion of
466 the demand for P and K exerted by vegetable production, as well as the entire N, P and K demand
467 associated with fruit production, as has also been highlighted in some previous research (Gao et al.,
468 2012; Lu et al., 2016). However, the actual contribution of manure to the crop nutrition will depend
469 on the availability of these nutrients. The lack of accurate characterisation of the available nutrient
470 content of manures is one of the significant barriers to the improved use of manure within agricultural
471 production within China (Chadwick et al., 2015). This is aggravated by the widespread absence of the
472 machinery required to apply manure to land (Ma et al., 2012).

473 The patterns of K use in crop production in Huantai county contrast strongly with those for N and P.
474 Nutrient use efficiencies $>100\%$ for K in the period to approximately 1995 indicate that soil reserves
475 of K were effectively mined during this time in order to support production. Prior to the wider
476 introduction of chemical fertilisers in the mid 1960s (Miao et al., 2011), farmers in the county did not
477 experience K limitation of crop production, because yields and therefore crop demands were lower
478 and because manure was more heavily recycled to soils thereby supplying sufficient inputs of K (Meng
479 et al., 2000). However, the increase in inorganic fertiliser use in China has generally reduced the input
480 of organic materials to agricultural soils (Chadwick et al., 2015). Early use of inorganic fertilisers mainly
481 involved the supply of N and P, meaning that crop demand exceeded K input and that net removal of
482 K from soil reserves began. The depletion of soil K reserves in China was identified as a serious problem
483 by the World Bank in the late 1990s, and one that could even lead to an irreversible soil degradation
484 (Sheldrick et al., 2003). Compound fertilisers were gradually introduced for different crops to address
485 this problem (Huantai Agricultural Bureau, 2014). After 1995 the increases in the inputs of K to soil by
486 farmers in Huantai county have reversed the mining of soil K, resulting in NUE $<100\%$ and a net surplus
487 of K at the soil surface (Figure 4). Important sources of K within the county extend beyond only
488 inorganic fertiliser to include crop residues for the wheat-maize production system (Figure 5) and
489 manure for the vegetable (Figure 7) and fruit production systems (Figure 8). These additional K inputs

490 have been recognised by farmers in the county who have decreased fertiliser K input in wheat-maize
491 systems in parallel with increasing incorporation of maize residue within soils (Figure 5). However, the
492 input of K to the wheat/maize system has proven insufficient after 2005, leading to increased fertiliser
493 K inputs in recent years (Figure 5). K input levels now exceed the immediate crop demand, which for
494 the wheat maize system has still not been sufficient to replenish the K mined in early years.

495 **4.2 Nutrient balance at the soil surface in Huantai county**

496 Despite the increases in NUE reported over the past 30 years for Huantai county, considerable
497 surpluses of N, P and K have been observed across all production systems (with the exception of K in
498 the wheat maize system) during this period. The N estimated to be accumulated in soil under the
499 wheat maize system in this study (1.3 t ha^{-1} , derived from data in supplementary material) is consistent
500 with a reported soil carbon stock increase of 12 t ha^{-1} in the same time period (Liao et al., 2014)
501 assuming an approximate C:N ratio in soil of 1:10. A net surplus of nutrients at the soil surface may
502 previously have been justified on the basis of needing to enhance the fertility of much agricultural
503 land in China (Ju et al., 2004). However, this is not currently a requirement for large areas of land
504 under agricultural production in the North China Plain. A continued surplus of nutrients at the soil
505 surface has two potentially significant implications. Firstly, the surplus increases the risk of immediate
506 export of nutrients to the environment and the adverse impacts associated with nutrient export from
507 agricultural land. For example, the average export of N between 2010 and 2014 to the atmosphere or
508 to receiving waters was at least 40% of the mass taken up by the different crops in Huantai county. In
509 extreme cases, losses of N exceeded the mass taken up by crops by a factor of 1.8 for other arable
510 crops and three for fruit. The environmental impact of excess nutrient leaching through the soil profile
511 has already been documented locally for the concentration of nitrate in groundwater within Huantai
512 county (Liu et al., 2005; Xue et al., 2015). More broadly, elevated nitrate levels in groundwater are a
513 widespread problem in intensively farmed areas in China (OECD, 2007; World Bank, 2006), as in many
514 other countries. Such pollution can impose significant economic costs in terms of water treatment
515 requirements or, ultimately, the loss of available resources. Our estimates of losses are very
516 conservative compared to other studies and our total N losses amount to only 77 kg ha^{-1} in 2005 in
517 comparison to a total of 237 kg ha^{-1} losses of N reported by Ma et al., (2012). However, the total N
518 losses were still at least 40% of applied fertiliser, which is consistent with other Chinese studies
519 mentioned in Ma et al., (2012).

520 Secondly, even after accounting for losses of nutrient elements to the atmosphere or to water, a
521 positive nutrient balance was observed at the soil surface across all nutrients and production systems
522 (with K in wheat/maize being in exception to this), indicating that net accumulation of nutrients
523 occurred within the agricultural soils of Huantai county (mean soil accumulation of N: 1743 kg ha^{-1} , P:
524 863 kg ha^{-1} and K: -872 kg ha^{-1}), which was confirmed indirectly via increased soil organic carbon levels
525 (Liao et al., 2014) and elevated nitrate groundwater levels (Liu et al., 2005) in the same area but also
526 directly by elevated soil nutrient levels across China (e.g. Chen et al., 2017; Yan et al., 2013). Increases
527 in soil nutrient concentrations above optimum levels for crop production are known to increase the
528 risk of diffuse water pollution from agriculture, a risk that may persist as a legacy of previous
529 agricultural practices many decades after adjustments are made to the rate at which new nutrient
530 inputs are applied to agricultural soils (Haygarth et al., 2014; Sharpley et al., 2013; Wang et al., 2013a).

531

532 **4.3 Opportunities for future improvements in nutrient use efficiency in agriculture** 533 **within Huantai county**

534 Generally, the output of each nutrient element in crop products has stabilised since the mid-1990s in
535 Huantai county (Figure 4). Therefore, further increases in NUE, leading to reductions in the adverse
536 impacts associated with nutrient export from agricultural land, should focus on closer alignment
537 between nutrient inputs and crop demand. The SFAs reported above highlight a number of key areas
538 in which future agricultural policy and practice could try to deliver beneficial change in nutrient
539 management. Firstly, there remain opportunities to optimise inorganic fertiliser applications within
540 the county. Generally, research and advice is often more advanced for cereal crops in China, due to
541 their major role in ensuring national food security (Dai et al., 2013) and the large areas of land under
542 this form of cultivation. For example, a relatively large number of studies have examined nutrient
543 management within wheat and maize production (e.g. Cai et al., 2002; Chen et al., 2014; Dai et al.,
544 2013; Hartmann et al., 2014; Ju et al., 2009). This is reflected in fertiliser recommendations, which are
545 generally well-matched to total crop output (Table 3). Relatively widespread mechanisation of
546 fertiliser application to cereal crops in Huantai county has also helped to reduce the excessive input
547 of inorganic fertiliser (Zhang et al., 2017). However, it is clear from our SFAs that parallel work still
548 needs to be done in other production systems (fruit, vegetable and other arable crops) to reduce
549 excessive applications of inorganic fertilisers. Whilst the area of land under these forms of production
550 in Huantai county is much lower than for the wheat-maize rotation, the very high rates of inorganic
551 fertiliser application to these areas of land, coupled with possible increases in the area of land under
552 these forms of production as diets change within China (Huang et al., 2014; Yan et al., 2013), indicate
553 that further attempts to limit excessive inorganic fertiliser applications to non-cereal crops is
554 necessary. The priority to make these systems more sustainable is to drastically reduce the current
555 chemical fertiliser input and take the contribution of nutrients from manure into account (Chen et al.,
556 2017; Yan et al., 2013).

557 Secondly, there is clear need to appropriately account for additional sources of nutrients that are input
558 to agricultural soils as part of future nutrient management strategies, across all nutrient elements and
559 crop systems. This is illustrated through our observations of similar NUEs for both wheat-maize and
560 vegetable production within Huantai county, despite the fact that inorganic fertiliser management is
561 often deemed to be well-matched to wheat-maize demand within the county. Our observations
562 regarding NUE partly reflect the substantial input of nutrients from sources other than inorganic
563 fertiliser, in particular crop residues to wheat-maize systems and manure to vegetable systems. More
564 generally, improvements in NUE could be generated by adjusting inorganic fertiliser applications to
565 account for crop nutrient supply from: atmospheric N deposition; crop residue; manure and soil
566 reserves. Clearly, there are significant challenges in the use and accurate accounting for nutrients
567 within these sources. For example, the mineralisation of nutrients input to soil within crop residues or
568 manure is critical for subsequent supply to crops, but the extent of mineralisation varies significantly
569 depending on factors such as soil temperature, microbial community composition and soil nutrient
570 status (Hartmann et al., 2014). Further, following the initial return of crop residue to soils, soil organic
571 carbon levels will increase and may lead to the immobilisation of nutrients with the increase in organic
572 matter (Liao et al., 2014), which in turn will decrease N₂O and NO emissions (Yao et al., 2017).
573 Enhanced use of livestock manure will require further mechanisation of agriculture in China in order
574 to support the distribution and application of manure to a more diverse range of production systems
575 in ways that overcome current barriers, including labour and time costs associated with manure

576 application (Hou et al., 2013) and the lack of characterisation of the nutrient content of manures
577 (Chadwick et al., 2015). Currently, such barriers result in no manure application to cropland in Huantai
578 county. More effective use of the substantial nutrient stocks within agricultural soils of Huantai county
579 will require an effective soil sampling and analysis programme, coupled with an ability to modify
580 inorganic fertiliser recommendations and the composition of compound fertilisers in ways that
581 response to the spatial heterogeneity of soil nutrient supply (Sharpley et al., 2013). Despite these
582 challenges, it is clear that a more integrated framework for nutrient management in Huantai county,
583 accounting for all forms of nutrient supply, would help to deliver future increases in NUE. Examples of
584 such integrated nutrient management frameworks exist in countries beyond China (e.g Defra, 2010)
585 and could provide the basis for the development of a parallel framework that reflects the specific
586 conditions within China. However, more importantly there is existing work in China on, for example,
587 integrated soil-crop system management (Chen et al., 2014) or the use of a nutrient decision support
588 system (Chuan et al., 2013) as well as more generic recommendations on nutrient and manure
589 management (Bai et al., 2016; Chen et al., 2017; Yan et al., 2013).

590

591 **4.4 Policy implications and conclusions**

592 The results reported above demonstrate the value of analysing nutrient management practices over
593 time, for different agricultural production systems and with varying spatial resolution. For intensive
594 production systems and large areas representative of the North China Plain, use of inorganic fertilisers,
595 manures and crop residues have been shown to remain inefficient in many cases and to present risks
596 to the environment. National-scale SFAs are useful to identify aggregate trends and any need for policy
597 reform at the highest level. However, the research reported here also demonstrates that drawing from
598 data readily available for most counties in China, an SFA can provide important insights into nutrient
599 management practices at more local scales to inform county-level administrators and technicians.
600 More detail than was presented here can be drawn from the SFA depending on the requirements of
601 county officials. Making use of this kind of data will also give individuals and organisations a means to
602 monitor the impact of any policy and practice changes that may be implemented.

603 For policy in China, the headline message is the need to complete a shift from mobilisation of
604 resources for production and growth, to management of resources for efficiency and sustainability.
605 Improved approaches are needed in China to rebalance the importance of productivity with
606 sustainable stewardship of farm inputs and natural resources (Smith et al., 2015). Evidence-based
607 nutrient management strategies, farm advice and compound fertiliser formulations, all well-tailored
608 to farming systems, farm characteristics and locations, can be seen as public goods (Bellarby et al.,
609 2017), that will require coordinated development and delivery by the public extension system,
610 research institutes, local government and input suppliers.

611 Use of multi-year monitoring and analyses will inform such strategies by reducing uncertainty and
612 identifying the impacts of policies, trends or shocks. As agrarian structures and farming systems
613 become more diversified and market-oriented in China, through further commercialisation and
614 processes of land transfer (consolidation of land holdings through rental and transfer arrangements;
615 Smith and Siciliano, 2015), there is an increasing need for local solutions that reflect the heterogeneity
616 of nutrient management requirements at sub-province, and even sub-county, scales. This need is
617 illustrated, for example, by the contrasts in NUE between the wheat/maize and vegetable and fruit

618 farming systems revealed for Huantai county in the SFAs reported above. As an increasingly
619 commercialised farming sector responds to the changing patterns of food demand from a rapidly
620 urbanising society, nutrient intensive crops and production systems will expand, particularly in peri-
621 urban areas, and nutrient management plans and farm advice provision must become similarly
622 dynamic and responsive. Integral to this, should be that localised and farming system-focused nutrient
623 management plans better recognise and account for the crop nutrients exploitable in soil stocks,
624 manures and crop residues. Soil nutrient stocks provide a key example of a localised resource that
625 requires conservation and management for optimisation of productivity, sustainability and
626 environmental protection. Achievement of the targeting and responsiveness suggested here will
627 require further investment in capacities for monitoring, analyses and coordinated farmer advice
628 provision. The latter will only be achieved through a variety of means, including print and digital media
629 and on-farm trials and demonstrations (Smith et al., 2015).

630 Ideally there would be capacity to recognise and provide for soil nutrient status by farm or plot and
631 how this varies depending on the historic input of nutrients. However, the number and fragmentation
632 of farm holdings will remain at least a partial barrier to this for some time, although new remote
633 sensing and other information technologies may increasingly find application. A successful knowledge
634 transfer strategy is always associated with challenges even in less difficult areas (Rahn, 2013). Defining
635 farmer types according to their farm system characteristics (e.g. farm size, land management
636 practices, outputs) and social characteristics (e.g. age, income, education), and developing a tailored
637 approach for each category may address the need for individual advice within current practical
638 limitations. This is a task for county Agricultural Bureaus in China, and it is appropriate to continue to
639 concentrate public resources for research and planning at county and sub-county levels, whilst
640 evaluating alternative approaches, the most successful of which can then be adapted for wider
641 implementation in China.

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854 **Table 1: Nutrient use efficiencies (%) for different time periods across 1983-2014.**

| Crop | N | | | P | | | K | | |
|----------------------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|------------|-----------|-----------|
| | 1983 | 1996 | 2010 | 1983 | 1996 | 2010 | 1983 | 1996 | 2010 |
| | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| | 1987 | 2000 | 2014 | 1987 | 2000 | 2014 | 1987 | 2000 | 2014 |
| Wheat/maize | 34 | 52 | 52 | 50 | 56 | 72 | 178 | 52 | 60 |
| Other arable | 18 | 14 | 5 | 23 | 6 | 6 | 110 | 25 | 12 |
| Vegetable | 38 | 45 | 57 | 31 | 63 | 47 | 200 | 62 | 87 |
| Fruit | 6 | 10 | 10 | 5 | 9 | 7 | 25 | 19 | 23 |
| Overall crops | 32 | 47 | 51 | 44 | 53 | 66 | 166 | 52 | 61 |
| Livestock | 22 | 42 | 22 | 9 | 15 | 9 | 7 | 11 | 7 |

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862 **Table 2: Total nutrient input in kg ha⁻¹ for different time periods across 1983-2014.**

| Crop | N | | | P | | | K | | |
|----------------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|
| | 1983 | 1996 | 2010 | 1983 | 1996 | 2010 | 1983 | 1996 | 2010 |
| | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| | 1987 | 2000 | 2014 | 1987 | 2000 | 2014 | 1987 | 2000 | 2014 |
| Wheat/maize | 494 | 630 | 684 | 63 | 108 | 94 | 41 | 250 | 296 |
| Other arable | 250 | 220 | 379 | 28 | 66 | 70 | 30 | 67 | 159 |
| Vegetable | 1316 | 1057 | 1676 | 414 | 198 | 514 | 190 | 420 | 643 |
| Fruit | 639 | 745 | 1115 | 99 | 142 | 216 | 116 | 335 | 375 |
| Overall crops | 460 | 654 | 702 | 63 | 118 | 105 | 43 | 259 | 301 |

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866 **Table 3: Fertiliser recommendations (FR), estimated^a fertiliser**
867 **input (FI), actual grain output (GO) and straw output (SO) for**
868 **wheat production in Huantai county for the respective year (kg**
869 **ha⁻¹).**

| Year | Item | N | P | K |
|-------------|-------------|-------------|----------|----------|
| 2014 | FR | 232 - 246 | 39 - 45 | 100 |
| | FI | 212 | 41 | 87 |
| | GO | 166 | 28 | 33 |
| | SO | 50 | 6 | 82 |
| 2006 | FR | 222 - 273 | 52 | 100 |
| | FI | 217 | 38 | 71 |
| | GO | 171 | 29 | 34 |
| | SO | 48 | 5 | 79 |
| 2004 | FR | 207 | 56 – 67 | 116 |
| | FI | 252 | 52 | 78 |
| | GO | 159 | 27 | 32 |
| | SO | 46 | 5 | 76 |
| 1997 | FR | 214.5 – 288 | 59 | 75 |
| | FI | 257 | 54 | 78 |
| | GO | 172 | 30 | 34 |
| | SO | 52 | 6 | 85 |

870 ^a wheat fertiliser input has been estimated by assuming that half
871 of the fertiliser applied on the wheat/maize system is applied on
872 wheat.

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876 **Figure 1: Location of Huantai County in Shandong province within east China.**

877

878 **Figure 2: Area of land under four major agricultural production systems and livestock units (LU) for**
879 **Huantai county from 1983 - 2014. Livestock units were calculated according to information given on**
880 **the Eurostat website**
881 **(http://epp.eurostat.ec.europa.eu/statistics_explained/index.php/Glossary:LSU) using the**
882 **following conversion factors to get LUs: cattle = 1, sheep = 0.1, pigs = 0.3, broiler = 0.007, layers =**
883 **0.014, other poultry = 0.03, rabbit = 0.02. Data is available for each year for all date series but only**
884 **marked by symbols for the wheat/maize and other arable crop system.**

885

886 **Figure 3: Conceptual design and nutrient flows for Huantai county detailing 5 agricultural systems**
887 **wheat/maize, other arable crops, vegetable, fruit and livestock. All values are 5 year averages in**
888 **t/year for the years 2010 – 2014, N (bold), P (normal) and K (cursive). The contribution to the input**
889 **from the different sources is provided as a bar chart representing their % contribution. The output**
890 **is termed as product for crops and livestock.**

891

892

893 **Figure 4: Total inflow (fertiliser, seed, N fixation, air deposition, irrigation, straw) and outflow**
894 **(straw, grain and losses) of the soil in Huantai county. Outflow is the sum of products and losses to**
895 **the environment. NB different y-axes scales for individual elements.**

896

897 **Figure 5: Nutrient flows of wheat/maize. All flows are presented separately here. NB different y-**
898 **axes scales for individual elements.**

899 **Figure 6: Nutrient flows of other arable crop. All flows are presented separately here. NB different**
900 **y-axes scales for individual elements.**

901 **Figure 7: Nutrient flows of vegetable. All flows are presented separately here. NB different y-axes**
902 **scales for individual elements.**

903 **Figure 8: Nutrient flows of fruit. All flows are presented separately here. NB different y-axes scales**
904 **for individual elements.**

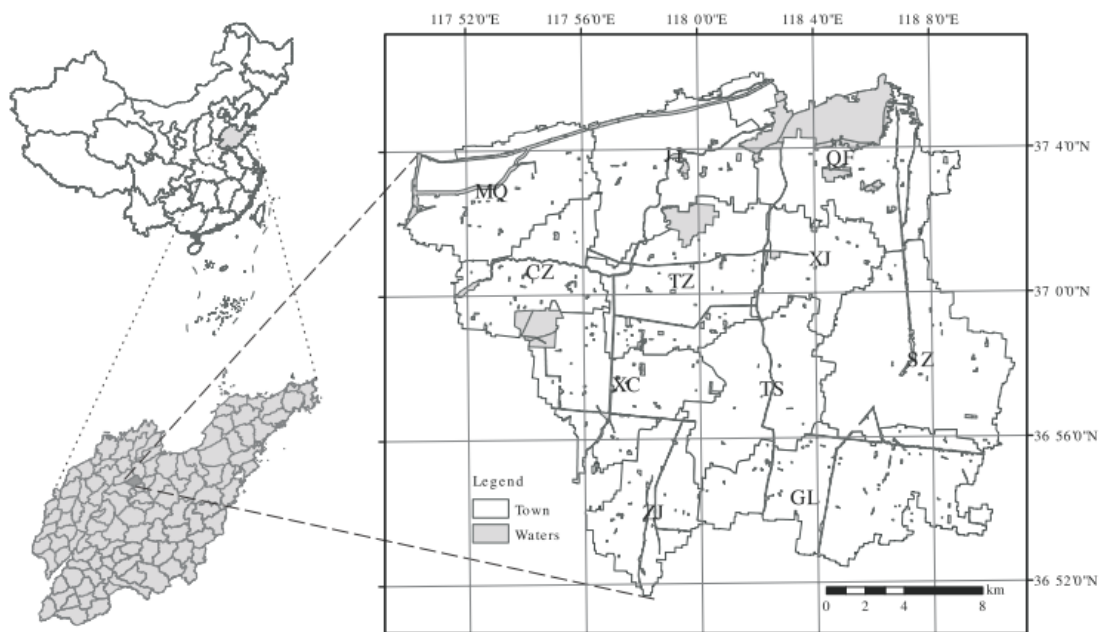
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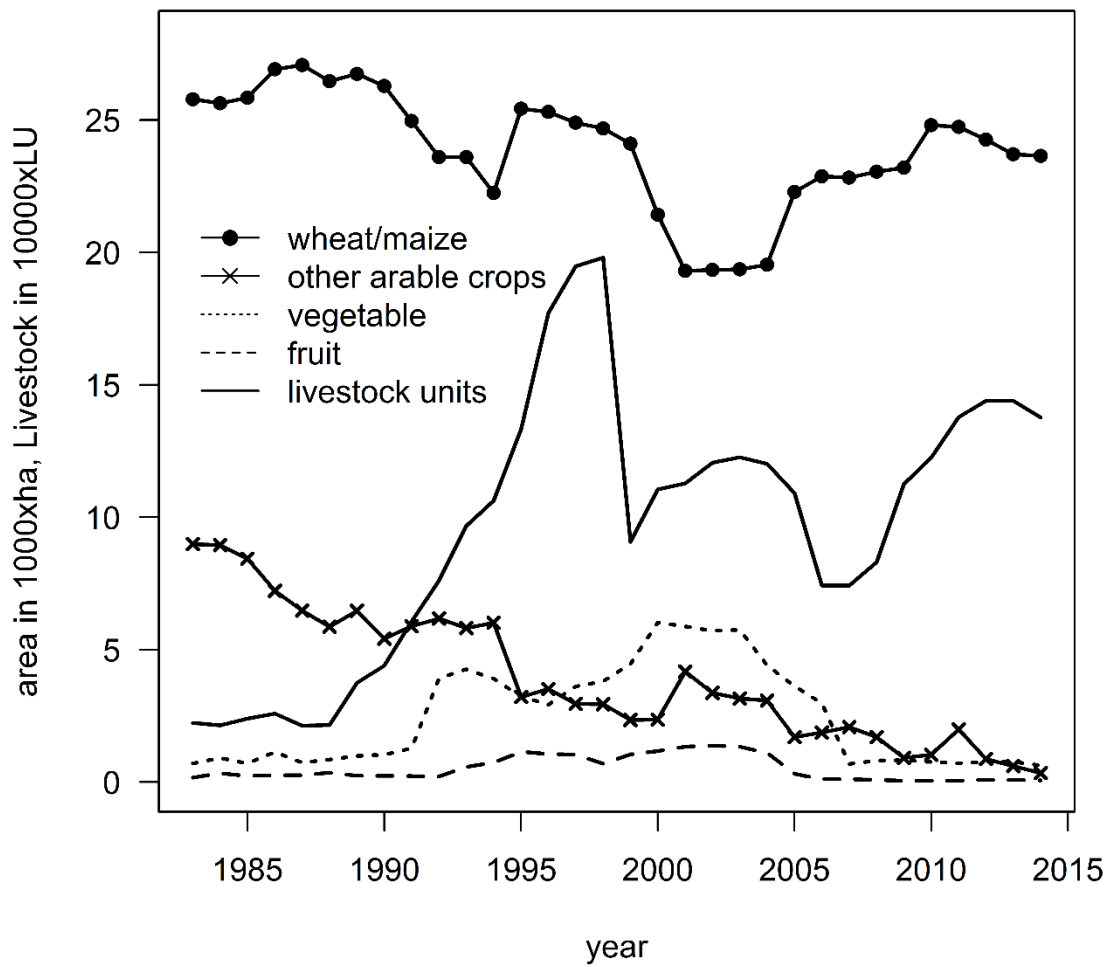
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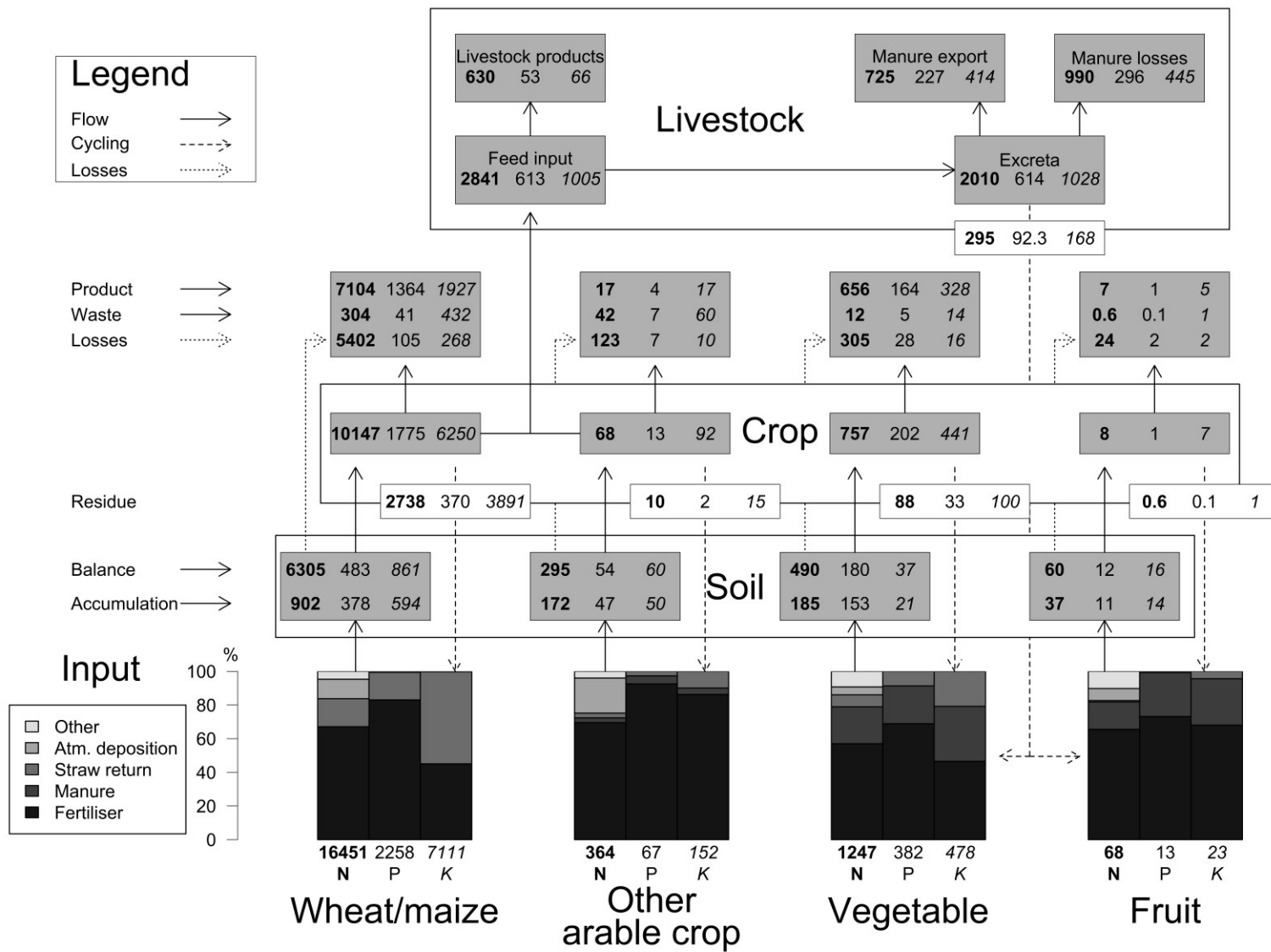
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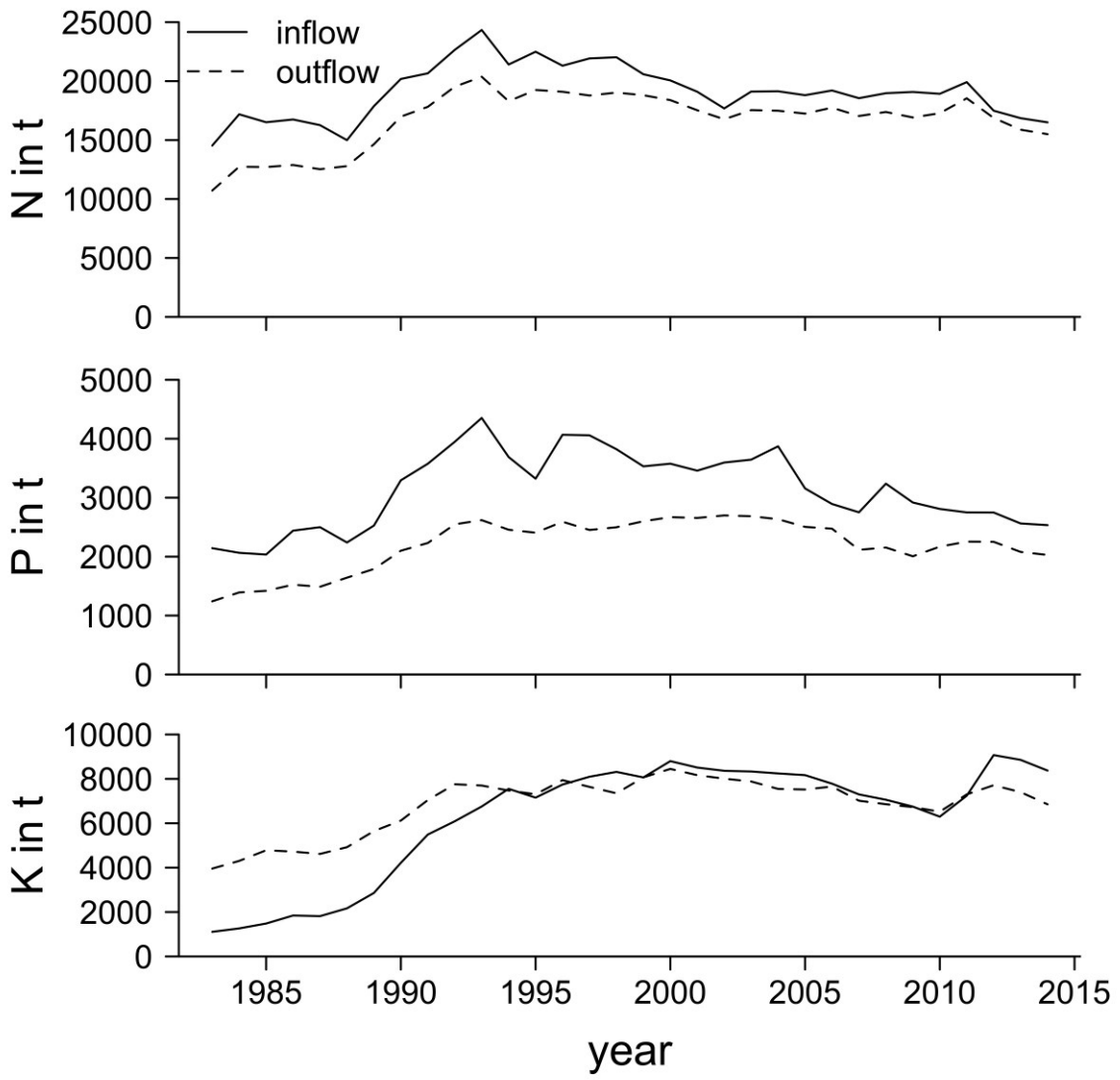
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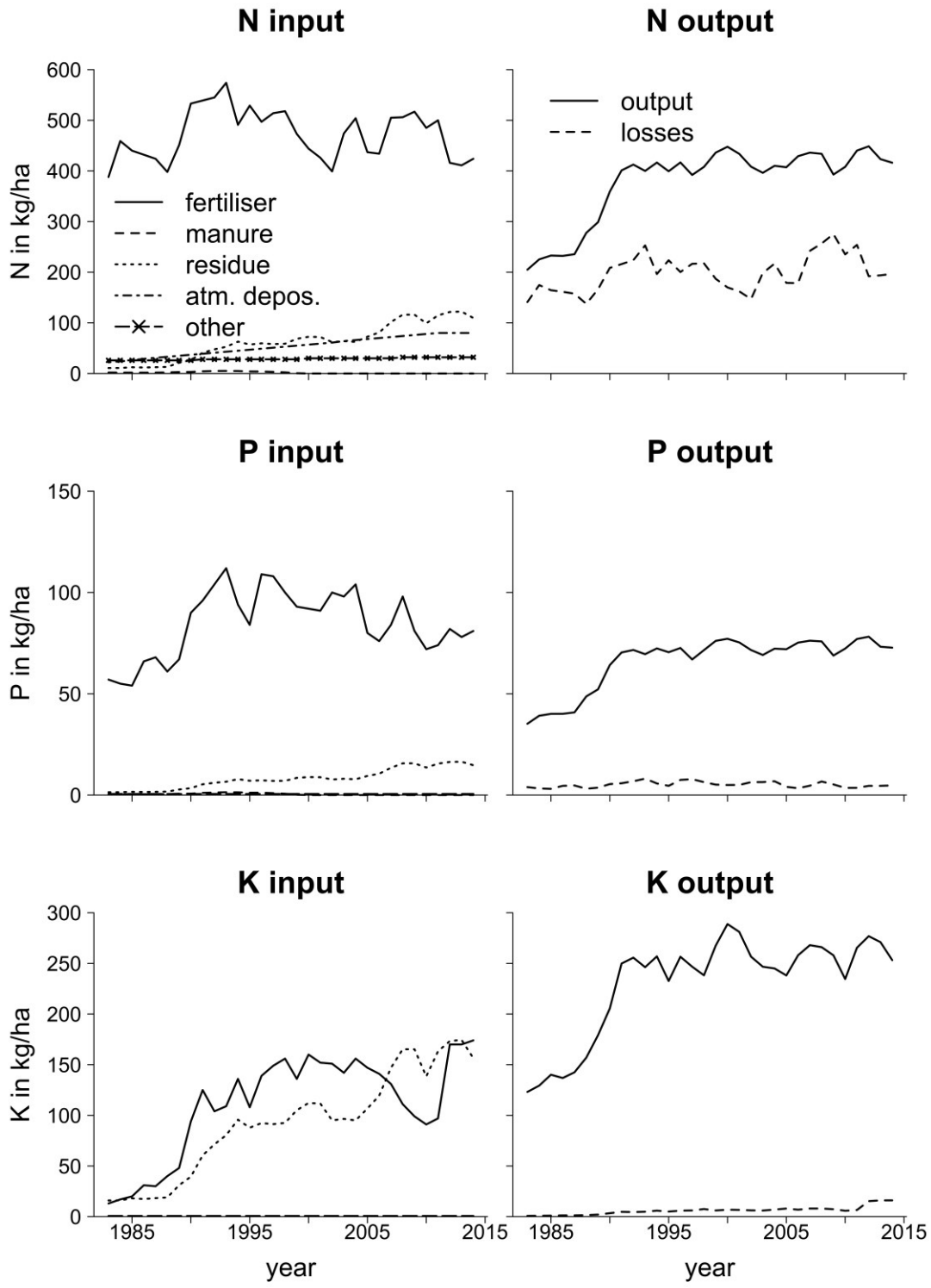


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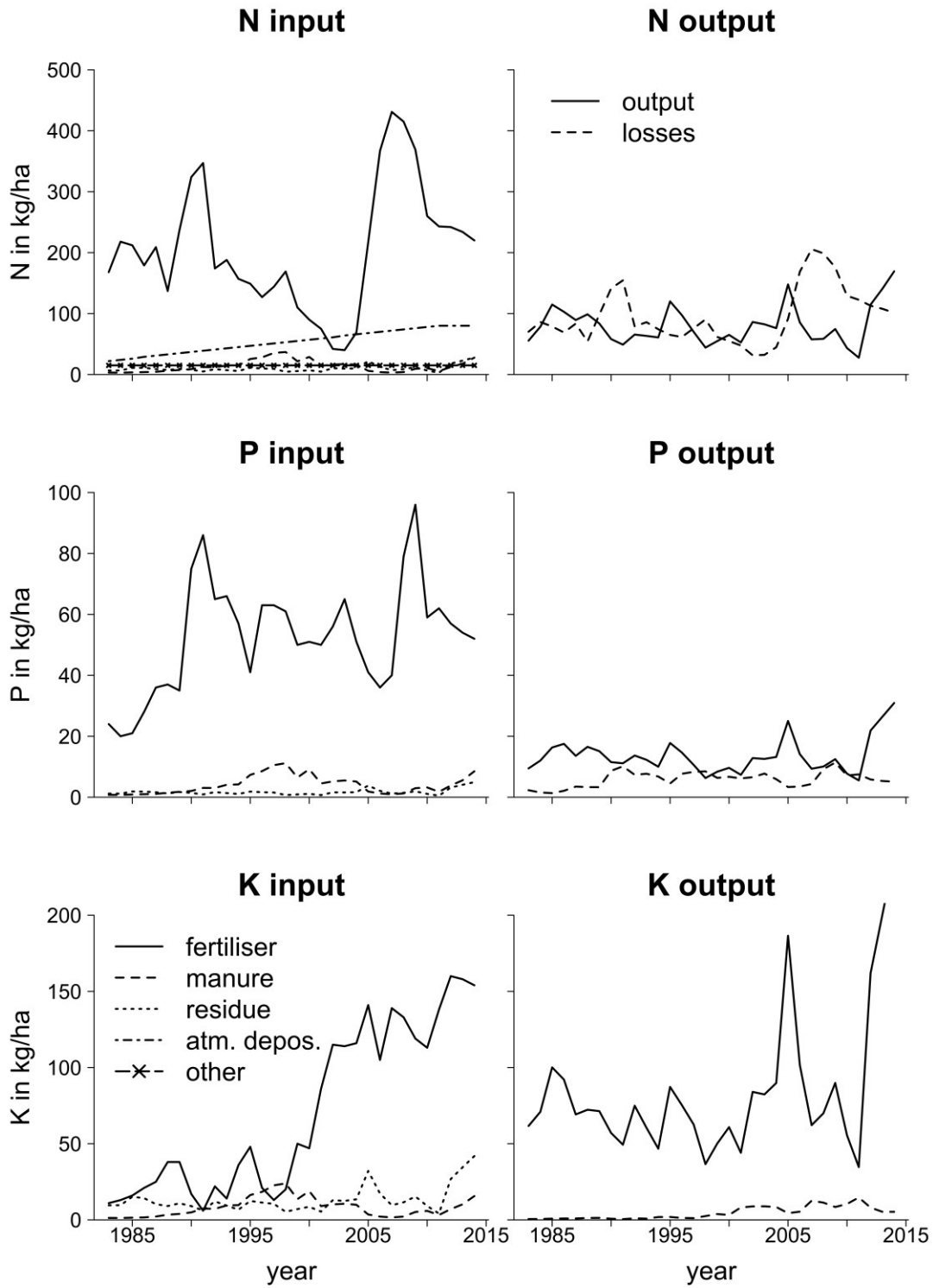
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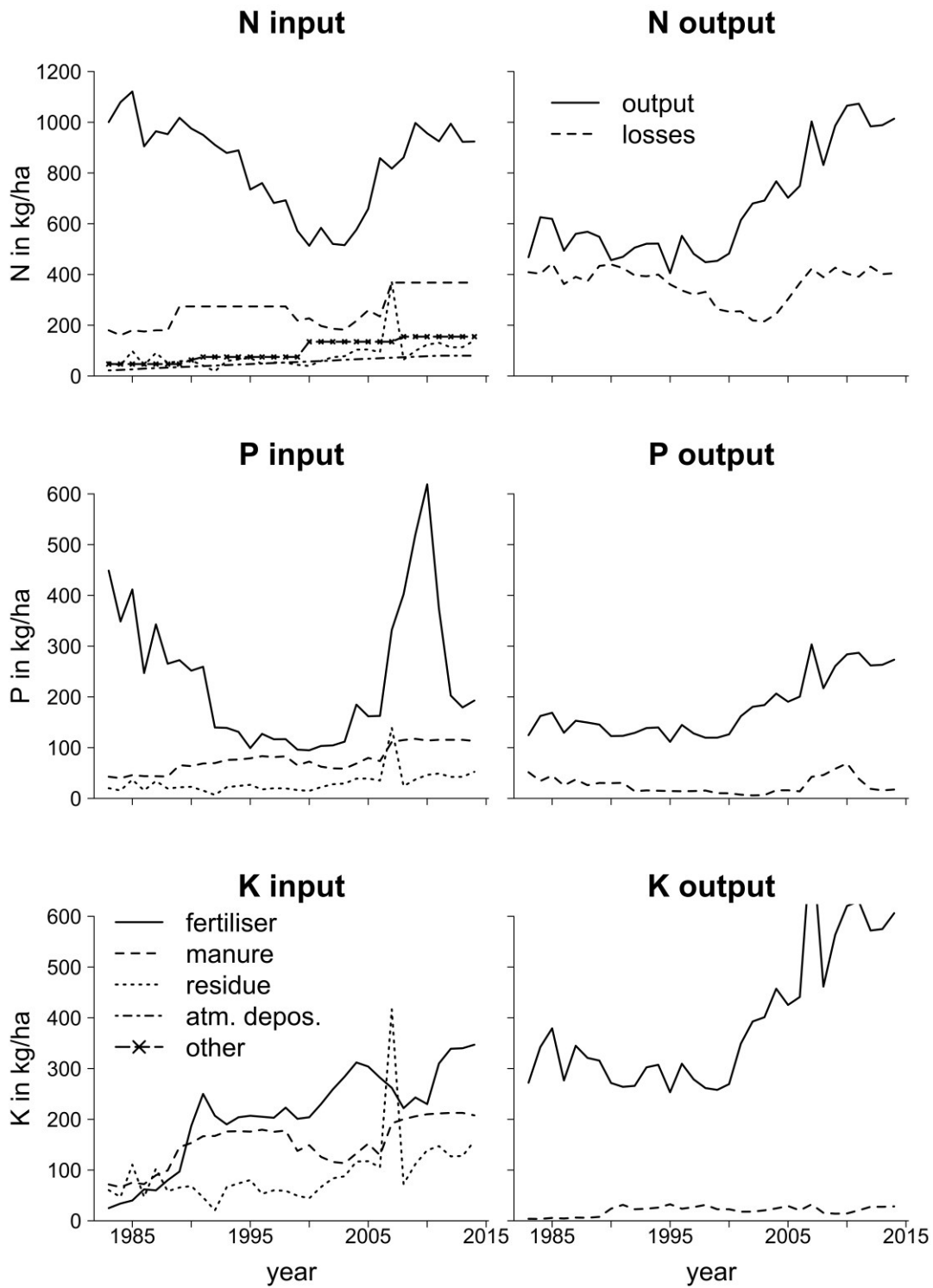
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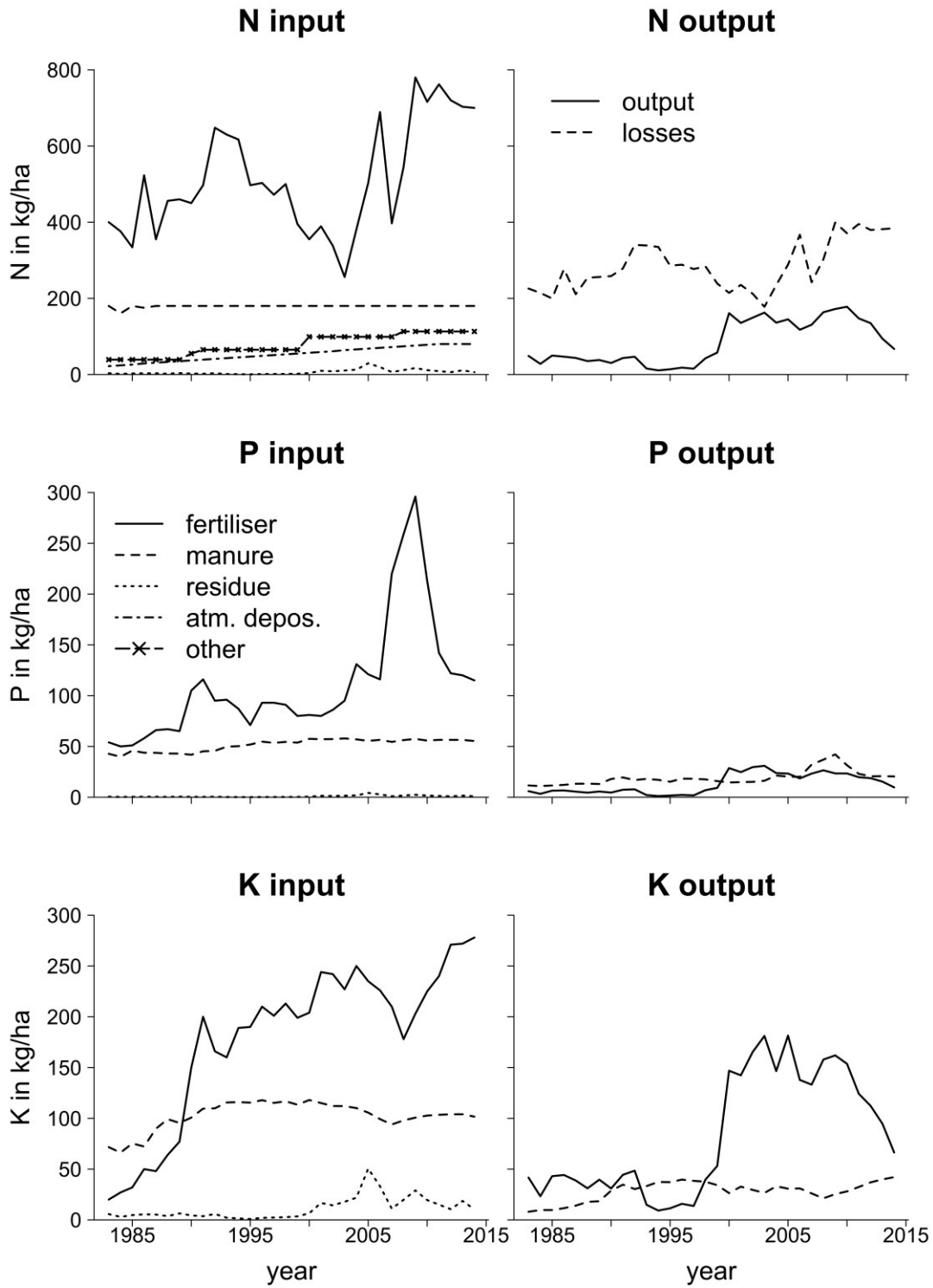
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