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1 **Integrating life cycle assessment and a farmer survey of management practices to**
2 **study environmental impacts of peach production in Beijing, China**

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17 **Abstract:**

18 While intensive peach production has expanded rapidly in recent years, few
19 studies have explored the environmental impacts associated with specific regional
20 systems or the optimal management strategies to minimize associated environmental
21 risks. Here, data from a survey of 290 native farmers were used to conduct a life cycle
22 assessment to quantify the acidification potential (AP), global warming potential
23 (GWP), eutrophication potential (EP), and reactive nitrogen (Nr) losses in peach
24 production in Pinggu District, Beijing. Total annual Nr losses, and GWP, AP, and EP
25 values for peach production in Pinggu District were respectively 10.7 kg N t⁻¹, 857 kg
26 CO₂-eq t⁻¹, 12.9 kg SO₂-eq t⁻¹, and 4.1 kg PO₄-eq t⁻¹. The principal driving factors were
27 fertilizer production, transportation, and application, which accounted for 94%, 67%,
28 75%, and 94% of Nr losses, GWP, AP, and EP, respectively. In the high yield, high
29 nitrogen-use efficiency (HH) group, relative values of Nr losses, GWP, AP, and EP were
30 respectively 33%, 25%, 39%, and 32% lower than the overall averages for 290 orchards.

31 Further analyses indicate that improved farming practices such as decreasing
32 application rates of fertilizers, increasing proportion of base fertilization rate, and
33 proper fertilization frequency in the HH group were the main reasons for these orchards'
34 better performance in peach yields and partial factor productivity of nitrogen fertilizer,
35 and their reduced environmental impacts. These results highlight the need to optimize
36 nutrient management in peach production in order simultaneously to realize both
37 environmental sustainability and high productivity in the peach production system.

38

39 **Keywords:** Peach production; Life cycle assessment; Environmental emission
40 mitigation; Nutrient management; Farming practice; Peri-urban agriculture

41

42 **1. Introduction**

43 Fruit intake is closely associated with positive health benefits. Intensive fruit
44 production in China has rapidly expanded, with the planted orchard area and fruit yields,
45 respectively increasing 1.5- and 5.6-fold between 1997 and 2016 (MAPC 2017). China
46 now contributes 25% of the global fruit cultivation area and produces 31% of all fruit
47 globally (FAO 2017). However, such fruit production requires high levels of chemical
48 nitrogen (N) and phosphorus (P) fertilizer input in order to remain profitable (Zhang et
49 al. 2013, 2018). For Chinese orchards growing pears and citrus fruits, nitrogen fertilizer
50 use has been as high as 693 and 847 kg ha⁻¹, respectively (Wang et al. 2020; Yang et al.
51 2020). In prior reports from peach-producing areas in Northern China, average N, P₂O₅,
52 and K₂O fertilizer applications were respectively up to 926, 499, and 731 kg ha⁻¹ (Guo
53 2018). These high levels of fertilizer use have led to a range of adverse environmental
54 effects, including soil acidification, reduced water quality, greater losses of reactive N
55 (Nr) (Liu et al. 2020), and increased global warming potential (GWP) (Shi et al. 2009;
56 Guo et al. 2010). Improving current understanding of the environmental impacts of
57 different fruit production approaches in China and effectively mitigating such effects is
58 urgently needed to improve current orchard management practices and guide the design
59 of novel management strategies.

60 The ISO-standardized life cycle assessment (LCA) approach (ISO 2006a, b) was

61 formulated to assess the total environmental effects of a given process or activity. It
62 considers the inputs, materials, and energy usage involved in the different stages of the
63 life cycle of a product of interest, and the quantification of the contributions of these
64 life cycle steps to different categories of environmental impacts (Khoshnevisan et al.
65 2014). Previous studies have employed LCA approaches to quantify environmental
66 effects associated with crop-specific or region-specific agricultural systems (Perrin et
67 al. 2014). A majority of such analyses have focused on crop systems, including wheat
68 (Chen et al. 2014; Yan et al. 2015) and maize (Zhao et al. 2016; Wang et al. 2007; Cui
69 et al. 2013; Yan et al. 2015), revealing wheat production to be associated with a GWP
70 of 3,000–3,707 kg CO₂-eq ha⁻¹, while maize production contributes a GWP of 2,300–
71 3,629 kg CO₂-eq ha⁻¹, an AP of 38.1 kg SO₂-eq ha⁻¹, and an EP of 30.7 kg PO₄-eq ha⁻¹.
72 Such LCA approaches have recently been utilized to quantify environmental burdens
73 associated with fruit products while considering differing stages, system boundaries,
74 and management approaches (Cerutti et al. 2011, 2014), with relatively high
75 environmental risks found in peach (Cerutti et al. 2010; Ingraio et al. 2015; Guo et al.
76 2018), pear (Liu et al. 2010; Yan et al. 2015; Wang et al. 2020), citrus (Yang et al. 2020;
77 Cerutti 2014; Alishah 2019), and apple production (Cerutti et al. 2013; Zhu et al. 2018).
78 The environmental impacts can vary as a function of management practices even when
79 assessing a single crop in a single area (Chen et al. 2014). It has also been found that
80 appropriately optimized management strategies with improved fertilizer production
81 efficiency can simultaneously increase crop yields while minimizing associated
82 environmental impacts (Cui et al. 2013; Chen et al. 2014; Sha et al. 2021). As such,
83 studying relationships among environmental impacts, orchard management practices,
84 and yields should highlight new approaches to mitigating orchard-related
85 environmental impacts, yet there have been few studies on this topic to date.

86 Beijing, the capital of China, is one of the largest megacities globally, with 22
87 million inhabitants and an area of 16,800 km² (Xu et al. 2017). The production of peach
88 (*Amygdalus persica L.*) in the Pinggu District of Beijing began over 30 years ago, with
89 the current planting area and annual production now totaling 14,667 ha and 200,000
90 tonnes, respectively (CASR 2019). Pinggu District was designated as an ecological

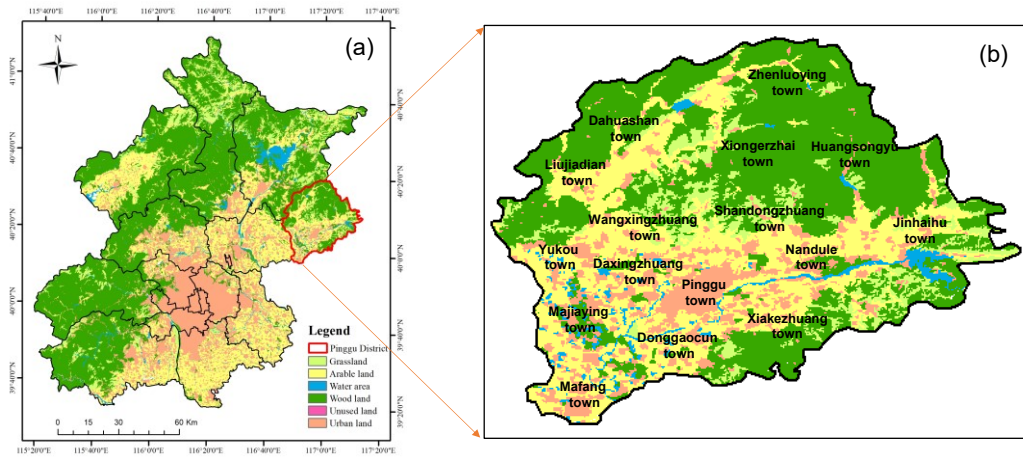
91 conservation area under the Regulations of Beijing On Ecological Protection and Green
92 Development of Ecological Conservation Areas ([http://www.gov.cn/xinwen/2021-](http://www.gov.cn/xinwen/2021-04/22/content_5601288.htm)
93 [04/22/content_5601288.htm](http://www.gov.cn/xinwen/2021-04/22/content_5601288.htm)), underscoring the need to facilitate environmentally
94 benign peach production in this area. However, reliable low-environmental-impact
95 peach production remains challenging in China owing to the relatively low yields and
96 high inputs of agricultural materials per unit area to maintain productive peach orchards
97 (Guo et al. 2020). A detailed investigation of the factors in the orchard management
98 cycle that drive the adverse environmental effects associated with peach production in
99 Pinggu District provides the motivation for the present study. The objectives were (1)
100 to evaluate the environmental impacts associated with peach production (including
101 global warming potential [GWP], acidification potential [AP], eutrophication potential
102 [EP], and reactive nitrogen losses [Nr]), and (2) to identify key contributing factors
103 associated with these impacts via an LCA approach. Data were collected from 290
104 native farmers in the study area. Moreover, this study employed a grouping approach
105 to better determine which management practices were suited to minimizing these
106 environmental effects.

107

108 **2. Materials and methods**

109 **2.1. Study area**

110 This study was conducted in Pinggu District on the northeastern edge of Beijing
111 ($116^{\circ}55'\sim 117^{\circ}24'E$, $40^{\circ}02'\sim 40^{\circ}22'N$) (**Fig. 1a**). It lies within a mild, temperate
112 continental monsoon climate zone with an annual average temperature of $11.5^{\circ}C$, and
113 average annual precipitation of approximately 600 mm (450 mm from June-August).
114 In this District, orchards, farmland (for cereal crops), and vegetable cultivation account
115 for approximately 65%, 31%, and 4% of the total arable land, respectively (PSY 2020).



116

117 **Figure 1.** Maps showing the land-use of (a) Beijing city (the location of Pinggu District
 118 is outlined in red), and (b) Pinggu District, with names of municipal districts (or
 119 ‘townships’) included. The land-use data was downloaded from the Data Center for
 120 Resources and Environmental Sciences, Chinese Academy of Sciences
 121 (<https://www.resdc.cn>).

122

123 2.2. Life cycle assessment

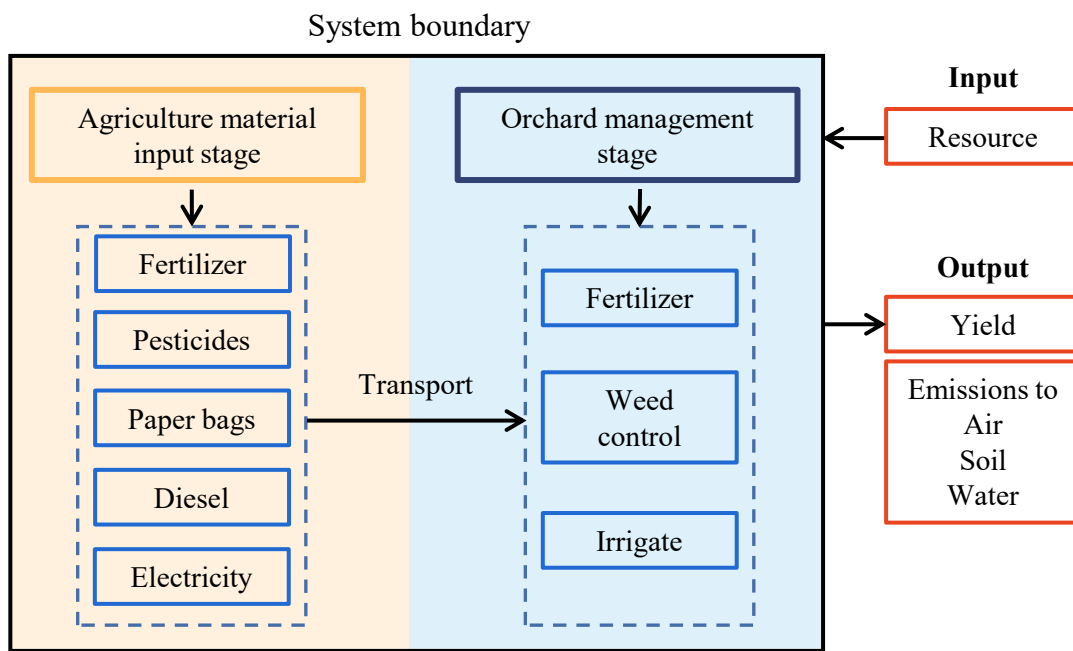
124 LCA methods were used to assess four key environmental effects (Nr loss potential,
 125 GWP, acidification potential and eutrophication potential) associated with nutriment
 126 management in peach production as per [ISO-14040 \(2006a\)](#) and [ISO-14040 \(2006b\)](#).

127

128 2.2.1. System boundary and functional units

129 Peach production was the focus of the present analysis, with the system boundary
 130 extending from inputs including mineral and fossil-fuel extraction to yields at the farm
 131 gate after fresh peach harvesting (**Fig. 2**). This peach production LCA was separated
 132 into the agricultural material input stage (AMS; consisting of fertilizer, paper bag, diesel
 133 fuel, and pesticide preparation and transportation) and the orchard management stage
 134 (OMS; consisting of weeding, pest management, fertilizer application, bagging, diesel
 135 fuel use, and the use of electricity for irrigation). We expressed environmental impacts
 136 in terms of both cultivation area (per ha) and peach yield (per metric tonne) because the
 137 different function units could lead to different results of impacts, and they are
 138 complementary, especially in the agricultural production systems (Van der Werf et al.

139 2007). Reliance on the sole impact/unit area ratio may lead to a preference for low
 140 input-low output systems, which probably decrease impacts at the regional level, but
 141 create a need for additional land use elsewhere, giving rise to additional impacts. On
 142 the other hand, reliance on the impact/unit production ratio only may lead to a
 143 preference for high input-high output systems, which can cause major pollution
 144 problems at the regional scale (Tamminga 2003). Besides, the previous studies in
 145 agricultural systems normally selected two functional units, and it is convenient to
 146 compare with other results of impacts in two functional units.



147
 148 **Fig. 2.** LCA boundary of the peach production system

149
 150 *2.2.2. Impact categories*

151 According to previous studies regarding orchards (Wang et al. 2020) and other
 152 crop production systems (Masuda 2016), fertilizers input is the dominant factor causing
 153 environmental pollutant emissions in the agricultural production stage. Moreover,
 154 Global warming, eutrophication, and acidification are most closely related to fertilizers
 155 input. Therefore, the four key impact categories associated with nutrient management
 156 practices assessed for this LCA study were: Nr loss potential, GWP (at a time-scale of
 157 100-year), eutrophication potential (EP), and acidification potential (AP). Leaching of
 158 NO_3^- , NH_3 volatilization, and N_2O emissions were all included in Nr loss potential,

159 while GWP was determined based on CO₂-equivalent factors from the
160 Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC 2014). AP and EP were calculated
161 using the EDIP97 method (Hauschild and Wenzel 1998). The primary reason we use
162 the method EDIP97 is that there is little difference in the impacts of environmental
163 acidification potential and eutrophication potential in the algorithm between this
164 method and other methods (such as ReCipe 2016). Besides, we used the localized
165 parameters instead of the built-in parameters of this method, and thus the results are
166 closer to the actual agriculture production. Moreover, EDIP97 used in the previous
167 study mainly focused on other agriculture products, such as pear and pepper production
168 systems (Wang et al. 2020; Wang et al. 2018a). Hence, to compare the results of this
169 study with other agricultural production systems easily, the EDIP97 method was chosen
170 in this study.

171

172 *2.2.3. Life cycle inventory analysis*

173 Based on a questionnaire-based household survey methodology (Jia et al. 2013;
174 Wu et al. 2014), and given the sizes of peach plantations, 5-6 villages were selected at
175 random in 2020 from each of 6 townships (Dahuashan, Liujiadian, Nandule,
176 Shandongzhuang, Wangxinzhuang, and Yukou, which are typical areas with peach
177 production, **Fig. 1b**) in Pinggu District primarily responsible for peach production.
178 Field investigators then collected data via survey from 5-10 farmers per village, with
179 290 fully completed surveys ultimately being collected. Survey questions were
180 associated with peach cultivation and management, addressing topics such as
181 production, the amounts and timing of synthetic and organic fertilizer application,
182 annual electricity utilized for irrigation, diesel fuel consumed by soil management
183 equipment, pesticide usage (including herbicides, insecticides, and fungicides), and
184 paper bags used each year for fruit growth. This data is statistically summarized in
185 **Table 1** with details for individual orchards presented in **Table S1**. The most common
186 synthetic fertilizers employed in this region were urea and compound fertilizers, while
187 sheep and chicken manure were the principal organic fertilizers employed. In this study,
188 diesel fuel was only utilized for weeding and soil tillage.

189

190

191 **Table 1.** Summary of analyzed inputs and outputs for peach production farming in the

192 Pinggu District of Beijing. Statistics are based on 290 farms.

	Mean	Range	SD
Input			
Chemical fertilizer (kg ha ⁻¹)			
N	651	0–3802	526
P ₂ O ₅	654	0–3263	617
K ₂ O	612	0–1948	525
Organic fertilizer (kg ha ⁻¹)			
N	548	0–2808	594
P ₂ O ₅	392	0–1996	448
K ₂ O	463	0–1948	468
Total fertilizer (kg ha ⁻¹)			
N	1200	67.5–4114	733
P ₂ O ₅	1045	0–4262	679
K ₂ O	1075	0–3680	672
Pesticide (kg ha ⁻¹)	93.5	0–447	69.9
Electricity (kWh ha ⁻¹)	3646	0–13611	2100
Diesel (L ha ⁻¹)	173	0–1667	137
Paper bags (kg ha ⁻¹)	703	0–2150	412
Output			
Fruit yield (tonne ha ⁻¹ yr ⁻¹)	35.7	2.1–76.5	15.9

193

194

195

196

197 *2.2.4. Emission parameters*

198 We collected indicators associated with relevant fruit production impact categories
 199 from published literature based upon crops grown within the study region to evaluate
 200 the accuracy of the LCA analysis-derived environmental impacts. Relative pollutant
 201 emission quantities associated with fertilizers, pesticides, electricity, diesel, and paper
 202 bags for the AMS and OMS are summarized in **Tables S2 and S3**, respectively.

203

204 *2.2.5. Environmental potential assessment*

205 Environmental potentials were evaluated as follows.

$$206 \quad EP_i = EP_{AMS-i} + EP_{OMS-i}$$

207 EP_i corresponds to the environmental potentials of i , which incorporates peach
 208 production Nr (kg N per unit), GWP (kg CO₂-eq per unit), AP (kg SO₂-eq per unit), and
 209 EP (kg PO₄-eq per unit) values. The EP_{AMS} and EP_{OMS} terms respectively correspond
 210 to the AMS and OMS environmental potentials, determined as follows,

$$211 \quad EP_{AMS-i} = \sum (A_{AMSi-j} \times F_{AMSi-j})$$

$$212 \quad EP_{OMS-i} = \sum (A_{OMSi-j} \times F_{OMSi-j})$$

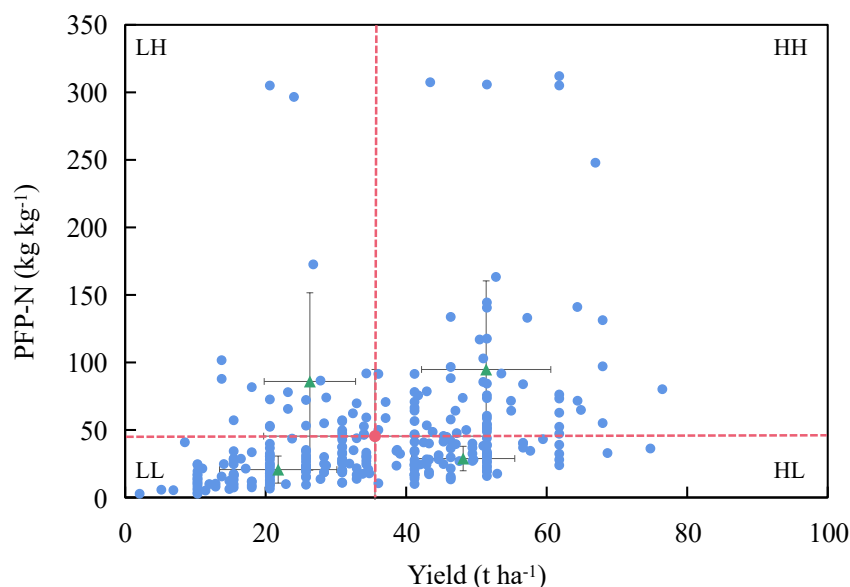
213 where A_{AMSj} and A_{OMSj} respectively correspond to rates of application of substance j
 214 during AMS and OMS, while F_{AMSj} and F_{OMSj} respectively correspond to the emission
 215 factor (**Table S3**) for substance j in the AMS and OMS. N (kg), P₂O₅ (kg), K₂O (kg),
 216 pesticides (kg), diesel fuel (L), electricity (kWh) and paper bags (kg) were included as
 217 j items in this analysis. Conversion coefficients for calculating GWP, AP, and EP based
 218 on emissions of pollutants during the orchard management stage have been provided in
 219 **Table S4** (IPCC 2014, Hauschild and Wenzel 1998, Guo 2019).

220

221 **2.3. Grouping of farmers based upon yields and the efficiency of nitrogen fertilizer** 222 **utilization**

223 Associations between environmental impacts and management practices were
 224 assessed using a grouping approach (Ye et al. 2011). First, a general analysis of peach
 225 production-related environmental impacts was conducted using the survey data
 226 collected from the 290 participating farmers, after which the association between their

227 management practices and these environmental impacts was evaluated. Data from
 228 surveyed farmers were separated into the following four groups based on their peach
 229 yield and average partial factor productivity of nitrogen fertilizer (PFP-N) (which is a
 230 characteristic parameter that represents nitrogen-use efficiency (NUE), with higher
 231 PFP-N values indicating a better NUE): a low yield and low PFP-N (LL, 123 farmers)
 232 group which has both lower yield and PFP-N than the average values (35.6 t ha⁻¹ and
 233 45.4 kg kg⁻¹, respectively); a low yield and high PFP-N (LH, 28 farmers) group which
 234 has lower yield and higher PFP-N than the average values; a high yield and low PFP-
 235 N (HL, 75 farmers) group which has a higher yield and lower PFP-N than the average
 236 values; and a high yield and high PFP-N (HH, 64 farmers) group which has a higher
 237 yield and higher PFP-N than the average values (**Fig. 3**). PFP-N was defined as the
 238 yield (kg ha⁻¹) divided by the N application rate (kg ha⁻¹), and served as the primary N
 239 fertilizer efficiency index when evaluating the relationship between orchard
 240 management strategies, peach yields, and potential environmental effects.



241
 242 **Fig. 3.** Associations between partial factor productivity of nitrogen fertilizer (PFP-N)
 243 and peach yields in Pinggu District as determined from data from 290 farmers surveyed
 244 from 2019-2020. (LL, n=123; LH, n=28; HL, n=75; HH, n=64; the red dot shows
 245 average values of peach yield and PFP-N across all farmers while the green triangles
 246 and bars show the corresponding average values and standard deviations for the four
 247 groups.)

248

249 **2.4. Statistical analysis**

250 One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was applied to detect significant
251 differences in inputs (fertilizer, pesticide, electricity, diesel, and paper bags), outputs
252 (yield) and environmental impacts (Nr loss, GWP, AP, and EP) of peach production
253 among the four farmer groups. All statistical analyses were conducted using SPSS11.5
254 (SPSS Inc., Chicago, IL, USA), and significance was set at $p < 0.05$. A random forest
255 (RF) model was used to analyse impact factors on PFP-N and yield of peach. This is an
256 ensemble approach to regression in which the classification algorithm builds a large
257 number of decision trees with the output as the mean prediction of the individual trees
258 (Breiman 2001; Liaw and Wiener 2002). The RF classifier consists of tree classifiers
259 and each classifier is generated using a randomly selected subset of the variables that
260 are independent of the input variable sampling, and each tree votes for the most popular
261 projective units to classify the input variables (Breiman 2001). The RF classifier has
262 been shown to be more successful than other classifiers in assembling the ensemble
263 (Dietterich 2002). The detail of the model is described in **Text S1** in the Supplement.

264

265 **3. Results and Discussion**

266 **3.1. Peach production inputs, yields, and environmental impacts**

267 The major inputs and outputs associated with peach production in this analysis are
268 summarized in **Table 1**. The mean peach yield (range) for the 290 farmers surveyed in
269 Pinggu District was 35.7 tonne ha⁻¹ (2.1–76.5 tonne ha⁻¹), with mean N, P₂O₅, and K₂O
270 fertilizer application rates of 1200 kg ha⁻¹ (67.5–4114 kg ha⁻¹), 1045 kg ha⁻¹ (0–4264
271 kg ha⁻¹), and 1075 kg ha⁻¹ (0–3680 kg ha⁻¹), with 60, 62 and 59% synthetic N, P and K
272 fertilizers, respectively. The mean PFP-N was 45.5 kg kg⁻¹ (2.8–312 kg kg⁻¹), while the
273 mean amount of electricity consumed for irrigation purposes and the mean amount of
274 diesel fuel consumed in the context of mechanized soil tillage were 3646 kWh ha⁻¹ (0–
275 13611 kWh ha⁻¹) and 173 L ha⁻¹ (0–1667 L ha⁻¹), respectively. Pesticide use and
276 bagging were necessary to produce high-quality peaches, and the amounts of pesticides
277 and paper bags utilized by surveyed farmers ranged from 0–447 and 0–2150 kg ha⁻¹,

278 respectively.

279 Mean respective Nr losses, and GWP, AP, and EP values calculated in terms of
280 planting area were 293 kg N ha⁻¹, 23488 kg CO₂-eq ha⁻¹, 351 kg SO₂-eq ha⁻¹, and 113
281 kg PO₄-eq ha⁻¹ (**Table 2**), with corresponding values of 10.7 kg N t⁻¹, 857 kg CO₂-eq t⁻¹,
282 12.9 kg SO₂-eq t⁻¹, and 4.1 kg PO₄-eq t⁻¹, respectively, when expressed in terms of
283 yield (**Table 2**). These results suggest that peach production in Pinggu District entails
284 a high degree of environmental risk. Factors that can govern crop yields and
285 environmental impacts include fertilizer input, soil conditions, and weather ([Wang et al.
286 2018a](#)). As shown in **Table S5**, the potential environmental impacts identified in this
287 study were 1.5–2.8 times those associated with pear and peach production in Northern
288 China ([Wang et al. 2020](#), [Guo et al. 2018](#)), citrus orchard management in southwestern
289 China ([Yang 2020](#)), apple cultivation in Shaanxi and Shandong provinces ([Zhu et al.
290 2018](#)), and Chinese orange and banana orchards ([Yan et al. 2016](#)). The GWP of peach
291 production in Pinggu District was 4.1 times greater than the peach production system
292 in the Mediterranean ([Vinyes et al. 2017](#)). Similarly, higher values of AP and EP were
293 also found in peach production in Pinggu District when compared with previous studies
294 conducted in other countries, including Iran ([Alishah 2019](#)), Spain ([Nicolo 2018](#), [Ribal
295 2017](#), [Beltran-Esteve 2017](#)), and Italy ([Nicolo 2018](#)) in the orange production system
296 (**Table S5**). This is primarily attributable to the higher rates of fertilizer application
297 identified in the present analysis (**Table 1**); such application, and most notably N
298 fertilizer application, accounting for 73%–96% of agriculture-related environmental
299 impacts ([Wang et al. 2020](#)), mainly as a consequence of NH₃ emission and of NO₃⁻-N
300 runoff and leaching after the application of N fertilizers ([Wang et al. 2018b](#)).

301 Fertilizer transportation and production are the two important critical factors
302 governing GWP ([Wang 2018](#)), and, relative to lower peach production GWP values in
303 Northern China reported by [Guo et al. \(2018\)](#), we identified rates of N and P fertilization
304 in Pinggu District that were 1.3 and 2 times higher. Farmers in Pinggu District are
305 heavily motivated to achieve a high yield by economic incentives, spurring them to
306 apply large quantities of fertilizers ([Li, 2013](#)). By surveying 6863 Chinese fruit yields,
307 [Zhang et al. \(2013\)](#) found that the excess N fertilizer applied for an average 36.7 tonne

308 ha⁻¹ fruit yield was 550 kg N ha⁻¹ on average. This is consistent with the present result
309 and highlights the extent to which excess N fertilizer was applied in peach production
310 in Pinggu District. Overall, these findings emphasize the substantial environmental risk
311 associated with both the planting area and fruit yield of peach production in this region,
312 suggesting that pronounced efforts must be made to curtail these impacts by developing
313 a thorough understanding of the impacts of different nutrient management practices.

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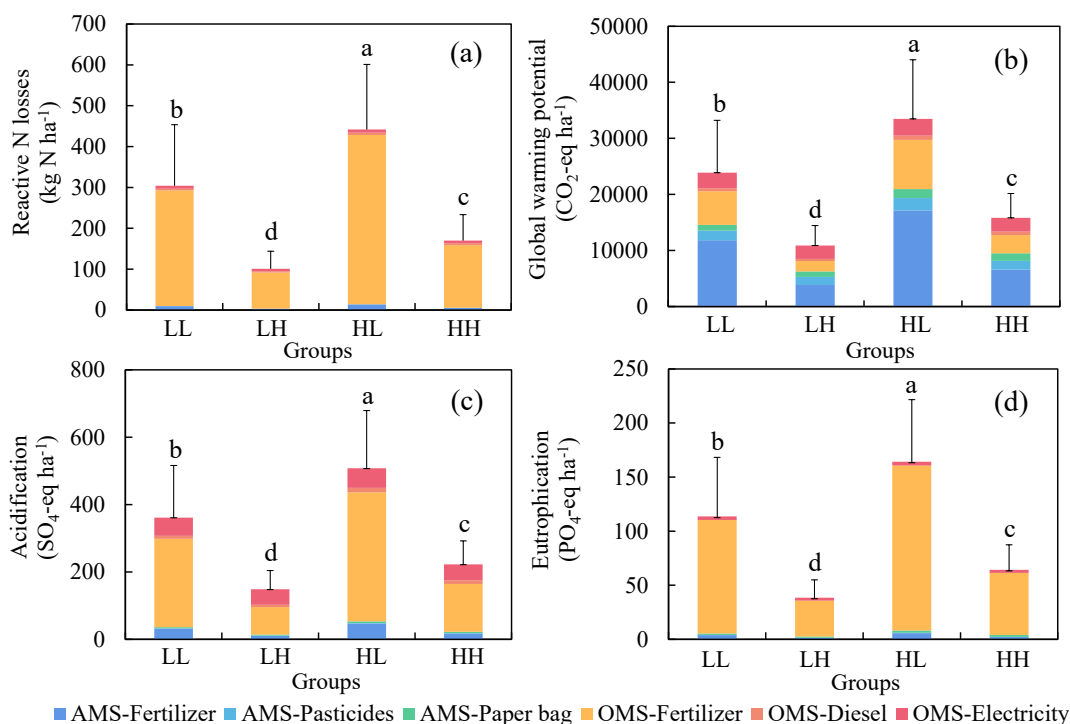
331 **Table 2.** Mean environmental impacts (including reactive N losses and global warming, acidification, and eutrophication potentials) during the
 332 AMS and OMS stages of peach growth expressed in terms of both planting area and peach yields

		Agricultural material stage			Orchard management stage			Total
		Fertilizer	Pesticide	Paper bags	Fertilizer	Diesel	Electricity	
Per ha of the peach production								
Reactive N losses	kg N ha ⁻¹	8.93	0.439	0	272	4.51	7.18	293
Global warming potential	kg CO ₂ -eq ha ⁻¹	11374	1786	1245	5757	592	2734	23488
Acidification	kg SO ₂ -eq ha ⁻¹	30.9	0.982	4.02	252	10.4	52.9	351
Eutrophication	kg PO ₄ -eq ha ⁻¹	3.78	0.181	1.62	104	3.06	0.0158	113
Per ton of the peach production								
Reactive N losses	kg N t ⁻¹	0.325	0.016	0	9.90	0.149	0.289	10.7
Global warming potential	kg CO ₂ -eq t ⁻¹	414	63.9	40.6	209	19.5	110	857
Acidification	kg SO ₂ -eq t ⁻¹	1.12	0.035	0.131	9.16	0.343	2.13	12.9
Eutrophication	kg PO ₄ -eq t ⁻¹	0.138	0.006	0.053	3.67	0.001	0.123	3.99

333

334 3.2. Environmental impacts in different peach farmer groups

335 We grouped surveyed farmers into the LL, LH, HL, and HH groups (**Fig. 3**) based
 336 upon these PFP-N values (see Section 2.3). Significant differences in Nr, GWP, AP, and
 337 EP values were found among the four groups, whether expressed on the basis of
 338 planting area or peach yields (**Figs. 4 and 5**). When expressed relative to planting area,
 339 the average Nr losses in the HH group was 44%, 62%, and 33% lower than
 340 corresponding values in the LL, HL, and overall average values, respectively. Similarly,
 341 the HH group exhibited GWP values that were reduced by 34%, 52%, and 25%, AP
 342 values that were reduced by 38%, 56%, and 39%, and EP values that were reduced by
 343 77%, 61%, and 33%, respectively, as compared to the LL, HL, and overall average
 344 values. These lower potential impact values in the HH group are primarily attributable
 345 to the reduced fertilizer input in this group (**Table 3**), with farmers in the HH group
 346 having used 46%, 63%, and 35% less fertilizer than farmers in the LL group, HL group,
 347 and the overall average values. Relative to the LH group, the Nr, GWP, AP, and EP
 348 values in the HH group were 31%-41% higher (**Fig. 4**), given that the HH group utilized
 349 41% more N fertilizer relative to the LH group (**Table 3**).

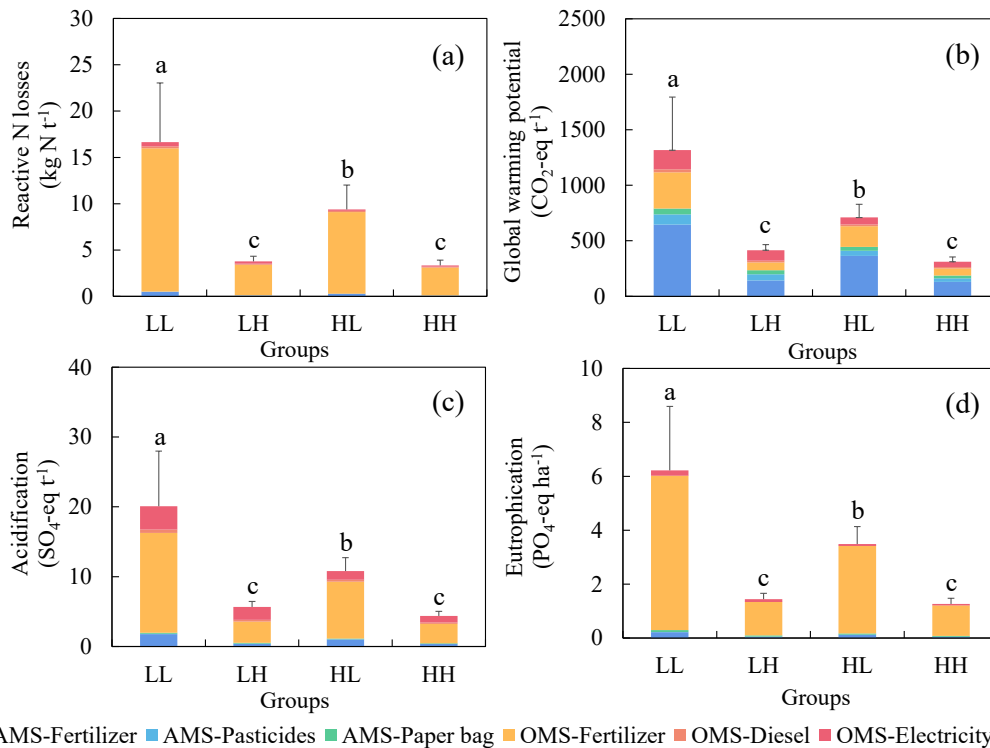


350

351 **Fig. 4.** (a) Reactive N losses, (b) GWP, (c) AP, and (d) EP per ha of peach production

352 in the LL, LH, HL, and HH farmer groups that are defined in Fig. 3. AMS: agricultural
 353 materials production stage; OMS: orchard management stage. The error bars are the
 354 standard errors of means, and values without same letters on the bars denote significant
 355 differences between the groups ($p < 0.05$).

356



357

358 **Fig. 5.** (a) Reactive N losses, (b) GWP, (c) AP, and (d) EP per tonne of peach production
 359 in the LL, LH, HL, and HH farmer groups that are defined in Fig. 3. AMS: agricultural
 360 materials production stage; OMS: orchard management stage. The error bars are the
 361 standard errors of means, and values without same letters on the bars denote significant
 362 differences between the groups ($p < 0.05$).

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371 **Table 3.** Life cycle inventory data and primary management practices in the LL, LH,
 372 HL, and HH farmer groups that are defined in Fig. 2. Data are means \pm standard
 373 deviation (mean values without same letters in the same row denote significant
 374 differences between the groups ($p < 0.05$)).

Item	Farmer group			
	LL	LH	HL	HH
Input				
Chemical				
fertilizer (kg ha ⁻¹)	Mean	Mean	Mean	Mean
1)				
N	720 \pm 531 ^a	306 \pm 206 ^b	861 \pm 642 ^a	425 \pm 236 ^b
P ₂ O ₅	730 \pm 630 ^a	340 \pm 330 ^b	774 \pm 765 ^a	504 \pm 391 ^b
K ₂ O	668 \pm 510 ^a	324 \pm 228 ^b	720 \pm 674 ^a	505 \pm 367 ^b
Organic fertilizer				
(kg ha ⁻¹)				
N	533 \pm 592 ^b	96.3 \pm 150 ^c	989 \pm 598 ^a	259 \pm 320 ^c
P ₂ O ₅	364 \pm 445 ^b	92.1 \pm 145 ^c	712 \pm 469 ^a	201 \pm 266 ^c
K ₂ O	441 \pm 457 ^b	174 \pm 269 ^c	780 \pm 453 ^a	257 \pm 359 ^c
Total fertilizer				
(kg ha ⁻¹)				
N	1253 \pm 639 ^b	402 \pm 191 ^d	1850 \pm 669 ^a	683 \pm 270 ^c
P ₂ O ₅	1094 \pm 671 ^b	432 \pm 316 ^d	1486 \pm 679 ^a	705 \pm 369 ^c
K ₂ O	1110 \pm 613 ^b	498 \pm 339 ^c	1500 \pm 713 ^a	763 \pm 484 ^c
Pesticide				
(kg ha ⁻¹)	90.4 \pm 66.5 ^b	73.5 \pm 36.8 ^b	115 \pm 91.4 ^a	83.5 \pm 51.2 ^b
Electricity				
(kWh ha ⁻¹)	3742 \pm 2173 ^{ab}	3102 \pm 1910 ^b	4060 \pm 2345 ^a	3213 \pm 1586 ^b
Diesel (L ha ⁻¹)	156 \pm 120 ^b	129 \pm 135 ^b	215 \pm 156 ^a	173 \pm 134 ^{ab}
Paper bags				
(kg ha ⁻¹)	572 \pm 407 ^b	547 \pm 401 ^b	910 \pm 374 ^a	783 \pm 350 ^a
Output				
Yield				
(t ha ⁻¹ year ⁻¹)	21.8 \pm 8.3 ^d	26.3 \pm 6.5 ^c	48.1 \pm 7.3 ^b	51.4 \pm 9.2 ^a

375

376

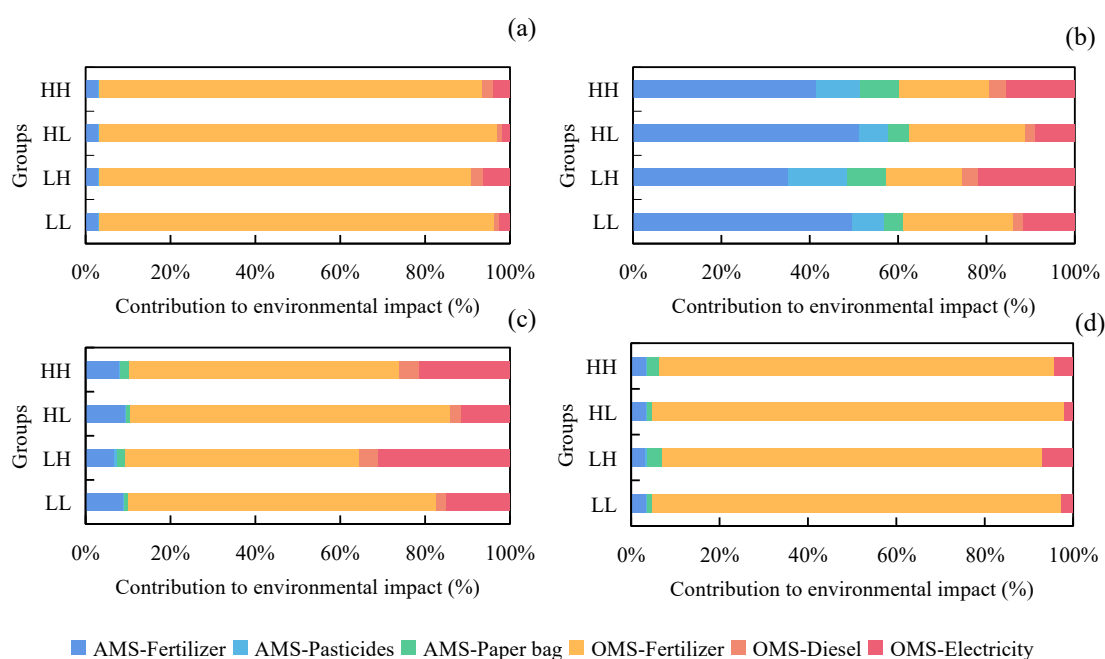
377 On a peach yield basis, the HH group exhibited the lowest environmental impacts
378 of these four groups of farmers (**Fig. 5**). Relative to the average values for all surveyed
379 farmers, the HH group exhibited mean Nr, GWP, AP, and EP values that were reduced
380 by 60%, 55%, 57%, and 59%, respectively. Relative to the LL, LH, and HL groups, the
381 HH group exhibited Nr values that were reduced by 80%, 12%, and 65%, GWP values
382 that were reduced by 76%, 25%, and 56%, AP values that were reduced by 78%, 23%,
383 and 59%, and EP values that were reduced by 80%, 12%, and 64%, respectively. These
384 differences were largely attributable to higher yields and reduced fertilizer input,
385 thereby significantly improving N fertilizer use efficiency in the HH group. The PFP-
386 N in the HH groups was 359%, 10%, and 229% higher than that in the LL, LH, and HL
387 groups, respectively (**Fig. 3**).

388 The substantial variability observed for peach yields, PFP-N, and environmental
389 costs (**Figs. 3, 4 and 5**) suggest that associated environmental impacts can be minimized
390 by learning optimal farming practices ([Wang et al. 2018a](#); [Guo et al. 2018](#); [Cui et al.](#)
391 [2018](#)). Farmers in the HH group achieved better peach yields with a reduced fertilizer
392 input, thereby incurring less severe environmental costs. Therefore, factor analysis
393 among the four groups was performed to identify management practices that good
394 farmers could use to improve the PFP-N and reduce the environmental potentials.

395 To identify the dominant factor for mitigating the environmental potentials, the
396 contributions of individual inputs in the AMS and OMS to the four environmental
397 potentials were calculated, as shown in **Fig 6**. Fertilizer production and application was
398 the main factor contributing to Nr losses, contributing an average of 94% (91%–96%)
399 across these four groups. Fertilizer was also the primary contributor to GWP in the
400 AMS (35%–51%) and OMS (17%–26%), followed by electricity and diesel
401 consumption in the OMS (11%–25%), and pesticide consumption in the AMS (7%–
402 13%), as well as paper bag use in the AMS (4%–9%). Fertilizer contributed to 55%–
403 75% of AP in the OMS and 7%–9% in the AMS, with electricity consumption in the
404 OMS accounting for an additional 11%–31%. Paper bag use, pesticide application in
405 the AMS, and diesel consumption in the OMS contributed only 6% (4%–7%) on

406 average to AP across the four groups. Similar results were observed for EP, with
 407 pesticide and paper bag use accounting for < 3% of EP in the AMS. Fertilizer production,
 408 transportation, and application were the primary contributing factors associated with all
 409 four analyzed environmental impacts. Fewer fertilizer-related contributions were
 410 observed for the LH and HH groups relative to the other groups. Our results are similar
 411 to the finding of Wang et al. (2018) for pepper production that the reduction in
 412 environmental risks for the HH group were mainly explained by lower application rates
 413 of N and P fertilizer, higher application rates of K fertilizer, and higher yield.

414 A lack of knowledge or training may account for some of the poorer agronomic
 415 practices observed among smallholder farmers in this region, with fertilizer purchasing
 416 decisions primarily being price- and marketing-dependent (Huang et al. 2015; Qin et al.
 417 2016). Farmers often believe that excess fertilizer application can minimize yield losses
 418 (Zhao et al. 2016a, b). Overall, our results suggest that peach production-related
 419 environmental impacts can be primarily mitigated while maintaining high yields by
 420 improving nutrient management strategies such that they align with those of farmers in
 421 the HH group. Training may therefore be an effective means of minimizing
 422 environmental damage associated with peach production in this region.



423

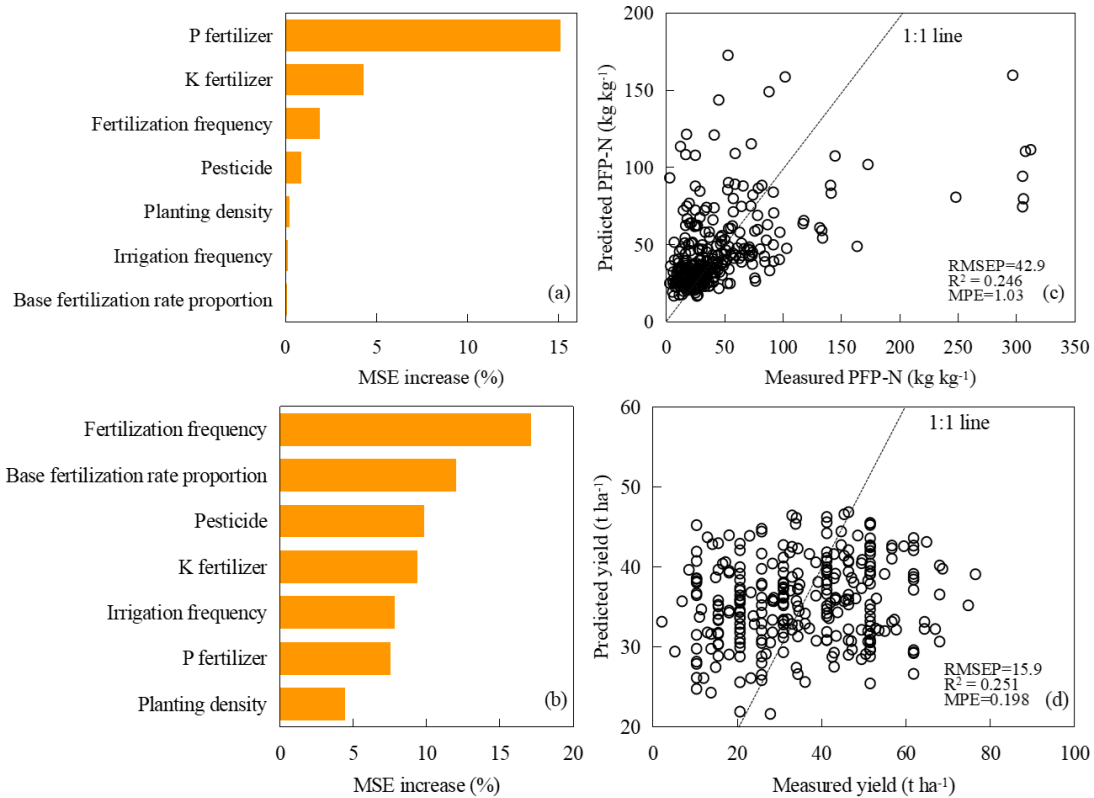
424 **Fig. 6.** Contributions to (a) reactive N losses, (b) GWP, (c) AP, and (d) EP in the LL,

425 LH, HL, and HH farmer groups that are defined in Fig. 2. AMS: agricultural materials
426 production stage; OMS: orchard management stage.

427

428 **3.3. Peach production-related farming practices in the four groups**

429 From the RF model, P fertilizer application was the most important factor
430 controlling the PFP-N of the peach orchards (**Fig. 7a**). In addition, K fertilizer
431 application, fertilization frequency and pesticide application were also important
432 controlling variables. By contrast, fertilization frequency, base fertilization rate
433 proportion, pesticide application and K fertilizer application were important variables
434 for the peach yield (**Fig. 7b**). In the HH group, the base fertilization rate proportion
435 accounted for 61.2% of the total fertilizer applied, with this value being 9.6% and 44.7%
436 higher than respective values in the LL and LH groups, respectively (**Fig. S1**). Besides,
437 approximately 50% of orchards applied fertilizers 3–4 times per year, which is lower
438 than corresponding value (69%) in HL group and higher than that (15%) in LH group
439 (**Fig. S2**). Overall, the independent farmer practice variables selected from the RF
440 models explained 25% of the total variance in both PFP-N and peach yield (**Fig. 7c and**
441 **d**). These results indicate that relatively lower fertilizer application, higher proportion
442 of base fertilization rate, and proper fertilization frequency are the three factors
443 contributing most to achievement of high yield and high PFP-N of peach production in
444 the HH group.



445

446 **Fig. 7.** Relative importance of independent variables for controlling (a) PFP-N and (b)
 447 yield as determined using random forests (RF) models and the performance of random
 448 forests models for detecting factors controlling change of (c) PFP-N and (d) yield.

449

450 In addition to farming practices, education level of farmers may be an indirect
 451 influencing factor. For example, 36% of laboring family members in the HH group had
 452 a junior high school or higher educational level, as opposed to 19%, 26%, and 23% in
 453 the LL, LH, and HL groups, respectively (**Fig. S3**). Better educated farmers in the HH
 454 group than farmers in other groups can render them better equipped to acquire, update,
 455 and apply new information and technologies ([Li et al. 2019](#)). Based on a fixed-effect
 456 panel model of over 20,000 rural households in China between 1995 and 2016, Ren et
 457 al. (2021) found that the low ratio of fixed inputs such as machinery and knowledge to
 458 total inputs is the determining factor of over-fertilization in smallholder farms ([Ren et](#)
 459 [al. 2021](#)). Knowledge-based training and cooperation based upon region - or crop -
 460 specific studies can effectively improve the adoption of novel agronomic technologies
 461 by farmers ([Zhang et al. 2016](#)). Policymakers can thus leverage this information to

462 identify effective approaches to advancing farm management practices with the goal of
463 minimizing adverse environmental impacts.

464

465 **3.4. Recommendations and outlook for sustainable peach production**

466 In recent years, fruit quality expectations in China have risen substantially as living
467 standards and economic prosperity continue to increase. Rising expectations have
468 changed Chinese fruit production from extensive (more area but low yield and quality)
469 to intensive management for higher yield and quality on potentially less area (Zhou et
470 al. 2017). Peach yields are an essential consideration for farmers' earnings. The present
471 study reveals that it is possible for farming practices such as lower application rates of
472 fertilizers and proper fertilization frequency to increase NPF-N and peach yields (**Fig.**
473 **3 and Table 3**). Consumer preference surveys indicate that the quality of the fresh
474 peaches is also important (Byrne 2005; Crisosto 2002). Fruit quality is a rather nebulous
475 concept that incorporates nutritive value, aesthetic properties, sensory properties
476 including smell, taste, and texture, and safety considerations and mechanical properties
477 including firmness, density, volume, mass, and sphericity (Crisosto and Costa 2008). In
478 addition to environmental factors and cultivar-specific factors (Frecon et al. 2002;
479 Liverani et al. 2002), the quality of peaches is primarily influenced by production-
480 related practices in orchards such as crop-load management (Berman and DeJong 1996),
481 irrigation (Bryla et al. 2005), fertilization (Jia et al. 1999), pruning, and canopy
482 structuring (Farina et al. 2005; Kumar et al. 2010). It is thus crucial that the link between
483 fruit quality and environmental costs be defined to establish approaches that maximize
484 quality while minimizing associated environmental harm. Studies on this topic can
485 yield evidence-based strategies amenable to optimal environmental and agricultural
486 management strategies.

487 While China accounts for 21% of the global fruit production area, its per capita
488 water resources are only a quarter of the overall global levels (Zhao et al. 2014). Several
489 industries in Beijing have been constrained by water shortages (Wen and Zu 2013),
490 making it essential that optimal irrigation strategies be developed to minimize water
491 waste via drip irrigation directly to the root area of plants, thereby promoting water-

492 saving agricultural practices. Owing to limited overlap between agricultural machinery
493 and agronomy in China, many management practices, including pruning and fertilizer
494 application, are still conducted manually (Wang et al. 2017). As the rural workforce
495 continues to age, this will adversely impact chemical and fertilizer efficiency,
496 profitability, and other factors in the fruit industry (Yuan and Chen 2019). To ensure
497 that peach production in Pinggu District remains sustainable, it is thus important that
498 research and beneficial technologies be promoted. Moreover, environmental mitigation
499 strategies should be further evaluated to develop an intensive, mechanized peach
500 industry that remains sustainable through optimal orchard management. Additional
501 research regarding the environmental costs associated with modernized peach
502 production strategies is warranted to achieve this goal.

503 Although the present study combined the LCA method and farmer surveys to quantify
504 the environmental impact of peach production, some uncertainties also existed. For
505 example, emission factors of pollutants (e.g., NH₃ and N₂O) used in this study were
506 obtained from previous publications rather than special for Pinggu District. This may
507 lead to uncertainties in emissions of pollutants in this study because emission factors
508 may differ regionally due to differences in climate, soil environment, and fertilization
509 methods. Besides, LCA has been a helpful tool for quantifying various environmental
510 impacts of agricultural production throughout their life spans. However, the LCA based
511 on inventory analysis inevitably has truncation error, which means the accounting may
512 be incomplete (Suh 2004). Last but not least, this study mainly focused on the
513 environmental impact of peach planting and production but did not consider subsequent
514 storage, transportation, sales, and other links. In order to fully evaluate the
515 environmental cost of peach from production to consumer disposal, the system
516 boundary should be further extended to the whole life cycle of peach.

517

518 **4. Conclusions**

519 This study highlights the significant environmental risks associated with peach
520 production in Pinggu District of Beijing, underscoring the importance of exploring
521 approaches to mitigate such environmental impacts. For the total cultivation area, the

522 total annual Nr losses, GWP, AP, and EP calculated for the 290 farmers in this region
523 surveyed were 293 kg N ha⁻¹, 23,488 kg CO₂-eq ha⁻¹, 351 kg SO₂-eq ha⁻¹, and 113 kg
524 PO₄-eq ha⁻¹, respectively. On a peach yield basis, these respective values were 10.7 kg
525 N t⁻¹, 857 kg CO₂-eq t⁻¹, 12.9 kg SO₂-eq t⁻¹ and 4.1 kg PO₄-eq t⁻¹. Overall, these yield-
526 based values tended to be higher than those associated with the production of vegetable
527 or cereal crops. The primary factors contributing to these environmental potentials were
528 the production, transportation, and application of fertilizers (94% of the Nr losses, 67%
529 of the GWP, 75% of the AP, and 94% of the EP).

530 The scales of environmental impact potentials varied significantly among the four
531 groups of farmers defined in this study as a function of fertilizer PFP-N and peach yields.
532 Relative to the overall averages of these two quantities for these 290 native farmers, the
533 mean Nr, GWP, AP, and EP values on a per-yield basis in the high PFP-N, high yield
534 (HH) group were respectively reduced by 33%, 25%, 39%, and 32%. The differences
535 were largely attributable to the reduced rates of fertilization, higher proportion of base
536 fertilization rate, and suitable frequency of fertilization in the HH group. These results
537 highlight the need to further optimize nutrient management and other peach farming
538 practices (proper planting density, trickling irrigation,
539 proper use of chemical pesticides) to simultaneously improve productivity and
540 environmental sustainability.

541

542 **Author contribution statement**

543 **Ziyue Li:** Conceptualization, Methodology, Investigation, Validation, Formal analysis,
544 Writing – original draft, Visualization, **Yongliang Chen:** Methodology, Investigation,
545 Formal analysis, Writing – review & editing, **Wen Xu:** Conceptualization,
546 Methodology, Investigation, Writing – review & editing, Supervision, Project
547 administration, Funding acquisition, **Mathew R. Heal:** Writing – review & editing,
548 **Fanlei Meng:** Writing – review & editing, **Qishao:** Writing – review & editing, **Aohan**
549 **Tang:** Writing – review & editing, **Jiechen Wu:** Writing – review & editing, **Xuejun**

550 **Liu:** Writing – review & editing, **Zhenling Cui:** Resources, Supervision, Project
551 administration, Writing – review & editing.

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557 **Availability of data and materials**

558 The concerned data and materials are available from the principal investigator and
559 corresponding author

560 **Declarations**

561 **Ethics approval** Not applicable.

562 **Consent to participate** The authors provided consent to participate in this study.

563 **Consent for publication** All the co-authors consent to the publication of this work.

564 **Competing interests** The authors declare no competing interests.

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