

Phosphorus flow analysis of different crops in Dongying District, Shandong Province, China, 1995-2016

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Investigating the phosphorus (P) sources, pathways, and final sinks are important to reduce P pollution and improve P management. In this study, substance flow analysis (SFA) was performed for P flow analysis from 1995 to 2016 in different crops of Dongying District, a core region of the alluvial delta at the estuary of the Yellow River. The results showed that P input steadily increased from 1.48×10^4 t in 1995 to 2.16×10^4 t in 2007, and then decreased from 1.90×10^4 t in 2010 to 1.78×10^4 t in 2016. Chemical fertilizers made the highest contribution to P input. The cotton with the highest P load was on the top of P load risk ranks. More importantly, this study applied the Partial Least Squares Path Modeling (PLS-PM) model for P flow analysis and established the numerical relationship between the variables (including fertilizers, straws return-to-field, harvested grains, discarded straw, and P erosion and runoff), P use efficiency (PUE) and P load. The analysis revealed that fertilizer and crop production are the key factors affecting the PUE. Therefore, optimizing the use of P-fertilizer whilst maintaining yields can be an effective strategy to improve the local region PUE.

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2 **China, 1995-2016**

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24 **Hights**

25 ➤ Chemical fertilizers were the main source of total phosphorus (P) input

26 ➤ The harvested grains accounted for the highest proportion of P output

27 ➤ Cotton had the highest P load risk

28 ➤ The P use efficiency (PUE) of cotton was the lowest among the studied crops

29 ➤ Fertilizers and harvested grains are the two important factors affecting the PUE

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56 **Abstract:** Investigating the phosphorus (P) sources, pathways, and final sinks are important to
57 reduce P pollution and improve P management. In this study, substance flow analysis (SFA) was
58 performed for P flow analysis from 1995 to 2016 in different crops of Dongying District, a core
59 region of the alluvial delta at the estuary of the Yellow River. The results showed that P input
60 steadily increased from 1.48×10^4 t in 1995 to 2.16×10^4 t in 2007, and then decreased from
61 1.90×10^4 t in 2010 to 1.78×10^4 t in 2016. Chemical fertilizers made the highest contribution to
62 P input. The cotton with the highest P load was on the top of P load risk ranks. More importantly,
63 this study applied the Partial Least Squares Path Modeling (PLS-PM) model for P flow analysis
64 and established the numerical relationship between the variables (including fertilizers, straws
65 return-to-field, harvested grains, discarded straw, and P erosion and runoff), P use efficiency
66 (PUE) and P load. The analysis revealed that fertilizer and crop production are the key factors
67 affecting the PUE. Therefore, optimizing the use of P-fertilizer whilst maintaining yields can be
68 an effective strategy to improve the local region PUE.

69 **Keywords:** Phosphorus; Substance flow analysis; Crops; Dongying District; Phosphorus
70 management

71 **1. Introduction**

72 Phosphorus (P), one of the key crop nutrients, is important for crop growth and reproduction
73 ([Smil, 2000](#)). Concerning material flow, P is of great significance for the stable functioning of

74 the agricultural ecosystem ([Jiang et al., 2019a](#); [Villalba et al., 2008](#)). However, human activities
75 (e.g., fertilizer utilization) have intensively been affecting P cycling, causing serious
76 environmental problems, such as increasing pressure on P resources. Notably, phosphate is a
77 non-renewable and geographically restricted resource ([Jiang et al., 2019a](#); [Simons et al., 2014](#)).
78 Given that agricultural production is highly dependent on P-based fertilizers, phosphate rock has
79 been excessively exploited. Meanwhile, excessive P utilization increases its soil accumulation,
80 and a part of the surplus P leaches into the watery areas causing environmental issues, such as
81 eutrophication ([Van Drecht et al., 2009](#)). Recently, China has become the largest producer and
82 consumer of P fertilizer in the world, accounting for 37.5% of global production and 30% of
83 global consumption ([Jiang et al., 2019a](#); [Zhang et al., 2008](#)). From the perspective of P resource
84 conservation and environmental protection, it is crucial to better manage P-based fertilizer inputs
85 and P use efficiency (PUE).

86

87 P use efficiency (PUE), an important indicator of P usage efficiency, denotes the ratio between
88 the P content in the harvested grains and the total P input in the agricultural systems ([Wu et al.,](#)
89 [2016](#)). Improving PUE can better manage P resources and guide crops transit toward a more
90 efficient and sustainable agricultural model ([Zheng et al., 2017](#)). Meanwhile, studies based on
91 PUE can guide policymakers and local farmers to develop eco-agriculture and green agriculture.

92

93 To estimate PUE in agricultural soil, it is essential to quantify and trace P cycling in agricultural
94 systems ([Wu et al., 2016](#)). There are several quantitative methods for calculating the P amount
95 based on Geographic Information System (GIS) ([Eastman et al., 2010](#)) and P loss formulas
96 ([Leone et al., 2008](#)). However, those methods only consider the P amount but not the P flows.

97 Therefore, these calculations fail to trace P flows and interpret their relationship with human
98 activities. The mass-balance methods, which can analyze and quantify the P flows, are
99 appropriate for PUE estimation. Especially, substance flow analysis (SFA) systematically
100 connects the P sources, pathways, and final sinks, and therefore can efficiently quantify the P
101 balance within the agricultural system ([Wang et al., 2020](#)). Substance flow analysis (SFA) has
102 been widely used for PUE estimation and P flow analysis to help policymakers or local farmers
103 to develop the proper P management system. For example, Yuan et al. ([2011](#)) used SFA to
104 establish an anthropogenic phosphorus flows model within a socioeconomic system in Chaohu
105 City over 2008 and found that fertilizers utilization in agricultural soil was the most important
106 source of P load on local surface water. Eventually, they suggested limiting fertilizer use for
107 ecological agriculture to reduce the eutrophication of water bodies. In New Zealand, Li et al.
108 ([2017](#)) used SFA to estimate P recovery from pollution sources and suggested measures to
109 improve PUE.

110

111 The Yellow River Delta (YRD), one of the fastest-growing deltas in the world, covers an area of
112 5400 km², of which 5200 km² area is located in the Dongying District, which is a major
113 agricultural base in Shandong Province, China ([He et al., 2020b](#)). The soil in the Dongying
114 District has high salinity and low nutrients ([Guo et al., 2020](#)); therefore, excess P fertilizer is
115 applied to achieve optimal crop yields, causing P pollution and low PUE. Additionally, the crop-
116 planting pattern in the Dongying District has changed dramatically in the past 20 years from the
117 traditional crop-planting pattern of “grain crops-economic crops” to “grain crops-economic
118 crops-feed crops-energy crops” ([Gu & Wang, 2008](#)). In general, the cultivation of feed and
119 energy crops demands more fertilizer than grain and economic crops ([Huan et al., 2020](#)). Thus,

120 the current crop-planting pattern in the Dongying District forces excessive P fertilizer usage,
121 increasing the risk of P pollution in agricultural soils. Therefore, it is urgent to analyze the P
122 inputs, outputs, losses, and accumulations in different crops of the Dongying District and find the
123 strategies to improve the current situation.

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125 Accordingly, our study structured the P flow frame in the regional agricultural system by
126 systematic evaluation of P flows, PUE, and P load risk rank. By SFA approaches (Wu et al.,
127 2016), we quantified the P inputs, outputs, losses, and accumulations in seven crops (wheat,
128 maize, rice, soybean, peanut, cotton, and fruit-vegetable) from 1995 to 2016 (over 22 years) in
129 the Dongying District. Our results can help manage the sustainable agricultural development in
130 the Dongying District.

131

132 **2. Materials & Methods**

133 *2.1 Study area*

134 Dongying District, located in the northeast of Shandong Province, is a core region of the alluvial
135 delta at the estuary of the Yellow River. The region has a warm temperate continental monsoon
136 climate with an average temperature of 14.3 °C and annual rainfall of 684.7 mm (Boss et al.,
137 2011). Presently, the total area of the city is ~8243.26 km² including 51.72% as agricultural land
138 (Dongying Statistical Yearbook (2018)). The agricultural soils mainly contain tidal and saline-
139 alkali soils (Ottinger et al., 2013). The soil of the region has high salinity and low nutrients (Guo
140 et al., 2020). Additionally, the planting structure in the Dongying District had significantly
141 changed greatly between 1995 and 2016 (Figure 1). The traditional crops of the region include
142 the grain (e.g. wheat and corn) and economic (e.g. cotton) crops. Since the year 2000, several

143 newly formed lands have been developed and utilized as agricultural soils and the farmers are
144 encouraged to cultivate economic crops (e.g. cotton) (Gu & Wang, 2008). The crops analyzed in
145 our study, including wheat, maize, rice, soybean, peanut, cotton and fruit-vegetable, are under
146 conventional farming, which mainly relies on chemical intervention to provide crop nutrition.

147

148 *2.2 System definition*

149 We used SFA following a previous work of Wu et al., (2016) with minor modifications to
150 analyze the P flows in seven crops of Dongying District, including wheat, maize, rice, soybean,
151 peanut, cotton, and fruit-vegetable. The frame of P flows is shown in Figure 2. The studied
152 period covered from 1995 to 2016. For the simplification of statistical results, the years 1995,
153 1998, 2001, 2004, 2007, 2010, 2013, 2016 were chosen to represent change every three years.

154

155 In our investigation, we assumed that the agricultural ecosystem in the Dongying District was in
156 a steady state. Concerning the available data, atmospheric deposition, seeds, chemical fertilizers,
157 pesticides, straw return-to-field, irrigation, resident and livestock excrement were considered as
158 P inputs to the crops. In addition, harvested grains, discarded straw, erosion and runoff were
159 recognized as P outputs. The difference between P inputs and outputs was considered as soil P
160 accumulation.

161

162 *2.3 Quantification*

163 Based on the mass balance principle, the equation “P accumulation = P input - P output” was
164 used to describe P flows in the above crops. Additionally, a dynamic model was developed to

165 quantify annual P flows and distinguish the changes during 22 years. The detailed model
166 equations of the P inputs and outputs of the system are described in Table 1.

167

168 In this study, we quantified the PUE, P nutrient load, and the risk index of P load in the seven
169 crops of the Dongying District from 1995 to 2016. Specifically, PUE described as the ratio
170 between the P content from the harvested grain and the total P inputs ([Senthilkumar et al., 2012](#);
171 [Wu et al., 2016](#)), was used to assess the P use intensity and efficiency in the agricultural soil
172 systems. The P nutrient load and the risk index of P load can evaluate the healthy status of soil in
173 the agricultural systems (Table 1). Here, P load refers to the difference between P inputs and
174 outputs per area ([Dambeniece-Migliniece et al., 2018](#)). The risk index of P load was estimated
175 according to the ratio between P content of fertilizers (chemical fertilizer and excrement) used
176 and the appropriate amount of P fertilizers used in local farmland (Table 1, equation 14)
177 ([Oenema et al., 2004](#)).

178

179 *2.4 Structural equation model*

180 Partial least squares path modeling (PLS-PM) is a variance-based structural equation modeling
181 technique that relies on an alternating least squares algorithm ([Henseler, 2018](#)). It is widely used
182 in various disciplines as an effective tool to analyze the relationships and influence of different
183 aspects on an observed phenomenon. Recently, the improved PLS-PM method has been used for
184 the analysis of cause-effect relationships in confirmatory and explanatory research ([Benitez et
185 al., 2020](#)). In this study, factors with higher P input proportions, i.e. chemical fertilizers, resident
186 and livestock excrement, and straw return-to-field, were selected as block variables.
187 Furthermore, the factors of P output including harvested grains, discarded straw and P erosion

188 and runoff were considered as block variables. Thus, the block variables of the PLS-PM in our
189 study included “fertilizers (residents’ excrement, livestock excrement, and chemical fertilizers)”,
190 “straws return-to-field”, “harvested grains”, “discarded straw” and “P erosion and runoff”.

191

192 In the aspect of accuracy of PLS-PM, the loadings of those block variables were selected with
193 the threshold 0.7, because the indicators with loadings > 0.7 were regarded as adequate
194 indicators for the corresponding block variables (Wang et al., 2016). In our study, the loadings of
195 the five block variables were > 0.7 . Moreover, the PLS-PM model was performed in the plsmpm
196 package (version 0.4.9) in R (version 4.0.3) and was validated by 1,000 bootstraps. The
197 relationships between the five block variables, PUE and P loads were described by path
198 coefficients, which was considered significant when $P < 0.05$.

199

200 *2.5 Data collection*

201 To quantify the P flows in agricultural soil systems of the Dongying District, the data was
202 collected from the official statistical database, interviews, questionnaires, and published data.
203 The statistical Yearbooks of Dongying District (1995; 1998; 2001; 2004; 2007; 2010; 2013;
204 2016) were used to obtain the precipitation, crop areas, harvested grains, chemical fertilizers,
205 pesticides used in the field, and the amount and area of straw returning to the field. These data
206 are listed in Table 1 and the Supplementary file 1. The Supplementary table 1 provides the
207 details about data acquisition.

208

209 In addition, parameters such as the average wind erosion intensity (w^{wind} ; 0.05 Kg/Ha; Smil,
210 2000), P content in the rain fall (r^{rain} ; 0.01 mg/L; Smil, 2000), P-containing rate of the

211 compound fertilizer (r^{com} ; 11.71%; Wu et al., 2016), P-containing rate of the phosphate fertilizer
212 (r^{phos} ; 43.66%; Wu et al., 2016), P-containing rate of the pesticide (r^{pest} ; 3.30%; Yan et al.,
213 2001), P content of residents and livestock excrement ($w^{resid} = w^{livestock}$; 0.73 kg; Wu et al.,
214 2016), the proportion of the excrement applied to the field ($r^{resid} = r^{livestock}$; 95%; Wu et al.,
215 2016), and P content of irrigation per sown area of crop (w^{irrig} ; 0.45 kg ha⁻¹; Chen et al., 2008)
216 were determined. The P-containing rates of wheat, maize, rice, soybean, peanut, cotton, and
217 fruit-vegetable seeds or grains ($r_i^{seed} = r_i^{grain}$) were assumed to be 0.5%, 0.4%, 0.4%, 0.6%,
218 0.5%, 0.78%, and 0.13% (Wu et al., 2016), respectively. The P-containing rates of straw (r_i^{straw}
219) of wheat, maize, rice, soybean, peanut, cotton, fruit-vegetable were 0.08%, 0.15%, 0.13%,
220 0.20%, 0.16%, 0.15%, and 0, respectively (Smil, 2000; Wu et al., 2016). The grain to straw
221 ratios ($r_i^{grain-straw}$) of wheat, maize, rice, soybean, peanut, cotton, and fruit-vegetable were
222 1.10, 3.00, 1.00, 1.60, 1.50, 3.00, and 0.00, respectively (Smil, 2000; Wu et al., 2016). From
223 1995 to 1998, straw return-to-field ratios ($r^{retured\ straw}$) of wheat, maize, rice, peanut and cotton
224 were 0.5, which later increased to 0.85 from 2001 onwards. Comparatively, the straw return-to-
225 field ratio ($r^{retured\ straw}$) of soybean was 0.16, 0.16, 0.56, 0.56, 0.56, 0.56, 0.56, and 0.56 in
226 years of 1995, 1998, 2001, 2004, 2007, 2010, 2013, and 2016, respectively (Supplementary file
227 1). These data and respective sources are listed in Supplementary table 1.

228

229 Furthermore, the P loss data was variable from 1995 to 2016. Notably, the P loss is associated
230 with P erosion and runoff and is tough to determine (Jiang et al., 2019b; Schroder et al., 2011).
231 Therefore, this study used the P loss rates based on the published literature and inferred that it
232 changed with the applied fertilizers (Chen et al., 2008; Fan et al., 2009; Senthilkumar et al.,

233 2012; Wu et al., 2016; Yan et al., 1999). The values related with P loss were shown in
234 Supplementary file 1.

235

236 *2.6 Statistical analysis*

237 In this study, the parameters of P input, P output, PUE, P nutrient load, and the risk index of P
238 load in the crops of the Dongying District were estimated. The model equations of these
239 parameters mentioned above are described in Table 1 and Supplementary file 1. In addition, the
240 model PLS-PM was performed in `plspm` package in R (version 4.0.3). The block variables from
241 P inputs were selected based on their P input proportions. Thus, the factors with higher P input
242 proportions, i.e. chemical fertilizers, resident and livestock excrement, and straw return-to-field,
243 were selected as block variables. Furthermore, the correlation between P input from fertilization
244 and PUE of different crops was studied by “`cor`” function (method = “`pearson`”) in `stats`
245 package in R (version 4.0.3).

246 **3. Results**

247 *3.1 P inputs*

248 Atmospheric deposition, seeds, chemical fertilizers, pesticides, straw return-to-field, resident and
249 livestock excrement, and irrigation were considered as P inputs to study the different crops. Of
250 the Dongying District, P input of agricultural soil systems increased steadily from 1.48×10^4 t in
251 1995 to 2.16×10^4 t in 2007, while it decreased from 1.90×10^4 t in 2010 to 1.78×10^4 t in 2016
252 (Figure 3). Specifically, compared with other crops, cotton had the highest P input from 2004 to
253 2013 (Figure 3). It rose by 5.36 folds from 2.19×10^3 t in 1995 to 1.17×10^4 t in 2007 and
254 maintained high levels until 2013. Furthermore, the P input of the soybean decreased sharply
255 from 4.33×10^3 t in 1998 to 65 t in 2016, which was caused by decreasing soybean cultivation.

256 Only a few farmers were willing to plant soybean in the Dongying District, due to tedious
257 harvesting, storage and post-harvest management of and low economic efficiency (Bern et al.,
258 2008). Since then, the gap between supply and demand of soybean has been expanding, while the
259 supply of corn exceeded demand in the Dongying District. We recognized that the crop structure
260 of the Dongying District is unbalanced making it unfavorable for sustained agricultural
261 development.

262

263 Concerning the source of P inputs, the chemical fertilizers contributed the highest from 1995 to
264 2016, followed by the excrement and straw return-to-field (Figure 4A). Moreover, the proportion
265 of P input from chemical fertilizers increased from 55.4% in 1995 to 78.1% in 2016, while the
266 excrement proportion decreased from 39.1% to 12.2% in the same period (Figure 4A).

267

268 *3.2 P outputs*

269 Harvested grains, discarded straw and erosion and runoff were considered as P outputs.

270 Phosphorus (P) amount from harvested grains accounted for 80%-90% of the total P output
271 (Figure 4B). It decreased from 5.59×10^3 t in 1998 to 4.06×10^3 t in 2004 and then increased to
272 5.70×10^3 t in 2016 (Figure 5). The trend of change in total P output is consistent with that of
273 harvested grains, which decreased from 6.81×10^3 t in 1998 to 4.65×10^3 t in 2004, and then
274 increased to 6.56×10^3 t in 2016 (Table 2).

275

276 Compared with other crops, wheat and corn had the highest P output during the 22 years (Figure
277 5). Specifically, the total P output of the wheat had the highest proportion 21%-43%, followed by
278 the corn 20%-33%. The P output of the wheat first dropped from 2.47×10^3 t in 1995 to $1.02 \times$

279 10^3 t in 2004, and then gradually increased from 1.55×10^3 t in 2007 to 2.81×10^3 t in 2016. The
280 P output of the corn showed a similar trend first decreasing from 1.29×10^3 t in 1995 to $1.19 \times$
281 10^3 t in 2004 and then increasing from 1.70×10^3 t in 2007 to 2.16×10^3 t in 2016.

282

283 *3.3 P load and risk index*

284 In this study, we used the P load index to indicate the soil health status. We found that the cotton
285 had the highest P load value ranging from 63.42 kg/ha (in 1998) to 104.62 kg/ha (in 2004),
286 followed by the soybean with a P load value of 49.47 kg/ha (in 1998)-87.23 kg/ha (in 2004)
287 (Figure 6). Next, we estimated the P load risk index of these crops in the study areas (Table 3),
288 and found that it followed the trend of cotton >soybean >wheat >Fruit-vegetable >maize, rice,
289 and peanut. The cotton was on the top of the P load risk ranks, in the **II** and **III** classes during
290 the 22 years study period.

291

292 *3.4 PUE*

293 Next, we examined the PUE of the studied crops. The PUEs of fruits and vegetables, and wheat
294 and corn were higher than that of the other crops (Figure 4C), while the PUE of cotton was the
295 lowest (~6.9-10.2%). From 1998 to 2004, the PUEs of studied crops showed a slow downward
296 trend 36.9 to 19.6% (Figure 4C). However, after 2004, it steadily increased to 24.1, 28.4, 25.2,
297 and 32.1% in 2007, 2010, 2013, and 2016, respectively (Figure 7).

298

299 Here, we performed PLS-PM structure equation models to explore the effects of P inputs and
300 outputs on PUE and P load (Figure 8). In the final PLS-PM model after removing the variables

301 with loading values < 0.7 , the fertilizer block included the factors of residents' excrement,
302 livestock excrement, and chemical fertilizers. The harvested grains was the most important factor
303 affecting the PUE of crops (path coefficient = 0.934, $P < 0.05$), followed by fertilizers (path
304 coefficient = -0.597, $P < 0.05$). Moreover, the fertilizers positively affected the P load, harvested
305 grains, and P erosion and runoff ($P < 0.05$). Overall, fertilizer block is the key element in the
306 PLS-PM structure equation model as it not only affects the PUE and P load but also affects the
307 factors such as harvested grains and P erosion and runoff. Therefore, to improve the PUE, the
308 comparatively effective method is to optimize fertilizer usage in agricultural soils whilst
309 maintaining crop yields.

310

311 **4. Discussion**

312 *4.1 The application of PLS-PM in substance flow analysis*

313 Phosphorus is not only a crop growth-limiting nutrient in estuaries but also an essential element
314 for eutrophication in estuarine delta ecosystems ([Koh, 2019](#); [Wu et al., 2019](#)). The P enrichment
315 in sediments from eroded upstream water and upland sources can significantly affect the crop
316 yields and eutrophication risks of coastal areas ([Qu et al., 2021](#)).

317

318 Notably, the Yellow River carries 1.08×10^9 t of fluvial sediment annually to the Bohai Sea
319 ([Milliman & Meade, 1983](#)). The sediment deposition has formed the Yellow River Delta which
320 is recognized as the most active coastal zone with land-ocean interaction ([Qu et al., 2021](#)). The
321 Dongying District, the core region of the Yellow River Delta, is located at the intersection of the
322 Shandong Peninsula and the Bohai Sea and has been developed into a major agricultural

323 production base ([He et al., 2020a](#)). In order to increase crop yield, P fertilizers were excessively
324 used which increased the P accumulation in soils, seawater, and ultimately led to eutrophication
325 of the Bohai sea ([Xu et al., 2020](#)). The typical soil type in the Dongying District is classified as
326 saline alluvial soil ([Meng et al., 2020](#)). Notably, excessive application of P fertilizers aggravated
327 soil salinization and ultimately reduced PUE in the Dongying District. The Dongying
328 government firmly implements the guidelines of green agriculture development which encourage
329 the farmers to reduce chemical fertilizers and improve PUE ([Xu et al., 2020](#)). To improve PUE,
330 it is necessary to understand its causal relationship with P inputs and outputs. Here, we used the
331 PLS-PM model to quantify the contributions of P inputs and outputs to PUE in the agricultural
332 system of Dongying District.

333

334 PLS-PM is a variance-based structural equation modeling technique that relies on an alternating
335 least squares algorithm ([Henseler, 2018](#)). It is widely used in various disciplines as an effective
336 tool to analyze the relationships and influence of different aspects on an observed phenomenon.
337 Recently, the PLS-PM method has been further improved for the analysis of cause-effect
338 relationships in confirmatory and explanatory research ([Benitez et al., 2020](#)). In our study, the
339 fertilizers, straws return-to-field, harvested grains, discarded straw, and P erosion and runoff
340 were defined as block variables to estimate the relationship with PUE and P load using the
341 improved PLS-PM method. The PLS-PM model was run based on the bootstrap procedure to
342 validate the path coefficients and the coefficients of determination.

343

344 Our study is the first to use the PLS-PM model for phosphorus flow analysis. Moreover, we
345 established the numerical relationship between the abovementioned five block variables, PUE,

346 and P load, which is the most significant improvement over other studies. In agreement with
347 previous studies(Wu et al., 2016), we found that fertilizer and crop production are the key factors
348 affecting the PUE of the Yellow River Delta region. We suggest that optimizing fertilizer
349 application rate and increasing harvest can effectively increase the PUE. This is a feasible
350 approach for soil P management. We summarize some recommendations with discussion in
351 section 4.3.

352

353 *4.2 Comparison of PUE between Yellow River Delta and other deltas*

354 The PUE of crops in the Yellow River Delta was compared with the reported PUEs of other river
355 deltas (Table 4). The crop species, research methods, boundaries and research periods in those
356 studies are listed in Table 4. We found that the PUEs of crops in the Yangtze and Pearl River
357 Deltas were generally lower than that of the Yellow River Delta. This phenomenon can be
358 attributed to P sorption and P forms in soils. Soil inorganic P could account for up to 50%-90%
359 of soil total P (Feng et al., 2016). The soil inorganic P includes the compounds Al-P and Fe-P in
360 acidic soils and the compounds Ca-P in calcareous soils (Meena et al., 2018). According to the P
361 transforming dynamics, the soil inorganic P could be fractionated into the available P (Olsen P),
362 moderate-cycling P (variscite (Al-P), strengite (Fe-P), dicalcium phosphate (Ca₂-P) and
363 octacalcium phosphate (Ca₈-P)), and recalcitrant P fractions (hydroxyapatite (Ca₁₀-P) and
364 occluded P (O-P)). Olsen P, which can be directly absorbed by crops, is closely related to PUE.
365 The Olsen-P content showed great differences among deltas (Li et al., 2015). It was higher in the
366 Yellow River Delta than in the Yangtze and Pearl rivers deltas. Specifically, the Olsen-P content
367 in >90% of agricultural soils in Pearl River Delta is lower than the recommended value (39 mg
368 kg⁻¹) for crop production (Li et al., 2015). In Pearl and Yangtze rivers deltas, the P-deficient land

369 accounts for >50%, compared with 46% in the Yellow River Delta. That explains the reason for
370 lower PUE in Yangtze and Pearl rivers deltas than in the Yellow River Delta.

371

372 The distribution and morphology of soil P are the key factors affecting PUE. Although the
373 mineral forms of phosphate are not readily available to crops, Al-P, Fe-P, Ca₂-P and Ca₈-P can
374 be transformed into free P forms as important buffering pools for Olsen P. Al-P and Fe-P are the
375 main P forms in acidic soil of Pearl River Delta, while Ca₂-P and Ca₈-P are prominent in
376 calcareous soils of Yellow River Delta ([Xu et al., 2019](#)). Notably, dissolution of Ca-P
377 compounds is the main approach for P release under acidic conditions, which is related to ion
378 exchange between OH⁻ and the Fe-P and Al-P compounds ([Huang et al., 2021](#)). Furthermore, the
379 Fe-P/Ca-P ratio significantly affects the PUE. Soils with higher Fe-P/Ca-P ratios release more P
380 under alkaline conditions, and in turn higher PUE ([Huang et al., 2005](#)). The soil system is a
381 complex dynamic ecosystem ([Chen et al., 2002](#)). Thus, to improve PUE, a better understanding
382 of the distribution and morphology of P is important to frame scientific and sensible guidelines.

383

384 *4.3 Data uncertainties*

385 The data and parameters used in the SFA model on P flows were mainly obtained from the
386 statistical yearbooks of the Dongying District, face-to-face interviews, questionnaires, and
387 research articles. The data from the official yearbooks are publicly available and are frequently
388 used in the research of material flow analysis ([Han et al., 2021](#)). The local statistician may have
389 changed the statistical methods during the period of 22 years. Consequently, the uncertainty level
390 is greater for the data from the older yearbooks.

391

392 The parameters such as the P-containing rates of crop seeds (r^{seed}), grain to straw ratio of crops
393 ($r^{\text{grain-straw}}$), P-containing rate of crop straws (r^{straw}), P content of residents' excrement (w^{resid}), P
394 content of livestock excrement ($w^{\text{livestock}}$), P-containing rate of grains (r^{grain}), were obtained from
395 previous research articles (Supplementary table 1), with the limitation of space and time, which
396 could inevitably introduce errors into our study (Wu et al., 2016).

397

398 Moreover, the parameters including average wind erosion intensity per sown area (w^{wind}), P
399 content in the rainfall (r^{rain}), P loss content per unit of crop area (r^{loss}) are mainly based on the
400 local natural environment and climate. These data are difficult to get and relatively uncertain.
401 Furthermore, the data obtained from the interview and questionnaire, for example, amounts of
402 crop seeds per sown area (w^{seed}), amount of compound fertilizer used (B^{com}), amount of
403 phosphate fertilizer used (B^{phos}), straw return-to-field ratio ($r^{\text{returned straw}}$), proportion of residents'
404 excrement applied to the field (r^{resid}), and proportion of livestock excrement applied to the field
405 ($r^{\text{livestock}}$) might only have reflected the farmland situation of interviewee rather than the whole
406 field information of Dongying District. Although we consider these uncertainties because of data
407 limitations, the uncertainties could not be fully eliminated but were largely minimized by
408 comparing the related studies and broadening the investigation. Additionally, the local
409 monitoring and field experimentation could have improved the parameters and data accuracy
410 (Wu et al., 2016).

411

412 *4.4 Suggestions for Improving PUE*

413 We found that the PUEs of studied crops were low (~20-40%) and differed among different
414 crops. The PUE of cotton was the lowest (~6.9-10.2%). Improving the PUE of cotton can
415 improve P management in the agricultural systems of the Yellow River Delta. Additionally, the
416 relationship between P input from fertilization and PUE was studied (Supplementary figure 1).
417 The PUE of wheat, rice and soybean positively correlated with P contents of fertilizers, the
418 Pearson correlation coefficients (r) were 0.047, 0.16, and 0.25 for wheat, rice, and soybean
419 respectively. However, the PUE of maize, peanut, cotton, and fruit-vegetables was negatively
420 related with the P content of fertilizers ($r = -0.62, -0.58, -0.29, -0.44$ for maize, peanut, cotton,
421 fruit-vegetables, respectively). The farmers of maize, peanut, cotton and fruit-vegetable should
422 make the best use of fertilizers. Furthermore, our research suggests that the low PUE in the
423 Yellow River Delta region is attributed to heavy application of fertilizers and low harvest. Here,
424 we suggest the following measures to improve PUE.

425

426 4.4.1 Optimizing fertilizer application

427 (1) Soil testing and fertilizer recommendation

428 Soil testing can determine the soil's fertility status to regulate fertilizer demand and improve
429 fertilizer efficiency ([Liu et al., 2017](#); [Sun et al., 2013](#)). Soil testing and fertilizer recommendation
430 were implemented in the Dongying District from 2004. From then on, fertilizer inputs reduced
431 by 25.83, 83.33, and 19.66 kg/ha for wheat, corn, and cotton fields in 2013, respectively.
432 However, the soil testing and fertilizer recommendation can be significantly affected by several
433 factors, such as local soil condition, climate situation, and cotton varieties ([Jordan-Meille et al.,](#)
434 [2012](#)). Moreover, the structure of fertilizer can negatively impact the effect of soil testing and
435 fertilizer recommendation. For example, the local farmers chose chemical fertilizers over organic

436 fertilizers to save manpower. The excessive use of chemical fertilizers decreases soil fertility and
437 in turn PUE. Therefore, we suggest that the soil properties (pH, clay content), climate situation,
438 cotton species, and fertilizer structure should be considered to attain the optimum results (Jordan-
439 Meille et al., 2012).

440

441 (2) Modifying the P-fertilizer treatment

442 In the Dongying District, P is applied by the broadcast fertilization method. However, the
443 method is not effective for P uptake by crops (Schroder et al., 2011). Thus, to increase PUE,
444 novel scientific fertilization modes should be encouraged in the Dongying District. A study
445 showed that lowland rice soil of Sub-Saharan Africa needed twice the amount of P fertilizer if
446 broadcasted instead of P-dipping (Rakotoarisoa et al., 2020). Here, we recommend the root-zone
447 P fertilization instead of broadcast fertilization to improve P fertilizer efficiency in the Dongying
448 District.

449

450 (3) Combination of inorganic fertilizer and organic fertilizer

451 In the Dongying District, the amounts of organic fertilizers (for example, excrement) reduced
452 gradually, while the amount of chemical fertilizer increased rapidly from 1995 to 2016 (Figure
453 4A). The organic fertilizers, such as excrement, increase carbon and organic matter in soil that
454 can improve soil P binding, retention, and availability to crops (Yang et al., 2019). However,
455 long-term application of organic fertilizer would promote the soil accumulation of heavy metals,
456 e.g. Zn, Cd, and Cr, inducing adverse effects on food safety (Ning et al., 2017). Thus, we suggest
457 that the farmers of the Dongying District should have the reasonable application of organic
458 fertilizers.

459

460 (4) Optimizing the planting structure

461 We found that the cotton and soybean had low PUE and high P load. To improve PUE, the
462 growing area of the cotton and soybean should be reduced appropriately, whilst the growing area
463 of the crops with high PUE and low P load should be increased. However, the local agricultural
464 structure is mainly dependent on the market economy and local planting habits, and therefore
465 cannot be fully controlled.

466

467 4.4.2 Increasing the harvest

468 (1) Utilizing P solubilizing microorganisms (PSMs)

469 Many studies have reported the solubilization of insoluble P by PSM ([Richardson, 2001](#); [Sharma](#)
470 [et al., 2013](#)), which can convert unavailable P into available P (Olsen P) improving P uptake by
471 crop and higher yield. Generally, PSMs can be divided into two classes; (1) inorganic P-
472 solubilizing microorganisms secreting organic acid to dissolve inorganic P compounds, and (2)
473 organic P-mineralizing microorganisms secreting phosphatase to enzymatically mineralize
474 organic P compounds ([Alori et al., 2017](#)). Both field and pot experiments with or without P-
475 fertilizers showed that PSMs can improve crop yield and P uptake ([Bolo et al., 2021](#); [Jiang et al.,](#)
476 [2021](#)). For example, [Noor et al. \(2017\)](#) used the co-application of P fertilizer-PSM
477 (*Pseudomonas putida*) to improve maize dry matter yield and P uptake by 12% and 33%,
478 respectively.

479

480 Additionally, PSMs decrease soil pH and are better suitable for natural and alkaline soils.

481 Therefore, PSMs can greatly improve available P and PUE without influencing the soil health in

482 the Yellow River Delta region. Various soil species of PSMs (including both fungi and bacteria)
483 can solubilize phosphorus. However, it is difficult to predict effective PSMs in each field.
484 Therefore, screening effective PSMs is necessary for a specific location.

485

486 (2) Improving the mechanization level

487 The crop harvest is significantly affected by the mechanization level. Specifically, in cotton
488 planting, the increase in labor cost and lower production restricts productivity which can be
489 improved with mechanization. The farmers in the Shawan county of Xinjiang Province have
490 realized the cotton mechanization from sowing to harvesting. The local government and farmers
491 introduced a new packing cotton picker, and the process of cotton harvesting and packaging has
492 become highly mechanized. This greatly improved the cotton yield and quality. We suggest that
493 the farmers in the Dongying District should establish similar cotton production mechanization,
494 and learn from the cotton planting experience of Xinjiang Province.

495

496 The abovementioned strategies can provide the possibilities to reduce P load and improve PUE,
497 however, with farmer's requirements and acceptance. The ecological agriculture development in
498 the Dongying District is largely dependent on the collaborative partnerships of policymakers,
499 researchers, and farmers. Additionally, the factors of government policy, price, cropping
500 mechanization, and farmer's motivation would indirectly affect PUE by influencing the
501 cultivation area. For example, the government policy of encouraging local farmers to extend
502 cotton plantation since 2004, the supply of corn exceeds demand in Dongying District. However,
503 only a few farmers were willing to plant soybean, because of tedious harvesting, storage and
504 post-harvest management, as well as low economic efficiency (Bern et al., 2008). Furthermore,

505 the low prices and cropping mechanization muted farmers' enthusiasm to grow wheat and maize
506 from the year of 1995 to 2004, reducing the total P output of these crops. Therefore, the
507 researchers should fully consider those factors, e.g. government policy, price, cropping
508 mechanization, and farmer's motivation, in further study of how to improve PUE.

509 **5. Conclusions**

510 In this paper, we used SFA to establish the dynamic model of phosphorus flow in different crops
511 of the Dongying District from 1995 to 2016. We found that P input increased steadily from 1995
512 to 2007, and then decreased from 2010 to 2016. Specifically, compared with other crops, cotton
513 had the highest P input from 2004 to 2013. Among the contributing sources of P input, chemical
514 fertilizers contributed the highest. Meanwhile, the P amount from harvested grains accounted for
515 80-90% of the total P output.

516

517 Also, the cotton had the highest P load and topped in the P load risk ranking. Excessive P load in
518 cotton caused problems with the plant uptake of elements and potentially increased
519 eutrophication risk. Additionally, the PUE was significantly different among distinct crops. The
520 PUE of cotton was the lowest. Based on the PLS-PM structure equation model, fertilizers and
521 harvested grains were the two important factors affecting PUE. Therefore, reducing the use of
522 fertilizer in agricultural soils whilst maintaining crop yields can effectively improve PUE.

523

524 Finally, we provide some recommendations for improving PUE and reducing P load in
525 agricultural soil. However, the soil physicochemical properties and biases of cotton planting in
526 the Dongying District should be considered before implementing recommendations.

527 Additionally, farmers' requirements and acceptance should be respected. In-field demonstrations
528 and formulating the fertilization scheme can significantly improve policy implementation.

529

530 **Conflicts of Interest:** The authors declare no conflict of interest.

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Figure 1

Land uses and cropping covers in Dongying district.

(A) Land uses and cropping covers in Dongying district for the years of 2000; (B) Land uses and cropping covers in Dongying district for the years of 2010; (C) Land uses and cropping covers in Dongying district for the years of 2016.

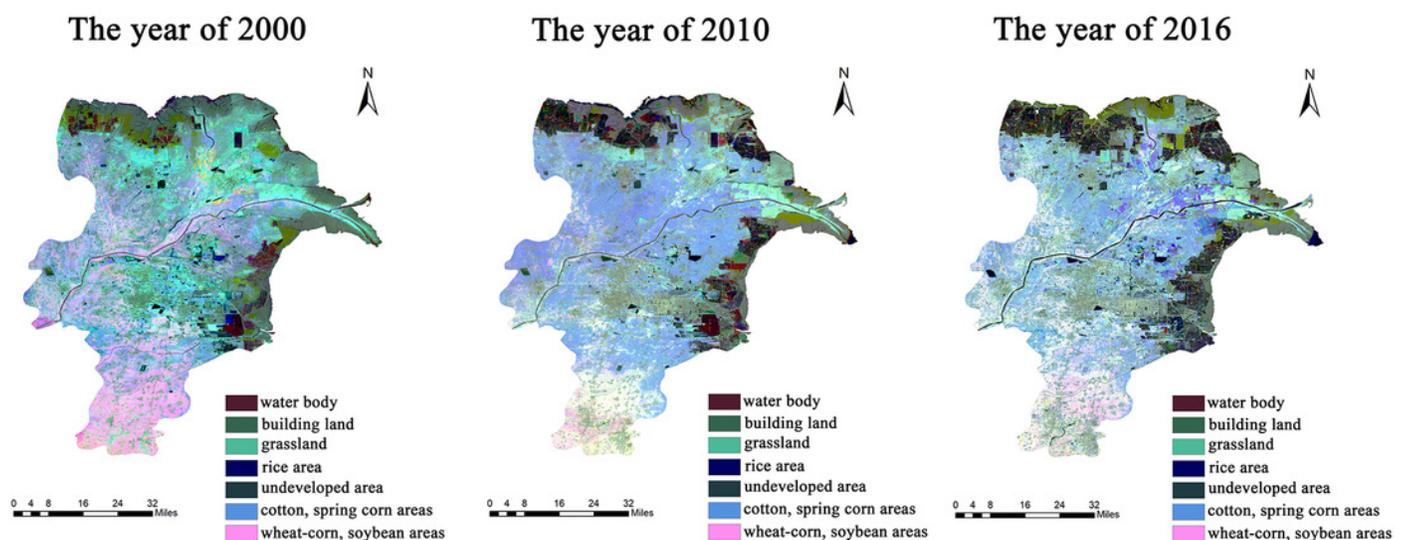


Figure 2

The diagram of phosphorus (P) flows in crops of Dongying district.

The figure showed the frame of P flows in crops of Dongying district. Concerning the available data, atmospheric deposition, seeds, chemical fertilizers, pesticides, straw return-to-field, irrigation, resident and livestock excrement were considered as P inputs to the cropping systems. In addition, harvested grains, harvested straw, erosion and runoff were recognized as P outputs. The difference between P inputs and outputs was considered as Soil P accumulation.

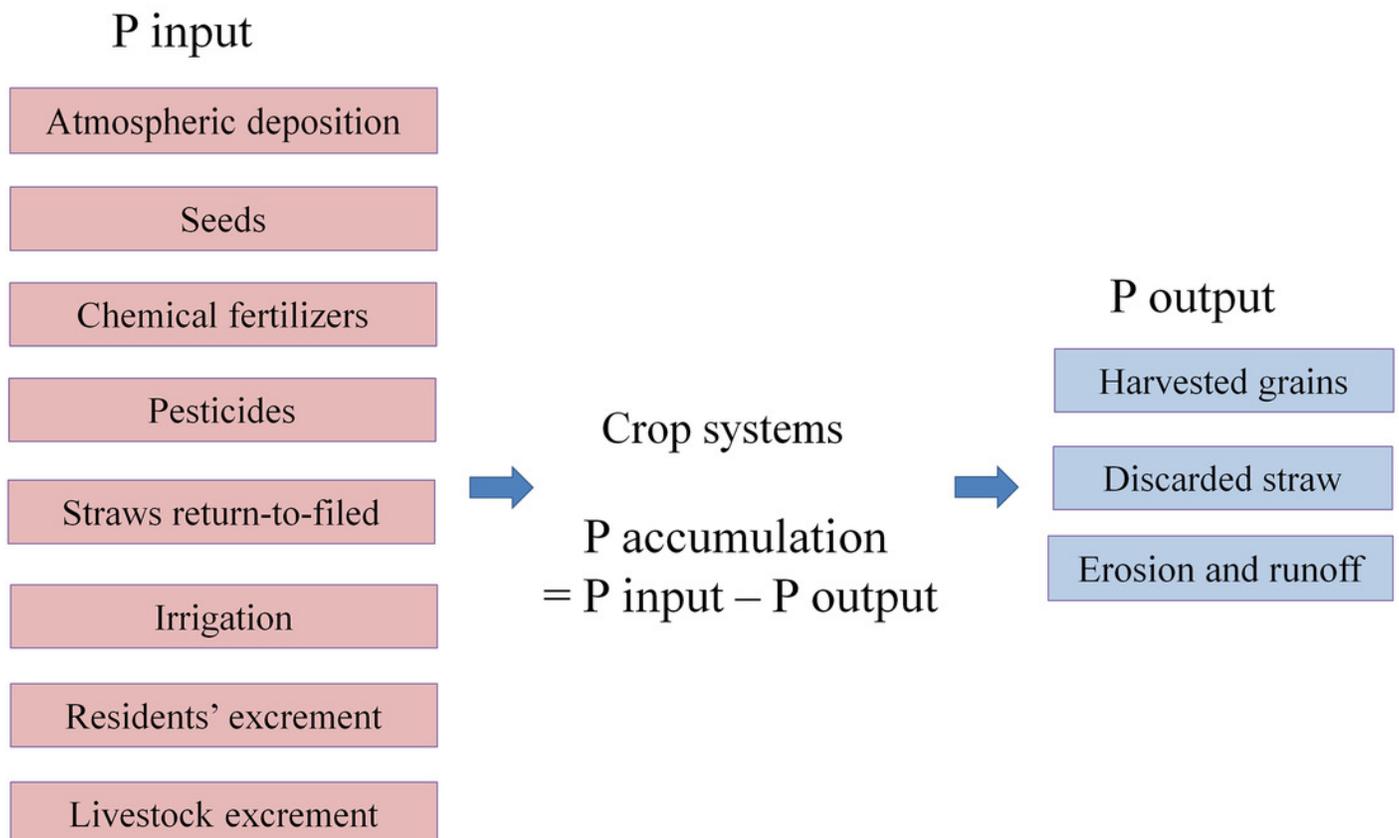


Figure 3

Phosphorus (P) input into the seven crops in Dongying district from 1995 to 2016. The crops include wheat, maize, rice, soybean, peanut, cotton and fruit-vegetable.

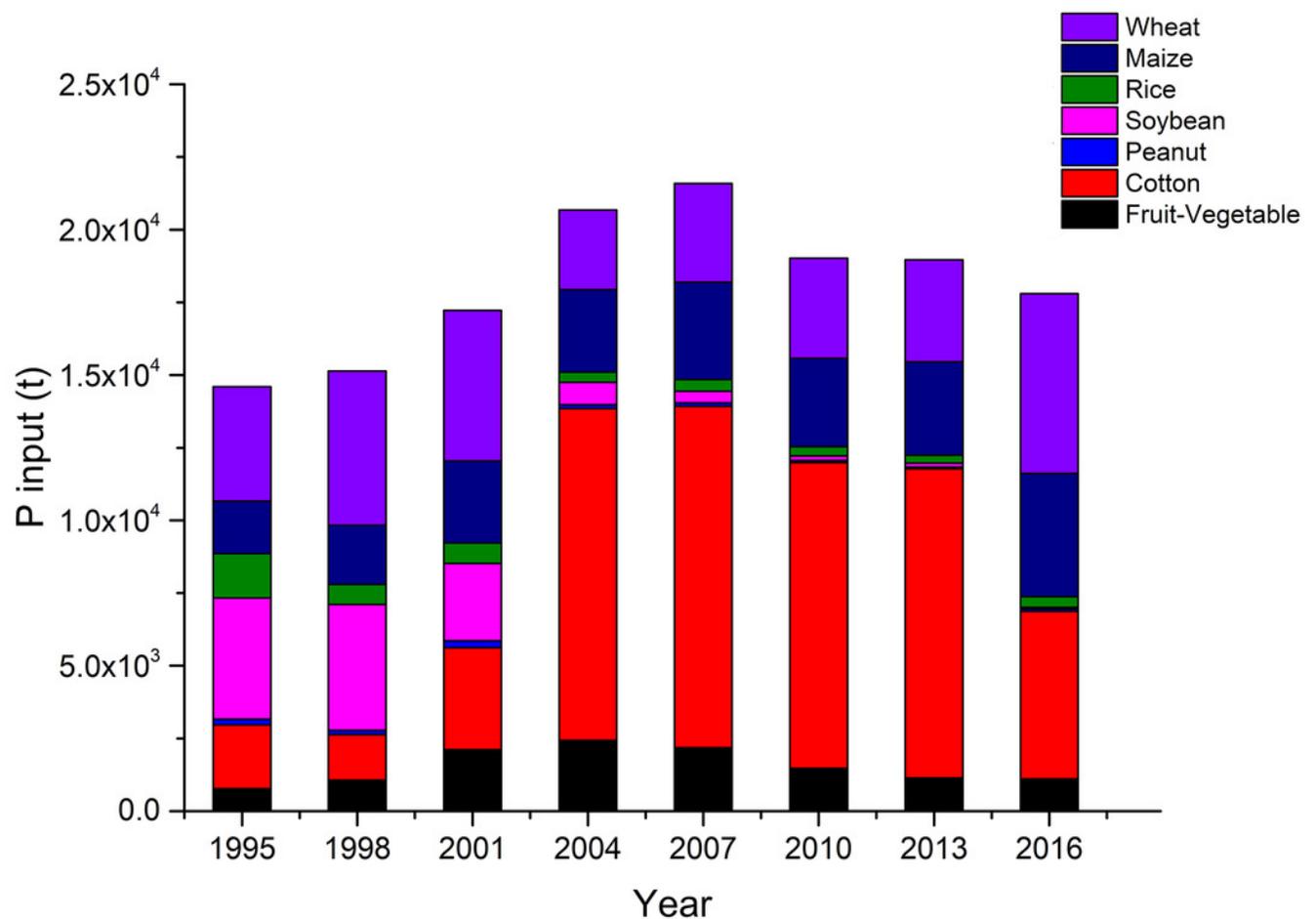


Figure 4

Fig. 4 (A) The proportion of the phosphorus (P) input factors (Fig. 4A), output factors (Fig. 4B) and the phosphorus use efficiency (PUE) (Fig. 4C) in the different crops in Dongying district from 1995 to 2016.

The P input factors include atmospheric deposition, seeds, chemical fertilizers, pesticides, straw return-to-field, resident and livestock excrement, and irrigation. The P output factors include harvested grains, harvested straw, and erosion and runoff. The seven crops include wheat, maize, rice, soybean, peanut, cotton and fruit-vegetable.

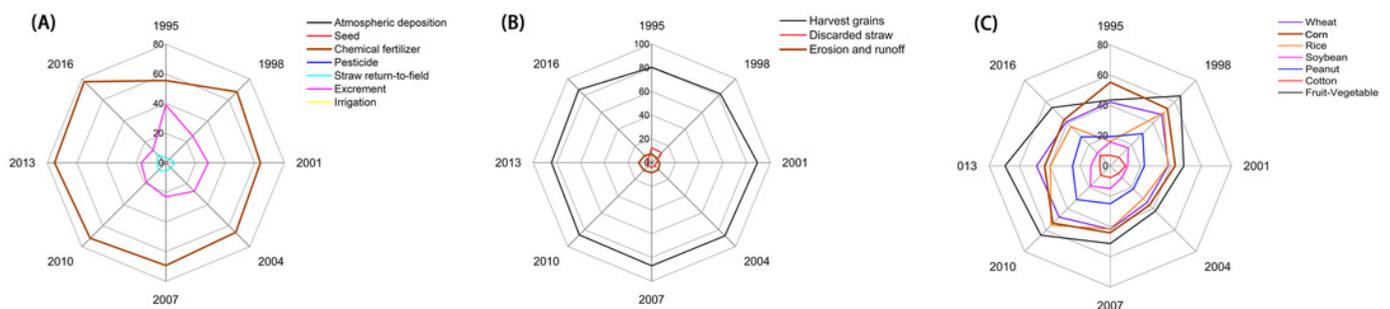


Figure 5

Fig. 5 Phosphorus (P) output from the seven crops in Dongying district from 1995 to 2016. The crops include wheat, maize, rice, soybean, peanut, cotton and fruit-vegetable.

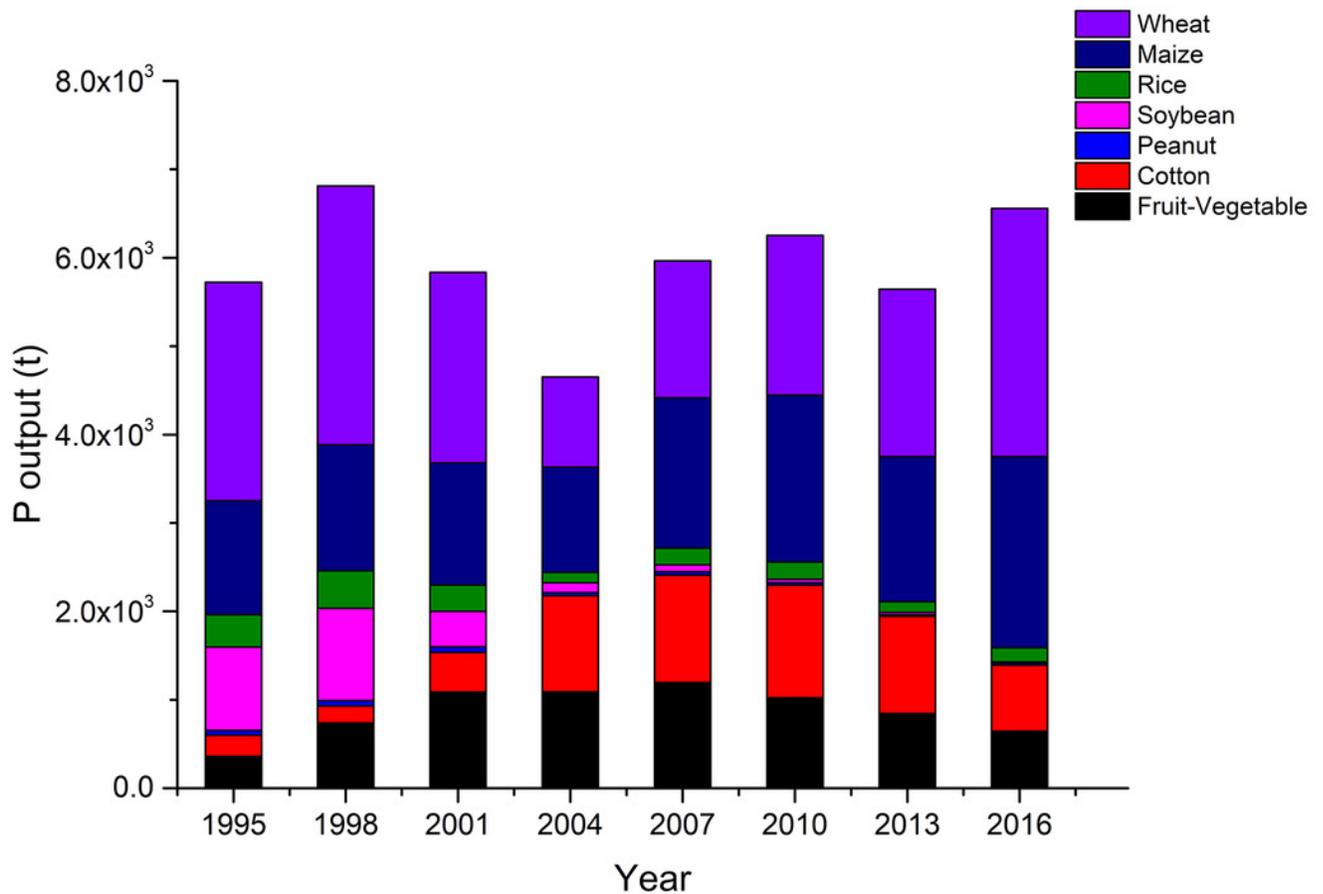


Figure 6

Phosphorus (P) load of the seven crops in Dongying district from 1995 to 2016.

The crops include wheat, maize, rice, soybean, peanut, cotton and fruit-vegetable.

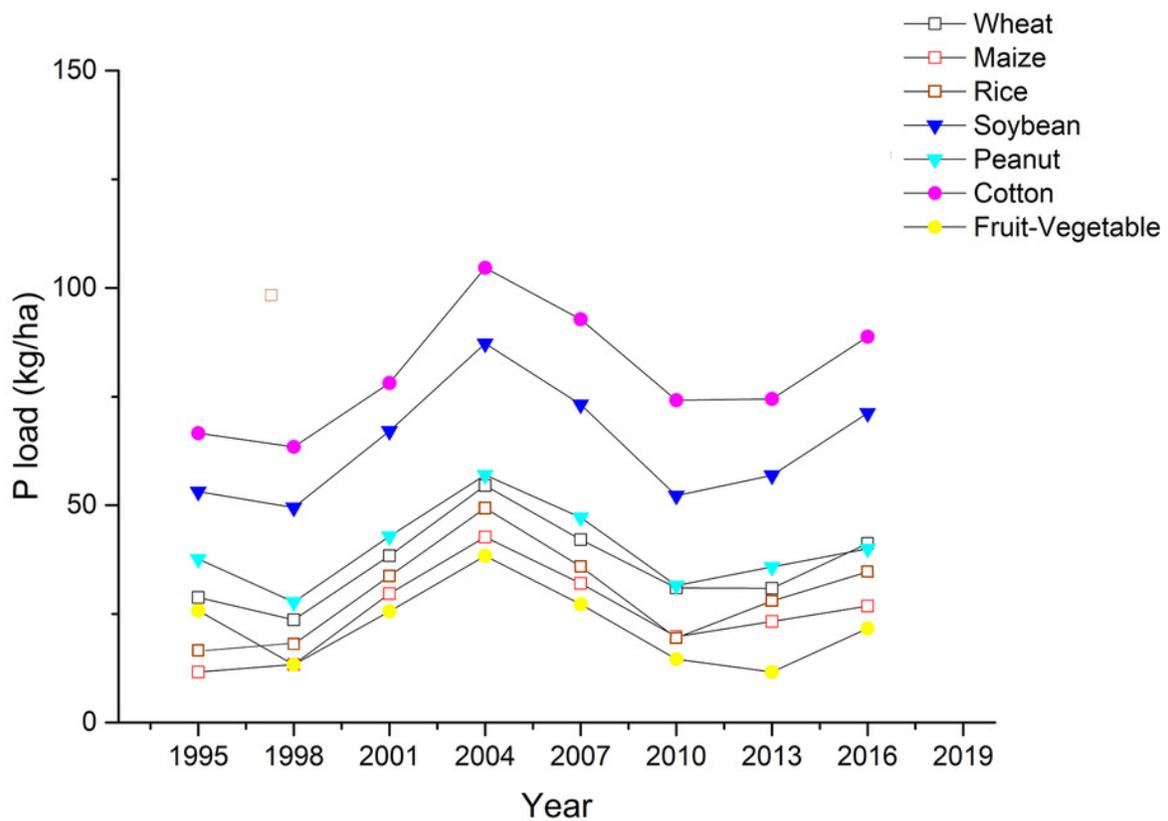


Figure 7

Fig. 7 Temporal trend of the phosphorus use efficiency (PUE) of the different crops in Dongying district from 1995 to 2016.

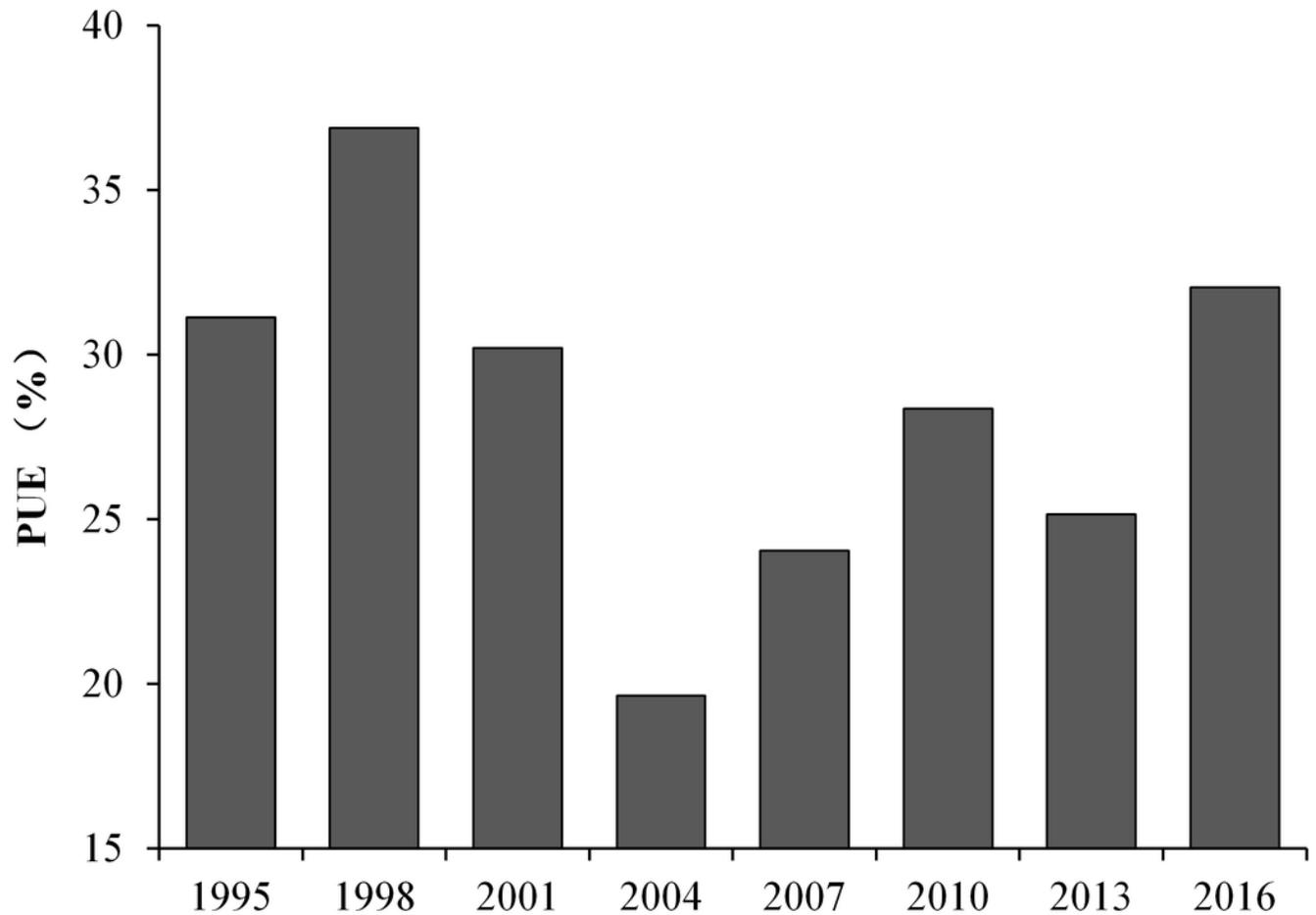


Figure 8

Fig. 8 The final partial least squares path models (PLS-PM) showing direct and total effects of significant factors of Phosphorus (P) input and Phosphorus (P) output on the phosphorus use efficiency (PUE) and Phosphorus (P) load in crops.

These significant factors were divided into five block variables: fertilizers (residents' excrement, livestock excrement and chemical fertilizers), straws return-to-field, harvested grains, discarded straw and Phosphorus (P) erosion and runoff. Here, only paths with the significance $P < 0.05$ are shown for simplicity. Black solid and red dashed lines represent positive and negative effects, respectively. The absolute value of the path coefficients are shown on the lines.

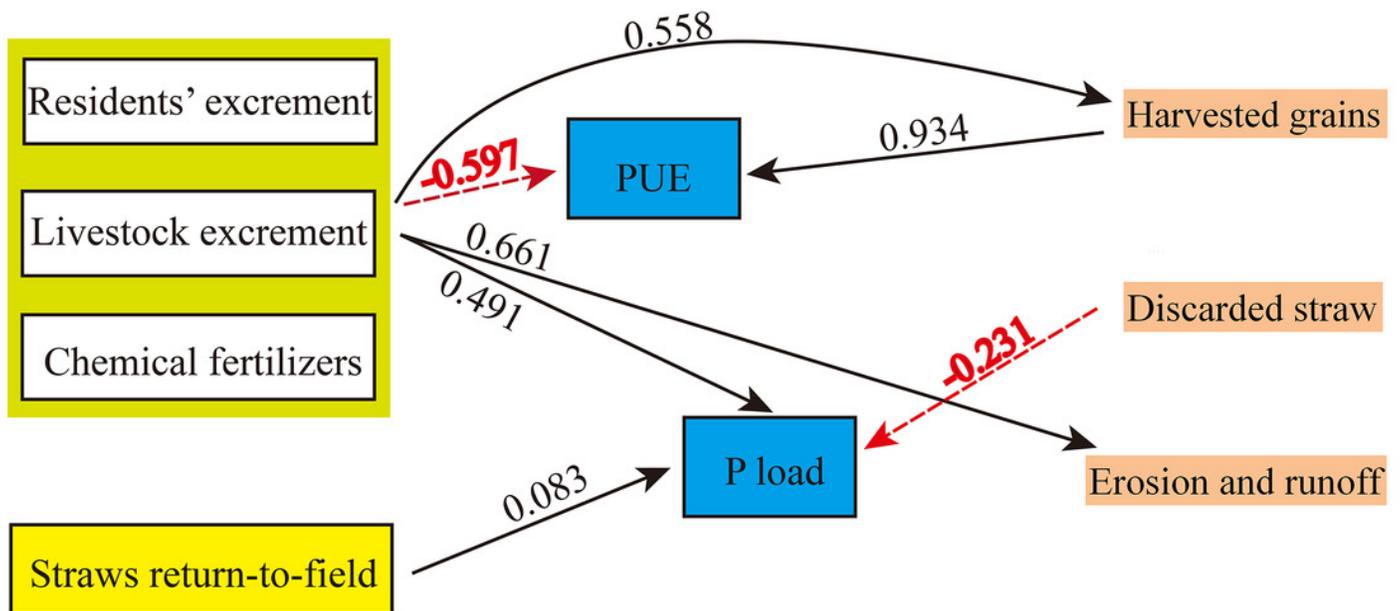


Table 1 (on next page)

Equations of the P flow calculation of the crops

P flows	Calculation formula	
P input		
P_i^{atmos}	$P_i^{atmos} = A_i^{area} W^{wind} + A_i^{area} A^{preci} r^{rain}$	Equation 1
P_i^{seed}	$P_i^{seed} = A_i^{area} W_i^{seed} r_i^{seed}$	Equation 2
P_i^{chem}	$P_i^{chem} = B_i^{com} r^{com} + B_i^{phos} r^{phos}$	Equation 3
P_i^{pest}	$P_i^{pest} = B_i^{pest} r^{pest}$	Equation 4
$P_i^{retured\ straw}$	$P_i^{retured\ straw} = B_i^{grain} r^{grain} - straw_i r^{straw} r^{retured\ straw}$	Equation 5
P_i^{resid}	$P_i^{resid} = B^{resid} W^{resid} r^{resid} \frac{A_i^{area}}{A^{area}}$	Equation 6
$P_i^{livestock}$	$P_i^{livestock} = B^{livestock} W^{livestock} r^{livestock} \frac{A_i^{area}}{A^{area}}$	Equation 7
P_i^{irrig}	$P_i^{irrig} = A_i^{area} W^{irrig}$	Equation 8
P output		
P_i^{grain}	$P_i^{grain} = B_i^{grain} r^{grain}$	Equation 9
$P_i^{discarded\ straw}$	$P_i^{discarded\ straw} = B_i^{grain} r^{grain} - straw_i r^{straw} (1 - r^{retured\ straw})$	Equation 10

P^{loss}

$$P_i^{loss} = A_i^{area} r_i^{loss}$$

Equation 11

PUE

$$PUE = P_i^{grain} / P_i^{input}$$

Equation 12

P load

$$P\ load = (P^{input} - P^{output}) / A^{area}$$

Equation 13

**The risk model of
P load (r)**

$$r = (P^{Chem}/Fp + (P^{resid} + P^{livestock})/Lp) / 2$$

Equation 14

1 **Here,**

2 (1) For Equation 1

3

$$P_i^{atmos} = A_i^{area} w^{wind} + A_i^{area} A^{preci} r^{rain}$$

4 Here,

5 P_i^{atmos} : Atmospheric deposition P of wheat, maize, rice, soybean, peanut, cotton, fruit-vegetable, respectively (t);6 A_i^{area} : Sown areas of wheat, maize, rice, soybean, peanut, cotton, and fruit-vegetable, respectively (ha);7 w^{wind} : Average wind erosion intensity per sown area (kg/ha);8 A^{preci} : Precipitation (mm/ha);9 r^{rain} : P content in the rain fall (mg/L);

10 (2) For Equation 2 $P_i^{seed} = A_i^{area} w_i^{seed} r_i^{seed}$

11 Here,

12 P_i^{seed} : P content of the seeds of wheat, maize, rice, soybean, peanut, cotton, fruit-vegetable, respectively (t);

13 A_i^{area} : Sown areas of wheat, maize, rice, soybean, peanut, cotton, fruit-vegetable, respectively (ha);

14 w_i^{seed} : Seed amount per sown area of wheat, maize, rice, soybean, peanut, cotton, fruit-vegetable, respectively (kg/m²);

15 r_i^{seed} : P-containing rates of seeds of wheat, maize, rice, soybean, peanut, cotton, fruit-vegetable, respectively (%);

16 (3) For Equation 3

17
$$P_i^{chem} = B_i^{com} r^{com} + B_i^{phos} r^{phos}$$

18 P_i^{chem} : P content of chemical fertilizers used in wheat, maize, rice, soybean, peanut, cotton, fruit-vegetable, respectively (t);

19 B_i^{com} : Amount of compound fertilizer used in wheat, maize, rice, soybean, peanut, cotton, fruit-vegetable, respectively (t);

20 r^{com} : P-containing rate of the compound fertilizer (%);

21 B_i^{phos} : Amount of phosphate fertilizer used in wheat, maize, rice, soybean, peanut, cotton, fruit-vegetable, respectively (t);

22 r^{phos} : P-containing rate of the phosphate fertilizer (%);

23 (4) For Equation 4

24
$$P_i^{pest} = B_i^{pest} r^{pest}$$

25 P_i^{pest} : P content of the pesticide used in wheat, maize, rice, soybean, peanut, cotton, fruit-vegetable, respectively (t);

26 B_i^{pest} : Amount of pesticide used in wheat, maize, rice, soybean, peanut, cotton, fruit-vegetable, respectively (t);

27 r^{pest} : P-containing rate of the pesticide (%);

28 (5) For Equation 5
$$P_i^{retured\ straw} = B_i^{grain} r_i^{grain - straw} r_i^{straw} r_i^{retured\ straw}$$

29 $P_i^{retured\ straw}$: P content of the straw return-to-field of wheat, maize, rice, soybean, peanut, cotton, fruit-vegetable, respectively (t);

30 B_i^{grain} : Harvest of wheat, maize, rice, soybean, peanut, cotton, fruit-vegetable, respectively (t);

31 $r_i^{grain - straw}$: Grain to straw ratio of wheat, maize, rice, soybean, peanut, cotton, fruit-vegetable, respectively;

32 r_i^{straw} : P-containing rate of straws of wheat, maize, rice, soybean, peanut, cotton, fruit-vegetable, respectively (%);

33 $r^{retured\ straw}$: straw return-to-field ratio (%);

34 (6) For Equation 6

35
$$P_i^{resid} = B^{resid} W^{resid} r^{resid} \frac{A_i^{area}}{A^{area}}$$

36 P_i^{resid} : P content of the residents' excrement applied to the field of wheat, maize, rice, soybean, peanut, cotton, fruit-vegetable,

37 respectively (t);

38 B^{resid} : The population of residents;

39 w^{resid} : P content of residents' excrement (kg);

40 r^{resid} : Proportion of residents' excrement applied to the field (%);

41 A_i^{area} : Sown areas of wheat, maize, rice, soybean, peanut, cotton, and fruit-vegetable, respectively (ha);

42 A^{area} : Sown area of all crop (ha);

43 (7) For Equation 7

$$44 \quad P_i^{livestock} = B^{livestock} w^{livestock} r^{livestock} \frac{A_i^{area}}{A^{area}}$$

45 $P_i^{livestock}$: P content of the livestock excrement applied to the field of wheat, maize, rice, soybean, peanut, cotton, fruit-vegetable,
46 respectively (t);

47 $B^{livestock}$: The amount of pig, cattle and sheep, respectively;

48 $w^{livestock}$: P content of livestock excrement (kg);

49 $r^{livestock}$: Proportion of livestock excrement applied to the field (%);

50 A_i^{area} : Sown areas of wheat, maize, rice, soybean, peanut, cotton, and fruit-vegetable, respectively (ha);

51 A^{area} : Sown area of all crop (ha);

52 (8) For Equation 8

53

$$P_i^{irrig} = A_i^{area} w_i^{irrig}$$

54 P_i^{irrig} : P content of irrigation in wheat, maize, rice, soybean, peanut, cotton, and fruit-vegetable, respectively (t);

55 A_i^{area} : Sown areas of wheat, maize, rice, soybean, peanut, cotton, and fruit-vegetable, respectively (ha);

56 w_i^{irrig} : P content of irrigation per sown area of wheat, maize, rice, soybean, peanut, cotton, fruit-vegetable, respectively (kg/ha);

57 (9) For Equation 9 $P_i^{grain} = B_i^{grain} r_i^{grain}$

58 P_i^{grain} : P content of the harvested grains of wheat, maize, rice, soybean, peanut, cotton, and fruit-vegetable, respectively (t);

59 B_i^{grain} : Harvest of wheat, maize, rice, soybean, peanut, cotton, fruit-vegetable, respectively (t);

60 r_i^{grain} : P-containing rate of grains of wheat, maize, rice, soybean, peanut, cotton, fruit-vegetable, respectively (%);

61

62 (10) For Equation 10 $P_i^{discarded\ straw} = B_i^{grain} r_i^{grain - straw} r_i^{straw} (1 - r_i^{retured\ straw})$

63 $P_i^{discarded\ straw}$: P content of the discarded straw of wheat, maize, rice, soybean, peanut, cotton, fruit-vegetable, respectively (t);

64 B_i^{grain} : Harvest of wheat, maize, rice, soybean, peanut, cotton, fruit-vegetable, respectively (t);

65 $r_i^{grain - straw}$: Grain to straw ratio of wheat, maize, rice, soybean, peanut, cotton, fruit-vegetable, respectively;

66 r_i^{straw} : P-containing rate of straws of wheat, maize, rice, soybean, peanut, cotton, fruit-vegetable, respectively (%);

67 $r_i^{retured\ straw}$: Straw return-to-field ratio (%);

68 (11) For Equation 11 $P_i^{loss} = A_i^{area} r_i^{loss}$

69 P_i^{loss} : P content from erosion and runoff in the field of wheat, maize, rice, soybean, peanut, cotton, fruit-vegetable, respectively (t);

70 A_i^{area} : Sown areas of wheat, maize, rice, soybean, peanut, cotton, and fruit-vegetable, respectively (ha);

71 r_i^{loss} : P loss content per unit of the area of wheat, maize, rice, soybean, peanut, cotton, fruit-vegetable, respectively (kg/ha).

72 (12) For Equation 12

$$73 \quad PUE = P_i^{grain} / P_i^{input}$$

74 The PUE was described as the ratio between the P content from the harvested grain and the total P inputs in studied system.

75 P_i^{grain} : P content of the harvested grains of wheat, maize, rice, soybean, peanut, cotton, and fruit-vegetable, respectively (t);

76 P_i^{input} : P input of wheat, maize, rice, soybean, peanut, cotton, and fruit-vegetable, respectively (t).

77 (13) For Equation 13

$$78 \quad P \text{ load} = (P_i^{input} - P_i^{output}) / A_i^{area}$$

79 P load is used to assess the health of the soil system, and it refers to the difference between P inputs and P outputs per area.

80 P_i^{input} : P input of wheat, maize, rice, soybean, peanut, cotton, and fruit-vegetable, respectively (t);

81 P_i^{output} : P output of wheat, maize, rice, soybean, peanut, cotton, and fruit-vegetable, respectively (t).

82 A_i^{area} : Sown areas of wheat, maize, rice, soybean, peanut, cotton, and fruit-vegetable, respectively (ha);

83 (14) For Equation 14

84
$$Rp = (P_i^{chem}/Fp + (P_i^{resid} + P_i^{livestock})/Lp) / 2$$

85 P_i^{chem} : P content of chemical fertilizers used in wheat, maize, rice, soybean, peanut, cotton, fruit-vegetable, respectively (t);

86 $P_i^{livestock}$: P content of the livestock excrement applied to field of wheat, maize, rice, soybean, peanut, cotton, fruit-vegetable,

87 respectively (t);

88 P_i^{resid} : P content of the residents' excrement applied to field of wheat, maize, rice, soybean, peanut, cotton, fruit-vegetable,

89 respectively (t);

90 Fp is the appropriate amount of P fertilizers (70 kg/ha);

91 Lp is the maximum P content in excrement used (35 kg/ha)

92

Table 2 (on next page)

Phosphorus input and output in different crops of Dongying district from 1995 to 2016

P Input (t)	Wheat	Corn	Rice	Soybean	Peanut	Cotton	Fruit-Vegetable
Atmospheric deposition							
1995	9.48	4.68	0.98	6.28	0.41	3.03	1.66
1998	9.71	4.35	1.43	6.39	0.31	2.07	2.39
2001	6.86	4.24	1.04	2.93	0.35	3.41	3.48
2004	3.58	4.41	0.51	0.87	0.20	11.25	4.00
2007	3.77	4.40	0.51	0.38	0.16	9.76	3.12
2010	5.64	6.18	0.69	0.24	0.16	13.27	3.29
2013	4.28	5.54	0.42	0.17	0.08	10.50	2.10
2016	9.35	8.87	0.69	0.09	0.15	6.45	2.46
Seeds							
1995	82.56	5.43	1.90	43.76	3.33	2.28	1.25
1998	90.87	5.43	2.97	47.79	2.70	1.68	1.94
2001	70.97	5.85	2.38	24.23	3.43	3.06	3.12
2004	28.29	4.65	0.90	5.47	1.49	7.70	2.74
2007	39.45	6.14	1.19	3.15	1.57	8.85	2.83
2010	47.64	6.97	1.30	1.65	1.29	9.72	2.41
2013	46.98	8.12	1.03	1.46	0.87	9.99	2.00
2016	73.57	9.31	1.21	0.55	1.09	4.40	1.68
Chemical fertilizers							
1995	2806.18	1011.97	239.08	2718.14	98.36	1470.88	403.75
1998	3522.47	1112.02	416.13	3262.43	89.08	1207.57	697.12
2001	3263.25	1384.45	389.94	1911.21	132.16	2564.45	1308.83
2004	1728.73	1398.54	191.22	548.51	74.56	8374.18	1487.07
2007	2267.25	1728.70	237.07	295.71	73.63	9019.87	1444.02
2010	2421.11	1582.52	216.52	125.29	50.56	8328.13	1033.46
2013	2475.41	1857.49	176.02	111.43	34.93	8739.33	873.91
2016	4920.52	2744.04	263.67	53.54	55.73	4926.71	938.26

Pesticides								
1995	38.46	18.97	3.99	25.48	1.64	12.28	6.74	
1998	44.88	20.11	6.60	29.50	1.41	9.58	11.06	
2001	33.60	20.78	5.08	14.34	1.72	16.70	17.04	
2004	21.37	26.32	3.07	5.16	1.20	67.12	23.84	
2007	26.60	31.06	3.62	2.66	1.12	68.83	22.04	
2010	39.29	43.09	4.81	1.71	1.12	92.49	22.95	
2013	41.15	53.33	4.07	1.60	0.81	100.98	20.19	
2016	54.17	51.42	4.00	0.50	0.85	37.40	14.25	
Straw return-to-field								
1995	176.38	226.65	37.24	34.39	8.70	41.04	0.00	
1998	208.71	246.04	51.98	37.99	10.04	33.61	0.00	
2001	275.70	465.75	68.07	55.29	20.18	162.91	0.00	
2004	130.00	400.12	26.82	15.37	10.97	381.71	0.00	
2007	198.00	569.64	43.11	10.89	11.82	411.64	0.00	
2010	229.00	628.06	45.55	5.391	8.95	420.11	0.00	
2013	237.00	531.09	27.08	3.27	5.04	339.45	0.00	
2016	353.00	702.86	34.62	1.46	7.81	255.05	0.00	
Residents and livestock excrement								
1995	1976.20	533.32	223.43	1326.07	87.96	653.63	356.65	
1998	1412.55	633.06	207.83	928.64	44.49	301.55	348.16	
2001	1511.62	934.79	228.44	645.23	77.43	751.18	766.77	
2004	810.83	998.64	116.29	195.83	45.34	2546.40	904.37	
2007	845.77	987.71	115.06	84.48	35.74	2188.90	700.86	
2010	687.78	754.30	49.88	23.04	12.64	1618.96	401.80	
2013	684.30	740.25	56.47	22.18	11.21	1401.71	236.37	
2016	737.32	699.98	61.16	9.32	9.68	509.17	145.89	
Irrigation								

1995	23.28	11.48	2.42	15.42	0.99	7.43	4.08
1998	23.90	10.71	3.52	15.71	0.75	5.10	5.89
2001	19.63	12.14	2.97	8.38	1.01	9.75	9.96
2004	9.45	11.64	1.36	2.28	0.53	29.69	10.54
2007	12.97	15.15	1.76	1.30	0.55	33.57	10.75
2010	14.25	15.63	1.74	0.62	0.41	33.54	8.33
2013	15.48	20.06	1.53	0.60	0.30	37.98	7.60
2016	28.47	27.03	2.10	0.26	0.44	19.66	7.49

Total P Input

1995	5112.55	1812.51	509.04	4169.55	201.40	2190.59	774.14
1998	5313.08	2031.73	690.45	4328.45	148.78	1561.16	1066.57
2001	5181.63	2828.00	697.92	2661.61	236.28	3511.46	2109.19
2004	2732.58	2844.33	340.17	773.49	134.28	11418.04	2432.56
2007	3393.35	3342.80	402.33	398.56	124.59	11741.41	2183.62
2010	3444.85	3036.75	320.50	157.94	75.14	10516.22	1472.25
2013	3504.81	3215.88	266.62	140.70	53.24	10639.94	1142.16
2016	6176.63	4243.51	367.46	65.72	75.74	5758.85	1110.02

P Output (t)

grain

1995	2155.15	1007.60	223.43	660.38	38.97	153.00	336.89
1998	2550.20	1093.80	343.94	729.37	44.96	125.29	697.89
2001	1981.60	1217.96	264.95	303.30	53.18	357.21	1023.33
2004	936.73	1046.34	104.40	84.32	28.91	836.97	1024.55
2007	1419.91	1489.62	167.79	59.77	31.16	902.60	1119.61
2010	1647.00	1642.40	177.31	29.57	23.60	921.18	953.65
2013	1705.00	1388.83	105.40	17.93	13.28	744.31	794.62
2016	2539.00	1838.00	134.74	8.01	20.58	559.26	604.62

 Discarded straw

1995	189.65	243.71	40.04	194.15	9.35	44.13	0.00
1998	224.42	264.56	55.89	214.44	10.79	36.14	0.00
2001	52.31	88.38	12.92	46.71	3.83	30.91	0.00
2004	24.73	75.93	5.09	12.98	2.08	72.43	0.00
2007	37.49	108.09	8.18	9.20	2.24	78.11	0.00
2010	43.48	119.18	8.64	4.55	1.70	79.72	0.00
2013	45.01	100.78	5.14	2.76	0.96	64.41	0.00
2016	67.03	133.37	6.57	1.23	1.48	48.40	0.00
Erosion and runoff							
1995	129.40	34.92	22.02	86.83	5.76	42.80	23.35
1998	153.47	68.78	22.58	100.89	4.83	32.76	37.83
2001	123.01	76.07	18.59	52.51	6.30	61.13	62.40
2004	57.22	70.47	8.21	13.82	3.20	179.69	63.82
2007	90.73	105.96	12.34	9.06	3.83	234.81	75.18
2010	116.45	127.72	8.45	3.90	2.14	274.12	68.03
2013	142.58	154.24	11.76	4.62	2.33	292.05	49.25
2016	202.72	192.45	16.81	2.56	2.66	139.99	40.11
Total P Output							
1995	2474.20	1286.23	285.48	941.36	54.08	239.93	360.24
1998	2928.08	1427.14	422.41	1044.70	60.58	194.20	735.72
2001	2156.93	1382.41	296.46	402.52	63.31	449.25	1085.73
2004	1018.68	1192.74	117.70	111.12	34.19	1089.09	1088.37
2007	1548.12	1703.66	188.32	78.03	37.23	1215.52	1194.79
2010	1806.93	1889.29	194.40	38.03	27.44	1275.02	1021.68
2013	1892.59	1643.84	122.30	25.32	16.57	1100.77	843.86
2016	2808.75	2163.82	158.12	11.81	24.72	747.65	644.73

1

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Table 3 (on next page)

The P loading rates per unit area from the crop s and environmental risk assessment

Year	Wheat		Corn		Rice		Soybean		Peanut		Cotton		Fruit-Vegetable	
	R	Classes	R	Classes	R	Classes	R	Classes	R	Classes	R	Classes	R	Classes
1995	0.53	II	0.33	I	0.51	II	0.63	II	0.50	II	0.68	II	0.50	II
1998	0.45	II	0.38	I	0.39	I	0.55	II	0.40	I	0.60	II	0.40	I
2001	0.57	II	0.48	II	0.51	II	0.68	II	0.51	II	0.74	III	0.51	II
2004	0.76	III	0.63	II	0.67	II	0.88	III	0.67	II	0.97	III	0.67	II
2007	0.65	II	0.52	II	0.56	II	0.76	III	0.56	II	0.84	III	0.56	II
2010	0.51	II	0.38	I	0.35	I	0.53	II	0.36	I	0.66	II	0.42	II
2013	0.53	II	0.35	I	0.40	I	0.55	II	0.40	I	0.64	II	0.38	I
2016	0.56	II	0.38	I	0.46	II	0.68	II	0.42	II	0.75	III	0.41	II

- 1 Note: Here, R represents P load risk index;
- 2 $R \leq 0.4$, I Class, pollution-free;
- 3 $0.4 < R \leq 0.7$, II Class, slight pollution;
- 4 $0.7 < R \leq 1.0$, III Class, general pollution;
- 5 $1.0 < R \leq 1.5$, IV Class, serious pollution

Table 4(on next page)

Comparison between PUE of different agricultural system

SFA: substance flow analysis NUFER: Nutrient flows in Food chains, Environment and Resources use

	This study	Zheng et al. (2017)	Ma et al. (2012)
Crops	Wheat, Corn, Rice, Soybean, Peanut, Cotton, Fruit-Vegetable	Rice, wheat, maize	Crop
Methods	SFA method	SFA method; Multi-modal neural networks	NUFER model
Region	Dongying district, Shandong Province, Yellow River Delta	Around Yangtze River Delta, China	In Guangdong Province, Pearl River Delta
Boundary	Crop systems	Crop systems	Crop systems
Year/period	1995-2016	2001-2015	2005
PUE(%)	Wheat (42.76%), Corn (46.80%), Rice (42.51%), Soybean (14.21%), Peanut (25.26%), Cotton (8.21%), Fruit-Vegetable (54.96%)	53.61%(rice), 36.22%(wheat), 32.56%(maize)	27%

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2
3
4