# Production and application of manure nitrogen and phosphorus in the United States since 1860

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26	Abstract: Livestock manure nitrogen (N) and phosphorus (P) play an important role in
27	biogeochemical cycling. Accurate estimation of manure nutrient is important for assessing
28	regional nutrient balance, greenhouse gas emission, and water environmental risk. Currently,
29	spatially explicit manure nutrient datasets over century-long period are scarce in the United
30	States (U.S.). Here, we developed four datasets of annual animal manure N and P production and
31	application in the contiguous U.S. at a 30 arc-second resolution over the period of 1860-2017.
32	The dataset combined multiple data sources including county-level inventory data, as well as
33	high-resolution livestock and crop maps. The total production of manure N and P increased from
34	1.4 Tg N yr <sup>-1</sup> and 0.3 Tg P yr <sup>-1</sup> in 1860 to 7.4 Tg N yr <sup>-1</sup> and 2.3 Tg P yr <sup>-1</sup> in 2017, respectively.
35	The increasing manure nutrient production was associated with increased livestock numbers
36	before the 1980s and enhanced livestock weights after the 1980s. The manure application
37	amount was primarily dominated by production and its spatial pattern was impacted by the
38	nutrient demand of crops. The intense-application region mainly enlarged from the Midwest
38 39	nutrient demand of crops. The intense-application region mainly enlarged from the Midwest toward the Southern U.S., and became more concentrated in numerous hot spots after the 1980s.
38 39 40	<ul> <li>nutrient demand of crops. The intense-application region mainly enlarged from the Midwest</li> <li>toward the Southern U.S., and became more concentrated in numerous hot spots after the 1980s.</li> <li>The South Atlantic-Gulf and Mid-Atlantic basins were exposed to high environmental risks due</li> </ul>
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47 Keywords: Manure; Nutrient; Nitrogen; Phosphorus; Production; Application

# 48 **1 Introduction**

49 Animal manure, as a fertility package, is a traditional source of nutrients and can provide 50 abundant nitrogen (N), phosphorus (P), and potassium for cropland and pasture. Animal manure 51 nutrients circulate widely in the Soil-Plant-Animal system, and are highly involved in global 52 nutrient cycling (Bouwman et al., 2013; Sheldrick et al., 2003). Although synthetic fertilizer has been widely used since the mid-20<sup>th</sup> century, livestock excreta is still the major nutrient source in 53 54 agricultural soils, accounting for approximately 18% and 28% of the total N and P inputs to 55 global cropland, respectively (Sheldrick et al., 2003; Zhang et al., 2020). Moreover, the total 56 global animal manure N and P production has exceeded global fertilizer use (Bouwman et al., 2009). Therefore, the efficient recycling of manure can potentially meet the growing nutrient 57 58 demand of crops. The circular nutrient source provided by manure enables nations to sustain their agricultural production with less reliance on imported fertilizer, especially mineral P 59 fertilizer (Koppelaar and Weikard, 2013; Powers et al., 2019). Different from N which can be 60 61 fixed from the atmosphere through microbial symbiosis with plants and the Haber-Bosch process, P is a rock-derived nutrient and there is no biological or atmospheric source for P. The 62 63 limited and unevenly distributed P-rich rocks can threaten food security and have raised concerns 64 in many resource-limited countries, including the United States (U.S.) (Amundson et al., 2015). 65 Enhanced recovery nutrients from manure can not only increase agricultural dependence, but 66 may also reduce nutrient losses out of the Soil-Plant-Animal system. Additionally, the 67 improvement of livestock operations in recent decades also facilitated the recoverability and 68 utilization of animal manure (Kellogg et al., 2000).

69 Although the application of manure and fertilizer enhanced crop production, excessive nutrient

70 might leave the Soil-Plant-Animal system through the biogeochemical flow and potentially

71	contaminate the environment if not properly managed (Mueller and Lassaletta, 2020; Zanon et
72	al., 2019). Specifically, agricultural land is a sink for anthropogenic N and P inputs (e.g.
73	synthetic fertilizer, manure, atmospheric deposition), and simultaneously acts as N and P sources
74	for aquatic systems as well as a N source for atmosphere (Bouwman et al., 2013; Elser and
75	Bennett, 2011; Schlesinger and Bernhardt, 2013). The major N gaseous loss from fertilizer use
76	and animal excreta includes the emissions of ammonia (NH3), nitrous oxide (N2O), and nitric
77	oxide. $NH_3$ can react with other air pollutants and form aerosols to reduce visibility and threaten
78	human health (Bouwman et al., 2002; Xu et al., 2018), and $N_2O$ is one of the most important
79	greenhouse gasses (Davidson, 2009). $N_2O$ emission from animal manure is one of the major
80	contributors to global anthropogenic $N_2O$ emissions (Tian et al., 2020). Additionally, large
81	fractions of the N and P applied to cropland lost through leaching, erosion, and surface runoff
82	and are transported into rivers toward lakes and coastal oceans (Smith et al., 1998; Van Drecht et
83	al., 2005). Excess N and P could dramatically impair freshwater and coastal ecosystems, causing
84	eutrophication, hypoxia, and fish-killing (Garnier et al., 2015; Smith et al., 2007). Oxygen-
85	depleted marine coastal "dead zones" associated with nutrient-stimulated algal blooms continue
86	to expand. For example, the northern Gulf of Mexico is one of the largest dead zones in the
87	world and the hypoxic area often exceeds 15,600 km <sup>2</sup> in midsummer (1968-2016) (Del Giudice
88	et al., 2019).



94	most studies only provided county-level manure nutrient production data in the U.S., with short
95	periods (Kellogg et al., 2000; Ruddy et al., 2006). Nevertheless, terrestrial biosphere models
96	usually require spatially explicit manure nutrient input data to simulate the anthropogenic effect
97	on biogeochemical cycle since the preindustrial period (Tian et al., 2019). Studies focusing on
98	soil nutrient storage change and legacy soil nutrient also need long-time series manure nutrient
99	data (MacDonald et al., 2012; Rowe et al., 2016). Moreover, previous studies usually assumed
100	that nutrient excretion per animal is constant over time when quantifying nutrient production
101	based on livestock number, which may lead to uncertainties (Zhang et al., 2020). Geographically
102	explicit manure nutrient application in cropland (excluding pasture), as the direct nutrient input
103	for the soil-crop system, hasn't been specifically estimated across the U.S. In this study, our
104	objectives are to (1) develop grid-level manure N and P production datasets in the U.S. based on
105	county-level livestock populations, dynamic livestock weight over time, and high-resolution
106	livestock distribution maps; (2) develop grid-level manure N and P application in cropland
107	datasets by integrating manure nutrient production and nutrient demand of crops; (3) investigate
108	the spatiotemporal patterns of manure nutrient production and application based on these
109	datasets, and (4) further identify regions with a high risk of excessive nutrient loading. The four
110	datasets display the masses of manure N and P per area in each 30×30 arc-second grid-cell
111	during 1860-2017. The datasets can be used to drive ecosystem, land surface, and hydrological
112	models to simulate manure-induced greenhouse gas emissions and nutrient loadings.

# 113 2 Methods

- 114 Datasets of manure N and P production and application were developed by incorporating
- 115 multiple datasets (Table 1). The geographically explicit manure N and P production data were
- 116 first calculated based on county-level livestock populations, dynamic livestock weights, and

- 117 livestock distribution maps. Then the crop nutrient demand maps were developed by merging
- 118 cropland distribution maps with crop-specific harvest area and nutrient assimilative capacities.
- 119 Finally, the spatially explicit manure N and P application data were estimated by incorporating
- 120 county-level manure production, recoverability factors, cropland fraction, and cropland nutrient
- 121 demand maps. To facilitate studying the impact of manure nutrients on water quality, we further
- 122 analyzed the average annual manure production and application in four decades (the 1860s,
- 123 **1930s**, 1970s, and 2010-2017) across the major 18 basins (Fig 1).
- 124 **2.1 Manure nutrient production**
- Manure nutrient production refers to the animal excretion in this study. The county-level manure
  N and P production during 1930-2017 were calculated based on the livestock population, animal
  body weight, and nutrient excretion rates according to the method (Eq. 1) proposed by Puckett et
- 128 al. (1998).
- 129 County-level manure nutrient production was calculated as follows:

130 
$$Pro_{x,c} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} Pop_{i,c} \cdot W_i \cdot Er_{x,i} \cdot Days$$
(1)

131 where  $Pro_{x,c}$  is the annual manure nutrient x (N or P) production in county c (kg N/P yr<sup>-1</sup>); i is 132 animal type;  $Pop_{i,c}$  is the county-level animal population (head);  $W_i$  is the annual average live 133 body weights of animal (kg);  $Er_{x,i}$  represents the excreted manure nutrients rate per unit weight 134 of animal (kg N/P kg<sup>-1</sup> day<sup>-1</sup>) (Table S1); *Days* is the number of days in the life cycle of animal 135 within a year.

- 136 Data of livestock and poultry population were derived from the U.S. Department of Agriculture
- 137 (USDA) census reports from 1930 to 2017 at 4- or 5-year intervals. Eleven livestock and poultry
- 138 categories were considered in this study, including beef cows, milk cows, heifers, steers, hogs,

139	sheep, horses, chickens, pullets, broilers, and turkeys. Livestock population data for the recent
140	five census reports (1997–2017) can be directly collected from the USDA Census Data Query
141	Tool. Livestock population data before 1997 were collected from Cornell Institute for Social and
142	Economic Research Data Archive (1949–1992), or manually digitalized from the USDA reports
143	(1930–1945). More details of data collection, methods of dealing with missing data can be found
144	in Yang et al. (2016). Annual average live weights of livestock and poultry, including cattle,
145	hogs, sheep, broilers, chickens, and turkeys, were derived from the USDA Economic Research
146	Service. We developed annual manure nutrient production by assuming a linear change between
147	every two census years.
148	Global Livestock Impact Mapping System (GLIMS) provided gridded livestock population
149	maps at a resolution of 30 arc-second ( <u>https://livestock.geo-wiki.org/home-2/</u> ). These maps were
150	developed according to statistical relationships between livestock inventory data and multiple
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150 151 152 153 154	developed according to statistical relationships between livestock inventory data and multiple environmental variables, including climate, land cover, human activities (Robinson et al., 2014). Combining with the GLIMS data, we spatially allocated manure nutrient production within each county. The grid-level manure nutrient production was first calculated based on the GLIMS data, and the total quantity of manure nutrient production in each county was obtained by calculating
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<ol> <li>150</li> <li>151</li> <li>152</li> <li>153</li> <li>154</li> <li>155</li> <li>156</li> <li>157</li> <li>158</li> <li>159</li> </ol>	developed according to statistical relationships between livestock inventory data and multiple environmental variables, including climate, land cover, human activities (Robinson et al., 2014). Combining with the GLIMS data, we spatially allocated manure nutrient production within each county. The grid-level manure nutrient production was first calculated based on the GLIMS data, and the total quantity of manure nutrient production in each county was obtained by calculating the sum of productions in all grid-cells within each county. Then, we calculated ratios of USDA- based county-level manure nutrient production to GIMS-based county-level data, and these ratios were used to adjust grid-cell values within each county. After this step, the developed grid-level products were in line with USDA-based annual county-level data in total quantities, with the

$$Pro_{x,j} = GPro_{x,j} \cdot \frac{Pro_{x,c}}{GPro_{x,c}}$$
(2)

where  $Pro_{x,j}$  is manure nutrient production in grid-cell *j* (kg N/P km<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>);  $GPro_{x,j}$  is manure nutrient production in grid-cell *j* calculated based on the GLIMS livestock data (kg N/P km<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>);  $GPro_{x,c}$  is the GLIMS-based manure nutrient production at county *c* where grid cell *j* is located (kg N/P yr<sup>-1</sup>).

To generate grid-level manure production from 1860 to 1930, we obtained manure production change rates (1860-1930) from the dataset developed by Holland et al. (2005) and applied them on the grid-level manure nutrient production in 1930. Holland et al. (2005) provided global annual manure N production data from 1860 to 1960. In order to combine this dataset with the U.S. manure nutrient production data, we assumed manure production changes in the U.S. were consistent with the global trend and manure N:P ratio was constant during 1860-1930 (Zhang et al., 2017).

#### 173 **2.2 Manure nutrient application**

174 Manure nutrient application data were developed by allocating the county-level recoverable 175 manure nutrient according to the grid-level manure nutrient demand of crops. The recoverable 176 manure nutrient represents the proportion of manure nutrients that could reasonably be expected 177 to be collected from the confinement facility and later be applied to the land (Kellogg et al., 2000). The recoverable manure nutrient was applied to cropland and pastureland according to 178 179 their demands. We calculated recoverable manure nutrient amounts by adjusting the county-level manure production with recoverability factors provided by the Nutrient Use Geographic 180 181 Information System (NuGIS, http://nugis.ipni.net/). The nutrient demand was estimated 182 according to the assimilative capacity, the maximum amount of manure nutrient application

without building up nutrient level in the soil over time (Kellogg et al., 2000). We obtained the
proportion of recoverable manure nutrient that can be applied to cropland by combining the
assimilative capacities and areas of cropland and pastureland. The areas of cropland and
pastureland during 1860-2016 were derived from the HYDE 3.2 (Klein Goldewijk et al., 2017).
The above-mentioned processes are represented by the following equations:

$$APP_{x,c} = Pro_{x,c} \cdot Rf_{x,c} \cdot f_{x,crop,c}$$
(3)

189 
$$f_{x,crop,c} = \frac{A_{crop,c} \cdot S_{x,crop}}{A_{crop,c} \cdot S_{x,crop} + A_{past,c} \cdot S_{x,past}}$$
(4)

where,  $APP_{x,c}$  is the recoverable animal manure nutrient available for application on cropland in 190 county c (kg N/P yr<sup>-1</sup>);  $Rf_{x,c}$  is the manure nutrient recoverability rate (the recoverability rates 191 are unitless and county-specific with average values 0.19 for N and 0.35 for P), and  $f_{x,crop,c}$ 192 refers to the fraction of manure nutrient that is available for cropland (unitless);  $A_{crop,c}$  and 193  $A_{past,c}$  represent the annual area of cropland and pasture in each county (km<sup>2</sup>), respectively, 194 while  $S_{x,crop}$  and  $S_{x,past}$  represent the average assimilative capacities of cropland and 195 196 pastureland (kg N/P km<sup>-2</sup>), respectively (Table S2). 197 To spatialize county-level recoverable animal manure nutrient to gridded maps, we first 198 developed annual grid-level crop nutrient demands data as the base maps (Eq. 5). Nutrient 199 demands of crops were estimated by combining the assimilative capacities, harvested areas and 200 yields of 13 crops (maize, soybeans, sorghum, cotton, barley, wheat, oats, rye, rice, peanuts, 201 sugar beets, tobacco, and potatoes). The grid-level average assimilative capacity of cropland was 202 calculated based on crop-specific yield and harvested area maps in 2000 provided by Monfreda 203 et al. (2008). Next, this map of cropland assimilative capacity was integrated with dynamic 204 cropland fraction data (Yu and Lu, 2018) to obtain annual nutrient demand maps from 1860 to

205 2016. Original cropland fraction data was at a resolution of 1 km in the projected coordinate
206 system which approximates 30 arc-second resolution in the geographic coordinate. We resampled
207 the cropland fraction maps into the resolution of 30 arc-second to match the manure nutrient
208 production data.

209

210 
$$Dem_{x,j} = \sum_{k=1}^{m} Y_{j,k} S_{x,k} \cdot Den_j$$
(5)

where,  $Dem_{x,j}$  is the crop demand for manure nutrient in grid j (kg N/P km<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>);  $Y_{j,k}$  is the 211 yield of crop k (ton per area of cropland) and  $S_{x,k}$  is the manure nutrient assimilative of crop k 212 213 (kg N/P per ton product) (Table S3); *Den<sub>i</sub>* represents the cropland density in each grid (unitless). 214 The downscaling of county-level recoverable manure nutrient data into grid maps was similar to 215 the method used in developing manure nutrient production data (Eq. 2). The grid values on 216 manure nutrient demand maps were adjusted to match annual county-level recoverable manure 217 nutrient data (Eq. 6). The manure nutrient application data from 1860 to 2017 were developed 218 through above-mentioned processes, however, several variables and parameters in these 219 processes were not available through the whole study period (e.g., manure recoverability rate, 220 crop yield). Therefore, we assumed these variables or parameters did not change before or after 221 the data-available period (Kellogg et al., 2000; Puckett et al., 1998).

222 
$$APP_{x,j} = Dem_{x,j} \cdot \frac{APP_{x,c}}{Dem_{x,c}}$$
(6)

where,  $APP_{x,j}$  is the manure nutrient application in grid *j* (kg N/P km<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>) and  $Dem_{x,c}$ refers to the demand for manure nutrient in county *c* where grid *j* is located (kg N/P yr<sup>-1</sup>).

## 225 **3 Results**

- 226 **3.1 Temporal and spatial patterns of manure nutrient production**
- 227 We estimate that the total manure N and P production increased from 1.4 Tg N yr<sup>-1</sup> and 0.3 Tg P
- 228 yr<sup>-1</sup> in 1860 to 7.4 Tg N yr<sup>-1</sup> and 2.3 Tg P yr<sup>-1</sup> in 2017, respectively (Fig 2). The manure N and P
- production reached the first peak in 1975 (6.1 Tg N yr<sup>-1</sup> and 1.8 Tg P yr<sup>-1</sup>), and slightly declined
- thereafter, then regrew since 1987 with the second peaks occurring in 2007 (N) and 2017 (P),
- respectively. The slight decrease in manure nutrient production between 2008 and 2012 may be
- associated with the financial crisis and the low demand for livestock products. The total manure
- 233 N and P production increased 5-fold and 7-fold during 1860-2017, with the increasing rates of
- 234 0.03 Tg N yr<sup>-2</sup> and 0.006 Tg P yr<sup>-2</sup> during 1860-1930, 0.05 Tg N yr<sup>-2</sup> and 0.02 Tg P yr<sup>-2</sup> during
- 235 1930-2017 (p<0.01), respectively. The N:P ratio in total manure production changed from 4.33 in
- 236 1930 to 3.25 in 2017. The decrease in the N:P ratio in total manure production was related to the
- 237 change in the structure of animal population. For example, the proportion of beef cows and
- 238 broilers (N:P ratio in excretion: 3.0-3.2) increased while that of milk cows and horses (N:P ratio
- 239 in excretion: 5.5-6.7) decreased over the study period.
- 240 The spatial pattern of animal manure N and P production showed the similar change over the
- study period (Fig 3). The distribution maps showed that the Midwestern U.S. (e.g., Iowa,
- 242 Missouri, and Illinois) was the core region (> 300 kg N km<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> or 100 kg P km<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>) of manure
- 243 N (P) production in 1860. From 1860 to 1930, the high manure nutrient production region (> 600
- 244 kg N km<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> or 200 kg P km<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>) mainly enlarged outwards from the Midwest. Between 1930
- 245 and 1980, manure N (P) production not only intensified in the Midwest but also in the Southern
- 246 U.S. (e.g., Texas, Georgia, and North Carolina). After 1980, manure N (P) production became
- 247 more concentrated in many hot spots (> 6000 kg N km<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> or 3000 kg P km<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>), especially

in the southeastern U.S. Meanwhile, part of regions around these hot pots experienced a declinein manure production.

According to the change rates of manure nutrient production from 1860 through 2017 (Fig.4),

several growth poles (change rates > 20 kg N km<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-2</sup> or 5 kg P km<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-2</sup>, p < 0.01) located in

252 Iowa, Arkansas, California, Alabama, Pennsylvania were identified. The belt (change rates > 5

253 kg N km<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-2</sup> or 1 kg P km<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-2</sup>,  $p \le 0.01$ ) from Minnesota to Texas, as well as scattered areas

along the east and west coasts, were the primary contributors to the increase in manure N (P)

255 production. Aside from the huge increase in the Midwest and Southeast, decreasing trends were

exhibited in some regions, particularly the northeastern border of the U.S.

### 257 **3.2** Comparison of manure nutrient demand and production

258 We assumed that the capacity of crops to assimilate nutrients was equal to manure nutrient 259 demand. From 1860 to 1930, the manure N (P) demand of cropland intensified and enlarged 260 inside the Corn Belt region (e.g. Iowa, Illinois, Minnesota, Nebraska, North Dakota, and South 261 Dakota), as well as the Southern U.S. (e.g., Texas, Oklahoma, Arkansas, Mississippi, Alabama, 262 Georgia, and Tennessee) (Fig 5). After 1930, change in spatial pattern of manure nutrient demand 263 was dominated by the abandonment of cropland, and the magnitude of demand slightly 264 decreased, especially after 1980. Compared to the spatial patterns of manure production and 265 demand (Figs 3 and 5), it is worth noting that the high manure production and demand regions 266 overlapped in the Midwest and Southeastern U.S., but a large deficit (demand higher than production) existed along the Lower Mississippi River Valley. 267

#### **3.3 Temporal and spatial patterns of manure nutrient application in cropland**

269 Animal manure N (P) application amount is primarily dominated by production and its spatial

270 pattern is impacted by demand. The overall manure application to production ratios were 0.15

- and 0.23 for N and P, respectively. Driven by cropland expansion and enhanced manure
- 272 production, total manure N and P application in croplands increased 9-fold and 10-fold since
- 273 1860, reaching 1.3 Tg N yr<sup>-1</sup> and 0.6 Tg P yr<sup>-1</sup> in 2017 (Fig 6). The N:P ratio in manure
- application decreased from 2.62 to 2.32 during 1930-2017. The substantial increase of manure N
- and P application mainly happened in two periods: 1924-1970 (increase rates: 0.009 Tg N yr<sup>-2</sup>
- and 0.005 Tg P yr<sup>-2</sup>, p < 0.01) and 1987-2017 (increase rates: 0.01 Tg N yr<sup>-2</sup> and 0.005 Tg P yr<sup>-2</sup>,
- 277 p < 0.01). The variations of total application and production quantities didn't follow the same
- trajectory. For example, from 1975 to 1987, when manure N production decreased, the total
- 279 manure application still remained stable. The application to production ratios reached the first
- 280 peak in 1891 (N: 0.14, P: 0.25) followed by a decrease until 1945 (N: 0.13, P: 0.20), and then
- resumed the increasing trend through 2017 (N: 0.18, P: 0.25).
- 282 The spatial shift of manure application, similar to manure nutrient demand, gradually expanded
- inside the Corn Belt and toward the Southern U.S. (Fig 7). The expansion of manure application
- region primarily occurred during 1860-1930, induced by cropland expansion. After 1930, the
- 285 changed spatial patterns of manure N (P) application were characterized by intensified
- 286 application in the Midwest and multiple hot spots (> 2000 kg N km<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> or 1000 kg P km<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>).
- 287 The spatial distribution of hot spots on application maps was similar to that on manure nutrient
- production maps. In 2017, high manure nutrient application regions (> 500 kg N km<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> or 200
- 289 kg P km<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>) mainly distributed in the Midwestern U.S., Southern U.S., Mid-Atlantic (e.g.,
- 290 Pennsylvania, Maryland, and Virginia), and California, where abundant recoverable manure
- 291 nutrients were applied in the local cropland to meet the high nutrient demand of crops. A quite
- low manure nutrient application rate  $(< 100 \text{ kg N km}^2 \text{ yr}^{-1} \text{ or } 50 \text{ kg P km}^2 \text{ yr}^{-1})$  was observed in

regions with less cropland demand (e.g., Southwestern U.S.) and low manure production (e.g.,
Lower Mississippi River Valley).

#### **3.4 Manure production and application across the major river basins**

296 From the 1860s to the 1970s, all basins exhibit increased manure nutrient production (Figs 8a 297 and 11b). However, from the 1970s to the 2010s, the manure N and P production decreased in 298 New England and Missouri basins, while a dramatic increase was shown in the South Atlantic-299 Gulf, Mid-Atlantic, and Arkansas-White-Red basins. Manure application demonstrated a similar 300 pattern across different basins (Figs 8c and 8d), but it increased from the 1970s to the 2010s in 301 most basins except the two basins (the New England and Souris-Red-Rainy) in the northern 302 regions. In the 1970s, the Missouri basin was the largest source contributing  $\sim 20\%$  N (P) of the 303 total manure production, while the Upper Mississippi basin had the highest manure N (P) 304 application in cropland accounting for 19% N and 24% P of the total manure N (P) application. 305 During 2011-2017, however, the dominant regions of manure nutrient production and application 306 were shifted to the South Atlantic-Gulf basin which accounted for the largest single share (18% 307 N and 19% P of the total N (P) production, 24% N and 21% P of the total N (P) application). The 308 uneven distribution of manure application intensified during 1860-2017, demonstrated by the 309 standard deviation of manure N and P application across all basins consistently increasing from  $0.013 \text{ Tg N yr}^{-1}$  and  $0.005 \text{ Tg P yr}^{-1}$  in the 1860s to  $0.081 \text{ Tg N yr}^{-1}$  and  $0.038 \text{ Tg P yr}^{-1}$  during 310 311 2010-2017.

# 312 4 Discussion

### 313 4.1 Comparison with previous investigations

Within this study, we compared manure nutrients production data with other four datasets from
Food and Agriculture Organization Corporate Statistical Database (FAOSTAT, 2019), NuGIS,

316	Kellogg et al. (2000) and Yang et al. (2016). FAOSTAT provides total manure N production at
317	the national level from 1961 to 2017, while the other three datasets provide county-level manure
318	N and P production data. The estimated manure N (P) production from this study was lower than
319	the other two datasets (FAOSTAT and Yang et al.) before 1982, and started to become the highest
320	dataset after 2003 (Fig 9). During 1982-2007, the estimation from this study is very close to
321	other estimations developed at the county-level. The average total manure N (P) production over
322	1987-1997 was 6.02 Tg N yr <sup>-1</sup> (1.79 Tg P yr <sup>-1</sup> ), 6.75 Tg N yr <sup>-1</sup> , 5.96 Tg N yr <sup>-1</sup> (1.75 Tg P yr <sup>-1</sup> ),
323	5.64 Tg N yr <sup>-1</sup> (1.67 Tg P yr <sup>-1</sup> ), and 6.01 Tg N yr <sup>-1</sup> (1.86 Tg P yr <sup>-1</sup> ), respectively, for this study,
324	FAOSTAT, NuGIS, Kellogg et al., and Yang et al. The differences between different datasets
325	were derived from calculation methods, chosen livestock types and numbers, as well as
326	parameters, such as animal-specific excreted manure nutrient rates and the number of days in the
327	life cycle. In terms of changing trends, manure N and P production were relatively stable after
328	the 1960s in FAOSTAT <mark>, Kellogg et al., and Yang et al.</mark> , while the NuGIS data increased slightly
329	between 1987 and 2007 and then decreased sharply after 2010. In contrast, our results showed an
330	increasing trend after the 1980s due to the consideration of the increased animal body sizes.
331	In the previous four datasets, temporal changes in manure N (P) production are driven by animal
332	numbers. It is worth noting that manure N (P) production can still increase despite the
333	stabilization of livestock numbers in recent years. Driven by the advanced technology, livestock
334	live weight and size consistently increased, which may enhance the manure nutrient excretion
335	rate of each animal (Lassaletta et al., 2014; Sheldrick et al., 2003; Thornton, 2010). We
336	compared manure nutrient production calculated with constant average weights and with
337	dynamic weights of livestock. The results showed that manure production with dynamic weights
338	increased dramatically after the 1990s (Fig.10). Enhanced livestock weights contributed 59% and

54% of the increase in manure N and P production, respectively, from 1987 to 2017 when the
differences between the two total production data reached 0.98 Tg N yr<sup>-1</sup> and 0.31 Tg P yr<sup>-1</sup>.

341 It is difficult to compare our dataset of manure N (P) application in soils with previous studies 342 since these datasets provided reference values with various definitions and were generated based 343 on different statistical methods. For example, FAOSTAT provided annual data of "Manure 344 applied to soils" in the U.S., whereas this dataset was developed based on the assumption that all 345 treated manure, net of losses (e.g., NH<sub>3</sub> volatilization, N leaching, and runoff), is applied to soils 346 following the method in the 2006 IPCC guidelines (Eggleston et al., 2006). Kellogg et al. (2000) 347 and NuGIS both estimated recoverable manure nutrients by multiplying confined livestock units, 348 recoverability factors, and nutrients per ton of manure after losses. All three datasets do not 349 separate manure application to cropland and pastureland. This study developed manure nutrient 350 application data in cropland by applying the method of recoverability factor in combination with 351 the cropland nutrient assimilative capacity. Compared to the other three datasets, our data 352 subtracted the proportion of manure application on pastureland and considered the impact of the 353 change in cropland area, which can lead to relatively low data values.

### **4.2** The impact of manure nutrient enrichment on coastal oceans

Animal manure N (P) that is lost through surface runoff or leaching exacerbated eutrophication and hypoxia in the aquatic system in the U.S. (Feyereisen et al., 2010; Williams et al., 2011). During the expansion of manure production from the Midwest to the Southeastern coastline, massive amounts of nutrients get more of a chance to be transported to the estuary. When rivers transport nutrients from land to coastal oceans, nutrients could be removed or retained through denitrification, plant and microbial uptake, organic matter burial in sediment, and sediment sorption (Billen et al., 1991; Seitzinger et al., 2002). As the accumulated manure gets closer to the coastline, manure nutrients that enter into rivers may be less likely to decrease during
transportation due to the short distance. Additionally, the risk of massive manure loss in
hurricane events increases under the background of enhanced Atlantic hurricane activities since
1995 (Saunders and Lea, 2008; Trenberth, 2005). Flooding rains and high winds may destroy
manure storage structures (e.g., pad, pond, lagoon, tank, and building), resulting in the direct
release of untreated manure into rivers (Tabachow et al., 2001).

368 The South Atlantic-Gulf and Mid-Atlantic basins are two critical coastal regions with the 369 enrichment of manure nutrient production and application from the 1970s to the 2010s due to 370 intensive livestock farming. The low recovery and reuse rate of animal manure N (P) can 371 potentially cause a significant amount of manure N and P exports from the basins into the Gulf of 372 Mexico and the Atlantic Ocean (Sheldrick et al., 2003). The Upper Mississippi, Missouri, and 373 Arkansas-White-Red sub-basins within the Mississippi River basin were the three largest sources 374 of manure production and were the dominant contributors to N and P loads into the Gulf of 375 Mexico (David et al., 2010; Jones et al., 2019). The Upper Mississippi and Missouri basins that 376 had the highest manure nutrient production and application in the 1970s and maintained the high 377 quantities until 2010, while manure N (P) production and application largely increased in the 378 Arkansas-White-Red basin during 2011-2017. The enhanced total manure production may 379 continually be responsible for the enriched loads of N and P that can lead to coastal water 380 pollution (Rabalais and Turner, 2019).

### 381 **4.3 Implication for manure nutrient management**

382 The structure of animal agriculture has shifted toward concentrated animal feeding operations

383 (CAFOs), which led to the increased numbers of animals in confinements (Kellogg et al., 2000).

384 Thus, manure production became increasingly concentrated in several regions with large

385 operations. Meanwhile, the decreased manure production in partial areas of the Midwestern and 386 Southern U.S was due to the disappearance of small family farms. On the other hand, the 387 enhanced animal weight caused the additional increase in manure production in operations with 388 plenty of confined animals. The unevenly intensified distribution of manure production may have 389 further exacerbated the imbalance of regional nutrient allocation. Currently, opportunities for 390 widespread manure application are limited because the transport of manure can be costly. 391 Furthermore, the long distance between livestock farms and cropland can bring difficulties to 392 practical operations (MacDonald, 2009). There remain gaps between manure production and 393 demand in some regions of the U.S. (e.g., the Lower Mississippi River Valley). In contrast, 394 manure collected from many farms cannot be properly used to fertilize crops. The unusable 395 manure is not only a waste of manure resources, but may also cause serious environmental 396 problems through nutrient losses into the atmosphere and aquatic systems.

397 The efficient recovery and processing of manure nutrients, the transportation of manure from 398 CAFOs to the specific crop area, and the utilization of manure as bioenergy can be important 399 pathways to control pollution caused by the uneven distribution of manure production (He et al., 400 2016). The CAFOs facilitate the recovery of animal manure, which has created conditions for 401 large-scale utilization and management of manure. Because of the economies of scale, the cost of 402 transportation and management for per unit animal manure can be reduced, making the 403 utilization of manure more feasible. Establishing a direct link between CAFOs and specific crop 404 area ensures that animal manure production can be consumed in large quantities and thereby 405 improving economic efficiency. For the centralized management of animal manure, nutrient 406 losses during collection, storage, and application should be constrained or avoided, because a 407 small proportion of nutrient losses can even contaminate regional environment if manure nutrient

amounts are huge. Manure management systems with the integrated package of measures are
necessary for controlling nutrient losses from the feed–animal–manure–crop chain (Oenema et
al., 2007).

#### 411 **4.4 Assumptions and Uncertainties**

412 Uncertainties in this study are primarily associated with data sources and methods that were 413 used. First, multiple data sources were used to develop the datasets of manure production and 414 application data; however, biases exist in these source data. For instance, the non-disclosure of 415 the livestock data in the USGS Census of Agriculture can cause the underestimate of manure 416 production in numerous counties (Yang et al., 2016). Second, the parameters in the calculation 417 model, e.g., excreted manure nutrient rates, could bring uncertainties in the estimation of animal 418 manure nutrient production and application. Third, various assumptions were made in this study 419 to extend the time series of data and spatialize data from the county-level to the grid-level. These 420 assumptions were established based on available data and experience, but uncertainties still existed and influenced the accuracy of the dataset. The limitations and uncertainties of these 421 422 assumptions were further discussed and explained in the following part.

- 423 The livestock distribution maps from the GLIMS dataset were the reference of the spatial pattern
- 424 of manure nutrient production data within each county. The GLIMS data were developed by
- 425 establishing statistical relationships between livestock inventory data and multiple environmental
- 426 variables (e.g., climate, land cover, human activities), and using these relationships to predict
- 427 livestock distributions across the globe. We assumed livestock distribution within each county
- 428 was stable over the study period because the dynamic livestock maps were unavailable.
- 429 However, the environmental variables can change and induce the variation in livestock

- 430 distribution inside each county. The accuracy of this manure nutrient production dataset can be
- 431 improved once dynamic livestock maps are developed in the future.
- 432 The manure nutrient production before 1930 was generated based on change rates in global
- 433 manure N datasets from Holland et al. (2005). There is a period of overlap (1930-2004) between
- 434 this global dataset and the USDA census data. During 1930-2004, the average annual change
- 435 rates of manure N production were 1.08% in the global dataset and 1.01% in this study.
- 436 Therefore, the changes in estimated manure N production in the U.S. before 1930 might be
- 437 reasonable at a long-time scale. The ratio of N to P in animal manure varies among different
- 438 animal species and changes along with proportions of different animal populations over time.
- 439 From 1930 to 2017, the N:P ratio in the total manure production slightly decreased from 4.33 to
- 440 3.25. Due to the lack of manure P production data before 1930, we calculated manure P
- 441 production in this period according to manure N production and the constant N:P ratio in 1930. If
- 442 the N:P ratio kept decreasing before 1930, the total manure P production may be overestimated
- 443 during 1860-1929.
- 444 Changes in recoverability factors and crop yields over the study period were ignored due to lack
- 445 of data support and that may cause a bias in quantifying manure nutrient application. With the
- 446 development of livestock confinement facilities, the confinement and recoverability factors of
- 447 animal manure may increase in recent decades (Kellogg et al., 2000). Hence, manure application
- 448 can be overestimated before the 1980s and underestimated after the 2000s. The yields of
- 449 different crops may change at different speeds over the study period, and that can affect the
- 450 spatial patterns of manure nutrient demand of cropland as well as manure nutrient application.
- 451 In addition, the development of manure application data was based on two assumptions: (1) The
- 452 allocation of manure nutrient application within the county was proportional to crop nutrient

453 demands; (2) Manure is assumed to be applied in the county where it was produced. Manure 454 application is controlled by distance, cost, and operating practice of humans. Currently, the 455 specific locations of animal farms across the country are not available, thus it is difficult to 456 evaluate the influence of distance between farms and croplands. Due to the practical limits of 457 manure transportation (Buckwell and Nadeu, 2016; MacDonald, 2009), it is reasonable to 458 assume manure production and application happen within the same county on a large scale. 459 However, ignoring the impact of multiple factors on manure application within the county can 460 still result in biases in spatial distribution of manure application.

# 461 **5 Data availability**

The gridded datasets of manure N and P production and application in the contiguous U.S. are available at <u>https://doi.org/10.1594/PANGAEA.919937</u> (Bian et al., 2020). A supplement is added to provide information about manure demand and all parameters that used to develop the datasets.

# 466 6 Conclusion

- 467 Manure nutrient production and application in the livestock-crop system substantially altered the
- 468 regional and global N and P cycle. In this study, we developed geographically explicit datasets of
- 469 animal manure N and P production and their application in cropland across the contiguous U.S.
- 470 from 1860 to 2017. The dataset indicated that both manure N and P production and application
- 471 significantly increased over the study period. Although livestock numbers became stable in
- 472 recent decades, manure nutrient production still increased due to the enhanced livestock body
- 473 weight after the 1980s. Enhanced livestock weights contributed 59% and 54% of the increase in
- 474 manure N and P production, respectively, from 1987 to 2017. Meanwhile, manure nutrient

- 475 production intensified and enlarged inside the Midwest and toward the Southern U.S. from 1980
- 476 to 2017, and became more concentrated in numerous hot spots. As manure nutrient application
- 477 also expanded toward the Southeastern coastline, massive amounts of nutrients get more of a
- 478 chance to be transported to the estuary. The enrichment of manure nutrient in the South Atlantic-
- 479 Gulf, Mid-Atlantic, and Mississippi River basins increased the risk of excessive nutrient loading
- 480 into the Gulf of Mexico and the Atlantic Ocean under extreme weather conditions (e.g.,
- 481 hurricane). Therefore, it is of great importance to effectively store, utilize, and transport animal
- 482 manure in order to reduce nutrient pollution and restore the environment.

### 484 Author contributions

- 485 HT designed and led this work. ZB is responsible for developing the datasets. QY provided the
- 486 county-level livestock dataset. RX proposed the methods in the study. SP and BZ analyzed the
- 487 results. All authors contributed to the writing of the manuscript.

#### 488 **Competing interests**

489 The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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Data variables	Time period	Resolution	Reference/source
Livestock numbers	1930-2017	County-level	USDA National Agricultural Statistics Service https://www.nass.usda.gov/i ndex.php
Livestock weights	1921-2017	Country-level	USDA Economic Research Service database http://www.ers.usda.gov/
Livestock distribution	2007	30 arc-second	Global Livestock Impact Mapping System (GLIMS) (Robinson et al., 2014)
Manure recoverability rates	1987-2014	County-level	Nutrient Use Geographic Information System (NuGIS) http://nugis.ipni.net/
Crop harvested area and yield	2000	5 arc-min	(Monfreda et al., 2008)
Crop and pasture distributions	1860-2016	5 arc-min	History Database of the Global Environment (HYDE 3.2) (Klein Goldewijk et al., 2017)
Crop density	1850-2016	1×1 km	(Yu and Lu, 2018)























800 Figure 9. Comparison of manure nutrients production in this study with the four previous datasets.



Figure 10. Comparison of manure N (P) production calculated based on dynamic weight of livestock and constant weight.