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1 **Global actions for a sustainable phosphorus future**

2
3 *Food security and healthy freshwater ecosystems are placed at jeopardy by poor phosphorus*
4 *management. Scientists are calling for transformation across food, agriculture, waste and*
5 *other sectors - mobilized through intergovernmental action, which has been missing thus far.*
6

7 **Will J. Brownlie, Mark A. Sutton, David S. Reay, Kate V. Heal, Ludwig Hermann,**
8 **Christian Kabbe and Bryan M. Spears**

9
10 Unsustainable phosphorus use is pushing food security further from reach^{1,2}, leaving a legacy
11 of polluted freshwaters, many now beyond ecological restoration³. Ten years have passed
12 since the global anthropogenic flow of phosphorus was identified to be exceeding its
13 planetary boundary⁴. In 2013, the opportunity was highlighted for a 20% improvement in
14 nutrient use efficiency by 2020 across the full chain of food and waste systems⁵. The working
15 group of the Post-2020 Global Biodiversity Framework proposed to reduce pollution from
16 excess nutrients by 50% by 2030⁶. Yet, phosphorus management remains largely ignored in
17 the food and environmental policy agendas of most countries, and international conventions⁷.
18 Progress remains hindered by a lack of policy and public awareness, fragmentation of actions
19 and policies, and the absence of intergovernmental coordination.
20

21 **The phosphorus emergency**

22 In the last 70 years, mineral phosphorus fertilisers have increasingly been used to enhance
23 crop yields, providing food for billions of people and livestock². Yet, 1 in 7 farmers cannot
24 afford sufficient fertilisers to maintain fertile soils, impacting their ability to produce food⁸.
25 Without change, insufficient phosphorus fertiliser use in Africa will likely lead to crop yield
26 reductions of nearly 30% by 2050⁹. In other regions such as Europe, North America and
27 South-East Asia, excess phosphorus use through fertiliser application is threatening water
28 quality. Globally, phosphorus losses from land to fresh waters have doubled in the last
29 century and continue to increase¹⁰, contributing to algal blooms, decimating biodiversity, and
30 threatening human and environmental health¹¹. An estimated 5.0-9.0 million tonnes of
31 phosphorus is lost to fresh waters each year globally, with societal costs in billions of dollars
32 (estimated at USD 2 billion annually for the USA, alone¹²). Freshwater aquaculture is

33 increasingly used to meet the demands of the 3 billion people that rely on fish to provide
34 ~20% of their intake of animal protein¹³. However, a paradox arises as phosphorus additions
35 to increase aquaculture yield represents a growing and direct pollution threat to the integrity
36 of this food system, and the freshwater and coastal ecosystems upon which it relies¹⁴.

37

38 Phosphate rock contains contaminants, including cadmium, which can be transferred into
39 fertiliser products, accumulate in soils, and end up in food¹⁵. Five countries hold 85% of
40 known phosphate rock reserves; with 75% found within Morocco and Western Sahara,
41 alone¹⁵. Therefore, food systems in most countries rely on importing phosphorus fertilisers,
42 making them vulnerable to phosphorus supply risks². The depletion of phosphate rock
43 reserves is not an immediate threat. At current mining rates total reserves (which are defined
44 as phosphate rock that can be economically produced using existing technology) would be
45 sufficient for 259 years¹⁶. However, economics, geopolitics, national and regional policies,
46 taxes, tariffs and legislation can all influence immediate access to available phosphorus
47 reserves, domestically^{17,18}. Such vulnerability was observed in 2008; the price of phosphate
48 rock spiked by 800%, causing an increase in fertiliser prices that affected the livelihoods of
49 many of the world's poorest farmers^{2,18}.

50

51 Phosphorus losses from land to fresh waters may rise further with increasing precipitation
52 and so associated negative impacts to marine and freshwater ecosystems - including harmful
53 algal blooms and coastal 'dead zones' – may be exacerbated as a result of climate change¹⁹.
54 At the same time, phosphorus pollution has been found to alter the global carbon cycle; more
55 productive freshwater ecosystems will emit more methane to the atmosphere and store more
56 organic carbon in lakebed sediments. A recent study projected that increases in phosphorus
57 losses to lakes and reservoirs will increase their methane emissions globally by up to 30% of
58 current CO₂ emissions from fossil fuels over the next century²⁰.

59

60 **Call for international action**

61

62 By the end of 2020, over 500 scientists signed the “Call for International Action on
63 Phosphorus” (www.opfglobal.com), a petition that calls for government support in addressing
64 the phosphorus emergency by coordinating action across five primary sectors (Figure 1).

65

66 **Agricultural sector.** Reducing phosphorus losses from agricultural systems is critical to
67 improving global phosphorus sustainability. Less than 30% of the ~35 million tonnes of
68 phosphorus applied to soils annually makes it into the food we eat^{5,21}. Legacy phosphorus,
69 which accumulates in agricultural soils and aquatic sediments, represents both an untapped
70 resource and a pollution burden for the future²². Extensive soil phosphorus testing is critical,
71 with appropriate controls to avoid the application of phosphorus fertilisers in excess of crop
72 needs. Innovations to utilise ‘legacy’ phosphorus already stored in some agricultural soils
73 include the use of phosphate-solubilizing microbes, while phosphorus-efficient cultivars may
74 also help²³. Solutions do not lie only in the soil. In some regions, nutritional strategies in
75 livestock production can reduce phosphorus losses in manures. These include optimising
76 phosphorus consumption to match the animal’s growth stage and supplementing monogastric
77 animals with phytase enzymes to improve phosphorus uptake from feed grains²⁴.

78

79 Some issues can be highly region-specific. For many low and middle-income countries, the
80 priority is still to provide affordable access to phosphorus fertilisers to avoid unsustainable
81 depletion of soil phosphorus stocks. This may require access to credit, subsidies and better
82 infrastructure, such as those for transport and storage of fertilisers². Recycling available
83 phosphorus-rich materials, such as manure and food waste should also be optimised.
84 Public education programs, agricultural extension services and better infrastructure will be
85 needed^{2,24}.

86

87 Though the FAO addresses phosphorus, for example through its ‘International Code of
88 Conduct for the sustainable use and management of fertilizers’, there currently appears to be
89 no mechanism to ensure codes are adopted across the world. The EU regulation on Fertilising
90 Products (2019/1009), set limits for cadmium and other harmful contaminants in fertilisers;
91 ‘CE marked’ fertilisers must contain below 60 mg cadmium kg⁻¹ from 2022²⁵. But
92 implementing safe limits for cadmium and contaminants in phosphorus fertilisers and feed
93 supplements is needed globally, especially when considering the global trade in agricultural
94 produce.

95

96 **Food consumption and production.** Consumers can play a role in reducing anthropogenic
97 phosphorus demand by avoiding excess consumption of foods with high phosphorus
98 footprints and by reducing food waste^{5,26}, supported by food labels and public education.
99 Over the last 60 years, the global average amount of mineral phosphorus fertiliser required to

100 produce food for one person annually has risen by 38%, driven predominantly by the
101 consumption and production of animal products²⁶. Greater public awareness of the
102 environmental impact of consuming products with high phosphorus footprints is needed²⁷ to
103 support more sustainable food choice. However, this is especially complicated for imported
104 products, with multiple ingredients from multiple countries, which may leave behind
105 eutrophication impacts in their countries of origin²⁸.

106

107 There is a pressing need for governments to support more phosphorus-sustainable food
108 systems by setting targets for organic waste recycling, reducing subsidies for meat
109 production, and taxing the landfilling and/or incineration of food waste. In industrialized food
110 systems, power has become increasingly concentrated into a small number of retailers and
111 food processors²⁹. For example, in the EU28 countries, some 22 million farmers produce food
112 for more than 500 million consumers, whilst food distribution and retail markets are
113 dominated by five large companies³⁰. Policies that engage with these powerful food system
114 actors can resonate internationally, with cascading effects on consumers and farmers
115 worldwide^{31,32}.

116

117 **Waste management.** While there are many available methods to recover phosphorus from
118 sewage and other organic materials³³, there is a need to invest in driving market forces to
119 increase the use of recovered phosphorus in fertilisers. To significantly increase phosphorus
120 recycling, economic, legislative and communication instruments are needed to help the
121 mineral fertiliser industry to increase the use of recovered phosphorus as a raw material. In
122 addition to developing the financial incentives, regulatory frameworks can help to enable the
123 use of recycled phosphorus fertilisers in existing fertiliser markets, examples of which are
124 being pioneered in Switzerland and Germany³⁴. The transition to a circular phosphorus
125 economy, in which waste products cease to be wasted products, is overdue.

126

127 **Mineral resource management.** For many countries, the greatest phosphorus management
128 opportunity would be to shift reliance from mined to recycled phosphorus. For some
129 phosphorus importing countries, however, achieving phosphorus independence by
130 strengthening the phosphorus circular economy may not be possible, and may require
131 significant change to national agricultural systems³⁵. Ensuring rock phosphate and mineral
132 phosphorus fertilisers are traded equitably is therefore critical, and requires international
133 cooperation, with examples of mediation provided by the World Trade Organization

134 (WTO)³⁶. Governments must recognise phosphorus supply risks, emphasising the need to
135 require accurate data on reserves, resources, and supply and demand³⁷. International schemes
136 for the classification and reporting of raw material resources may help unify phosphorus data
137 to improve accuracy. Regional bodies of the UN have a role to play, such as the Aarhus
138 Convention on access to environmental information, which could support better public access
139 to data on global phosphorus reserves and fertiliser production.

140

141 **Action in aquatic resources management.** Phosphorus losses throughout the landscape,
142 from source to sea, need to be mitigated, ensuring that the benefits resonate to the large scale,
143 especially where transboundary waters and large marine ecosystems are involved. The
144 building blocks for such an integrated approach are in place. UNEP's Framework for
145 Freshwater Ecosystem Management, for example, provides guidance to countries to
146 sustainably manage freshwater ecosystems, including setting phosphorus targets for healthy
147 freshwater ecosystems³⁸. Multiple existing international bodies, including the UN
148 Conventions on Transboundary Waters, Law of the Sea and Biological Diversity, can
149 strengthen regional action on phosphorus pollution (Figure 1).

150

151 Nonetheless, for some waterbodies where historical phosphorus pollution has been severe a
152 reduction in contemporary phosphorus inputs, alone, maybe insufficient to deliver ecological
153 and socio-economic recovery. Novel measures are being developed to address this problem.
154 For example, geoengineering measures, although contentious, have been proposed to address
155 the symptoms of nutrient pollution in the Baltic Sea³⁹. This includes aeration of anaerobic
156 waters by installing 100 pumping stations to transport oxygen-rich surface waters to a depth
157 of 125m for several decades, with an estimated cost of €200 million³⁹. Restoration can also
158 be costly and socio-economic analysis is needed to demonstrate the return on investments, for
159 example, the revenue from eco-tourism associated with clean waterbodies⁴⁰. Even where
160 restoration makes financial sense, our capacity to deliver rapid improvements may be limited.
161 Disaster response plans should be developed for cases where phosphorus pollution triggers
162 toxic algal blooms, such as to help communities prepare for emergency supplies of clean
163 water when local supplies become undrinkable⁴¹.

164

165 **Policy and public awareness**

166 At present, sustainable phosphorus management strategies are missing in many regions.
167 There is little intergovernmental action on the challenges of transboundary phosphorus

168 pollution or transport of contaminants from phosphate rock within mineral phosphorus
169 fertilisers. Similarly, there are few policies relating to sustainable phosphorus management at
170 national scales, and none at the global scale^{2,7}. The current fragmentation of actions and
171 policies across intergovernmental frameworks risks that collective knowledge for phosphorus
172 sustainability remains dormant in silos with little communication between them. To ensure
173 that socio-economic and environmental gains are delivered globally these bodies must work
174 systematically (Figure 1).

175

176 The “Call for International Action on Phosphorus” seeks the establishment or extension of an
177 intergovernmental coordination mechanism, such as that already being developed for
178 nitrogen⁴². This should support governments, existing conventions, and intergovernmental
179 frameworks, as well as stakeholders, to catalyse integrated action on phosphorus
180 sustainability. An international framework must be applied to consolidate the collective
181 knowledge on national to global phosphorus cycles, establish internationally agreed targets
182 for time-bound improvements in phosphorus management, and quantify the economic and
183 societal benefits of improving phosphorus sustainability. A future UNEA resolution on
184 phosphorus represents a key opportunity to mobilize intergovernmental action to deliver
185 these goals, it also represents a strong will to support change.

Figure 1. The global phosphorus system. Global phosphorus flows²¹ and fragmentation of existing international frameworks are shown. There is currently no intergovernmental coordination mechanism on phosphorus, which is needed to link phosphorus science-policy support between existing intergovernmental frameworks and other initiatives. Key bodies with relevant interests include the UN Environment Programme (UNEP) and Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO), UN-Water, the UN Regional Economic Commissions, the UN Framework Classification for Resources (UNFC), the World Trade Organization (WTO), the UN Convention on Biological Diversity (CBD), the UN the Global Programme of Action for the Protection of the Marine Environment from Land-based Activities (UN-GPA) and the UN Climate Change Convention (UN Climate Change). Arrow widths are proportional to the magnitude of phosphorus flows in 2013; units shown are in megatonnes of phosphorus per year.

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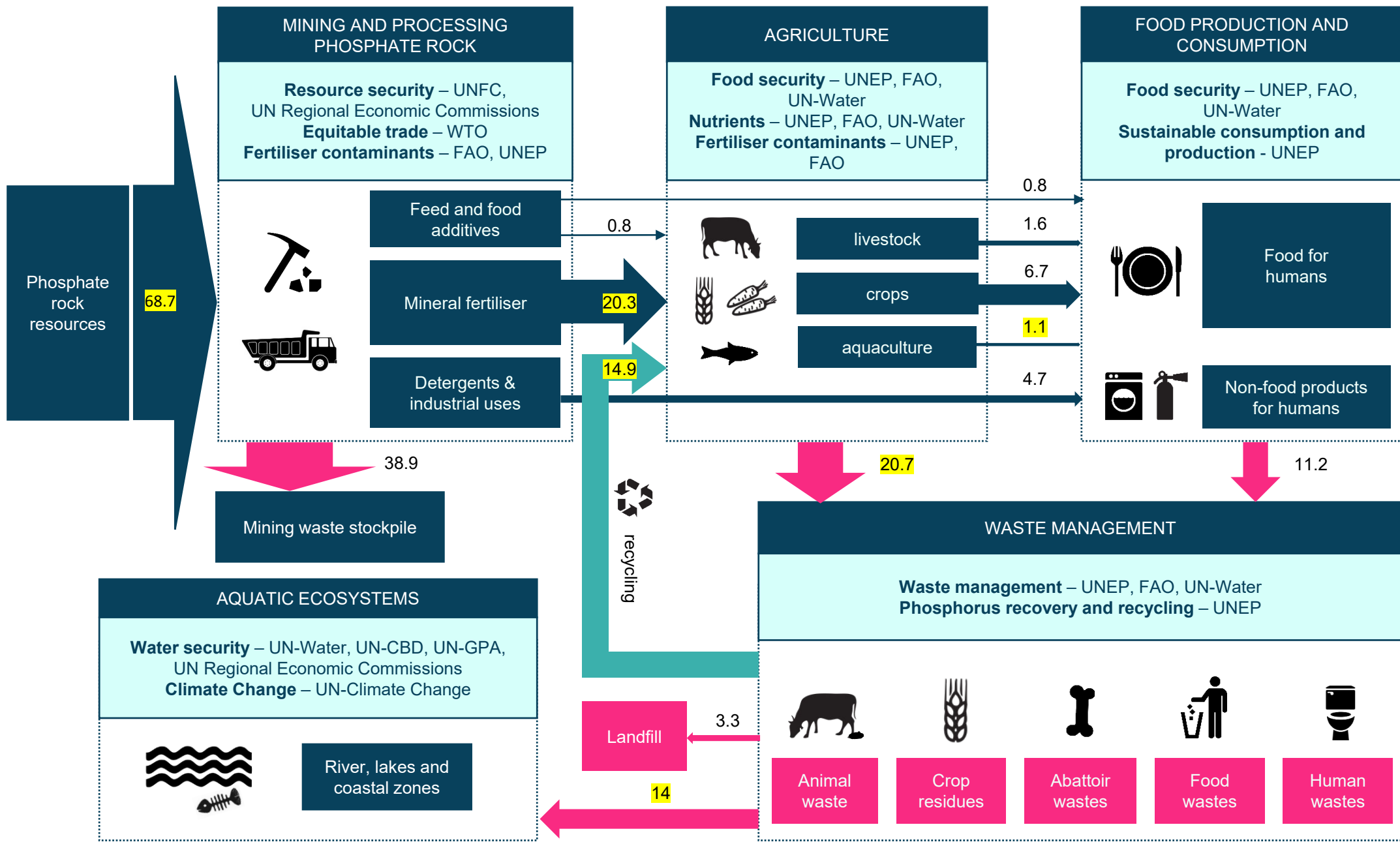
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Author Contributions

WJB co-conceived the idea of the manuscript and led the writing of the paper, and collated and conducted data analysis; MAS, DSR, KVH, LH, CK contributed to writing the paper; BMS co-conceived the idea of the manuscript and was the principal investigator of the project that supported this work and contributed to writing the paper.

Competing Interests

The authors declare no competing interests.



➡ Intended flows
 ➡ Unintended flows
 ➡ Recycling flows
 All flows in megatonnes of phosphorus per year.