

8 reasons why we need to rethink the management of phosphorus resources in the global food system



by Dana Cordell

PhD Scholar, Institute for Sustainable Futures, University of Technology, Sydney (UTS) Australia and Department of Water and Environmental Studies, Linköping University (LiU) SWEDEN dana.cordell@uts.edu.au

1. Phosphorus equals food

Phosphorus is essential for all living matter, including bacteria, plants and animals. We get our phosphorus from the food we eat, which in turn comes from the phosphate fertilizers we apply to crops. P fertilizer is essential for modern food production and is the limiting factor in crop yields. P is a critical global resource, along side water and energy resources.^{1,2,3}

Around 90% of the phosphate rock extracted globally is for food production (the remainder is for industrial applications like detergents).^{4,5}

2. A key non-renewable resource

The majority of the world's agricultural fields today rely on fertilizers derived from inorganic minerals, such as phosphate rock. Phosphate rock is a non-renewable resource that takes 10-15 million years to form from seabed to uplift and weathering, and current known reserves are likely to be depleted in 50-100 years.^{4,5}

Phosphate rock reserves are highly geographically concentrated, and thus only exist under control of a small number of countries, including China, Morocco (who controls Western Sahara's reserves), and the US. The US has approximately 25 years of reserves remaining, while China has imposed a 135% export tariff on phosphate rock to secure domestic supply. Western Europe and India are totally dependent on imports.^{4,5}

Importing Western Saharan P rock via Moroccan authorities is condemned by the UN and has recently been boycotted by several Scandinavian firms.^{6,7}

3. Peak P: no substitute?

Like oil and other natural resources, the rate of production of economically available phosphate reserves will eventually peak, followed by a steep decline and subsequent increasing gap between demand and supply. An analysis based on industry data shows the global peak P is expected to occur around 2040.⁸

While oil can be substituted with other sources when its reserves peak (like wind, biomass or thermal energy), phosphorus has no substitute in food production and as an element cannot be manufactured or synthesized.⁵

4. Growing food demand

Demand for phosphorus is increasing globally, despite a downward trend in developed regions like Western Europe. This is due to an increasing per capita and overall demand for food in developing countries, from increasing population and global trends towards more meat- and dairy-based diets, particularly in

emerging economies like China and India, which are significantly more P intensive.^{9,10}

A balanced diet results in depletion of around 22.5kg/yr of phosphate rock (or 3.2kg/yr P) per person based on current practice. This is 50 times greater than the 1.2 g/person recommended daily intake of P.¹¹

Achieving the Millennium Development Goal of eradicating hunger means we must change the way we source and use phosphorus in global food production. The African continent is simultaneously the world's largest producer of phosphate rock (almost 30% of the global share) and the continent with the largest deficit in food security.^{5,8}

5. Energy intensive

With growing concern about fossil fuel scarcity, we cannot afford to continue the energy intensive process of mining, processing and transporting phosphate rock and fertilizers across the global. Phosphate rock is one of the most highly traded commodities in the world. Around 30% of energy use in agriculture in the US is from fertilizer production and use.¹²

6. We've used up the 'good stuff'

The quality of phosphate rock is declining for two reasons: the concentration of P₂O₅ in mined P rock is decreasing; and the concentration of associated heavy metals like Cadmium are increasing. The Cadmium content of phosphate rock can be very high. This is either considered a harmful concentration for application in agriculture, or, expensive and energy intensive to remove (maximum concentrations for fertilizers exist in some regions, like Western Europe).^{10,13,14,15}

Every tonne of P₂O₅ in phosphoric acid generates 5 tonnes of phosphogypsum, a toxic by-product of phosphate rock mining. Radium levels are typically unacceptably high for reuse or disposal, and thus it must be stockpiled.¹⁶

7. Cheap fertilizer – a thing of the past

The price of phosphate rock has risen 700% since February 2007. While demand continues to increase, the cost of mining phosphate rock is increasing due to decline in quality and greater expense of extraction, refinement and environmental management.^{13,15}

In addition to increasing the demand and hence price of phosphate rock, biofuel demand is increasing fertilizer runoff from short-rooted energy crops to pollute waterways.^{17,18}

8. Recirculating human excreta

Human excreta (urine and faeces) are renewable and readily available sources of phosphorus. Urine is essentially sterile and contains plant-available nutrients (P,N,K) in the correct ratio. Treatment and reuse is very simple and the World Health

Organisation has published 'guidelines for the safe use of wastewater, excreta and greywater in agriculture'.^{19,20,21}

More than 50% of the world's population are now living in urban centres, and in the next 50 years 90% of the new population are expected to reside in urban slums. Urine is the largest single source of P emerging from human settlements.^{22,23}

According to some studies in Sweden and Zimbabwe, the nutrients in one person's urine are sufficient to produce 50-100% of the food requirements for another person. Combined with other organic sources like manure and food waste, the phosphorus value in urine and faeces can essentially replace the demand for phosphate rock. In 2000, the global population produced 3 million tonnes of phosphorus from urine and faeces alone.^{21,24,25}

Unlike phosphate rock, which only exists in a handful of countries' control, urine and faeces are available from any community or city, and hence can contribute to 'phosphorus sovereignty' and food security.⁸

In material flow terms, human excreta represents a readily available 'exchange pool' of phosphorus, before it is 'lost' to the hydrosphere typically as treated or untreated effluent discharged to rivers and oceans. If urine is reused as a fertilizer, then less phosphorus (in urine) is entering waterways, reducing the potential to cause toxic algal blooms.¹¹

Although preventing phosphorus point sources from entering water bodies is often necessary to prevent water pollution, removing high levels of phosphorus at the wastewater treatment plant is expensive and energy intensive. Capturing urine at source (at the toilet) can be much more energy efficient and cost-effective and does not contain heavy metals like Cadmium.^{11,26}

The cost of ecological sanitation systems around the world could be offset by the commercial value of the phosphorus (and nitrogen) they yield. Particularly in Africa where synthetic fertilizers typically cost 2-5 times more than in Europe. A community ecological sanitation toilet in Tamilnadu, India, now pays users, recognising the fertilizer value of their urine and faeces.^{27,28,29}

Please reference as: Cordell, D. (2008), "8 reasons why we need to rethink the management of phosphorus resources in the global food system", The Story of P Information Sheet 1, Global Phosphorus Research Initiative, Institute for Sustainable Futures, University of Technology, Sydney (UTS) Australia and Department of Water and Environmental Studies, Linköping University (LiU) SWEDEN.

www.phosphorusfutures.net

References

1. Stewart, W., L. Hammond, and S.J.V. Kauenbergh, (2005), *Phosphorus as a Natural Resource*, in *Phosphorus: Agriculture and the Environment*, Agronomy Monograph No.46. American Society of Agronomy, Crop Science Society of America, Soil Science Society of America: Madison. p. 3-21.
2. Pfeiffer, D.A., (2006), *Eating Fossil Fuels: Oil, Food and the Coming Crisis in Agriculture*, Canada: New Society Publishers.
3. SIWI-IMWI (2004), *Water – More Nutrition Per Drop, Towards Sustainable Food Production and Consumption Patterns in a Rapidly Changing World*. Stockholm International Water Institute, Stockholm.
4. Rosmarin, A., (2004), *The Precarious Geopolitics of Phosphorus Down to Earth* (Science and Environment Fortnightly), (June 30, 2004): p. 27-31.
5. Jasinski, S.M., (2006), *Phosphate Rock*, Statistics and Information. US Geological Survey.
6. Corell, H., (2002), *Letter dated 29 January 2002 from the Under-Secretary-General for Legal Affairs, the Legal Counsel, addressed to the President of the Security Council*. United National Security Council, Under-Secretary-General for Legal Affairs The Legal Counsel.
7. The Norwegian Support Committee for Western Sahara. (online), *frontpage news*. [cited; Available from: www.vest-sahara.no.
8. Cordell, D., Drangert, J.-O. and White, S (submitted), *The Story of Phosphorus: Food security and food for thought*, Institute for Sustainable Futures, University of Technology, Sydney, Australia, and Department of Water and Environmental Studies, Linköping University, Sweden. submitted to *AMBIO Journal of the Human Environment*
9. Fresco, L., (2003), *Plant nutrients: What we know, guess and do not know*. Assistant Director-General, Agriculture Department Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (FAO) IFA/FAO AGRICULTURE CONFERENCE, Rome.
10. European Fertilizer Manufacturers Association, (2000), *Phosphorus: Essential Element for Food Production*. European Fertilizer Manufacturers Association (EFMA), Brussels.
11. Cordell (2006) *Urine Diversion and Reuse in Australia: A homeless paradigm or sustainable solution for the future?*, Masters Thesis, Department of Water and Environmental Studies, Linköping University, Sweden. Available from: <http://www.ep.liu.se/undergraduate/abstract.xsql?dbid=8310>
12. Earth Policy Institute. (2005), *Oil and Food: A Rising Security Challenge*. [cited 2006 2nd November]; Available from: <http://www.earth-policy.org/Updates/2005/Update48.htm>.
13. International Fertilizer Industry Association. (2006), *Sustainable Development and the Fertilizer Industry* [cited 2006 25th June]; Available from: <http://www.fertilizer.org/ifa/sustainability/sustainability.asp>.
14. Driver, J., (1998), *Phosphates recovery for recycling from sewage and animal waste*. Phosphorus and Potassium, **216**: p. 17-21.
15. Steen, I., (1998), *Phosphorus availability in the 21st Century: Management of a non-renewable resource*. Phosphorus and Potassium, **217**: p. 25-31.
16. Wissa, A.E.Z., (2003), *Phosphogypsum Disposal and The Environment* Ardaman & Associates, Inc., Florida, available: http://www.fipr.state.fl.us/pondwatercd/phosphogypsum_disposal.htm
17. IFA (2007), *International Fertilizer Supply and Demand*, International Fertilizer Industry Association, presented at Australian Fertilizer Industry Conference, August 2007.
18. Committee On Water Implications Of Biofuels Production In The United States (2008), *Water Implications of Biofuels Production in the United States*, Water Science And Technology Board, Division On Earth And Life Studies, National Research Council Of The National Academies, The National Academies Press, [Online] available: <http://national-academies.org/morenews/20071010.html>
19. WHO, (2006), *Guidelines for the safe use of wastewater, excreta and greywater*, Volume 4: Excreta and greywater use in agriculture. World Health Organisation.. Available from: http://www.who.int/water_sanitation_health/wastewater/gsuww/en/index.html
20. Esrey, S., et al., (2001), *Closing the Loop: Ecological sanitation for food security*. UNDP & SIDA, Mexico.
21. Drangert, J.-O. (1998), *Fighting the Urine Blindness to provide more sanitation options*, Institute of Water and Environmental Studies, Linköping University, Linköping
22. FAO, (2002), *Feeding the cities. Focus on the Issues, World Food Summit – five years later 10-13 June 2002*, Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations, Rome.
23. Jönsson, H (2001), *Urine separation - Swedish experiences*, SLU, Swedish University of Agricultural Sciences, EcoEng Newsletter 1, October 2001
24. Gumbo, B. and H.H.G. Savenije, (2001), *Inventory of phosphorus fluxes and storage in an urban-shed: options for local nutrient recycling*. Internet Dialogue on Ecological Sanitation (15 Nov.-20 Dec. 2001), Delft.
25. Smil, V., (2000), *Phosphorus in the Environment: Natural Flows and Human Interferences* Annual Review of Energy and the Environment, **25**: p. 53-88.
26. Vinnerås, B. and Jönsson, H. (2002), *The performance and potential of faecal separation and urine diversion to recycle plant nutrients in household wastewater*, Department of Agricultural Engineering, Swedish University of Agricultural Science, *Bioresource Technology*, **84(3)**, p.276-282.
27. Mokwunye, U. (2004), *West Africa Ch.5*, Director, The United Nations University, Institute for Natural Resources in Africa, Ghana in *Assuring Food and Nutrition Security in Africa by 2020* Proceedings of an All-Africa Conference April 1-3, 2004 Kampala, Uganda. [Online] available: <http://www.ifpri.org/pubs/books/vi24.htm>
28. SEI (2005), *Sustainable Pathways to Attain the Millennium Development Goals - Assessing the Role of Water, Energy and Sanitation*, For the UN World Summit September 2005 Stockholm Environment Institute (September 2005)
29. EcoSanRes (2008), *ESR News: Toilet Users Get Paid Money*, Society for Community Organization and Peoples Education (SCOPE). See www.scopetrichy.org/

For more information see
www.phosphorusfutures.net