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Please cite this publication as follows:

Njoroge, S., Schut, T., Giller, K. E., & Zingore, S. (2017). Strong spatial-temporal patterns in maize yield response to nutrient additions in African smallholder farms. *Field Crops Research*, 214, 321-330. DOI: 10.1016/j.fcr.2017.09.026

You can download the published version at:

<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.fcr.2017.09.026>

1 *Strong spatial-temporal patterns in maize yield response to nutrient additions in African smallholder farms*

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6 Key words: Soil fertility variability, nutrient omission trials, relative yield, sub-Saharan Africa

7

8 Abstract

9 Large variability in crop responses to macronutrient application at various spatial scales present challenges for
10 developing effective fertilizer recommendations for crop production in smallholder farming systems of sub-
11 Saharan Africa. We assessed maize yield responses to nitrogen (N), phosphorus (P) and potassium (K)
12 application and evaluated relationships between crop responses to N, P and K application and soil analysis data.
13 Nutrient omission trials were conducted on 23 farms located in Sidindi, Western Kenya, selected to be
14 representative of the main soil and management factors in maize based systems in Siaya County. Treatments
15 included a control and PK, NK, NP and NPK applications. The trials ran for six consecutive cropping seasons,
16 without changing treatments or plot location, covering the period 2013–2015. Strong spatial-temporal patterns
17 in maize yield responses to N, P and K applications were observed. Average maize yields in the control, PK, NK,
18 NP and NPK treatments were 2.8, 3.2, 5.1, 5.1 and 5.5 t ha⁻¹ at 88% dry matter respectively in the first cropping
19 season, and 1.1, 1.4, 2.9, 3.6 and 5.3 t ha⁻¹ at 88% dry matter respectively in the sixth cropping season. In all
20 seasons, variability in maize yield between fields was greatest in the control treatment followed by the NK
21 treatment and least in the NPK treatment. Mean relative yield was 0.6, 0.92 and 0.93 for N, P and K
22 respectively, in the first cropping season, and 0.25, 0.52 and 0.68, respectively, in the sixth cropping season. Six
23 main maize yield response categories were identified that differed in the maize grain yield responses to

recursive N, P and K applications. Maize yield responses to N, P and K were not fully accounted for by soil organic matter, soil available P and exchangeable K respectively. Our results indicate that current methods for soil analysis do not adequately predict the response to application of N, P and K fertilizer under the highly variable soil fertility conditions encountered in smallholder farming systems. The strong spatial-temporal patterns observed present major challenges for the development of effective site-specific fertilizer recommendations. Potential avenues for future research and options for more effective intensification strategies are discussed.

1. Introduction

Crop production in smallholder systems in sub-Saharan Africa (SSA) is strongly limited by poor soil fertility that results from continuous cropping with little or no nutrient replenishment (Kihara *et al.*, 2015; Sanchez, 2002), with an average fertilizer application rate of 13 kg ha⁻¹ (Minot and Benson, 2009). Soil deficiencies of macronutrients are widespread in the region, with negative nutrient balances reported for nitrogen (N), phosphorus (P) and potassium (K) in most parts of SSA (Xu *et al.*, 2014). As a result, the yields obtained by farmers using local practices of important food crops in the majority of smallholder farming systems in SSA are far below the attainable yield (Van Ittersum *et al.*, 2016) resulting in yield gaps, defined as difference between actual and potential yields under rainfed conditions without nutrient deficiency, pest or diseases (Van Ittersum and Rabbinge, 1997). In the last decade for SSA, actual rainfed maize yields ranged from 1.2 to 2.2 t ha⁻¹, representing only 15-27% of the potential yield under rainfed conditions (Van Ittersum *et al.*, 2016). Consequently, SSA has been identified as one of the regions in the world with the lowest cereal sufficiency ratio defined as the ratio between domestic production and total consumption (Van Ittersum *et al.*, 2016).

Given that up to 75% of the population in SSA depend directly or indirectly on agriculture as a livelihood source (Nziguheba *et al.*, 2010; Sanchez *et al.*, 2007), the sector's large contribution to the overall economy (Diao *et al.*, 2010), and the projected decrease in cereal self sufficiency over time (Van Ittersum *et al.*, 2016), agricultural

47 intensification is urgently needed (Tittonell and Giller, 2013). Considerable ‘low hanging’ opportunities exist for
48 intensification of production of major cereals in SSA (Mueller *et al.*, 2012) when N, P and K deficiencies are
49 addressed (Adediran and Banjoko, 1995). Since the launch of the Alliance for Green Revolution in African
50 (AGRA) in 2006 (AGRA, 2016), and the recommendations of the Africa fertilizer summit of 2006 (Summit, 2006),
51 a number of research programmes have focused on intensification of crop productivity in smallholder farming
52 systems in SSA (Chikowo *et al.*, 2014). Although fertilizer use has increased in a number of countries in SSA, its
53 use efficiency remains low due to poor crop management practices (Byerlee *et al.*, 2007; Sheahan and Barrett,
54 2014), the predominance of inherently low fertility sandy soils (Bationo *et al.*, 2012), and unbalanced blanket
55 fertilizer recommendations that do not address the complexity of smallholder farming systems (Chikowo *et al.*,
56 2014; Giller *et al.*, 2011). Further, the occurrence of “non-responsive soils” where application of available
57 fertilizers does not result in increased crop productivity (Vanlauwe *et al.*, 2010) has an additional adverse effect
58 on fertilizer use efficiency. Such non-responsiveness may be due to a range of factors including macro- and
59 micronutrient depletion, poor germination due to slaking or top-soil erosion, aluminium toxicity in relation to
60 soil acidification and increased sensitivity to drought conditions (Tittonell and Giller, 2013; Vanlauwe *et al.*,
61 2015). As a result, crop productivity intensification programmes in SSA have faced large variations in yield
62 responses to applied nutrients at farm and field scales (Tittonell *et al.*, 2008b; Vanlauwe *et al.*, 2006). This
63 raises the need for fertilizer recommendations that are tailored for specific farm and field conditions (Smaling
64 *et al.*, 1992; Tittonell *et al.*, 2008a). Although, inherent soil fertility is related to soil forming factors including
65 geomorphology, local climate and vegetation (Deckers, 2002; Smaling *et al.*, 1993), cropping intensity and past
66 soil management have been identified as major drivers of variability (Tittonell *et al.*, 2005). The centripetal net
67 transport of nutrients by animals also results in strong gradients at landscape level (van Keulen and Breman,
68 1990). The strong effects of management often result in patterns of decreasing soil fertility with increasing
69 distance from homesteads within farms (Tittonell *et al.*, 2005; Zingore *et al.*, 2007a) and decreasing soil fertility
70 with decreasing resource availability and use among farms (Giller *et al.*, 2006; Tittonell *et al.*, 2005).

71 Consequently, regions and or farms with similar inherent soil fertility may over time develop strong
72 heterogeneity in soil fertility and associated responses to macronutrients (N, P and K) applications. There is a
73 paucity of information on both spatial and temporal patterns of such responses. Spatio-temporal patterns refer
74 to differences in the dynamics of crop yield responses to macronutrients applications in an area with similar
75 climatic conditions. This is because most nutrient management technologies were developed at research
76 stations without sufficiently acknowledging the complexity of farming systems (Chikowo *et al.*, 2014). Such
77 information would help to target the right fertilizer and application rates to specific crops and locations and
78 improve the efficiency of fertilizer use (Kihara *et al.*, 2016). Further, understanding the relationships between
79 spatial-temporal responses to macronutrients application and soil analysis results would help in quantifying the
80 value of soil analysis, which is considered an important component of restoring and managing soil fertility in
81 smallholder farming systems (Sanginga and Woomer, 2009). Controlled experiments in a series of
82 heterogeneous farmers' fields therefore offer the most conceptually straight forward way to study spatial
83 temporal variations in responses to macronutrients (Lobell *et al.*, 2009; Vanlauwe *et al.*, 2006). Further insight
84 on the magnitude, and consistency of observed spatial temporal patterns over time can then be achieved using
85 cluster analysis (Perez-Quezada *et al.*, 2003). Cluster analysis allows for the grouping of fields showing similar
86 responses over time into distinct classes (Fridgen *et al.*, 2004), and was used effectively to identify various
87 classes of nutrient response patterns in smallholder farming systems in SSA (Kihara *et al.*, 2016).

88 The specific objectives of this study were to: (i) assess the magnitude and spatial-temporal patterns of maize
89 yield responses to N, P and K application; (ii) identify and characterize clusters of farms with similar yield
90 response patterns to N, P and K; (iii) assess the utility of soil chemical properties in predicting maize responses
91 to N, P and K application. We hypothesize that patterns of crop responses to N, P and K fertilization over a
92 combination of space and time in heterogeneous farms provide an important basis for developing site-specific
93 fertilizer recommendations.

94 2. Materials and methods

95 2.1 Study Site

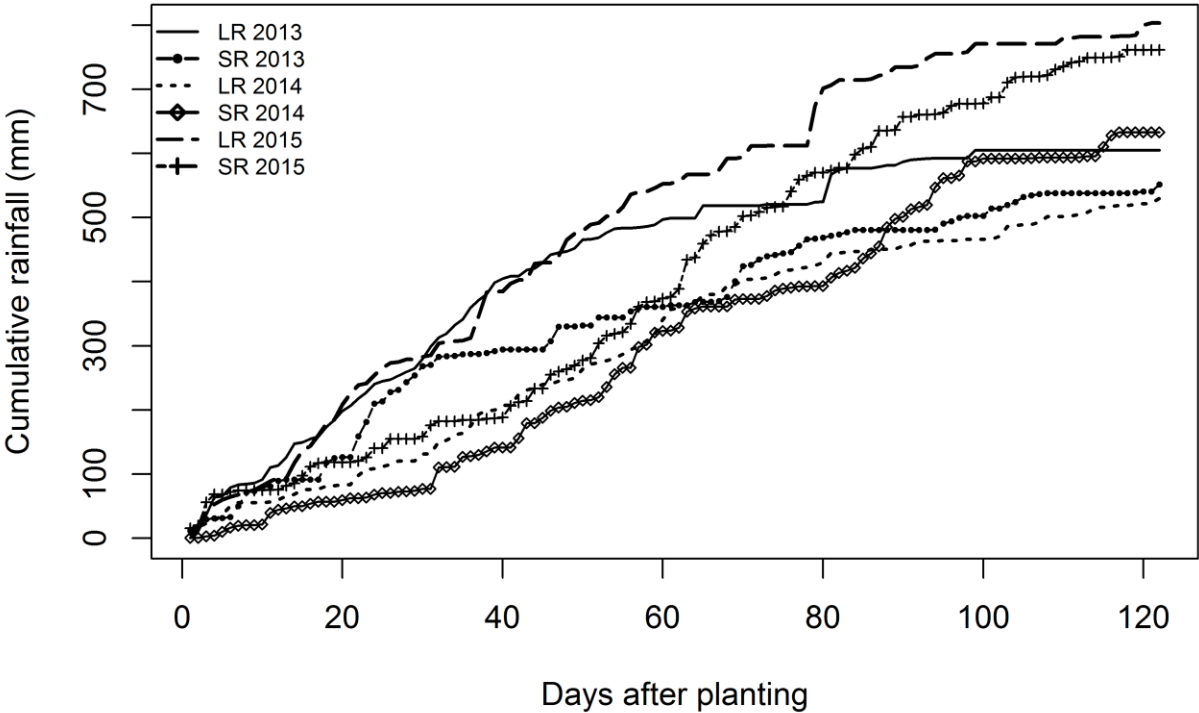
96 The study was conducted in Sidindi, western Kenya. A 10 km by 10 km site previously used to collect soil
97 mapping data under the African Soil Information Services (AfSIS) project was selected (AfSIS, 2016). The site is
98 centred at a latitude of 0.15 °N, a longitude of 34.4°E and at about 1240 metres above sea level. Annual rainfall
99 ranges from 1600 – 2000 mm and is distributed over two distinct seasons with a long rains (LR) season from
100 March to July and short rains (SR) season from September to December. Maize is the main staple food crop and
101 is cultivated on more than 80% of the crop area in western Kenya (Place *et al.*, 2006). Despite water limited
102 yields (Yw) which refers to the yield achievable in farmer's fields with best nutrient, pest, and crop
103 management practices under rainfed conditions (Van Ittersum *et al.*, 2013) of 12 t ha⁻¹ and 8 t ha⁻¹ in the long
104 and short rains seasons respectively, actual maize yields on majority of smallholder farms in western Kenya are
105 low at about 1.9 t ha⁻¹ (Van Ittersum *et al.*, 2016). The area is also characterized by large within and between
106 farm heterogeneity in soil fertility (Tittonell *et al.*, 2005).

107 2.2 Selection of trial sites

108 On-farm nutrient omission trials were established in 2013 across 24 sites representative of major soil units in
109 the study area. Selection of trial sites was conducted on the basis of a previous survey conducted by the AfSIS
110 project (AfSIS, 2016) that collected socio economic and agronomic data from 300 farmers within the study site
111 (data not shown). From this survey, stratified random sampling was conducted to select an initial sample
112 containing 48 farms representative of the study area based on land size, socio-economic characteristics and soil
113 type.

114 From this sample, eight fields within each of the three sub-locations in the study area namely Sirembe,
115 Malanga, and Ndere were selected based on the availability of land for trial set-up to make a total of 24 fields.

116 Seasonal rainfall data in each of the sub-locations was collected using rain gauges located at each of the sub-
117 locations. The experiments were conducted for six consecutive cropping seasons in 2013 – 2015.



118
119 Figure 1: Cumulative average rainfall in the long rain (LR) and short rain (SR) seasons of 2013 - 2015.

120 2.3 Site characterization

121 Prior to the establishment of the trials, the position of each field was determined using a Global Navigation
122 Satellite Systems receiver (Etrex 20, Garmin Limited, Chicago USA). Soil samples were collected from four
123 points within each field using a ‘Y frame sampling approach’ at a 0-20 cm depth. Collected samples were then
124 placed in a basin, thoroughly mixed and a composite sample obtained. Composite samples from each field were
125 then air dried and passed through a 2 mm sieve before chemical analysis at Crop Nutrition Laboratories in
126 Nairobi. Available P and exchangeable bases (calcium, magnesium, K and sodium) were determined after a

127 Mehlich 3 extraction (Mehlich, 1984), while soil organic matter (SOM) was determined using the Walkley-Black
128 method (Robinson, 1993). Soil pH was determined in water, while soil texture was determined using the
129 hydrometer method after adding a dispersing solution to a 50 g sample of soil (Bouyoucos, 1962).

130 2.4 Experimental treatments and management

131 The first set of nutrient omission experiments was established in early April 2013 at the onset of the long rains
132 season. The experiment included a set of five treatments to assess maize response to N, P and K application
133 including a control, P+K, N+K, N+P and N+P+K treatments established in plots measuring 10 m by 10 m (Table 1)
134 replicated in 24 farms with each farm serving as a complete block. N was applied in the form of urea in three
135 equal splits; at planting, at three weeks after emergence and at six weeks after emergence. The P and K
136 fertilizers were applied at planting in the form of triple super phosphate (TSP) and muriate of potash (KCl)
137 respectively. Trial plot locations and allocated treatments remained the same throughout the study period.

138 Each season, fields were prepared about two weeks before seeding by tilling to a depth of approximately 20 cm
139 using hand hoes. Remaining crop residues from the previous season were removed prior to tilling, reflecting
140 normal farmer practice. Throughout the experimental period, the short-season maize variety DK8031 was
141 planted at the recommended spacing (75 by 25 cm) to give 53,333 plants ha⁻¹ after thinning. Two seeds were
142 planted per planting station and thinned to one at two weeks after emergence. All plots were manually weeded
143 at three and six weeks after emergence.

144 Table 1: Treatment structure for nutrient omission trials in Sidindi, western Kenya.

Treatment	Nutrient		
	N kg ha ⁻¹	P kg ha ⁻¹	K kg ha ⁻¹
Control	0	0	0
PK	0	40	60
NK	150	0	60
NP	150	40	0
NPK	150	40	60

146 2.5 Yield data collection

147 At physiological maturity, all maize plants were harvested within a net plot of 2.25 m by 3 m including three
148 centre rows in each plot, leaving at least 2 m on each side of the center rows to minimize edge effects. The
149 exact location of the net plot was chosen such that the net plot was visually representative of general growth
150 conditions within the centre rows. After harvesting, total plant and cob numbers were recorded, and total cob
151 weight determined in the field using a digital scale accurate to 2 decimal places. Grain moisture content was
152 determined using a moisture tester (Dickey John Mini GAC, Minneapolis USA). Grain yield in each plot was then
153 expressed in 88% dry matter.

154 2.6 Relative yield

155 Relative yield (RY) was used as a measure of the yield responses to N, P and K and was determined as the ratio
156 between nutrient limited yield and yield in the NPK plot (equation 1). Relative yield values <1 indicate response
157 to the applied nutrient, while values >=1 indicate no response to the applied nutrient.

158
$$RY_{i,j,s} = \frac{GY_{i,j,s}}{GY_{npk,j,s}} \quad (1)$$

159 Where;

160 $RY_{i,j,s}$ = Relative yield in treatment plot i at field j in season s

161 $GY_{i,j,s}$ = Grain yield in treatment plot i at field j in season s

162 $GY_{npk,j,s}$ = Grain yield in the NPK treatment plot at field j in season s

163 2.7 Normalized yield

164 Yield normalization was conducted to enable comparisons of plot performance with other plots that received
165 the same treatment in the same season, i.e. highlighting spatial differences. It allows evaluation of the
166 resilience of plot nutrient stocks over time. It also allows evaluation of changes in ranking of plots over time,
167 enabling understanding of key factors that may identify better performing plots. Normalized yield (NY) was
168 determined as the ratio between the yield for a particular treatment and season in a particular field and
169 average treatment yield for that treatment across all fields in a particular season (Equation 2). When
170 normalized yields are trending downwards, this reflects a smaller resilience when compared to other plots and
171 when trending upwards it reflects a larger resilience, both indications of changing spatial patterns.

172

$$173 \quad NY_{i,j,s} = \frac{GY_{i,j,s}}{\overline{GY}_{i,s}} \quad (2)$$

174 Where;

175 $NY_{i,j,s}$ = Normalized yield in treatment plot i at field j in season s

176 $GY_{i,j,s}$ = Grain yield in treatment plot i at field j in season s

177 $\overline{GY}_{i,s}$ = Overall mean grain yield in treatment plot i across all fields in season s

178 2.8 Statistical analysis

179 The final dataset used in the analysis comprised of data from 23 fields after one field was excluded due to lack
180 of yield data in the fifth and sixth season following farmer withdrawal from the study. The effect of treatment

on grain yield in the 23 fields was analysed at seasonal level using a generalised linear model with grain yield as response variable and treatment as explanatory factor with the LME4 package available in R software (www.r-project.org). Differences in treatment means were then evaluated for significance using a Tukey HSD test with the package 'agricolae' in R and reported at a significance level of 0.05. To evaluate the differences in yield variation between and within treatments, the coefficient of variation (CV) was calculated for each treatment in each season (using the 'raster' package in R). Scatter plots of CV values and seasons were then constructed and regression lines fit for trend assessment.

To assess differences in response to N, P and K, a Student t-test was used to evaluate if seasonal relative yield values were different from a value of 1.0. Evaluation of differences in response to N, P and K over time was conducted using a GLM model with treatment relative yield as response variable and season as explanatory factor. Frequency distribution plots were then used to show trends in relative yield at field level over seasons.

Cluster analysis was used to identify groups of fields with similar trends in yield responses to N, P and K based on Euclidian distances between paired vectors including intercept and trend values. These were based on 6 season relative yield values for PK, NK, and NP treatments per field, and was conducted with the 'GMD' package in R software. This clustering method starts with one cluster per field and merges clusters based on squared dissimilarities between fields, using the Ward criterion (Murtagh and Legendre, 2014). The clustering algorithm was set to identify the number of clusters which explained at least 70% of the total variation, and additional variation explained by adding one extra cluster was less than 10%.

To evaluate the relationship between initial soil fertility and observed responses to N, P and K, seasonal RY_{PK} , RY_{NK} , and RY_{NP} values were plotted against soil organic matter (SOM), soil available P (mg kg^{-1}), and soil exchangeable K (cmol kg^{-1}) respectively. Ensuing scatter plots were then split into four quadrants by drawing a horizontal line at $RY = 0.95$ (where values >0.95 represented no response to the nutrient under evaluation), and

vertical lines drawn at 3%, 10 mg kg⁻¹, and 0.2 cmol kg⁻¹, representing average critical values of SOM, soil available P, and soil exchangeable K respectively, for soils in the region (Okalebo *et al.*, 1993).

3. Results

3.1 Maize yields

Maize yields increased significantly with nutrient application including N in all six seasons (Table 2). In all seasons, maize yield in the control treatment was similar to that in the PK treatment, but significantly ($P<0.05$) less than that in the NK, NP and NPK treatments. Yields in the NK, NP and NPK treatments were not significantly different in the first season. However, NK treatment yields were significantly smaller than NPK treatment yields in all five subsequent seasons and in the last season for the NP treatment (Table 2). Yields in the NK treatment declined over the seasons from 5.1 to 2.9 ton ha⁻¹. In the NPK treatment, yields in the long rains seasons were at least 0.4 ton ha⁻¹ higher than in corresponding short rains seasons (Table 2).

Table 2: Average maize grain yield in t ha⁻¹ at 88% dry matter for nutrient omission trials conducted on 23 farms in Sidindi, western Kenya.

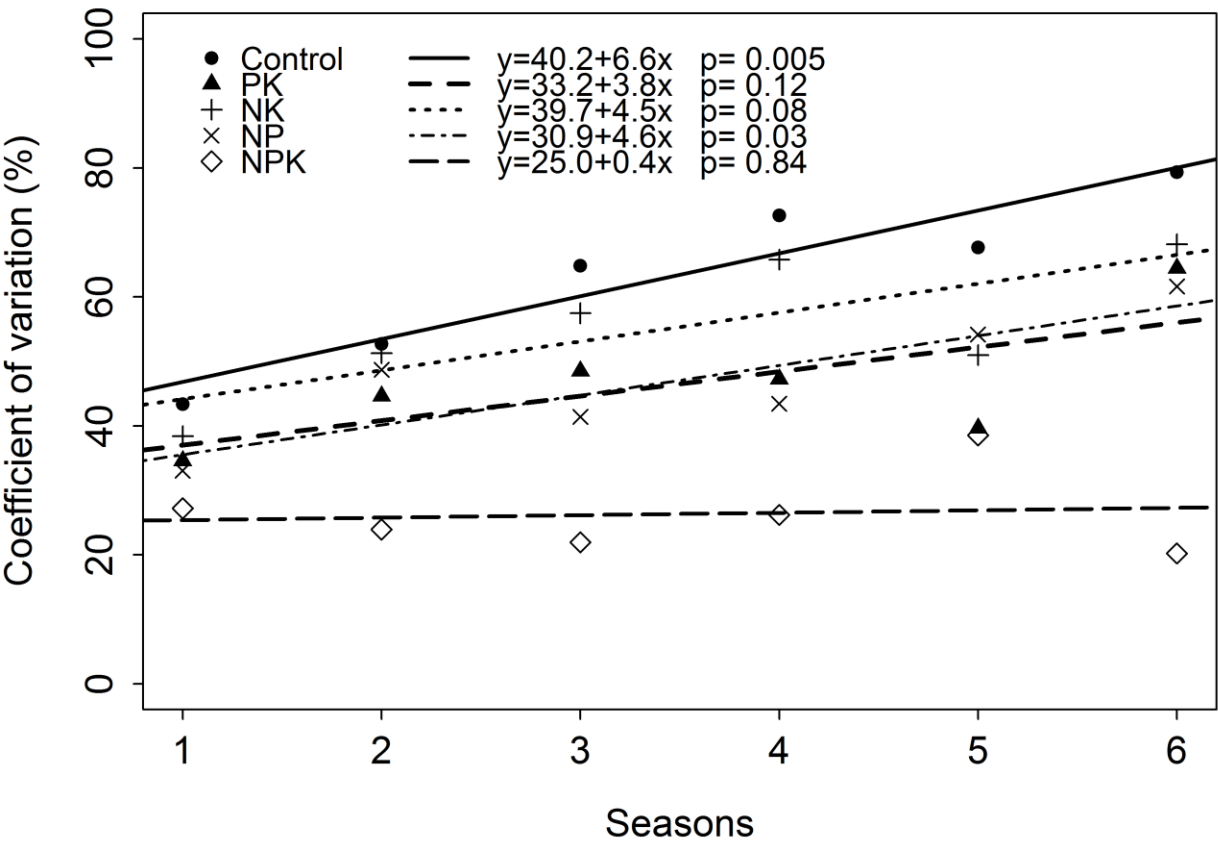
Treatment	Season [†]					
	LR 2013	SR 2013	LR 2014	SR 2014	LR 2015	SR 2015
Control	2.8 ^b	2.1 ^c	2.2 ^c	1.8 ^c	2.2 ^c	1.1 ^c
PK	3.2 ^b	2.8 ^c	2.7 ^c	2.6 ^{bc}	2.6 ^c	1.4 ^c
NK	5.1 ^a	3.7 ^b	3.7 ^b	3.3 ^b	4.0 ^b	2.9 ^b
NP	5.1 ^a	4.1 ^{ab}	4.6 ^b	4.4 ^a	4.6 ^{ab}	3.6 ^b
NPK	5.5 ^a	4.9 ^a	5.6 ^a	5.2 ^a	5.7 ^a	5.3 ^a
HSD	1.2	1.2	1.4	1.3	1.6	1.2

Grain yield values in the same column followed by a different superscript are significantly different at $P<0.05$)

[†] LR and SR refer to long and short rains seasons respectively

221 3.2 Variability in grain yield responses

222 On average, variability was greatest in the control treatment followed by the NK treatment and least in the NPK
223 treatment (Fig. 2). Variability remained constant for NPK but increased significantly ($P<0.05$) for only Control
224 and NP. A decrease in variability in season five when compared to the trend was observed for all treatments
225 except NPK which showed an increase in variability (Fig. 2).



226

227 Figure 2: Scatter plots of coefficient of variation in treatment maize grain yield and seasons in nutrient omission
228 trials conducted with a single complete replicate block per farm ($n = 23$) in Sidindi, western Kenya. Solid and
229 dashed lines are fitted linear regression lines. Seasons 1-6 refer to LR 2013, SR 2013, LR 2014, SR 2014, LR 2015
230 and SR 2015 respectively.

231

232

3.3 Maize grain yield responses to N, P and K applications

Evaluation of mean RY values in the first season showed that only RY_{PK} was significantly less than 1 (Table 3), indicating a strong response to only N. However, in subsequent seasons responses to N, P and K were all significant as indicated by RY_{PK} , RY_{NK} and RY_{NP} values significantly less than 1 (Table 3), demonstrating increasing yield limitations with continued cropping without application of P and K. In all six seasons, mean RY was in the order $RY_{PK} < RY_{NK} < RY_{NP}$, indicating that N was the most limiting nutrient in the study area followed by P and K respectively.

Seasonal trends within RY showed that only in the last season was the RY_{PK} value significantly smaller than that observed in the first season, indicating minimal change in response to N over time (Table 3). RY_{NP} values in the third, fourth and sixth seasons were significantly ($P < 0.05$) smaller than for the first season, while decreases in RY_{NP} were not significant over time (Table 3), illustrating significant temporal differences in P availability.

Table 3: Within and between season differences in relative maize grain yields for nutrient omission trials conducted on 23 farms in Sidindi, western Kenya.

Relative Yield [†]	Season [‡]						HSD
	LR 2013	SR 2013	LR 2014	SR 2014	LR 2015	SR 2015	
RY_{PK}	0.61 ^a	0.60 ^a	0.48 ^a	0.53 ^a	0.49 ^a	0.25 ^b	0.20
RY_{NK}	0.93^a	0.73 ^{ab}	0.64 ^b	0.59 ^b	0.70 ^{ab}	0.52 ^b	0.28
RY_{NP}	0.94	0.80	0.79	0.84	0.80	0.68	0.27

Values in bold are not significantly different from a value of 1

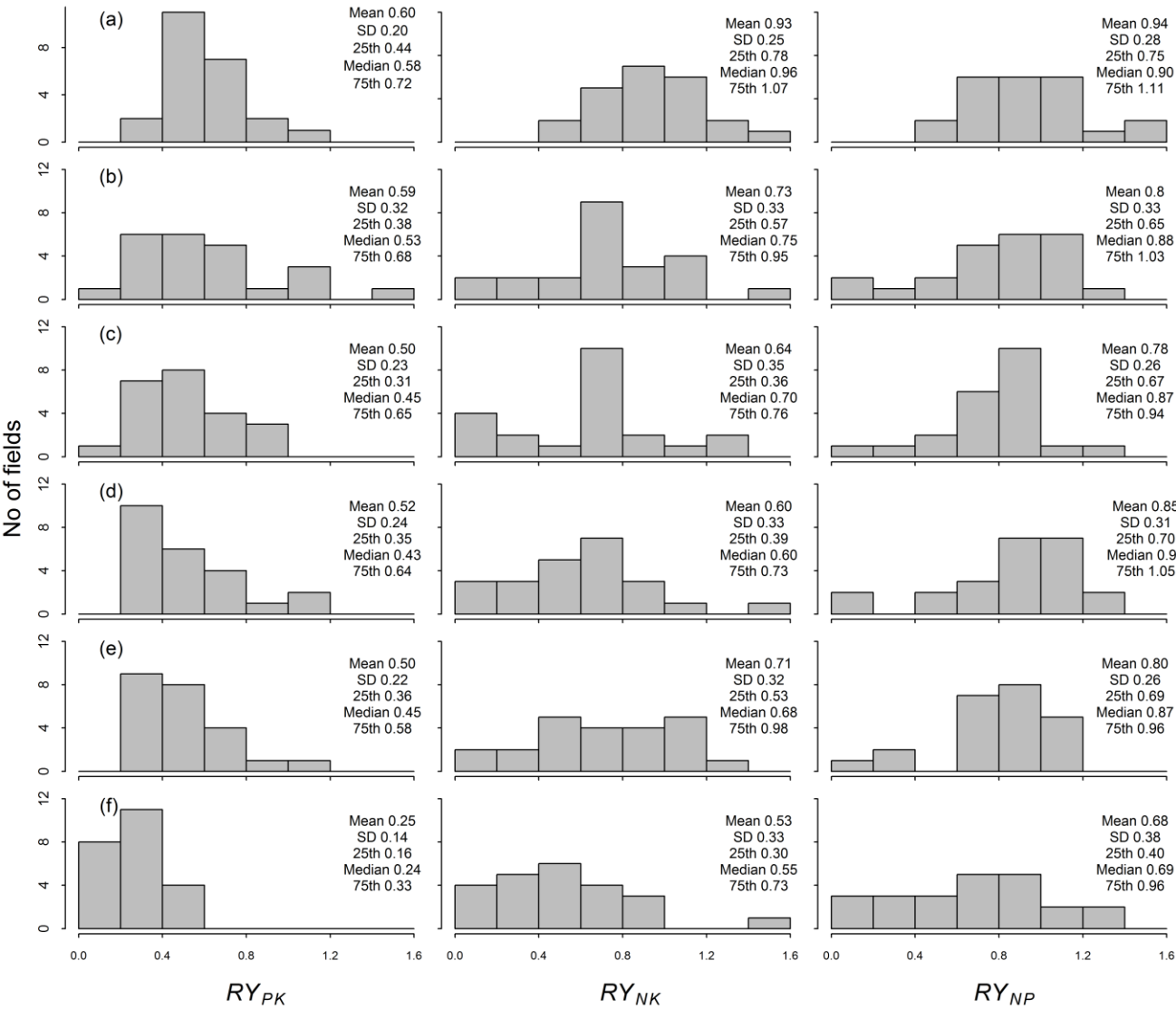
Values in the same row followed by a different superscript are significantly different at $P < 0.05$

[†] RY_{PK} , RY_{NK} and RY_{NP} are the ratios between mean PK, NK and NP treatment yield, and mean NPK treatment yield in a particular season respectively.

[‡]LR and SR refer to long and short rains seasons respectively

The frequency distribution of relative yield over the four cropping seasons is shown in Figure 3. Differences in responses to N, P and K between fields in a season were observed as well as differences in field's responses to a particular nutrient across seasons (Fig. 3). In the first season, strong responses to N ($RY_{PK} < 0.5$) were observed in 29% of fields. In the subsequent five seasons, the percentage of fields strongly responsive to N ($RY_{PK} < 0.5$)

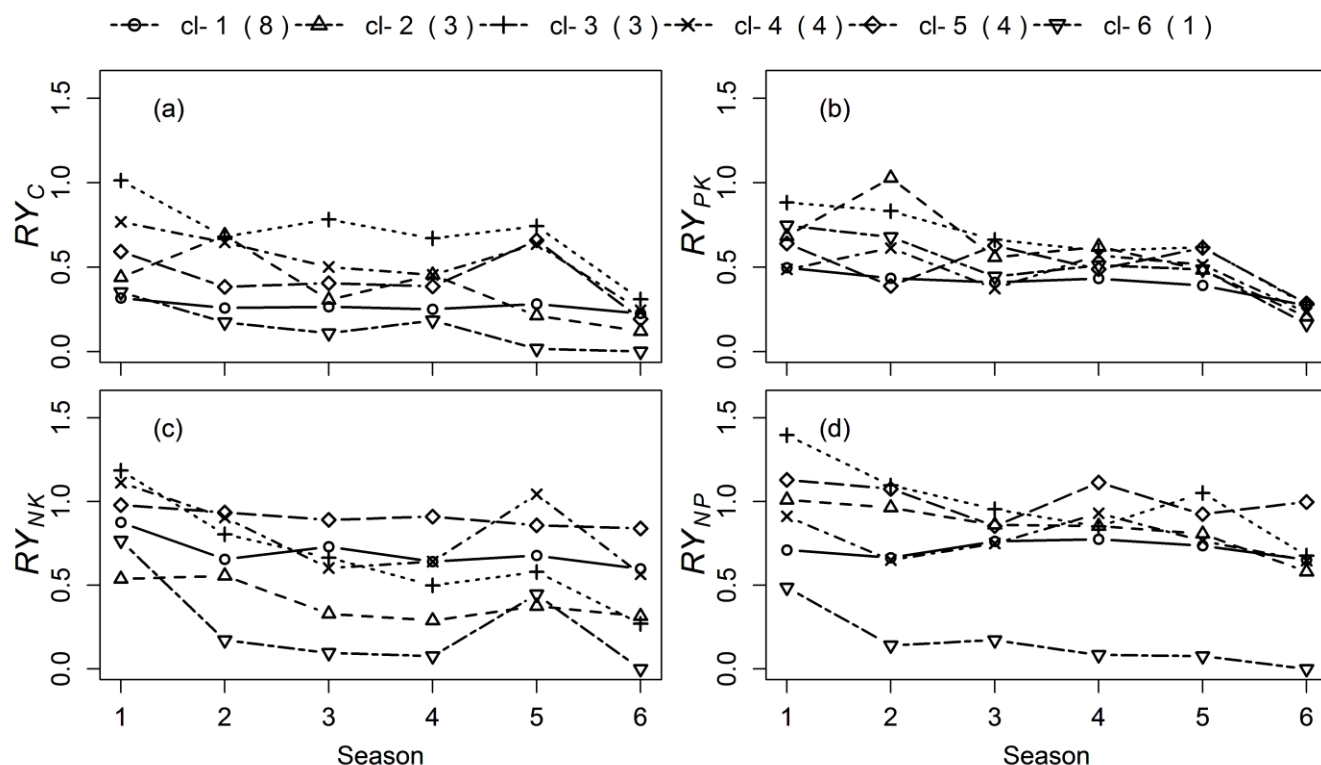
257 increased to 48, 57, 57, 61 and 96% respectively. For P, only 4% of fields showed a strong response to P ($R_{Y_{NK}}$
 258 <0.5) in the first season. In the subsequent five seasons, 22, 30, 35, 26 and 43% of fields were strongly
 259 responsive to P ($R_{Y_{NK}} <0.5$) respectively. $R_{Y_{NP}}$ values in the first season indicated that only 4% of fields were
 260 strongly responsive to K ($R_{Y_{NP}} < 0.5$). The proportion of fields showing strong response to K ($R_{Y_{NP}} < 0.5$) in
 261 subsequent seasons was 17, 13, 9, 13, and 30%. Although the proportion of fields responsive to P and K were
 262 comparatively smaller than those responsive to N, the effects of P and K omission in deficient fields were very
 263 strong with yields losses of up to 80% relative to the NPK treatment in some of these farms, particularly from
 264 the second cropping season onwards (Fig. 3b, 3c, 3d, 3e and 3f).



266 Figure 3: Frequency distribution plots showing relative maize grain yield RY_{PK} , RY_{NK} and RY_{NP} in nutrient omission
267 trials conducted with a single complete replicate block per farm ($n = 23$) in Sidindi, Western Kenya in; (a) long
268 rains 2013 (b) short rains 2013 (c) long rains 2014 (d) short rains 2014 seasons (e) long rains 2015 and (f) short
269 rains 2015 seasons respectively. RY_{PK} , RY_{NK} and RY_{NP} are the ratios between PK, NK and NP treatment yields and
270 NPK treatment yield respectively.

271 3.4 NPK response clusters

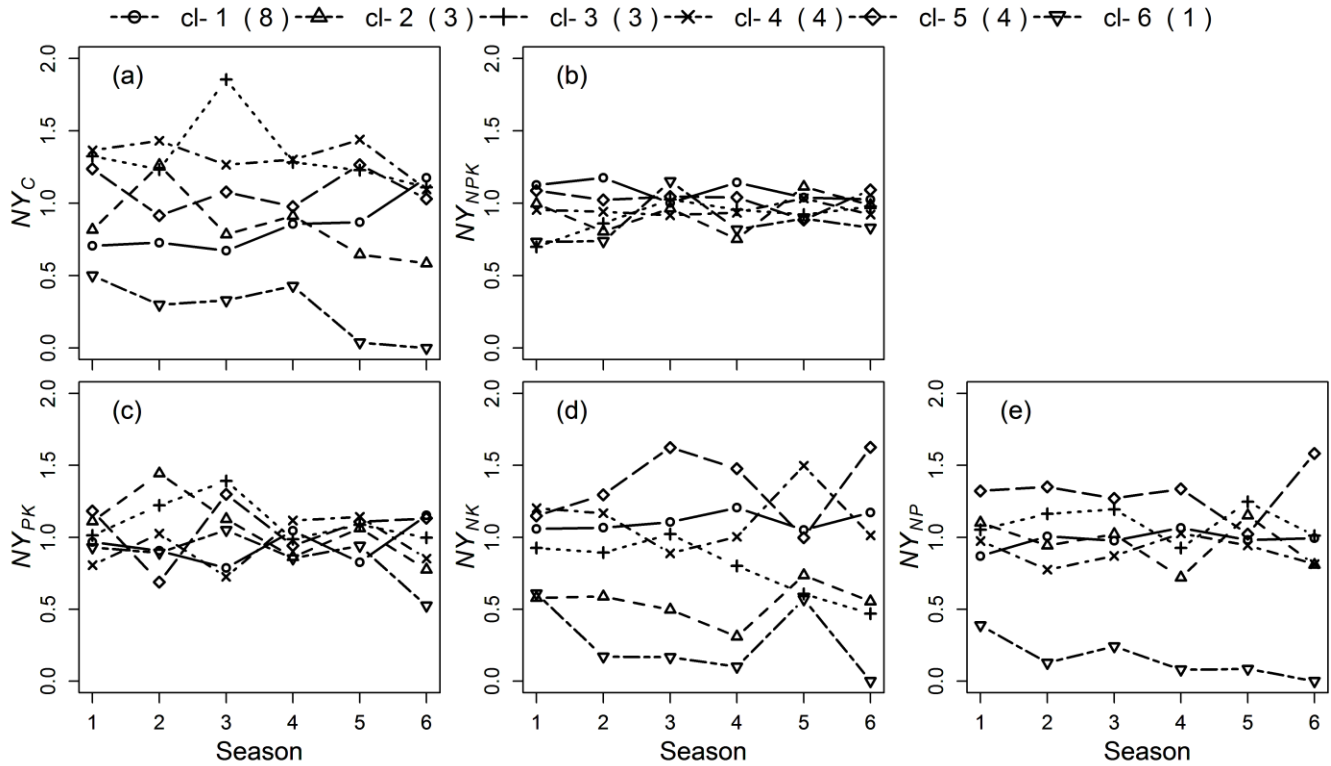
272 Six clusters with high internal homogeneity explaining 75% of total variation in yield trends (not shown), were
273 identified to categorize fields in the study area into N, P and K response classes (Fig. 4). Clusters clearly differed
274 in RY of control plots and NPK response (Fig. 4). Overall, RY_{PK} declined over time for all clusters, while RY_{NK}
275 declined over time in 5 out of 6 clusters indicating increased deficiency of N and P due to nutrient mining (Fig.
276 4b and 4c). However, clusters RY_{PK} converged, while RY_{NK} diverged over time (Fig. 4b and 4c), indicating
277 differences in response patterns between nutrients over time. Negative trends in RY_{NK} for clusters 2, 3, 4 and 6
278 indicated limited P stocks (Fig. 4c). However, declines for clusters 2 and 4 stabilised from season 3 onwards (Fig.
279 4c). RY_{NK} for cluster 1 did not show strong trends at levels of about 0.75, indicating P deficient conditions with
280 resilient P stocks (Fig. 4c). A negative RY_{NP} trend in cluster 1 indicates an increasing K deficiency, while clusters 1
281 and 4 were somewhat deficient, although deficiency did not increase much over the seasons (Fig. 4d). The
282 strongest response to K supply was observed for fields in cluster 6, and fields in clusters 1, 2 and 4 also
283 benefited from K supply, as shown by RY_{NP} values below 1.0 for most seasons (Fig. 4d). Cluster 5 included four
284 farms with low relative yield values for the control and PK treatments, while relative yields in the NK and NP
285 treatments were around 1.0 in all seasons indicating N deficiency while P and K supply was sufficient for all
286 seasons (Fig. 4a, 4b, 4c and 4d).



287

288 Figure 4: Seasonal trends in relative yields (RY) per cluster for (a) control (b) PK (c) NK and (d) NP treatments
 289 respectively. Seasons 1-6 refer to LR 2013, SR 2013, LR 2014, SR 2014, LR 2015 and SR 2015 respectively. ' RY_C ',
 290 ' RY_{PK} ', ' RY_{NK} ' and ' RY_{NP} ' are the ratios between control, PK, NK and NP treatment yields and NPK treatment yield
 291 respectively.

292 Consistency of spatial patterns was evaluated using normalized treatment yields (Fig. 5). A large range in NY
 293 values and consistent differences between clusters were observed for control, PK and in particular NK and
 294 treatment yields, indicating strong and persistent spatial yield patterns. The range in NY values for the NPK
 295 treatments was much smaller (Fig. 5b). This illustrates that spatial differences between trend clusters were
 296 mainly driven by differences in field P availability (Fig. 5a, 5c, 5d and 5e), and amendments with NPK reduce
 297 spatial variability.



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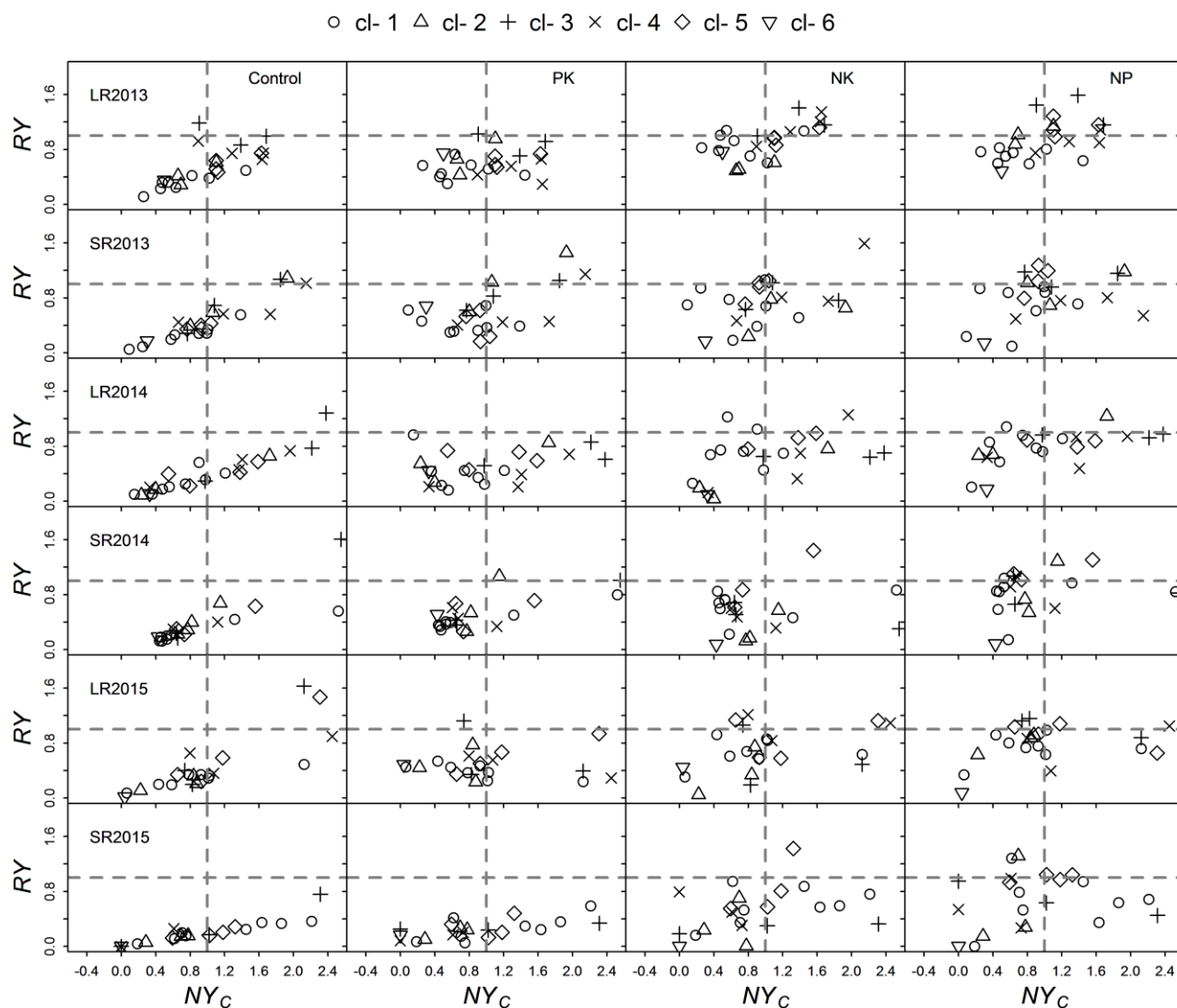
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Figure 5: Seasonal trends in normalized yields (NY) per cluster for (a) control (b) NPK (c) PK (d) NK and (e) NP treatments respectively. Seasons 1-6 refer to LR 2013, SR 2013, LR 2014, SR 2014, LR 2015 and SR 2015 respectively. NY_C , NY_{PK} , NY_{NK} , NY_{NP} and NY_{NPK} are the ratios between field level control, PK, NK, NP and NPK yield and seasonal means of control, PK, NK, NP and NPK yield respectively.

To assess if yields in unfertilized plots would be a good predictor for the response to NPK, seasonal relative control, PK, NK and NP treatment yields were plotted against seasonal normalized control yields (Fig. 6). Normalized control treatment yields were shown to provide a good indicator of the response to combined NPK application, with farms with high control yields showing a weaker response to combined NPK application (Fig. 6). Control yields were however less informative for responses to other treatments. The range of normalized control yields increased over time indicating increasing differences in nutrient depletion rates in the various fields over time (Fig. 6).



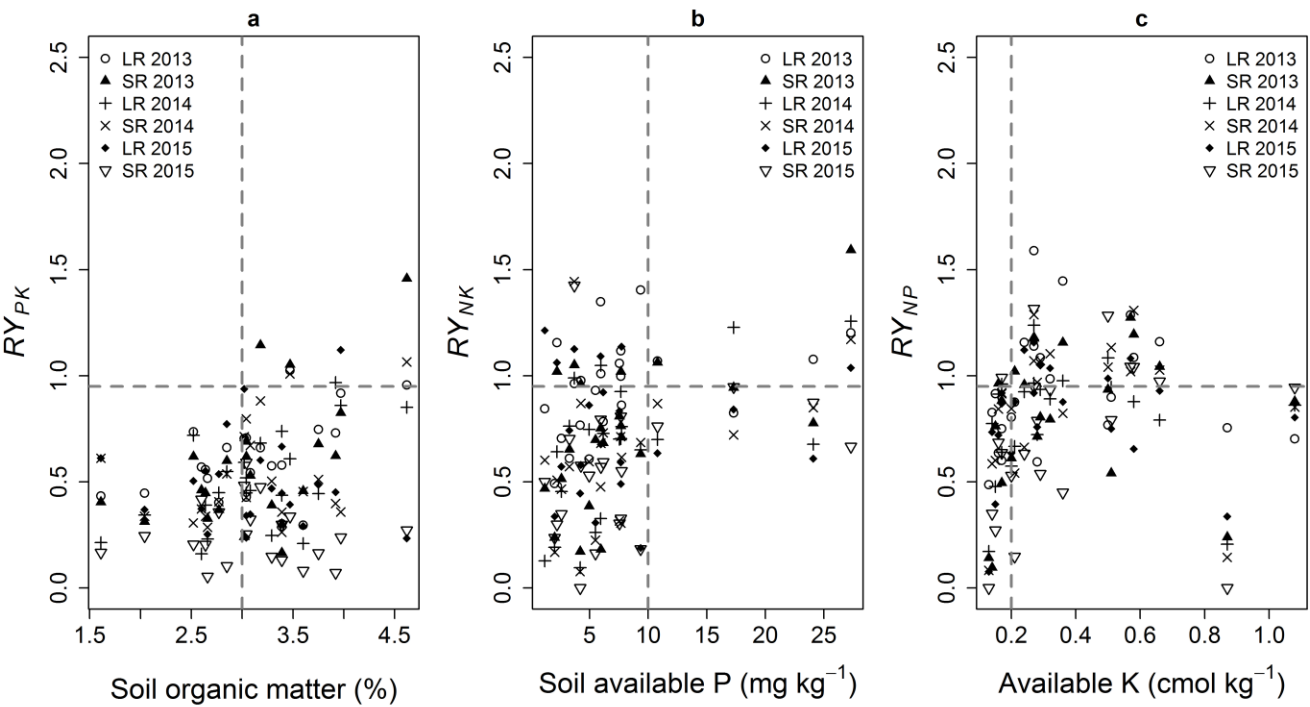
311

312 Figure 6: Relative yields (RY) of control, PK, NK and NP treatments versus normalized control treatment yields
 313 (NY_C) for fields in the identified clusters. LR and SR refer to long and short rains seasons respectively.

314 3.5 Relationships between soil fertility and responses to NPK

315 All fields in the experiment had a sandy loam, sandy clay loam or sandy clay texture, with contents ranging
 316 from 16.5 – 38.5 % clay, 6.2 – 19.8 % silt and 48.0 – 77.2% sand. Response to N was weakly related to soil SOM
 317 content (Fig. 7a). The majority of RY_{PK} values were within the N deficiency range across the extent of soil
 318 organic matter values (Fig. 7a). At low available P values ($<10 \text{ mg kg}^{-1} \text{ P}$) response to P was weakly related to

319 available P with low and high RY_{NK} values observed across the range of available P values (Fig. 7b). However, at
 320 larger available P values ($>10 \text{ mg kg}^{-1} \text{ P}$) RY_{NK} values indicated minimal P deficiency across the six seasons study
 321 period (Fig. 7b). Responses to K varied greatly over the range of exchangeable K values measured, with some
 322 high RY_{NP} values observed at low exchangeable K values, and low RY_{NP} values observed at higher exchangeable K
 323 values (Fig. 7c). However, the majority of RY_{NP} values indicated K sufficiency conditions. Mean soil properties
 324 did not show significant differences between clusters (not shown).



325
 326 Figure 7: Relationships between, a) soil organic matter content (%) and relative PK treatment yield (RY_{PK}) ; b)
 327 soil available P (mg kg^{-1}) and relative NK treatment yield (RY_{NK}); and c) soil exchangeable K (cmol kg^{-1}) and
 328 relative NP yield (RY_{NP}) across 23 fields in four consecutive cropping seasons in Sidindi, Western Kenya.
 329 Horizontal dotted lines represent relative yield = 0.95, while vertical dotted lines represent critical values for
 330 respective soil properties.

335 4. Discussion

336 The observed maize yield responses to the applied N, P and K combinations were highly variable over space and
337 time, confirming the strong effects of the variability in soil fertility on maize productivity and nutrient
338 requirements. N was deficient on most farms, while the responses to P and K application varied strongly across
339 farms. Temporal differences in response to N were weak as illustrated by the minimal change in mean RY_{PK} over
340 time, and the gradual decline in RY_{PK} observed for most clusters. Spatial differences in response to N also
341 decreased over time as illustrated by the observed convergence in RY_{PK} for the different response clusters over
342 time. The widespread N deficiency can be linked to the relatively low soil organic matter contents resulting
343 from continuous cropping without legumes and very limited application of fertilizer N or manure (Shepherd and
344 Soule, 1998; Tittonell *et al.*, 2005). Combined application of fertilizer N with organic resources (Vanlauwe *et al.*,
345 2011) and rotation of cereal crops with legumes (Tully *et al.*, 2015) can help farmers in this region improve the
346 N status of their farms across the response clusters. Given the minimal spatial-temporal differences in response
347 to N observed, we expect minimal improvements in nitrogen use efficiency when accounting for differences in
348 spatial temporal responses to N between farms in the Siaya region.

349 Large relative NK yields indicated that maize yield response to applied P was not significant in the first season.
350 This was likely due to some residual effect of P applied in previous seasons, as P applied as fertilizer or manure
351 that is not taken up by the crop is released slowly to succeeding crops (Janssen *et al.*, 1987; Kifuko *et al.*, 2007).
352 The presence of clusters with large differences in the response to applied P, and the large variability in NK
353 treatment maize yields that we observed indicates differences in P fertility status of the soil, reflecting
354 differences in historical field management and farmer resource endowment (Vanlauwe *et al.*, 2006). However,
355 residual P was only effective over a short period of time, with more farms showing stronger responses to P over
356 time. This shows that resilience of soil P stocks in these fields is limited. Omitting P for more than one season
357 resulted in significant and progressively smaller yields when compared to P fertilized plots. The small rates of

358 fertilizer applied by smallholder farmers in western Kenya are insufficient to build P soil availability that can
359 support high maize yield for multiple seasons (Kamiri *et al.*, 2011; Kihara and Njoroge, 2013). Judicious and
360 regular application of P, whether seasonally or every second season based on observed response clusters can
361 therefore assist farmers to sustain productivity.

362 Strong spatial-temporal patterns in response to K were observed. Two out of 23 fields showed very strong
363 response to K, while declining relative yields for the NP treatment were observed in Clusters 1, 2 and 4 which
364 included 65% of fields in the study area. Further, K deficiencies are expected to become more pronounced at
365 higher N and P application rates. These findings are in contrast to current fertilizer recommendation for the
366 Siaya region which assume sufficient K reserves (FURP, 1994), and could be related to the presence of localized
367 K deficiency hotspots (Kihara *et al.*, 2016), and continuous removal of harvest products without application of
368 mineral K (Chianu and Mairura, 2012; Zörb *et al.*, 2014). Crop productivity intensification strategies based on
369 increased fertilizer application should therefore be cognisant of the need to supply K in combination with N and
370 P, even in regions that are traditionally considered to be mainly deficient in N and P, such as western Kenya.
371 Targeted application of K fertilizer to K deficiency hot spots is also recommended (Kihara *et al.*, 2016).

372 The assessment of soil nutrient status has been identified as a key starting point in the process of restoring and
373 managing soil fertility (Sanginga and Woomer, 2009). Soil available P following Mehlich-3 extraction has been
374 found to reliably estimate plant available soil P levels (Mehlich, 1984), while soil exchangeable K is usually used
375 as the basis for K fertilizer recommendations (Madaras and Koubová, 2015; Zörb *et al.*, 2014). However, soil
376 organic matter, soil available P, and soil exchangeable K related weakly to responses to N, P and K respectively.
377 Weak relationships were previously reported by Vanlauwe *et al.* (2006), with soil total N explaining only 27% -
378 44% of the response to N, while crop yield response to P did not increase beyond an Olsen-P value of 8 mg kg⁻¹.
379 In the same study area, Tully *et al.* (2015) observed large variation in maize yields between 24 farms despite
380 largely similar soil physical and chemical properties between farms. Working across various sites in SSA, Kihara

381 *et al.* (2016) reported minimal variation in exchangeable Mehlich K despite strong responses to K in some sites,
382 while soil organic carbon (SOC) was not a defining factor for different nutrient response classes observed. Given
383 that soil analysis data was weakly related to the observed differences in responses to applied N, P and K, the
384 merit of deriving fertilizer recommendations based solely on field-level soil analysis can be questioned. It is
385 noted that soil analysis was only conducted at the start of the experiment and hence did not allow for a
386 detailed analysis of the dynamics of soil nutrient changes and responses to nutrients. However, this analysis
387 provides a fair evaluation of the value of soil analysis for majority of smallholder farmers as for practical
388 reasons, most farmers will assess the soil P and K fertilizer status only once every few years. Results from this
389 study indicate that while soil analysis may be helpful to monitor soil nutrient stocks, it does not provide
390 sufficiently reliable quantitative information that can be used to adjust required inputs. A strategy to fertilize
391 the soil to maintain moderate P and K stocks, balancing in- and outputs, while fertilizing the plant with
392 minimum side-dress PK mix at planting and top-dressing of N would be recommended. In addition, the
393 restoration of soil P and K stocks based on the field history, including socio-economic and rock mineralogical
394 factors is recommended as these factors have previously been identified as drivers of variability in yield
395 response (Tittonell *et al.*, 2008a; Zingore *et al.*, 2011).

396 Cluster analysis allowed identification of distinct N, P and K response categories that differed in response to
397 fertilizer application and the resilience of soil nutrient stocks. All fields in this study were responsive to
398 combined NPK fertilizer (Kihara *et al.*, 2016; Zingore *et al.*, 2007b), where the response was strongly related to
399 yield in control plots. The presence of distinct N, P and K response clusters calls for site specific nutrient
400 recommendations that address the observed variability. For example, based on observed N, P and K response
401 patterns, improved nutrient allocation strategies based on differential N, P and K rates and combinations can
402 be formulated to meet either short or long term crop productivity intensification objectives at the farm level.
403 Such strategies can be designed using tools such as Nutrient Expert (Pampolino *et al.*, 2012) and FIELD (Tittonell
404 *et al.*, 2010).

405 A major challenge exists in the identification of response patterns at scale. Recent developments in the use of
406 satellite data offer an opportunity to assess and quantify spatial heterogeneity at regional scales (Lobell, 2013;
407 Shanahan *et al.*, 2001). At the local level, farmers have shown the ability to categorize their farms into relatively
408 homogenous entities using criteria such as crop performance, ease of tillage, soil moisture retention, soil colour
409 and presence of weeds and soil invertebrates (Murage *et al.*, 2000), and this has being suggested as key for
410 designing strategies for improved crop productivity in the region (Tittonell *et al.*, 2013).

411 The consistently higher average NPK treatment yields relative to other treatment yields observed, coupled with
412 the lowest variability in yield observed for this treatment indicates that amendment with NPK helps to reduce
413 observed spatial-temporal variability. This highlights the importance of balanced nutrient management to
414 increase and stabilize yield across wide-ranging soil fertility conditions. The NPK treatment yielded on average
415 0.5-1.7 t ha⁻¹ more than the NP treatment, a significant difference in 2 out of the 6 seasons. The main current
416 mineral fertilizer use recommendation in the Siaya region of 55 kg N and 25 kg P ha⁻¹ (FURP, 1994) needs to be
417 revisited. Results in this experiment indicate that yields above 5 tha⁻¹ can be sustained using the short season
418 cultivar, where nutrient use efficiency can be further improved when accounting for comparative yield levels in
419 control plots without fertilizer application. Results in this study further indicated that maize yield response to
420 combined NPK application was higher in long rains seasons, illustrating that there may be room for farmers to
421 further improve the efficiency of fertilizer use through fertilizer application rates based on in-season rainfall
422 (Kurwakumire *et al.*, 2014; Van Ittersum *et al.*, 2016). There is therefore potential for majority of farmers in the
423 Siaya region to surpass the initial target of 3 t ha⁻¹ set towards achieving the African Green Revolution (Sánchez,
424 2010) in the face of variable responses to N, P and K.

425 5.0 Conclusions

426 We conclude that strong spatial temporal differences in responses to N, P and K exist in smallholder farming
427 systems in western Kenya. It is clear that current blanket fertilizer application rates result in low nutrient use

428 efficiencies and may not achieve the desired sustainable crop productivity improvement in the region. We
429 further conclude that current soil analysis techniques were not able to adequately predict the crop response
430 that can be expected from N, P and K fertilizers. This raises questions whether investing in soil analysis alone
431 results in better fertilizer recommendations for smallholder farmers, and urges for a new, more cost effective
432 approach. The strong spatial-temporal patterns observed indicate that characterization of soil, lithological and
433 landscape characteristics in combination with management history may result in a much cheaper and more
434 cost effective methodology for assessing the required N, P and K fertilizer applications, when mapped at the
435 appropriate scale. Decision support tools may offer a feasible and cheaper alternative for the development of
436 site specific nutrient recommendations using information readily available at the farm level. In the absence of
437 such strategies, balanced nutrition including N, P and K offers farmers in heterogeneous landscapes a lower risk
438 intensification option that results in yields that can be sustained during a much longer period of time,
439 evidenced by the relatively small variations in yield for the NPK treatment across fields and seasons.

440 6.0 Acknowledgement

441 This study was facilitated through funding from Agrium to the International Plant Nutrition Institute (IPNI), for
442 research on 4R Nutrient Stewardship in western Kenya.

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