

Suitability of soil electrical conductivity as an indicator of soil nitrate status in relation to vegetable cultivation practices in the Yangtze River Delta of China

Yi-Chao Shi*, **, Zheng-Yi Hu*, **, Silvia Haneklaus***, Wei-Guo Long**, ****, Xu Xia**, Yan-Wen Zhao****, Tian Lin** and Ewald Schnug***

Abstract

In soil samples from sites where vegetables were grown in foil tunnels and open fields. Chemical soil analysis comprised the parameters electrical conductivity (EC), pH, $\text{NO}_3\text{-N}$, $\text{NH}_4\text{-N}$, total N and organic matter. Cultivation practices had no influence on soil pH values. In comparison, EC was significantly higher with 462.5 $\mu\text{S/cm}$ in soils under foil tunnels than in open fields with a mean value of 251.2 $\mu\text{S/cm}$. About one third (35 %) of all samples showed secondary salinization with EC values > 500 $\mu\text{S/cm}$ under foil tunnels, and still 9 % of all samples from field-grown vegetables. Soil EC values increased with the time period of vegetable growing and exceeded 500 $\mu\text{S/cm}$ after more than 4 years of continuous cultivation. A highly significant correlation ($p < 0.001$) was determined between soil $\text{NO}_3\text{-N}$ and soil EC irrespective of the cultivation practice if EC was < 500 $\mu\text{S/cm}$, while no relationship existed in soils with EC values > 500 $\mu\text{S/cm}$. The results suggest that $\text{NO}_3\text{-N}$ is a main factor influencing EC values, but $\text{NO}_3\text{-N}$ is of minor relevance for the complex phenomenon of secondary salinization as found in soils under foil tunnels. This implies that a reduction of the N fertilizer input is not sufficient to decrease EC values in these production units. Soil EC values might be used as an indicator for excessive $\text{NO}_3\text{-N}$ soil contents and as a benchmark for calculating site-specific N rates. Thus crop productivity and quality parameters of vegetables can be improved and environmental burdens, for example N loads to water bodies significantly reduced.

Keywords: codes of good agricultural practice (GAP), eutrophication, foil tunnel, geo-electric sensor, site-specific nutrient management, secondary salinization

Zusammenfassung

Eignung der elektrischen Leitfähigkeit als Indikator für den Nitratgehalt im Boden in Gemüseanbaubetrieben des Yangtze Flussdeltas in China

In Bodenproben von Feldern auf denen Gemüse im Freiland und unter Folientunneln angebaut wurde, wurden elektrische Leitfähigkeit (EC), pH, $\text{NO}_3\text{-N}$, $\text{NH}_4\text{-N}$, Gesamt-N und der Gehalt an organischer Substanz bestimmt. Das Anbauverfahren hatte keinen Einfluss auf den pH-Wert im Boden. Böden unter Folientunneln wiesen mit 462,5 $\mu\text{S/cm}$ eine signifikant höhere elektrische Leitfähigkeit auf als Böden im Freiland (251,2 $\mu\text{S/cm}$). Ungefähr ein Drittel (35 %) aller Proben unter Folientunneln und 9 % im Freiland wiesen mit > 500 $\mu\text{S/cm}$ eine sekundäre Versalzung auf. Bereits nach 4 Jahren kontinuierlichen Gemüseanbaus wurde der kritische Wert von 500 $\mu\text{S/cm}$ überschritten. Es wurde eine hochsignifikante Korrelation ($p < 0,001$) zwischen $\text{NO}_3\text{-N}$ und EC unabhängig vom Anbauverfahren ermittelt, sofern die EC-Werte < 500 $\mu\text{S/cm}$ lagen. Bei höheren EC-Werten bestand hingegen keine signifikante Beziehung. Der $\text{NO}_3\text{-N}$ Gehalt im Boden hatte einen starken Einfluss auf die elektrische Leitfähigkeit, während $\text{NO}_3\text{-N}$ für das komplexe Phänomen der sekundären Versalzung nur eine untergeordnete Rolle spielt. Dies bedeutet, dass eine Reduzierung des N-Düngemitelesatzes in diesem Produktionssystem nicht ausreichend ist, um die EC-Werte zu senken. Die elektrische Leitfähigkeit könnte nicht nur als Indikator für exzessive $\text{NO}_3\text{-N}$ Gehalte im Boden, sondern auch als Orientierungswert für standortspezifische N-Gaben dienen. Auf diese Weise ließen sich Ertrags- und Qualitätsparameter des Gemüses verbessern und die umweltbeeinträchtigende Wirkung durch den Austrag von N in Gewässer signifikant reduzieren.

Schlüsselworte: Eutrophierung, Folientunnel, geo-elektrischer Sensor, Regeln guter fachlicher Praxis, sekundäre Versalzung, teilflächenspezifische Düngung

* College of Resources and Environment, Graduate University of Chinese Academy of Sciences, 19A, Yuquan Road, Beijing, China, 100049

** State Key Laboratory of Soil and Sustainable Agriculture, Institute of Soil Science, Chinese Academy of Sciences, 71st East Beijing Road, Nanjing, P.R. China, 210008

*** Julius Kühn-Institut (JKI), Institute for Crop and Soil Science, Federal Research Centre for Cultivated Plants, Bundesallee 50, D-38116 Braunschweig, Germany

**** Nanjing Agricultural University, 1st Weigang Road, Nanjing, China, 210095

Introduction

In China, the cultivation area of vegetables increased from 9.5×10^6 ha (6.3 % of arable land) in 1995 to 1.8×10^7 ha (11.6 % of arable land) in 2006 (Anon, 2007). The Yangtze River Delta is meanwhile a major vegetable production centre in China. In 2007, 10.8 % of all vegetables originated from this area (Anon, 2007). Land use changed basically during the past years from paddy to vegetable fields, and from conventional field vegetable cultivation to foil tunnel systems. It was observed that crop productivity decreased distinctly over time (Wang, 2005; Du et al., 2006) and secondary salinization seems to be a major obstacle, particularly in foil tunnel systems because of an excessive use of nitrogen (N) fertilizers (Cao et al., 2004; Chen et al., 2004; Shi et al., 2008). Excessive fertilizer use in specialty crops is a well-known problem with serious agronomic and environmental implications. In case of N, $\text{NO}_3\text{-N}$ will accumulate in soils and crops and $\text{NO}_3\text{-N}$ may diminish crop quality if taken up in significant amounts. Ecological problems comprise gaseous N losses to the atmosphere, leaching of $\text{NO}_3\text{-N}$, eutrophication of water bodies and soil salinization, particularly when vegetable crops are grown under cover (Maxted and Diebel 2008; Stigter et al., 1998; Chen et al., 2004). Vegetable crops and particularly those grown under cover receive fertilizers more often and at higher rates than cereals and oilseed (Power and Schepers, 1989; Cao et al., 2004; He et al., 2007). In soils under foil tunnels NO_3 accounted for 56 to 76 % of all anions (Yu et al., 2005).

One factor influencing the salt content in the soil is the concentration of soluble nutrients and geo-electric sensor data have been used to delineate N management zones in Precision Agriculture (Cockx et al., 2004). Despite this basic knowledge, only limited studies have been carried out in vegetable farming to determine interactions between $\text{NO}_3\text{-N}$ and electric conductivity (EC) in soils (Cao et al., 2004; Ju et al., 2007; Shi et al., 2008 and 2009). Soil EC values of $> 500 \mu\text{S/cm}$ impaired crop growth and soil EC values of $> 1000 \mu\text{S/cm}$ resulted in withering of the crop (Li, 1993). A soil EC value of $> 500 \mu\text{S/cm}$ has been defined as the critical value for secondary salinization in foil tunnel production systems (Li, 1993). Surveys on fertilizer-related salinization in conventional field-grown vegetables are scarce. It was the objective of the presented study firstly to determine soil EC values and assess the risk of secondary salinization in relation to cultivation practices in vegetable growing in the Yangtze River Delta of China, and secondly to evaluate the suitability of EC as an indicator for the $\text{NO}_3\text{-N}$ status of soils.

Materials and methods

Soil samples were collected from August 11 to September 5, 2007 on vegetable fields in the Yangtze River Delta (China). Vegetables were grown in open fields or under foil tunnels. Sampling locations of both cultivation systems were neighboring sites with similar soil characteristics in the vicinity of the cities Yixing, Yangzhou, Zhenjiang, Suzhou, and Changzhou (Table 1, Figure 1). The mean field size was 0.2 ha. The soil samples were selected on basis of characteristic soil types, vegetable rotations, length of vegetable cultivation and N fertilizer input. The total N fertilizer input varied between 370 kg/ha N and 1110 kg/ha N in foil tunnel systems (with a mean N expenditure of 630 kg/ha N); in open fields between 240 and 670 kg/ha N were applied (with a mean N expenditure of 440 kg/ha N).



Figure 1:
Location of the investigation area in the Yangtze River Delta in China

At each sampling location one soil profile sample (0 to 10 cm, 10 to 20 cm, 20 to 30 cm) was taken together with 8 to 10 topsoil samples (0 to 10 cm). Soils were air-dried and passed through a 2 mm and then 0.15 mm sieve for the analysis of organic matter and total N; for

the determination of soil electrical conductivity (EC), pH, and $\text{NO}_3\text{-N}$, $\text{NH}_4\text{-N}$ soils were ground to a particle size of < 0.75 mm (Lu, 1999).

Table 1:

Distribution of soil samples collected on different vegetable fields in relation to cultivation practice in five cities in the Yangtze River Delta

City	Position (N,E)	(n)	(n)
		Open field	Foil tunnel
Yixing	31° 22' N, 119° 49' E	10	9
Yangzhou	32° 39' N, 119° 42' E	10	10
Zhenjiang	32° 11' N, 119° 27' E	9	9
Suzhou	32° 20' N, 121° 20' E	8	8
Changzhou	32° 16' N, 120° 17' E	8	8
Total		45	44

For chemical soil analysis standard analytical procedures had been employed (Lu, 1999). Soil pH was determined potentiometrically in a soil:water suspension of 1:2.5 (w/v). Soil organic carbon was analyzed after oxidation by potassium dichromate and the organic matter con-

tent (OMC) was calculated by multiplying with 1.724. Soil electric conductivity (EC) was measured in a 1:5 (w/v) water extract with an electric conductivity meter (Kang Yi Corp., China). The semi-micro *Kjeldahl* method was employed for the determination of total N (N_t). Soil $\text{NO}_3\text{-N}$ and $\text{NH}_4\text{-N}$ was extracted by 2 M KCl solution in a 1:10 ratio (w/v); $\text{NO}_3\text{-N}$ was determined by spectrophotometry at dual-wavelength (220 nm and 275 nm), and $\text{NH}_4\text{-N}$ colorimetrically by indophenol blue.

For the ANOVA and t-test of the SPSS statistical package Version 13.0 was employed.

Results

Influence of cultivation practice, soil depth and provenance on pH, electrical conductivity and nitrogen fractions in soil

The results of soil analysis are summarized in Table 2. Cultivation practice had no significant influence on soil pH and soil organic matter content. In comparison, in soils under foil tunnels EC values and $\text{NO}_3\text{-N}$, $\text{NH}_4\text{-N}$, N_t (total N) concentrations were higher than in open fields. This differ-

Table 2:

Influence of vegetable cultivation practice on soil pH, EC, OMC, $\text{NO}_3\text{-N}$, $\text{NH}_4\text{-N}$, and N_t content

Sample set			pH	EC ($\mu\text{S}/\text{cm}$)	$\text{NO}_3\text{-N}$	$\text{NH}_4\text{-N}$ (mg/kg)	N_t	OMC (g/kg)
Foil tunnel	EC < 500 (n=32)	max	7.8	498.0	86.3	114.6	262.8	36.7
		min	5.0	135.0	22.6	4.4	43.0	10.9
		mean	6.5	298.9	60.4	17.9	175.7	24.9
	EC > 500 (n=12)	max	7.5	1554.0	88.4	146.8	264.9	31.8
		min	4.6	538.0	71.9	6.0	112.9	17.9
		mean	6.1	898.7	80.3	34.2	196.4	25.5
	All samples (n=34)	max	7.8	1554.0	88.4	146.8	264.9	36.7
		min	4.6	135.0	22.6	4.4	43.0	10.9
		mean	6.4	462.5	65.9	22.4	181.3	25.1
Open field	EC < 500 (n=41)	max	7.9	480.0	74.3	109.0	246.0	36.5
		min	5.1	72.0	16.8	2.6	63.9	12.2
		mean	6.5	214.6	48.5	14.0	163.9	22.8
	EC > 500 (n=4)	max	6.3	681.0	79.6	78.0	246.8	29.9
		min	5.2	564.0	76.9	8.8	137.8	25.4
		mean	5.8	626.0	78.0	35.1	183.3	27.7
	All samples (n=45)	max	7.9	480.0	74.3	109.0	246.0	36.5
		min	5.1	72.0	16.8	2.6	63.9	12.2
		mean	6.5	214.6	48.5	14.0	163.9	22.8
p	EC < 500		0.99	0.0009	0.0133	0.38	0.31	0.14
	EC > 500		0.48	0.015	0.20	0.97	0.65	0.23
	All samples		0.78	0.0003	0.0006	0.21	0.12	0.13

Note: differences between treatment means are significant at $p < 0.05$

ence was most pronounced for $\text{NO}_3\text{-N}$ (Table 2). Most striking was the fact that the $\text{NO}_3\text{-N}$ content was significantly higher in soils with an EC value of $> 500 \mu\text{S/cm}$ when foil tunnel systems were used for vegetable growing.

A classification of samples based on the critical EC value of $500 \mu\text{S/cm}$ (Li, 1993) revealed that 35 % of all samples from foil tunnels exceeded this threshold, while the corresponding percentage was only 9 % in open field cultivation (Table 2). A strongly negative impact of secondary salinization going along with EC values of $> 1000 \mu\text{S/cm}$ (Li, 1993) was determined in 11 % of all soil samples from foil tunnels.

The influence of cultivation practice on EC and $\text{NO}_3\text{-N}$ was consistent in all soil profiles and most pronounced in the two upper soil layers (Table 3).

Within the soil profile EC values decreased continuously from the top to deeper soil layers irrespective of the cultivation practice (Table 3), though differences were somewhat smaller in open fields.

Differences in EC between cultivation areas (Table 1) were pronounced and decreased in the following order: Changzhou $>$ Suzhou $>$ Yangzhou, Zhenjiang and Yixing

(Figure 1). The highest soil EC value was determined in soil samples from foil tunnels in Changzhou and this is most likely related to the time period of cultivating vegetables (Figure 2 and 3).

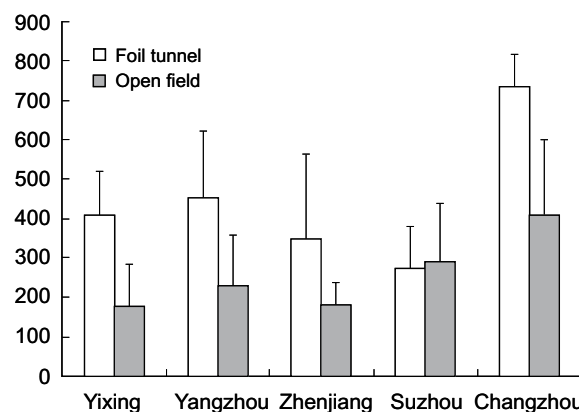


Figure 2:

Variation of soil EC values in relation to vegetable cultivation practice in the vicinity of the cities Changzhou, Suzhou, Yangzhou, Zhenjiang and Yixing in the Yangtze River Delta

Table 3:

Variation of pH, EC, $\text{NO}_3\text{-N}$, $\text{NH}_4\text{-N}$ and N_t in different soil depths in relation to cultivation practice in five vegetable cultivation areas in the Yangtze River Delta

Cultivation practice		Soil depth (cm)	pH	EC ($\mu\text{S/cm}$)	$\text{NO}_3\text{-N}$	$\text{NH}_4\text{-N}$ (mg/kg)	N_t
Foil tunnel	max	0-10	7.83	1554	88.41	146.75	264.86
	min		4.60	135	20.04	4.38	42.97
	mean		6.38	462	64.88	22.36	181.35
Open field	min	0-10	7.88	681	79.62	108.99	246.75
	max		5.10	72	16.80	2.65	63.89
	mean		6.43	251	51.09	15.87	165.58
	<i>p</i>		0.78	0.0003	0.0006	0.21	0.12
Foil tunnel	max	10-20	7.85	444	77.10	9.41	210.35
	min		5.33	149	27.67	5.37	72.87
	mean		6.35	273	51.86	7.33	140.05
Open field	max	10-20	7.78	358	74.93	9.69	152.36
	min		5.85	112	21.17	3.47	64.90
	mean		6.75	186	36.58	7.11	119.15
	<i>p</i>		0.55	0.25	0.28	0.87	0.52
Foil tunnel	max	20-30	7.84	319	68.84	8.56	98.98
	min		6.25	155	20.78	1.84	40.46
	mean		6.81	206	34.98	4.36	71.45
Open field	max	20-30	7.79	170	50.31	8.77	168.11
	min		6.64	80	11.79	4.38	43.89
	mean		7.26	121.4	27.35	6.41	89.23
	<i>p</i>		0.27	0.04	0.53	0.19	0.48

Note: differences between treatment means are significant at $p < 0.05$

Soil EC values increased with the time period of cultivating (Figure 3). On an average the critical threshold of 500 $\mu\text{S}/\text{cm}$ was hit after 5 years of continuous vegetable growing. From then onwards soils were objected to secondary salinization. Macroscopic symptoms became visible as white salt spots in the soil surface. Their number and size increased over time.

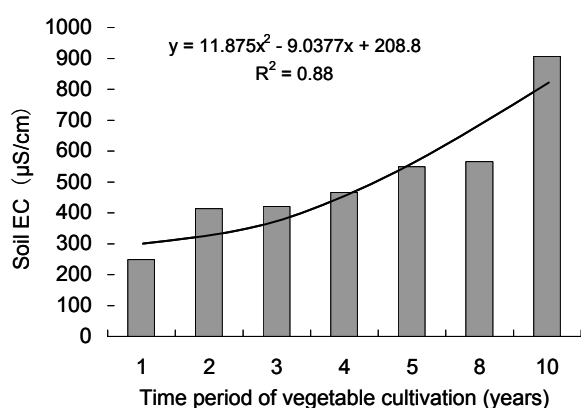


Figure 3:
Relationship between time period of vegetable cultivation and soil EC values in foil tunnel systems

Relationship between soil electrical conductivity and nitrogen fractions in soil

Soil samples were divided into two sets, one with EC values of $< 500 \mu\text{S}/\text{cm}$, and one with soil EC values $> 500 \mu\text{S}/\text{cm}$. A highly significant, positive correlation existed between soil $\text{NO}_3\text{-N}$ and EC in soils that are not affected by secondary salinization ($p < 0.001$) independent of the cultivation practice, while no correlation was found in soils affected by secondary salinization (Figure 4; Table 4). The correlation coefficient was higher in foil tunnel systems where 50 % of the variability of EC could be explained by variations in the $\text{NO}_3\text{-N}$ content of the soil, while the corresponding values was 32 % in open fields. The results reveal that $\text{NO}_3\text{-N}$ is a major contributor to soil EC in soils that are not yet affected by secondary salinization.

No significant relationship existed between soil EC and soil $\text{NH}_4\text{-N}$, and soil N_t for both cultivation practices (Table 4). Thus the influence of $\text{NH}_4\text{-N}$ on soil EC seems negligible though in soils under foil tunnels up to 9 % of N was abundant as $\text{NH}_4\text{-N}$ and in open fields up to 10 % (Table 1). Besides that the temporal variability of $\text{NH}_4\text{-N}$ is high as nitrobacteria oxidize $\text{NH}_4\text{-N}$ into $\text{NO}_3\text{-N}$ within a couple of days (Zhu and Wen, 1992).

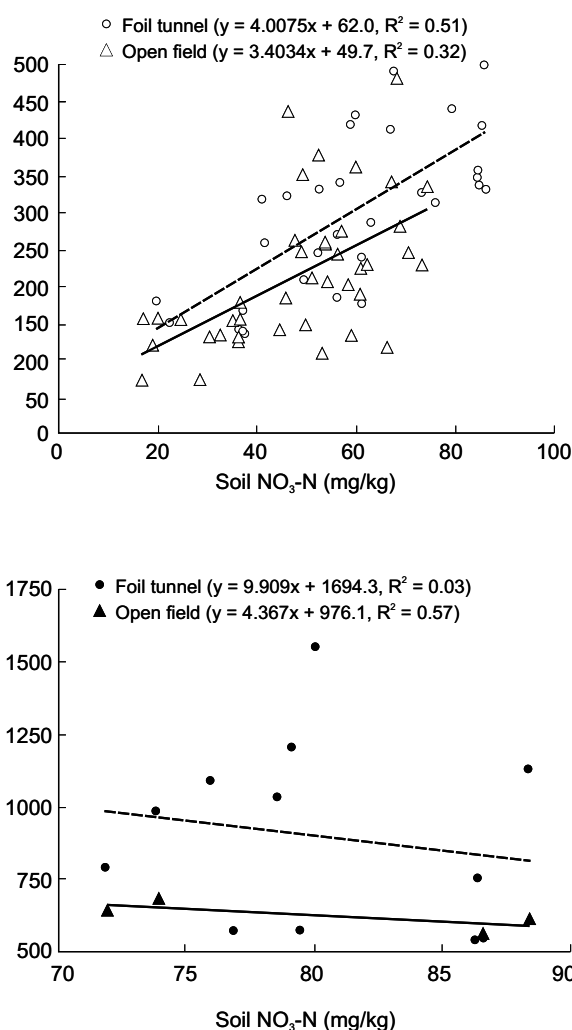


Figure 4:
Relationship between soil $\text{NO}_3\text{-N}$ content and EC readings in relation to cultivation practice and salinity level (EC $<$ or $>$ 500 $\mu\text{S}/\text{cm}$)

OMC is a sink for nutrients through binding in organic and mineral form as is CEC, for which a positive correlation with OMC was documented (Xiong and Li, 1990). There was a significant, positive correlation between soil OMC and soil EC in soils under cover, while none was found in open fields (Table 4). A possible explanation for these differences might be substantial leaching of nutrients under field conditions.

Discussion

Only a restricted number of investigations are available, which determined the influence of cultivation practices on secondary salinization in agricultural soils of the Yangtze River Delta. The present study suggests that N was leached under open field conditions and thus is one component counteracting secondary salinization. Another relevant factor, which favors salinization, is temperature. Higher

Table 4:

Correlation coefficients for the relationships between soil EC and $\text{NO}_3\text{-N}$, $\text{NH}_4\text{-N}$, N_t and OMC in relation to vegetable cultivation practice

Cultivation practice	Sample set	$\text{NO}_3\text{-N}$	$\text{NH}_4\text{-N}$	N_t	OMC
Foil tunnel	EC <500 (n=32)	0.71***	0.27	- 0.11	0.53**
	EC > 500 (n=12)	- 0.17	0.11	0.22	0.16
	All samples (n=44)	0.57***	0.27	0.13	0.50**
Open field	EC <500 (n=41)	0.57***	0.13	0.11	- 0.03
	EC > 500 (n=4)	- 0.62	0.41	0.64	0.84
	All samples (n=45)	0.68***	0.33*	0.19	0.19

Note: **, *** significance level at $p < 0.01$ and $p < 0.001$, respectively

temperatures in foil tunnels increase evapotranspiration and amplify salt accumulation in the topsoil layer. A third relevant factor is the fertilization level. Application rates proved to be two to three times higher in foil tunnel systems than in open fields (Cao et al., 2004). When compared to paddy fields fertilizer rates were even four to five times higher (Cao et al., 2004).

The present study and that of Huang et al. (2003) revealed that vegetable cultivation in foil tunnels caused secondary salinization on one third of the experimental sites. Using this form of cultivation soils will reach the critical EC value of 500 $\mu\text{S}/\text{cm}$ within about five years (Figure 3). Thus it is recommended to give up foil tunnels in favor of open field cultivation latest after four years in order to avoid secondary salinization. The fact that EC values of > 1000 $\mu\text{S}/\text{cm}$ were found after < 3 to 9 years of continuous vegetable cropping under foil tunnel systems indicates that not only the cultivation practice itself, but also excessive fertilizer applications contributed to the problem (Figure 3 and 4). The mean N fertilizer rate applied to vegetables grown in foil tunnels was 1351 kg/ha N, which is about 820 kg/ha higher than the estimated N demand (Liu, 2008). The mean N fertilizer rates in open fields vary between 366 kg/ha for root vegetables, 460 kg/ha for leafy vegetables, and 495 kg/ha for solanaceous vegetables (Chen, 2006), but the actual N demand is only about 75, 120 and 200 kg/ha N (Chen et al., 2003). The unavoidable side effects of disproportionate N surpluses are besides secondary salinization increased losses of N to the environment in form of gaseous NO_x emissions (Li and Wang, 2007) and leaching of nitrate and eutrophication of water bodies (Shi et al., 2009). From agronomic point of view impairment of crop productivity can be expected when EC values exceed 500 $\mu\text{S}/\text{cm}$ (Li, 1993). However, already beyond this critical value excessive NO_3 will accumulate favorably in leaves. In leafy vegetables cultivated in foil tunnels NO_3 concentrations of up to 1448 mg/kg were found in the Shanxi province of China (Wang, 2002).

The present study showed that soil EC values proved to be an adequate indicator for the $\text{NO}_3\text{-N}$ status in vegetable

cultivation, particularly in foil tunnel systems and if fields are not yet affected by secondary salinization. A significant positive relationship between soil EC and soil $\text{NO}_3\text{-N}$ was confirmed in the present study (Figure 3) and other field experiments (Cao et al., 2004; Ju et al., 2007; Shi et al., 2008 and 2009).

Investigations in the field of Precision Agriculture revealed that one factor, which influences the salt content in the soil is the concentration of soluble nutrients (Cockx et al., 2004). Geo-electric sensors are used for establishing on-the-go soil salinity maps (Corwin and Plant, 2005; Lilienthal et al., 2005) and Cockx et al. (2004) used EC readings for variable rate input of N. Site-specific nutrient management on paddock scale, which may span an acreage of only 500 m^2 in China (Hu et al., 2004) is a promising approach to add value to vegetable products by improving crop quality, maintaining crop productivity, inhibiting/ameliorating secondary salinization and reducing avoidable nutrient losses to the environment.

At this point it may be suggested to employ EC sensors for establishing a recommendation system, which is based on instant *in situ* EC measurements and N fertilizer recommendations, which match the site and crop-specific demand in intensive vegetable cultivation areas in order to improve crop productivity and quality and to limit adverse effects of excessive N rates. He et al. (2007) demonstrated that site-specific N fertilization reduced the N input by up to 80 % without any negative impact on crop productivity. The necessity to calibrate sensor data with soil analytical data shall not be left unmentioned here (Lilienthal et al., 2005). Such cheap and effective system could for instance be implemented as one code for good agricultural practice (GAP). GAP codes are a set of simple rules for agricultural practice with high impact for reducing agrochemical losses (Paulsen et al., 2002). It is of prime relevance for the protection of the water bodies and a prerequisite for sustainable agricultural production to reduce non-point nutrient losses (particularly N and phosphorus). In the Lake Erhai Basin of Dali in China, the contribution of N to basin pollution achieved meanwhile a level of 97 % (He, 2005;

Yang, 2004). In 2007, it was calculated for China that only the $\text{NH}_4\text{-N}$ discharge from rivers to Sea was 84.2×10^4 tons; municipal sewage contributed with 41.5×10^4 tons to about 50 % of the problem, while the other half has to be attributed to losses from agriculture (Anon, 2007). This means that the strict limitation of agricultural non-point pollution is a key factor for controlling and improving water pollution worldwide. Another option to reduce N surpluses is a regular change of land use. This implies vegetable cultivation in the field rather than under foil tunnels, and substitution of vegetable by versatile crop rotations. A positive side effect of land use change combined with reduced N input is decreased acidification (Hu et al., 2006; Xu, 1980).

Conclusions

The results of the present study reveal that soil electrical conductivity (EC) is an opportune indicator for the soil $\text{NO}_3\text{-N}$ status in intensive vegetable cultivation. In addition, the results showed that foil tunnel systems drastically enhance the problem of secondary salinization last but not least because of a multiple higher fertilizer input when compared to cultivation of vegetables in open fields and other crop plants. Eutrophication of water bodies is a worldwide problem and GAP codes have been established in many countries for reducing non-point nutrient losses. In China, GAP codes have been developed for the cultivation of medicinal plants (Leung and Cheng, 2008), but for agricultural production so far only singular measures have been proposed for individual crop plants and regional agro-environmental conditions (Zhang and Gao, 2008; Wang et al., 2006).

EC measurements in the laboratory or by geo-electric sensors in the field offer the chance to adapt N fertilizer recommendations to the plant available N pool in the soil. Consequently N input can be balanced and N surplus reduced efficiently. EC measurements are a proactive measure against secondary salinization besides a legally restricted cultivation period of vegetables under foil tunnels. Most important with view to sustainable agricultural production is, however, the professional education of farmers. The understanding of the farmer as the biological interface, which safeguards the nutritional status of crops is vital for recognizing the need for professional training as only then traditional fertilizer practices will be replaced by site-specifically adjusted fertilizer rates, which match the actual nutrient demand of the crop (Haneklaus and Schnug, 2006).

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