

1 Mitigating N₂O emissions from soil: 2 From patching leaks to transformative action

3

4 C. Decock¹, J. Lee¹, M. Necpalova¹, E.I.P Pereira¹, D.M. Tendall¹, J. Six¹

5 [1] {Department of Environmental Systems Science, ETH Zurich, Universitätsstrasse
6 2, 8092 Zürich, Switzerland}

7 Correspondence to: C. Decock (charlotte.decock@usys.ethz.ch)

8

9 Abstract

10 Further progress in understanding and mitigating N₂O emissions from soil lies within
11 transdisciplinary research that reaches across spatial scales and takes an ambitious
12 look into the future.

13

14 1 Introduction

15 Atmospheric concentrations of nitrous oxide (N₂O), a potent greenhouse gas
16 and ozone depleting substance, have increased steadily from 270 ppb in the pre-
17 industrial era (1000-1750) to 328 ppb in 2015 (IPCC, 2013;NOAA, 2015). The vast
18 majority of N₂O emissions comes from agriculture, where it is emitted from soil,
19 especially following management or weather events, such as N fertilization, manure
20 application, tillage, and precipitation (Denman et al., 2007;Dobbie et al., 1999).
21 Recent projections indicate that to stabilize atmospheric N₂O concentrations between
22 340 and 350 ppb by 2050, reducing emissions by 22% relative to 2005 (i.e., 5.3 Tg
23 N₂O-N yr⁻¹) will be necessary (UNEP, 2013). Meanwhile, N₂O emissions have further
24 increased since 2005 (FAO, 2014), indicating that the currently required emission
25 reductions are even greater. Only concerted efforts combining the most pertinent
26 mitigation strategies, such as increasing N use efficiency in agricultural production
27 systems, in combination with diminishing food waste and reducing meat and dairy
28 consumption can realize such emission reductions (UNEP, 2013). Under business-as-
29 usual conditions, anthropogenic N₂O emissions are expected to almost double by
30 2050, leading to a high risk of unprecedented increases in the global temperature and
31 in UVB radiation, with severe consequences for human health and the environment
32 (UNEP, 2013). Despite the clear urgency of reducing N₂O emissions, adoption of the

33 proposed mitigation options remains slow. Political and societal inertia may partly be
34 to blame, but the large uncertainty around management-, crop- and region-specific
35 predictions of N₂O emissions also presents an important challenge to designing and
36 implementing mitigation options. In this forum article, we use examples of on-going
37 research on N₂O emissions to illustrate and discuss how soil scientists can collaborate
38 with experts from other disciplines, to reduce the uncertainty around N₂O emissions
39 estimates, hence improving the development and implementation of successful
40 mitigation strategies. We use a framework of 5 interacting research themes across
41 different spatial scales; Namely, (1) identification of soil processes underlying N₂O
42 emissions, (2) assessing effects of crop and region-specific management on N₂O
43 emissions, (3) assessing effects of systemic or land-use change on N₂O emissions, and
44 (4) assessing synergies and trade-offs between N₂O mitigation and other sustainability
45 indicators, culminating into (5) sustainable provisioning of food and nutrition
46 security, energy and goods (Fig. 1). Each research theme is associated with a set of
47 commonly used research tools. We then specifically highlight how researchers
48 working on N₂O emission understanding and reductions need to proactively seek out
49 relevant collaborations across disciplinary boundaries (Fig. 2), in order to play a
50 significant role in the global challenge of achieving sustainable agricultural and food
51 systems.

52

53 **2 Patching the leaks: From ‘Understanding soil processes’ to ‘Crop-** 54 **and region-specific management’**

55 The most discussed and investigated strategies for reducing N₂O emissions
56 from agricultural soils is “to patch the leaks”, i.e., improve the N use efficiency of
57 croplands and grasslands, mostly by optimizing fertilizer N management (e.g., rate,
58 timing, source, and placement of N fertilizers). Patching the leaks is probably one of
59 the more achievable mitigation options in the shorter term. In fact, a N fertilizer tax
60 for reducing external N inputs and associated N₂O emissions has been evaluated
61 (Franks and Hadingham, 2012;Mérel et al., 2014), and several C-offset programs
62 already hold a protocol to estimate net N₂O emission reductions from cropping
63 systems, for trading on the C-market (Davidson et al., 2014). From a technical point
64 of view, the potential to reduce N₂O emissions through optimized N management has
65 been demonstrated (Snyder et al., 2014;Hoben et al., 2011). However, taking up such

66 management options in regulation and policy formulations requires a clear and
67 quantitative description of the conditions under which the management strategy is
68 effective, and the associated uncertainty range. For example, it is well known that
69 N₂O emissions generally increase with increasing N-input (Bouwman, 1996;Hoben et
70 al., 2011), but the shape of this response curve varies between agricultural production
71 systems and regions (Decock, 2014;Kim et al., 2012). If the aim of a policy is to
72 achieve a certain N₂O emission reduction target through reduced N input rates, not
73 only the response curve at the research station, but the response curve for all fields
74 targeted by this policy needs to be estimated. Hence, one needs to extrapolate for
75 which soil types, climate conditions, or management practices a certain response is
76 valid. Moreover, because of the high variability typically associated with N₂O
77 emissions, policies need to take into account a certain amount of risk. To do so, a
78 good estimate of the confidence interval around an achievable emission reduction is
79 just as important as the mean value (Springborn et al., 2013). Long-term N₂O
80 measurements across a wide range of biophysical conditions (i.e., ecoregions) and
81 mitigation options are important to understand and quantify this uncertainty and
82 variability, but the cost and time required for direct N₂O measurements limits the
83 number of datasets that can be collected. Here, biogeochemical process models are
84 practical tools to bridge data gaps, and improve the precision and accuracy of the
85 efficiency and applicability conditions of mitigation options.

86 Modellers use field- and laboratory-derived N₂O data collected for continuous
87 biogeochemical model development, evaluation, and subsequent application of the
88 model to simulate field-level N₂O emissions toward regional scale simulations across
89 a wide range of environmental conditions upon adoption of different management
90 practices (Rochette et al., 2008;Fitton et al., 2011). Models are in essence a
91 mathematical representation of our understanding of functional relationships between
92 the key drivers, their interactions and the ecosystem responses under different
93 agricultural managements (Chen et al. 2008). Hence, model predictions can only be as
94 accurate as our current understanding of the underlying mechanisms is. The simplified
95 process algorithms for estimating N₂O emissions from nitrification and denitrification
96 differ between the developed biogeochemical process models in terms of the effects
97 of environmental drivers taken into account (Fang et al., 2015) and consequently
98 result in different responses to the environmental factors and a diverse models'
99 performance in simulating N₂O emissions under different climate, soil and

100 management conditions (Frolking et al., 1998; Vogeler et al., 2013). Current
101 experimental research is constantly making progress in improving our understanding
102 of mechanisms underlying N₂O emissions by using state-of-the art molecular and
103 isotope methods (Baggs, 2008; Baggs, 2011; Butterbach-Bahl et al., 2013; Decock and
104 Six, 2013). It is important that these insights will inevitably lead to further refining
105 and re-evaluation of N₂O emission process algorithms. To further improve model
106 simulations, modellers and experimentalists could jointly design experiments that
107 provide mechanistic information suitable for improvements in model structure,
108 especially regarding management practices that are difficult to simulate at present
109 (Venterea and Stanenas, 2008) (Fig. 2).

110 Modellers can not only benefit from communication with biophysical
111 scientists regarding the model input requirements and availability of the measured
112 data at the studied domain for the model application, constraining parameter values
113 and model evaluation, but could also provide feedback on which data should be
114 measured more accurately, where the major data gaps and uncertainties lie for
115 upscaling, and providing relevant and reliable predictions to support policies.
116 Adoption of different management practices should be evaluated across a wide range
117 of environmental conditions, at larger spatial scales and for longer time periods. This
118 would enable identification of areas with higher mitigation potential and boundary
119 conditions for delivering emission reductions. Furthermore, model simulations could
120 highlight where uncertainty around N₂O predictions and potential emission reductions
121 is the highest, and inform where to invest in new field trials (Hillier et al., 2012; De
122 Gryze et al., 2011). The sensitivity analyses of N₂O model predictions could indicate
123 where threshold values (e.g., percent clay content, mean daily precipitation) might lie
124 regarding the effectiveness of mitigation options. Cooperative efforts between
125 modellers and biophysical scientists could accelerate the identification of applicability
126 conditions and quantification of uncertainty around emission reductions, providing a
127 more solid and refined basis to apply theory in practice (Fig. 2).

128

129 **3 Systemic change: balancing environmental protection, food and** 130 **nutrition security, and provisioning of energy and goods**

131 Recent N₂O emission projections clearly indicate that patching the leaks is
132 essential, but not sufficient, to stabilize atmospheric N₂O concentrations at an

133 acceptable level by 2050 (UNEP, 2013). Systemic change driven by, for example,
134 reduced meat and dairy consumption in the developed world is needed to reach the
135 N₂O emission target. Various simulation studies have shown that reduced meat and
136 dairy consumption decreases N₂O emissions through reduced manure application and
137 cultivation of feed crops (Popp et al., 2010;Stehfest et al., 2009;Westhoek et al.,
138 2014). However, emission reduction estimates are relatively coarse, mostly due to the
139 lack of information on land-use changes and associated emissions induced by reduced
140 meat and dairy consumption. Would there be a shift toward grass-fed animal
141 production? Would there be increased consumption of fruit and vegetables, driving up
142 the acreage dedicated to horticulture? Would there be increased demand for legumes
143 in human diets? Would consumers cut down on their total calorie and protein intake,
144 making part of the land available for bio-energy crops, or nature conservation and
145 recreation areas? Or would production be sustained by increased exports? Clearly,
146 there is a multitude of alternative land-use options, but the greenhouse gas emissions
147 associated with these land-use conversions are not well quantified. Currently available
148 foresight studies on the effects of dietary change on N₂O emissions attempt to take
149 into account alternative land-use to a certain extent. Estimated emissions from
150 alternative systems are, however, typically based on Intergovernmental Panel on
151 Climate Change (IPCC) emission factors, where N₂O emissions are a fixed fraction of
152 N-inputs (Popp et al., 2010;Stehfest et al., 2009;Westhoek et al., 2014). The IPCC
153 emission factors are based on N₂O emission data available when the IPCC guidelines
154 were developed, which mainly consists of experiments in cereal cropping systems in
155 temperate regions (Bouwman, 1996;IPCC, 2006). Empirical data shows, however,
156 that crop type and geographic location have a significant effect on N₂O emissions,
157 irrespective of N-input rate (Stehfest and Bouwman, 2006;Linguist et al.,
158 2012;Verhoeven et al., 2013;Decock, 2014). Therefore, awareness campaigns or
159 policies aimed at reduced meat and dairy consumption should go hand in hand with
160 considerations on how to steer and account for direct and indirect land-use change
161 (Franks and Hadingham, 2012). This requires a whole system approach involving soil
162 scientists, agricultural economists, social and political scientists, geographers and
163 policy makers (Fig. 2) to identify the most likely or most desirable alternative
164 cropping systems and/or land-use scenarios and the associated greenhouse gas
165 emissions in various regions of the world.

166 Overconsumption of meat and dairy in developed countries is only a part of
167 the global challenge of “the starving, the stunted and the stuffed”. Millions of people
168 are hungry or malnourished, both in the global South and North (FAO et al., 2014).
169 The prevalence of hunger might even be exacerbated as the global population
170 increases in the coming decennia (Alexandratos and Bruinsma, 2012). The problem
171 could be partly alleviated by reducing food waste, improving food distribution and
172 access to markets, and addressing socio-economic inequalities. In many developing
173 countries, however, the low productivity of agricultural systems is a major concern.
174 For example, annual maize yields in Africa and South America ranged from 2 to 5 Mg
175 ha⁻¹ between 2009 and 2013, compared to 8 to 10 Mg ha⁻¹ in Western Europe and
176 North-America in the same period (FAOSTAT, 2015). The low productivity often
177 observed in developing countries is typically associated with soil degradation and
178 resource limitations. More specifically, farmers in many developing countries lack
179 access to sufficient synthetic and/or organic fertilizers to meet crop requirements,
180 other improved inputs (e.g. high quality seed, crop protection measures, and reliable
181 irrigation facilities), availability of labour and machinery, and access to financial
182 support structures (e.g. insurance or loans). Meanwhile, developing countries are the
183 areas where the largest population increases are predicted (UN, 2013). As more food
184 will be needed to nourish the increasing global population, it is important to
185 contemplate which food should be produced, where it should be produced, how the
186 production system should be managed, and at what environmental cost. While
187 increases in N₂O emissions due to increased N fertilizer use in many developing
188 countries have been predicted (IPCC, 2007), little is known about the actual effect of
189 intensification on N₂O emissions in those agricultural systems (Hickman et al.,
190 2011; Valentini et al., 2014). In N-rate trials in Western Kenya, an exponential
191 response of N₂O to N input was observed (Hickman et al., 2015), similar to many
192 studies in temperate systems (Hoben et al., 2011; Kim et al., 2012). Nevertheless,
193 emissions as a percentage of N applied ranged between 0.01 and 0.11%, well below
194 the average IPCC emission factor of 1% (Hickman et al., 2015). Likewise,
195 simulations of intensification scenarios suggested a smaller environmental impact
196 relative to productivity gains in Zimbabwe compared to Austria and China (Carberry
197 et al., 2013). To meet the needs of the growing global population, there is an urgent
198 need to investigate the sustainability of various intensification scenarios across the
199 globe, through collaborations between agroecologists, agronomists, rural economists,

200 nutrition specialists and sociologists. Soil scientists specializing in N₂O emissions
201 could help address where and how intensification would have the largest impact on
202 food and nutrition security with minimal environmental impact, by seeking out
203 experiments in currently underrepresented geographic locations and cropping
204 systems, e.g. by investing in climate-smart agricultural projects in developing
205 countries (Marques de Magalhães and Lunas Lima, 2014;Steenwerth et al., 2014).

206 By “the stuffed”, we are referring to the overconsumption of calories
207 worldwide (especially in the form of fats and refined sugars), which has contributed to
208 a global epidemic of obesity and has been linked to increased risk of non-
209 communicable diseases such as cardio-vascular diseases, several cancers, and diabetes
210 (Lustig et al., 2012). The increasing consumption of these foods at unhealthy levels
211 has become an undeniable public health issue, and has boosted many debates on
212 policies such as sugar and fat taxes, diet education, and prevention campaigns to
213 address the problem (Malik et al., 2013). Meanwhile, many of the sugar and oil crops
214 are also on the table for bio-energy production. Yet, the net greenhouse gas benefit of
215 biofuels remains controversial and tends to strongly depend on the feedstock used
216 (Del Grosso et al., 2014) and regional adoption potentials (Yi et al., 2014). One of the
217 largest uncertainties in life cycle analysis (LCA) of biofuels relates to direct and
218 indirect N₂O emissions from soil (Benoist et al., 2012). Due to the lack of original
219 data, many LCAs default to IPCC emission factors to estimate N₂O emissions from
220 soil, and therefore fail to account for land-use, geographical, and management effects
221 on N₂O emissions. For example, there is evidence that N₂O emissions from sugar
222 cane cultivation might be larger than expected based on IPCC emission factors, which
223 could change the picture on the greenhouse gas balance of sugarcane based biofuels
224 (Lisboa et al., 2011). Meanwhile, there are great hopes that second-generation
225 biofuels (e.g. conversion of lignocellulose rather than sugars) will help meet
226 bioenergy targets. Feedstock production is expected to be less intensive and cause
227 lower N₂O emissions from soil compared to first-generation biofuels (Bessou et al.,
228 2011;Don et al., 2012). From a global perspective, sugar cane, sugar beet, maize,
229 soybeans, rapeseed and palm oil accounted for over 20% of the harvested crop area
230 and over 30% of the total crop production in the period 2009-2013 (FAOSTAT,
231 2015). Up to 20% of the harvested biomass is used for bio-energy production (FAO,
232 2013a). This fraction is expected to increase as various countries mandate an
233 increasing share of bioenergy in the total energy consumption (Alexandratos and

234 Bruinsma, 2012). Clearly, interrelated trends in public health, energy and
235 environmental policies could have a significant effect on the cultivated acreage of oil
236 and sugar crops, the emergence of second-generation bioenergy crops, and the
237 associated changes in N₂O emissions.

238 Feed, oil, sugar and bioenergy crops form an important share of the significant
239 contribution of crop production to N₂O emissions. Soil scientists should take up
240 responsibility in debates on the impact of forthcoming policies that directly or
241 indirectly affect the cultivated acreage of these crops, backed by robust crop, region
242 and management specific N₂O emission measurements. The examples above clearly
243 illustrate the need to assess public interest and socio-economic feasibility in
244 combination with biophysical effectiveness, in order to guide land-use decisions. This
245 requires multi-directional collaborations between biophysical scientists and actors
246 engaged in policy making, socio-economic assessments and livelihood enhancement
247 of farmers. Furthermore, the highlighted land-use changes are heavily dependent on
248 behavioural change of multiple actors, including producers and consumers. It is not
249 clear how and at what rate such behavioural changes can take place. Step-wise policy
250 implementation may be necessary, and a lag time in effectiveness can be expected.
251 Dynamic modelling that takes into account transition phases can help achieve a more
252 realistic map of projected changes in N₂O emissions.

253

254 **4 Complex synergies and trade-offs challenge the path to** 255 **sustainability**

256 Sustainable management of agricultural systems evidently does not end at
257 optimizing productivity and minimizing N₂O emissions. It includes, and is not limited
258 to, improving the recycling of essential nutrients at the scale of management or
259 policy-making, especially of those nutrients that come from finite reserves such as
260 phosphorus; protecting of ground and surface waters from eutrophication and other
261 toxicity induced by agrochemicals and fertilizers; restoring and conserving of
262 biodiversity, including the safeguarding of pollination services and persistence of
263 natural enemies for agricultural pests and disease control; preventing air pollution
264 from agriculture by reducing indirect emissions of NO_x, NH₃, and dust particles;
265 preventing unsustainable withdrawals of water for irrigation; protecting soil from
266 depletion and degradation; and increasing the resilience of agricultural production

267 systems, especially in the light of climate change (Schröder et al., 2011;Foley et al.,
268 2011;Bindraban et al., 2012). In addition, social and economic aspects such as labour
269 requirements and profitability cannot be disregarded (FAO, 2013b). Many solutions
270 and interventions for several of these problems have been sought and applied at field,
271 farm, landscape, national and global scales. Examples at the field and landscape scale
272 include conservation agriculture, intercropping, agroforestry, precision agriculture,
273 buffer strips, organic agriculture, recycling of organic waste streams for agricultural
274 production, drip irrigation, and improved crop varieties, often assisted by advances in
275 engineering and technological solutions such as genetic modification, novel
276 machinery implements, and recently also drones. Mitigation actions at the national
277 and global scale include environmental regulation and international collaborations. At
278 present, interactions and conflicts between N₂O mitigation strategies and solutions
279 proposed to address other agronomic, environmental or socio-economic problems
280 remain insufficiently explored. Therefore, it is important to identify where synergies
281 and trade-offs can be found, by collaborating with scientists that specialize in other
282 aspects of agroecology, as well as with scientists that develop methods to facilitate
283 transdisciplinary research and engage stakeholders, tools for trade-off analysis, and
284 approaches to deal with complex systems (Klapwijk et al., 2014;van Mil et al.,
285 2014;Jarvis et al., 2011). In practice, this could include combining management
286 scenarios in field trials and modelling efforts; facilitating the transfer of the data they
287 produce by collaborating on consistent data and reporting protocols, and standardized,
288 centralized databases; contributing to build integrated bio-physical and socio-
289 economic models; and conducting meta-studies placing N₂O-related outcomes among
290 other environmental and socio-economic indicators, which in turn can feed back into
291 the design of N₂O emission reduction research (Fig. 2).

292 Mitigating N₂O emissions is a complex issue embedded in the even more
293 complex maze of improving the sustainability of agriculture and food systems.
294 Therefore, finding the right denominator for assessing N₂O emissions is a challenging
295 task. Yield-scaled emissions are practical for assessing the eco-efficiency of a
296 particular field, but are problematic when it comes to absolute emission reductions at
297 a global scale (Van Groenigen et al., 2010;Murray and Baker, 2011). Furthermore,
298 yield-scaled emissions cannot accommodate impacts of systemic change and
299 comparisons of land-use scenarios in which crops with very different nutritional,
300 societal, and economic values are grown. Prior to the start of new experiments, soil

301 scientists could reach out to policy makers, agricultural and resource economists, and
302 industrial ecologists to identify what ancillary variables (e.g., use of the crop and its
303 residues, yield, nutritional value, etc.) should be collected to accommodate a balanced
304 comparison of different systems.

305

306 **5 Inter- and transdisciplinary research: buzzword versus reality**

307

308 While the terms inter- and transdisciplinary research are frequently dropped as
309 buzzwords, especially in research evolving around real-world problems, challenges
310 associated with working across scholarly disciplines, or collaborations between
311 academic and non-academic actors, cannot be underestimated. So-called
312 interdisciplinary projects often regress to research consortia that merely accommodate
313 exchange of final research findings, rather than fostering true joint creation of new
314 knowledge (Bruce et al., 2004). Common barriers to inter- and transdisciplinary
315 research include: the high time commitment for coordination and communication;
316 lack of recognition in traditional institutional reward systems; differences in attitudes,
317 jargon, philosophies and publication protocols between disciplines; a lack of
318 understanding of methods and outcomes of different disciplinary components; and
319 difficulties in finding referees that appreciate and evaluate the quality of
320 interdisciplinary projects (Campbell, 2005; Bruce et al., 2004). Many funding agencies
321 and academic institutions are taking steps to overcome some of these barriers by
322 opening calls for interdisciplinary research projects, by organizing meetings to
323 explore potential new interdisciplinary partnerships, or by establishing competence
324 centres tasked with bringing together knowledge and stakeholders relevant to
325 addressing important national or global problems. Individual researchers committed to
326 the cause of reducing N₂O emissions from soil could contribute by actively seeking
327 out such opportunities. In this forum article, we presented a guiding framework for
328 the N₂O researcher interested in inter- and transdisciplinary research, by
329 conceptualizing links between major themes in sustainability of food and agricultural
330 systems and N₂O emissions research across different scales (Fig. 1), and by drawing a
331 map of relevant stakeholders and their potential interactions (Fig. 2).

332

333

334 **6 Concluding remarks**

335 Tremendous progress has been made during the last decennia with respect to
336 the scientific understanding of N₂O emissions from soils: Various pathways and
337 mechanisms have been elucidated (Butterbach-Bahl et al., 2013); molecular and
338 isotopic tools to assess mechanisms have been advanced (Baggs, 2008; Baggs,
339 2011; Decock and Six, 2013); we have a general idea of temporal and spatial patterns
340 of N₂O emissions (Groffman et al., 2009); micrometeorological methods are available
341 to monitor spatially integrated N₂O emissions at high temporal resolution (Eugster
342 and Merbold, 2015); various data sources have been synthesized in qualitative and
343 quantitative reviews (Bouwman, 1996; Decock, 2014); and biogeochemical models
344 have been developed and improved to predict N₂O emissions under various scenarios
345 (Chen et al., 2008). These efforts have paved the way to identify the major causes of
346 soil-derived N₂O and to isolate the strategies that have the greatest potential for
347 reducing global N₂O emissions (e.g. increasing N efficiency in cropping systems and
348 reducing meat and dairy consumption in developed countries) (Snyder et al.,
349 2014; UNEP, 2013; Oenema et al., 2014). The time is ripe to reach across disciplines,
350 not only to fine-tune crop and region-specific agronomic management strategies for
351 instant mitigation action, but also to better integrate the issue of N₂O emissions in
352 overarching debates on agricultural change. This will help steer transformative action
353 for improving the social, economic and environmental sustainability of agricultural
354 and food systems for many generations to come.

355

356 **References**

- 357 Alexandratos, N., and Bruinsma, J.: World agriculture towards 2030/2050: the 2012
358 revision. ESA Working paper No. 12-03., FAO, Rome, 2012.
- 359 Baggs, E. M.: A review of stable isotope techniques for N₂O source partitioning in
360 soils: recent progress, remaining challenges and future considerations, Rapid
361 Commun. Mass Sp., 22, 1664-1672, 2008.
- 362 Baggs, E. M.: Soil microbial sources of nitrous oxide: recent advances in knowledge,
363 emerging challenges and future direction, Curr. Opin. Environmental Sustainability,
364 3, 321-327, 2011.

365 Benoist, A., Dron, D., Zoughaib, A.: Origins of the debate on the life-cycle
366 greenhouse gas emissions and energy consumption of first-generation biofuels—A
367 sensitivity analysis approach, *Biomass Bioenerg.*, 40, 133-142, 2012.

368 Bessou, C., Ferchaud, F., Gabrielle, B., and Mary, B.: Biofuels, greenhouse gases and
369 climate change. A review, *Agron. Sustain. Dev.*, 31, 1-79, 2011.

370 Bindraban, P. S., van der Velde, M., Ye, L., Van den Berg, M., Materechera, S., Kiba,
371 D. I., Tamene, L., Ragnarsdóttir, K. V., Jongschaap, R., and Hoogmoed, M.:
372 Assessing the impact of soil degradation on food production, *Curr. Opin.*
373 *Environmental Sustainability*, 4, 478-488, 2012.

374 Bouwman, A. F.: Direct emission of nitrous oxide from agricultural soils, *Nutr. Cycl.*
375 *Agroecosys.*, 46, 53-70, 1996.

376 Bruce, A., Lyall, C., Tait, J., and Williams, R.: Interdisciplinary integration in Europe:
377 the case of the Fifth Framework programme, *Futures*, 36, 457-470, 2004.

378 Butterbach-Bahl, K., Baggs, E. M., Dannenmann, M., Kiese, R., and Zechmeister-
379 Boltenstern, S.: Nitrous oxide emissions from soils: how well do we understand the
380 processes and their controls?, *Philos. T. R. Soc. B: Biological Sciences*, 368, 2013.

381 Campbell, L. M.: Overcoming obstacles to interdisciplinary research, *Conserv. Biol.*,
382 19, 574-577, 2005.

383 Carberry, P. S., Liang, W.-l., Twomlow, S., Holzworth, D. P., Dimes, J. P.,
384 McClelland, T., Huth, N. I., Chen, F., Hochman, Z., and Keating, B. A.: Scope for
385 improved eco-efficiency varies among diverse cropping systems, *P. Natl. Acad. Sci.*
386 *USA*, 110, 8381-8386, 2013.

387 Chen, D., Li, Y., Grace, P., and Mosier, A. R.: N₂O emissions from agricultural lands:
388 a synthesis of simulation approaches, *Plant Soil*, 309, 169-189, 2008.

389 Davidson, E., Galloway, J., Millar, N., and Leach, A.: N-related greenhouse gases in
390 North America: innovations for a sustainable future, *Curr. Opin. Environmental*
391 *Sustainability*, 9, 1-8, 2014.

392 De Gryze, S., Lee, J., Ogle, S., Paustian, K., and Six, J.: Assessing the potential for
393 greenhouse gas mitigation in intensively managed annual cropping systems at the
394 regional scale, *Agr. Ecosyst. Environ.*, 144, 150-158, 2011.

395 Decock, C., and Six, J.: How reliable is the intramolecular distribution of ¹⁵N in N₂O
396 to source partition N₂O emitted from soil?, *Soil Biol. Biochem.*, 65, 114-127, 2013.

397 Decock, C.: Mitigating Nitrous Oxide Emissions from Corn Cropping Systems in the
398 Midwestern US: Potential and Data Gaps, *Environ. Sci. Technol.*, 48, 4247-4256,
399 2014.

400 Del Grosso, S., Smith, P., Galdos, M., Hastings, A., and Parton, W.: Sustainable
401 energy crop production, *Curr. Opin. Environmental Sustainability*, 9, 20-25, 2014.

402 Denman, K. L., Brasseur, G., Chidthaisong, A., Ciais, P., Cox, P. M., Dickinson, R.
403 E., Hauglustaine, D., Heinze, C., Holland, E., Jacob, D., Lohmann, U.,
404 Ramachandran, S., da Silva Dias, P. L., Wofsy, S. C., and Zhang, X.: Couplings
405 Between Changes in the Climate System and Biogeochemistry, in: *Climate Change*
406 *2007: The Physical Science Basis. Contribution of Working Group I to the Fourth*
407 *Assessment Report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change*, edited by:
408 Solomon, S., Qin, D., Manning, M., Chen, Z., Marquis, M., Averyt, K. B., Tignor,
409 M., and Miller, H. L., Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, United Kingdom and
410 New York, NY, USA, 2007.

411 Dobbie, K., McTaggart, I., and Smith, K.: Nitrous oxide emissions from intensive
412 agricultural systems: variations between crops and seasons, key driving variables, and
413 mean emission factors, *J. Geophys. Res.-Atmos.*, 104, 26891-26899, 1999.

414 Don, A., Osborne, B., Hastings, A., Skiba, U., Carter, M. S., Drewer, J., Flessa, H.,
415 Freibauer, A., Hyvönen, N., and Jones, M. B.: Land-use change to bioenergy
416 production in Europe: implications for the greenhouse gas balance and soil carbon,
417 *Glob. Change Biol. Bioenergy*, 4, 372-391, 2012.

418 Eugster, W., and Merbold, L.: Eddy covariance for quantifying trace gas fluxes from
419 soils, *SOIL*, 1, 187-205, 2015.

420 Fang, Q., Ma, L., Halvorson, A. D., Malone, R., Ahuja, L., Del Grosso, S., and
421 Hatfield, J.: Evaluating four N₂O emissions algorithms in RZWQM2 in response to N
422 rate on an irrigated corn field., *Environ. Modell. Softw.*, In Press, 2015.

423 FAO: *FAO Statistical Yearbook 2013: World Food and Agriculture*, Food and
424 Agriculture Organization of the United Nations, Rome, 2013a.

425 FAO: *SAFA Sustainability Assessment of Food and Agriculture systems guidelines*
426 *version 3.0*, Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations, Rome, 2013b.

427 FAO, IFAD, and WFP: *The State of Food Insecurity in the World 2014*.

428 *Strengthening the enabling environment for food security and nutrition.*, FAO, Rome,
429 2014.

430 Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations Statistics division.
431 <http://faostat3.fao.org>, 2015.

432 Fitton, N., Ejerenwa, C., Bhogal, A., Edgington, P., Black, H., Lilly, A., Barraclough,
433 D., Worrall, F., Hillier, J., and Smith, P.: Greenhouse gas mitigation potential of
434 agricultural land in Great Britain, *Soil Use Manage.*, 27, 491-501, 2011.

435 Foley, J. A., Ramankutty, N., Brauman, K. A., Cassidy, E. S., Gerber, J. S., Johnston,
436 M., Mueller, N. D., O'Connell, C., Ray, D. K., and West, P. C.: Solutions for a
437 cultivated planet, *Nature*, 478, 337-342, 2011.

438 Franks, J. R., and Hadingham, B.: Reducing greenhouse gas emissions from
439 agriculture: avoiding trivial solutions to a global problem, *Land Use Policy*, 29, 727-
440 736, 2012.

441 Froelking, S., Mosier, A., Ojima, D. S., Li, C., Parton, W. J., Potter, C., Priesack, E.,
442 Stenger, R., Haberbosch, C., Dörsch, P., Flessa, H., and Smith, K.: Comparison of
443 N₂O emissions from soils at three temperate agricultural sites: simulations of year-
444 round measurements by four models., *Nutr. Cycl. Agroecosys.*, 52, 77-105, 1998.

445 Groffman, P. M., Butterbach-Bahl, K., Fulweiler, R. W., Gold, A. J., Morse, J. L.,
446 Stander, E. K., Tague, C., Tonitto, C., and Vidon, P.: Challenges to incorporating
447 spatially and temporally explicit phenomena (hotspots and hot moments) in
448 denitrification models, *Biogeochemistry*, 93, 49-77, 2009.

449 Hickman, J., Tully, K., Groffman, P., Diru, W., and Palm, C.: A potential tipping
450 point in tropical agriculture: Avoiding rapid increases in nitrous oxide fluxes from
451 agricultural intensification in Kenya, *J. Geophys. Res.-Biogeo.*, 120, 938–951,
452 10.1002/2015JG002913, 2015.

453 Hickman, J. E., Havlikova, M., Kroeze, C., and Palm, C. A.: Current and future
454 nitrous oxide emissions from African agriculture, *Curr. Opin. Environmental*
455 *Sustainability*, 3, 370-378, 2011.

456 Hillier, J., Brentrup, F., Wattenbach, M., Walter, C., Garcia-Suarez, T., Mila-i-Canals,
457 L., and Smith, P.: Which cropland greenhouse gas mitigation options give the greatest
458 benefits in different world regions? Climate and soil-specific predictions from
459 integrated empirical models, *Glob. Change Biol.*, 18, 1880-1894, 2012.

460 Hoben, J., Gehl, R., Millar, N., Grace, P., and Robertson, G.: Nonlinear nitrous oxide
461 (N₂O) response to nitrogen fertilizer in on-farm corn crops of the US Midwest, *Glob.*
462 *Change Biol.*, 2011.

463 IPCC: Guidelines for National Greenhouse Gas Inventories, Chapter 11: N₂O
464 emissions from managed soils, and CO₂ emissions from lime and urea application,
465 2006.

466 IPCC: Climate Change 2007: Synthesis Report, in: Contribution of Working Groups
467 I, II and III to the Fourth Assessment Report of the Intergovernmental Panel on
468 Climate Change, edited by: Pachauri, R. K., and Reisinger, A., IPCC, Geneva, 104,
469 2007.

470 IPCC: Climate Change 2013. The Physical Science Basis. Summary for
471 Policymakers. Working Group I Contribution to the fifth Assessment Report of the
472 Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change, Intergovernmental Panel on Climate
473 Change, Switzerland, 2013.

474 Jarvis, A., Lau, C., Cook, S., Wollenberg, E., Hansen, J., Bonilla, O., and Challinor,
475 A.: An integrated adaptation and mitigation framework for developing agricultural
476 research: synergies and trade-offs, *Exp. Agr.*, 47, 185-203, 2011.

477 Kim, D. G., Hernandez-Ramirez, G., and Giltrap, D.: Linear and nonlinear
478 dependency of direct nitrous oxide emissions on fertilizer nitrogen input: A meta-
479 analysis, *Agr. Ecosyst. Environ.*, 168, 53-56, 2012.

480 Klapwijk, C., van Wijk, M., Rosenstock, T., van Asten, P., Thornton, P., and Giller,
481 K.: Analysis of trade-offs in agricultural systems: Current status and way forward,
482 *Curr. Opin. Environmental Sustainability*, 6, 110-115, 2014.

483 Linqvist, B., Groenigen, K. J., Adviento-Borbe, M. A., Pittelkow, C., and Kessel, C.:
484 An agronomic assessment of greenhouse gas emissions from major cereal crops,
485 *Glob. Change Biol.*, 18, 194-209, 2012.

486 Lisboa, C. C., Butterbach-Bahl, K., Mauder, M., and Kiese, R.: Bioethanol production
487 from sugarcane and emissions of greenhouse gases—known and unknowns, *Glob.*
488 *Change Biol. Bioenergy*, 3, 277-292, 2011.

489 Lustig, R. H., Schmidt, L. A., and Brindis, C. D.: Public health: The toxic truth about
490 sugar, *Nature*, 482, 27-29, 2012.

491 Malik, V. S., Willett, W. C., and Hu, F. B.: Global obesity: trends, risk factors and
492 policy implications, *Nat. Rev. Endocrinol.*, 9, 13-27, 2013.

493 Marques de Magalhães, M., and Lunas Lima, D.: Low-Carbon Agriculture in Brazil:
494 The Environmental and Trade Impact of Current Farm Policies, Issue Paper No. 54;
495 International Centre for Trade and Sustainable Development, Geneva,

496 Switzerland, <http://www.ictsd.org.>, 2014.

497 Mérel, P., Yi, F., Lee, J., and Six, J.: A regional bio-economic model of nitrogen use
498 in cropping, *Am. J. Agr. Econ.*, 96, 67-91, 2014.

499 Murray, B. C., and Baker, J. S.: An output-based intensity approach for crediting
500 greenhouse gas mitigation in agriculture: Explanation and policy implications,
501 *Greenhouse Gas Measurement and Management*, 1, 27-36, 2011.

502 NOAA: Physical Sciences Division of the National Oceanic and Atmospheric
503 Administration/Earth System Research Laboratory (NOAA/ESRL).
504 <http://www.esrl.noaa.gov/>, 2015.

505 Oenema, O., Ju, X., de Klein, C., Alfaro, M., del Prado, A., Lesschen, J. P., Zheng,
506 X., Velthof, G., Ma, L., and Gao, B.: Reducing nitrous oxide emissions from the
507 global food system, *Curr. Opin. Environmental Sustainability*, 9, 55-64, 2014.

508 Popp, A., Lotze-Campen, H., and Bodirsky, B.: Food consumption, diet shifts and
509 associated non-CO₂ greenhouse gases from agricultural production, *Global Environ.*
510 *Chang.*, 20, 451-462, 2010.

511 Rochette, P., Worth, D. E., Lemke, R. L., McConkey, B. G., Pennock, D. J., Wagner-
512 Riddle, C., and Desjardins, R.: Estimation of N₂O emissions from agricultural soils in
513 Canada. I. Development of a country-specific methodology, *Can. J. Soil Sci.*, 88, 641-
514 654, 2008.

515 Schröder, J. J., Smit, A. L., Cordell, D., and Rosemarin, A.: Improved phosphorus use
516 efficiency in agriculture: A key requirement for its sustainable use, *Chemosphere*, 84,
517 822-831, 2011.

518 Snyder, C., Davidson, E., Smith, P., and Venterea, R.: Agriculture: sustainable crop
519 and animal production to help mitigate nitrous oxide emissions, *Curr. Opin.*
520 *Environmental Sustainability*, 9, 46-54, 2014.

521 Springborn, M., Yeo, B.-L., Lee, J., and Six, J.: Crediting uncertain ecosystem
522 services in a market, *J. Environ. Econ. Manag.*, 66, 554-572, 2013.

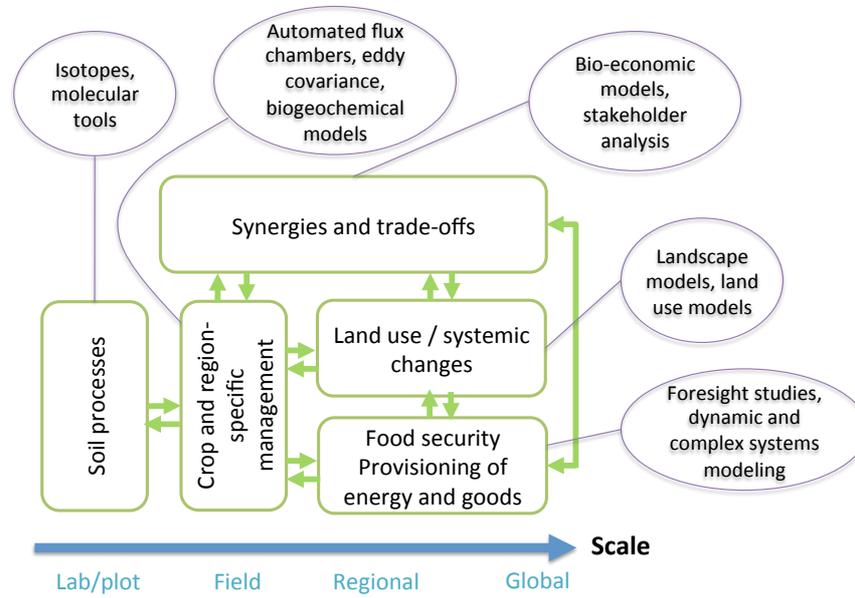
523 Steenwerth, K. L., Hodson, A. K., Bloom, A. J., Carter, M. R., Cattaneo, A., Chartres,
524 C. J., Hatfield, J. L., Henry, K., Hopmans, J. W., and Horwath, W. R.: Climate-smart
525 agriculture global research agenda: scientific basis for action, *Agriculture & Food*
526 *Security*, 3, 11, 2014.

527 Stehfest, E., and Bouwman, L.: N₂O and NO emission from agricultural fields and
528 soils under natural vegetation: summarizing available measurement data and
529 modeling of global annual emissions, *Nutr. Cycl. Agroecosys.*, 74, 207-228, 2006.

530 Stehfest, E., Bouwman, L., van Vuuren, D. P., den Elzen, M. G., Eickhout, B., and
531 Kabat, P.: Climate benefits of changing diet, *Climatic change*, 95, 83-102, 2009.
532 UN: World Population Prospects: The 2012 Revisions, Key Findings and Advance
533 Tables, United Nations, Department of Economic and Social Affairs, Population
534 Division. Working Paper No. ESA/P/WP.227, 2013.
535 UNEP: Drawing down N₂O to protect climate and the ozone layer. A UNEP Synthesis
536 Report, United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP), Nairobi, Kenya, 2013.
537 Valentini, R., Arneeth, A., Bombelli, A., Castaldi, S., Cazzolla Gatti, R., Chevallier, F.,
538 Ciais, P., Grieco, E., Hartmann, J., Henry, M., Houghton, R. A., Jung, M., Kutsch, W.
539 L., Malhi, Y., Mayorga, E., Merbold, L., Murray-Tertarolo, G., Papale, D., Peylin, P.,
540 Poulter, B., Raymond, P. A., Santini, M., Sitch, S., Vaglio Laurin, G., van der Werf,
541 G. R., Williams, C. O., and Scholes, R. J.: A full greenhouse gases budget of Africa:
542 synthesis, uncertainties, and vulnerabilities, *Biogeosciences*, 11, 381-407, 2014.
543 Van Groenigen, J., Velthof, G., Oenema, O., Van Groenigen, K., and Van Kessel, C.:
544 Towards an agronomic assessment of N₂O emissions: A case study for arable crops,
545 *Eur. J. Soil Sci.*, 61, 903-913, 2010.
546 van Mil, H., Foegeding, E., Windhab, E., Perrot, N., and van der Linden, E.: Using a
547 complex system approach to address world challenges in Food and Agriculture, arXiv
548 preprint arXiv:1309.0614, 2013.
549 Venterea, R. T., and Stanenas, A. J.: Profile analysis and modeling of reduced tillage
550 effects on soil nitrous oxide flux, *J. Environ. Qual.*, 37, 1360-1367, 2008.
551 Verhoeven, E., Decock, C., Garland, G., Kennedy, T., Periera, P., Fischer, M., Salas,
552 W., and Six, J.: (University of California, Davis) N₂O Emissions from the Application
553 of Fertilizers in Agricultural Soils, California Energy Commission. Publication
554 number: PIR-08-004, 2013.
555 Vogeler, L., Giltrap, D., and Cichota, R.: Comparison of APSIM and DNDC
556 simulations of nitrogen transformations and N₂O emissions, *Sci. Total Environ.*, 465,
557 147-155, 2013.
558 Westhoek, H., Lesschen, J. P., Rood, T., Wagner, S., De Marco, A., Murphy-Bokern,
559 D., Leip, A., van Grinsven, H., Sutton, M. A., and Oenema, O.: Food choices, health
560 and environment: effects of cutting Europe's meat and dairy intake, *Global Environ.*
561 *Chang.*, 26, 196-205, 2014.
562 Yi, F., Mérel, P., Lee, J., Farzin, Y., and Six, J.: Switchgrass in California: where, and
563 at what price? , *Glob. Change Biol. Bioenergy*, 6, 672-686, 2014.

564

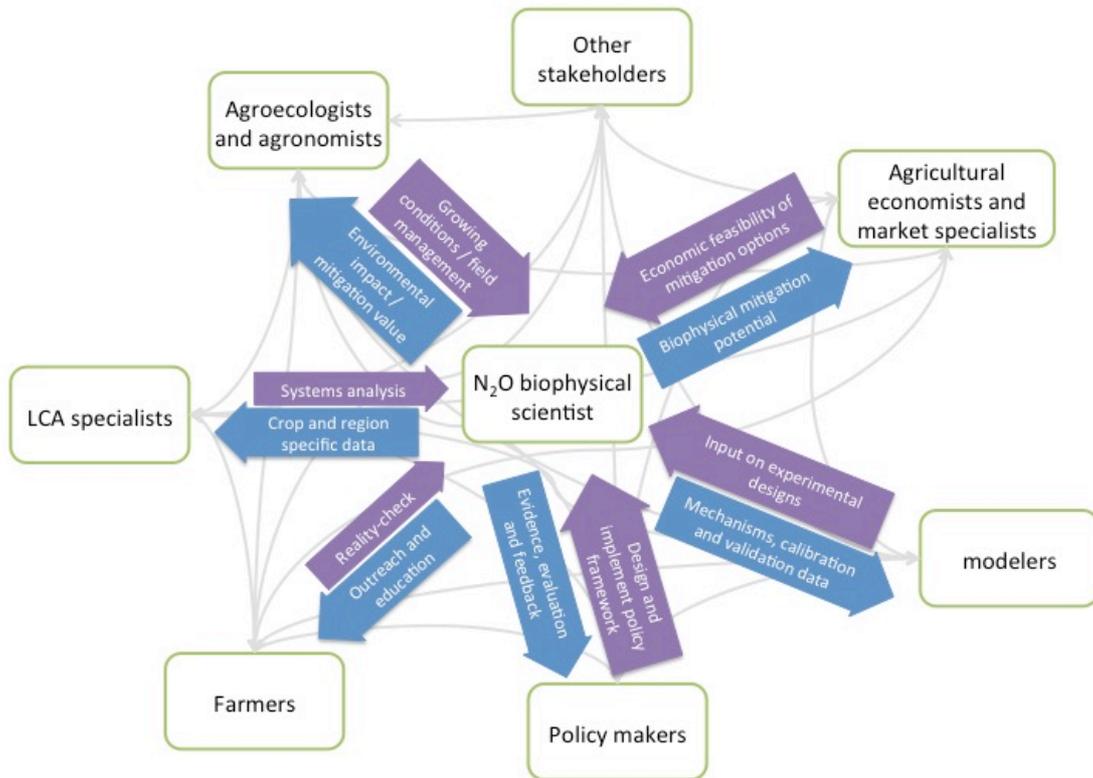
565



566

567

568 Figure 1. Illustration of interactions between major themes relevant for N₂O
569 mitigation from patching leaks to transformative action. Examples of research tools
570 commonly associated with the different themes are shown in the purple text balloons.
571



572

573

Figure 2. Stakeholder map with examples of knowledge exchange, interactions and opportunities for active collaborations between biophysical scientists in N₂O research and specialists in other disciplines.

574

575

576