

# ***Interactive comment on “Mitigating N<sub>2</sub>O emissions from soil: from patching leaks to transformative action” by C. Decock et al.***

**Anonymous Referee #1**

Received and published: 7 October 2015

*Authors general comment:* Thank you for your positive and constructive feedback. We propose below in more detail how we would like to address the comments and improve the manuscript.

*Referee comment 1:* The discussion Decock and colleagues is a well written piece of thought provoking challenges, issues and the need of interdisciplinary science for N<sub>2</sub>O emissions reduction. This is of very high importance and clearly will be a great challenge for soil scientist involved in N<sub>2</sub>O emissions research. The need to balance emission reductions with food and energy security is one of the main challenges facing researches and policy makers. The discussion article provides an interesting view point and what is required to achieve that from the respective research themes.

However, I do feel that the discussion lacks a section on bringing these research themes together and how this could be achieved. How will the mix of sciences help a sustainable reduction in N<sub>2</sub>O emissions, fundamentally how will mitigation be achieved in this way. The authors cover all aspects independently in the various sections but it would be good to have a final synthesis of mitigation approach and what are realistic targets that could be achieved with this interdisciplinary approach, and where those targets would be the greatest.

*Authors response 1:* Thank you for this insight. When writing the manuscript, we had thought that between the specific examples in each of the sections and the figures conceptualizing the relationships between the sections, the message would be clear. But, we agree with your comment that we leave the reader a bit hanging at the end, with no concrete suggestions on how interdisciplinary research could be done, and acknowledgement of what common barriers are. We suggest to include a short section referring back to figure 1 and 2, and highlighting some of the literature on interdisciplinary research, its barriers, and opportunities, applied to the context of N<sub>2</sub>O emission reductions.

The suggestion to list realistic targets is of great interest, but beyond the scope of the current manuscript. We cite some literature, exploring realistic targets from a biophysical point of view (e.g., Snyder *et al.* 2014; Stehfest *et al.* 2009). However, uncertainty ranges on such targets remain large. Furthermore, to properly refine such targets and set realistic goals in a complex socio-environmental system, we are convinced that a thorough transdisciplinary research project would be required, with researchers representing different disciplines as highlighted in our manuscript, as well as stakeholders from public and private sectors.

Specific comments:

*Referee comment 2:* P906 L15. Field measurements of N<sub>2</sub>O fluxes are common and carried out in all sorts of environments, different systems, crops, at different scales. The authors mention that more are needed, but I'm wondering how much more is needed here? In theory there will always be a corner in the world somewhere, where an eddy covariance tower, a flux chamber has not been installed. To understand N<sub>2</sub>O emissions will every crop, every agricultural system in every geographical location need to be monitored in order to fully understand N<sub>2</sub>O emissions? Is the existing dataset that is out there in published work, dating back decades underused to aid the modelling aspect. I see a never ending “requirement” for more field emissions monitoring. Surely that is not sustainable from a research perspective, and how much more science will we gain by just monitoring one more agricultural system? Are new technologies a better target for investment, eg remote sensing, rather than more flux chambers?

*Authors response 2:* We fully agree that a random, never-ending stream of N<sub>2</sub>O monitoring projects will not help with reaching actual N<sub>2</sub>O emission reduction targets. This is exactly why we do not directly state that more N<sub>2</sub>O monitoring projects are required, but rather that close collaboration with modelers, policy makers, etc. is essential to identify where efforts for experimental biophysical research, both in terms of monitoring and elucidating mechanisms, should be focused (e.g., p 906 lines 15-18, p 907 lines 24-26). In this way, a strategic allocation of investments in measurements could be achieved. At the same time, we highlight the importance of certain cropping systems and geographic regions for food and nutrition security and provisioning of fuel and energy (e.g. developing countries, bio-energy crops), which have been underrepresented in current efforts to monitor and quantify N<sub>2</sub>O emissions under business as usual and alternative land management. In addition, it has only been in

the last decade or so that more intensive measurements of field-scale N<sub>2</sub>O emissions have taken place, targeting N<sub>2</sub>O emissions peaks following agronomic and weather events. Many older studies fail to capture the distinct temporal patterns of N<sub>2</sub>O emissions, therefore under- or overestimating actual emissions. When using established datasets for modeling efforts, data quality needs to be assured. In summary, we do feel there is still a need and place for new and continued N<sub>2</sub>O monitoring projects, but this should only follow careful consideration on where efforts are essential for devising comprehensive N<sub>2</sub>O emission reduction strategies.

*Referee comment 3:* p907 111. Jointly design experiments. How would that work realistically? Think this is a difficult challenge. And should be further explored. I do believe this is the right way to go, but are the research funders/institutions/ providing the foundations for that kind of approach.

*Authors response 3:* We very much appreciate the reviewer's comment that fostering inter- and transdisciplinary research is not self-evident, and acknowledge that the difficulties and challenges associated with conducting this type of research are underrepresented in the current version of the manuscript. As mentioned in the response to comment 1, we propose to include a section on opportunities and challenges associated with trans- and interdisciplinary research as it relates to the general topic of our manuscript. This includes reference to the academic reward systems, required time allocation for coordination and facilitation of interdisciplinary projects, institutional barriers, and opportunities through adjusted funding schemes, competence centers, etc.

*Referee comment 4:* p909 L25. The word chosen here are clever regarding developing countries being "resource limited". But fundamentally or part of that limitation is lack of N fertilizers. Using "N fertilizer" is not an attractive word for this discussion as its aim is to use less and increase N use efficiency. But many parts of the world are in lack of synthetic fertilisers (mainly for economic reasons). but fixing this issue would enhance food production in areas that need it most. I think this need mentioning, despite that overall "we" wish to reduce N fertilizer use. Think for developed countries this rule applies, but for developing countries it is only fair that N fertiliser should be more readily accessible at either subsidised costs. Although only short term-mid term solution but nonetheless a solution (or part of) food security and alleviating mal nourishment.

*Authors response 4:* We fully support the view that in many developing countries, addressing food security will involve increasing N input rates to fulfill crop requirements. We by no means intended to camouflage this observation, and propose to edit the text to be more explicit about the need for modern inputs, including sufficient synthetic and/or high quality organic fertilizer inputs, high quality seed, access to crop protection measures, etc. The point we wanted to make is that current estimates on increases in N<sub>2</sub>O emissions following such intensification are based on IPCC emission factors, while the actual impact of improved cropping systems in developing countries on N<sub>2</sub>O emissions is just starting to be addressed, and may be smaller than expected. Furthermore, food security is often used as an excuse for pushing boundaries in cropping systems in industrialized countries, while the real need (socio-economic) and opportunity (biophysical) for intensification is clearly in developing countries, where both the yield gap as well as the projected population increases are the greatest.

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- Stehfest, E., Bouwman, L., van Vuuren, D. P., den Elzen, M. G., Eickhout, B., and Kabat, P.: Climate benefits of changing diet, *Climatic change*, 95, 83-102, 2009.

# ***Interactive comment on “Mitigating N<sub>2</sub>O emissions from soil: from patching leaks to transformative action” by C. Decock et al.***

**Anonymous Referee #2**

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*Reviewer comment:* This is a very interesting article which takes a wide-ranging look at the reduction of N<sub>2</sub>O emissions. It is really nice to see such an interdisciplinary approach taken. I agree with many of the issues and concerns raised and have very few comments on this well written and structured manuscript. One addition that I think would be useful is the inclusion of a table with published values for N emissions from different conditions. Although there are many knowledge gaps there is also a considerable literature already published and such a table would help to illustrate and support many of the points raised in the manuscript.

*Authors response:* Thank you for the kind words of appreciation of our work. We carefully considered the suggestion to include a table on published values of N<sub>2</sub>O emissions, but decided this is beyond the scope of our current discussion. We would like to refer the reviewer to recent review papers and reports, as cited in our manuscript (UNEP, 2013; Bouwman, 1996; Decock, 2014; Davidson et al., 2014; Stehfest and Bouwman, 2006; Snyder et al., 2014), and recognize that there are many more synthesis efforts on N<sub>2</sub>O emission data that we did not explicitly cite. The main take-home message of our work is the need for interdisciplinary research to achieve real N<sub>2</sub>O emission reduction targets, rather than putting concrete numbers on what's there and what's possible.

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

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# 1 Mitigating N<sub>2</sub>O emissions from soil: 2 From patching leaks to transformative action

3

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8

## 9 **Abstract**

10 Further progress in understanding and mitigating N<sub>2</sub>O 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 (N<sub>2</sub>O), 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 N<sub>2</sub>O 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 N<sub>2</sub>O concentrations between  
22 340 and 350 ppb by 2050, reducing emissions by 22% relative to 2005 (i.e., 5.3 Tg  
23 N<sub>2</sub>O-N yr<sup>-1</sup>) will be necessary (UNEP, 2013). Meanwhile, N<sub>2</sub>O 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 N<sub>2</sub>O 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 N<sub>2</sub>O 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 N<sub>2</sub>O 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 N<sub>2</sub>O emissions to illustrate and discuss how soil scientists can collaborate  
38 with experts from other disciplines, to reduce the uncertainty around N<sub>2</sub>O 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 N<sub>2</sub>O  
42 emissions, (2) assessing effects of crop and region-specific management on N<sub>2</sub>O  
43 emissions, (3) assessing effects of systemic or land-use change on N<sub>2</sub>O emissions, and  
44 (4) assessing synergies and trade-offs between N<sub>2</sub>O 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 N<sub>2</sub>O 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 N<sub>2</sub>O 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 N<sub>2</sub>O 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 N<sub>2</sub>O 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 N<sub>2</sub>O 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 N<sub>2</sub>O 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 N<sub>2</sub>O 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 N<sub>2</sub>O  
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 N<sub>2</sub>O  
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 N<sub>2</sub>O 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 N<sub>2</sub>O data collected for continuous  
87 biogeochemical model development, evaluation, and subsequent application of the  
88 model to simulate field-level N<sub>2</sub>O 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 N<sub>2</sub>O 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 N<sub>2</sub>O 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 N<sub>2</sub>O 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 N<sub>2</sub>O 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 N<sub>2</sub>O 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 N<sub>2</sub>O 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 N<sub>2</sub>O emission projections clearly indicate that patching the leaks is  
132 essential, but not sufficient, to stabilize atmospheric N<sub>2</sub>O 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 N<sub>2</sub>O emission target. Various simulation studies have shown that reduced meat and  
136 dairy consumption decreases N<sub>2</sub>O 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 N<sub>2</sub>O 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 N<sub>2</sub>O 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 N<sub>2</sub>O 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 N<sub>2</sub>O 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<sup>-1</sup> between 2009 and 2013, compared to 8 to 10 Mg ha<sup>-1</sup> 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 N<sub>2</sub>O 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 N<sub>2</sub>O 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 N<sub>2</sub>O 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,

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202 nutrition specialists and sociologists. Soil scientists specializing in N<sub>2</sub>O emissions  
203 could help address where and how intensification would have the largest impact on  
204 food and nutrition security with minimal environmental impact, by seeking out  
205 experiments in currently underrepresented geographic locations and cropping  
206 systems, e.g. [by investing in climate-smart agricultural projects](#) in developing  
207 countries (Marques de Magalhães and Lunas Lima, 2014;Steenwerth et al., 2014).  
208 By “the stuffed”, we are referring to the overconsumption of calories  
209 worldwide (especially in the form of fats and refined sugars), which has contributed to  
210 a global epidemic of obesity and has been linked to increased risk of non-  
211 communicable diseases such as cardio-vascular diseases, several cancers, and diabetes  
212 (Lustig et al., 2012). The increasing consumption of these foods at unhealthy levels  
213 has become an undeniable public health issue, and has boosted many debates on  
214 policies such as sugar and fat taxes, diet education, and prevention campaigns to  
215 address the problem (Malik et al., 2013). Meanwhile, many of the sugar and oil crops  
216 are also on the table for bio-energy production. Yet, the net greenhouse gas benefit of  
217 biofuels remains controversial and tends to strongly depend on the feedstock used  
218 (Del Grosso et al., 2014) and regional adoption potentials (Yi et al., 2014). One of the  
219 largest uncertainties in life cycle analysis (LCA) of biofuels relates to direct and  
220 indirect N<sub>2</sub>O emissions from soil (Benoist et al., 2012). Due to the lack of original  
221 data, many LCAs default to IPCC emission factors to estimate N<sub>2</sub>O emissions from  
222 soil, and therefore fail to account for land-use, geographical, and management effects  
223 on N<sub>2</sub>O emissions. For example, there is evidence that N<sub>2</sub>O emissions from sugar  
224 cane cultivation might be larger than expected based on IPCC emission factors, which  
225 could change the picture on the greenhouse gas balance of sugarcane based biofuels  
226 (Lisboa et al., 2011). Meanwhile, there are great hopes that second-generation  
227 biofuels (e.g. conversion of lignocellulose rather than sugars) will help meet  
228 bioenergy targets. Feedstock production is expected to be less intensive and cause  
229 lower N<sub>2</sub>O emissions from soil compared to first-generation biofuels (Bessou et al.,  
230 2011;Don et al., 2012). From a global perspective, sugar cane, sugar beet, maize,  
231 soybeans, rapeseed and palm oil accounted for over 20% of the harvested crop area  
232 and over 30% of the total crop production in the period 2009-2013 (FAOSTAT,  
233 2015). Up to 20% of the harvested biomass is used for bio-energy production (FAO,  
234 2013a). This fraction is expected to increase as various countries mandate an  
235 increasing share of bioenergy in the total energy consumption (Alexandratos and

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238 Bruinsma, 2012). Clearly, interrelated trends in public health, energy and  
239 environmental policies could have a significant effect on the cultivated acreage of oil  
240 and sugar crops, the emergence of second-generation bioenergy crops, and the  
241 associated changes in N<sub>2</sub>O emissions.

242         Feed, oil, sugar and bioenergy crops form an important share of the significant  
243 contribution of crop production to N<sub>2</sub>O emissions. Soil scientists should take up  
244 responsibility in debates on the impact of forthcoming policies that directly or  
245 indirectly affect the cultivated acreage of these crops, backed by robust crop, region  
246 and management specific N<sub>2</sub>O emission measurements. The examples above clearly  
247 illustrate the need to assess public interest and socio-economic feasibility in  
248 combination with biophysical effectiveness, in order to guide land-use decisions. This  
249 requires multi-directional collaborations between biophysical scientists and actors  
250 engaged in policy making, socio-economic assessments and livelihood enhancement  
251 of farmers. Furthermore, the highlighted land-use changes are heavily dependent on  
252 behavioural change of multiple actors, including producers and consumers. It is not  
253 clear how and at what rate such behavioural changes can take place. Step-wise policy  
254 implementation may be necessary, and a lag time in effectiveness can be expected.  
255 Dynamic modelling that takes into account transition phases can help achieve a more  
256 realistic map of projected changes in N<sub>2</sub>O emissions.

257

#### 258 **4 Complex synergies and trade-offs challenge the path to** 259 **sustainability**

260         Sustainable management of agricultural systems evidently does not end at  
261 optimizing productivity and minimizing N<sub>2</sub>O emissions. It includes, and is not limited  
262 to, improving the recycling of essential nutrients at the scale of management or  
263 policy-making, especially of those nutrients that come from finite reserves such as  
264 phosphorus; protecting of ground and surface waters from eutrophication and other  
265 toxicity induced by agrochemicals and fertilizers; restoring and conserving of  
266 biodiversity, including the safeguarding of pollination services and persistence of  
267 natural enemies for agricultural pests and disease control; preventing air pollution  
268 from agriculture by reducing indirect emissions of NO<sub>x</sub>, NH<sub>3</sub>, and dust particles;  
269 preventing unsustainable withdrawals of water for irrigation; protecting soil from  
270 depletion and degradation; and increasing the resilience of agricultural production

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

296 Mitigating N<sub>2</sub>O emissions is a complex issue embedded in the even more  
297 complex maze of improving the sustainability of agriculture and food systems.  
298 Therefore, finding the right denominator for assessing N<sub>2</sub>O emissions is a challenging  
299 task. Yield-scaled emissions are practical for assessing the eco-efficiency of a  
300 particular field, but are problematic when it comes to absolute emission reductions at  
301 a global scale (Van Groenigen et al., 2010;Murray and Baker, 2011). Furthermore,  
302 yield-scaled emissions cannot accommodate impacts of systemic change and  
303 comparisons of land-use scenarios in which crops with very different nutritional,  
304 societal, and economic values are grown. Prior to the start of new experiments, soil

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

309

## 310 **5 Inter- and transdisciplinary research: buzzword versus reality**

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

335

336

337

## 338 **6 Concluding remarks**

339 Tremendous progress has been made during the last decennia with respect to  
340 the scientific understanding of N<sub>2</sub>O emissions from soils: Various pathways and  
341 mechanisms have been elucidated (Butterbach-Bahl et al., 2013); molecular and  
342 isotopic tools to assess mechanisms have been advanced (Baggs, 2008; Baggs,  
343 2011; Decock and Six, 2013); we have a general idea of temporal and spatial patterns  
344 of N<sub>2</sub>O emissions (Groffman et al., 2009); micrometeorological methods are available  
345 to monitor spatially integrated N<sub>2</sub>O emissions at high temporal resolution (Eugster  
346 and Merbold, 2015); various data sources have been synthesized in qualitative and  
347 quantitative reviews (Bouwman, 1996; Decock, 2014); and biogeochemical models  
348 have been developed and improved to predict N<sub>2</sub>O emissions under various scenarios  
349 (Chen et al., 2008). These efforts have paved the way to identify the major causes of  
350 soil-derived N<sub>2</sub>O and to isolate the strategies that have the greatest potential for  
351 reducing global N<sub>2</sub>O emissions (e.g. increasing N efficiency in cropping systems and  
352 reducing meat and dairy consumption in developed countries) (Snyder et al.,  
353 2014; UNEP, 2013; Oenema et al., 2014). The time is ripe to reach across disciplines,  
354 not only to fine-tune crop and region-specific agronomic management strategies for  
355 instant mitigation action, but also to better integrate the issue of N<sub>2</sub>O emissions in  
356 overarching debates on agricultural change. This will help steer transformative action  
357 for improving the social, economic and environmental sustainability of agricultural  
358 and food systems for many generations to come.

359

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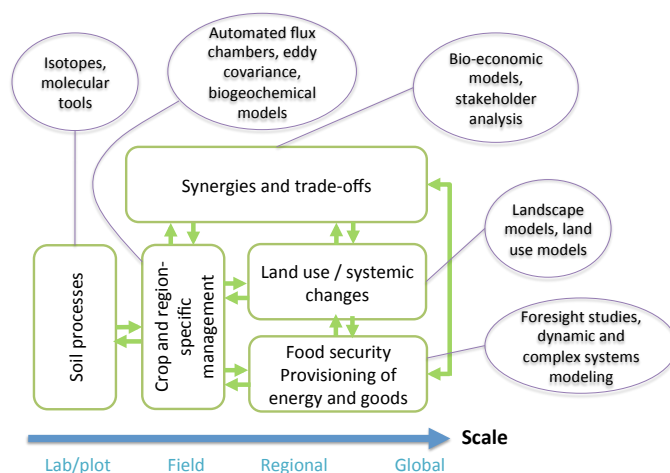
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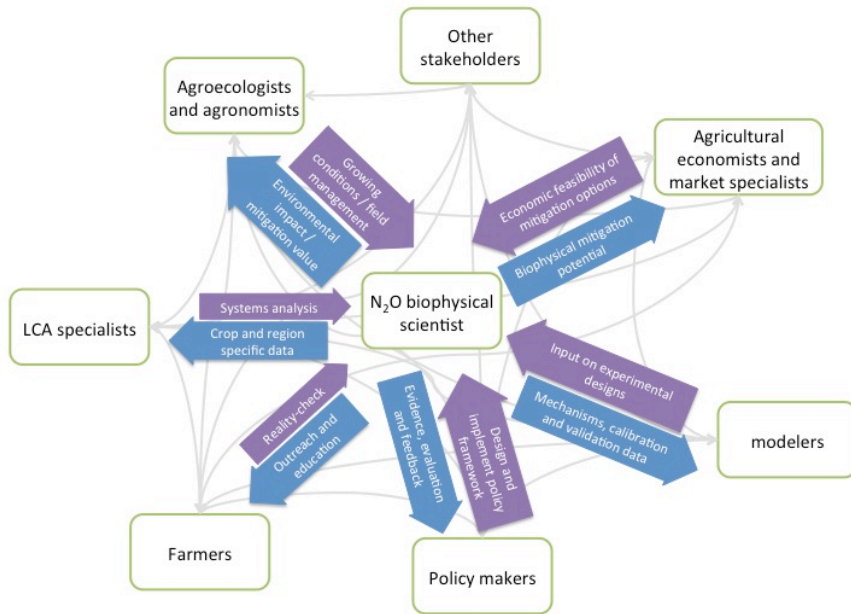
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 586 Figure 1. Illustration of interactions between major themes relevant for N<sub>2</sub>O  
 587 mitigation from patching leaks to transformative action. Examples of research tools  
 588 commonly associated with the different themes are shown in the purple text balloons.  
 589



590

591 | Figure 2. Stakeholder map with examples of knowledge exchange, interactions and  
 592 opportunities for active collaborations between biophysical scientists in N<sub>2</sub>O research  
 593 and specialists in other disciplines.

Charlotte Decock 8/11/2015 23:01

Deleted: Examples