



1 **Facing policy challenges with inter- and transdisciplinary soil research focused**  
2 **on the SDG's.**

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7 **Abstract**

8 Our current information society, populated by increasingly well informed and critical  
9 stakeholders, presents a challenge to both the policy and science arena's. The  
10 introduction of the UN Sustainable Development Goals offers a unique and welcome  
11 opportunity to direct joint activities towards these goals. Soil science, even though it  
12 is not mentioned as such, plays an important role in realizing a number of SDG's  
13 focusing on food, water, climate, health, biodiversity and sustainable land use. A plea  
14 is made for a systems approach to land use studies, to be initiated by soil scientists,  
15 in which these land-related SDG's are considered in an integrated manner. To  
16 connect with policy makers and stakeholders two approaches are functional,  
17 following: (i) the policy cycle when planning and executing research, which includes  
18 *signaling, design, decision, implementation and evaluation*. Many current research  
19 projects spend little time on *signaling* which may lead to disengagement of  
20 stakeholders. Also, *implementation* is often seen as the responsibility of others while  
21 it is crucial to demonstrate – if successful- the relevance of soil science and (ii) the  
22 DPSIR approach when following the policy cycle in land-related research,  
23 distinguishing external *drivers, pressures, impacts and responses* to land-use change  
24 that affect the *state* of the land in past, present and future. Soil science cannot by  
25 itself realize SDG's and interdisciplinary studies on Ecosystem Services (ES) provide  
26 an appropriate channel to define contributions of soil science in terms of the seven  
27 soil functions. ES, in turn, can contribute to addressing the six SDG's ( 2,3,6,12, 13  
28 and 15) with an environmental, land-related character. SDG's have a societal focus  
29 and future soil science research can only be successful if stakeholders are part of the  
30 research effort in transdisciplinary projects, based on the principle of time-consuming  
31 "joint-learning". The internal organization of the soil science discipline is not yet well-  
32 tuned to the needs of inter- and transdisciplinary approaches.



### 33 **List of abbreviations**

34	CAP	Common Agricultural Policy
35	CBD	Convention on Biological Diversity
36	DPSIR	Drivers, Pressures, State, Impact, Response related to land use change
37	EC	European Commission
38	ES	Ecosystem Services
39	EU	European Union
40	GSP	Global Soil Partnership
41	IPBES	Intergovernmental Platform for Biodiversity and Ecosystem Services
42	IPCC	Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change
43	ITPS	Intergovernmental Technical Panel on Soils
44	MEA	Multilateral Environmental Agreements.
45	SDG	Sustainable Development Goal
46	UNFCCC	UN Framework Convention on Climate Change
47	UNFCCC	UN Framework Convention on Climate Change

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### 54 **Introduction**

55 This paper will discuss the relationships between policy and sustainability research  
 56 focusing on soil science, realizing that societies have been subject to major changes  
 57 in the recent past. Fifteen years ago, the internet had hardly established itself. Now,  
 58 billions of people have computers and mobile phones and unlimited access to an  
 59 overwhelming quantity of information via the World Wide Web. Scientists are not the



60 only source of information anymore as they were in the not too distant past, at least in  
61 their own perception. Rather than deliver information by communicating results of  
62 their research they are now increasingly faced with the challenge to judge information  
63 provided by the Web and channel it to interested stakeholders. Also, stakeholders  
64 become more knowledgeable and critical. A recent analysis showed that more than  
65 50% of young Dutch farmers has a BSc or MSc degree. After all, many of them are  
66 our own students!

67 These societal changes not only had a major impact on the policy arena, where  
68 citizens become more active outside the traditional political party systems, but also on  
69 the relation between science and society. Rather than be just recipients of  
70 information, citizens are increasingly partners in joint learning processes. This not only  
71 applies to so-called developed countries but increasingly to developing countries as  
72 well where mobile phones are the primary source of an information revolution. It  
73 appears that the soil science community, like other disciplines, is struggling to catch  
74 up with these modern developments as many traditional procedures in this  
75 profession, established in the 19th century, appear to be rather strongly entrenched.

76 The effects of societal changes on policy and science will be discussed with the  
77 objective to explore future possibilities for creative and productive interactions  
78 between the policy and scientific arenas, with particular attention for the role of soil  
79 science research when presenting effective contributions towards the achievement of  
80 sustainable development goals.

# 81 **The policy arena: science meeting society.**

82 A policy is a statement of intent and a deliberate system of principles to guide  
83 decisions and achieve rational outcomes after implementation. The policy cycle  
84 consists of a number of phases (e.g. Althaus et al, 2007, Bouma et al, 2007): (i) the  
85 *signaling* phase in which problems are identified, based on a characterization of  
86 current conditions; (ii) the *design* phase in which options for possible corrective action  
87 are defined based on research using existing and newly acquired information; (iii) the  
88 *decision* phase in which a selection is made by policy makers of options being  
89 presented. Here, negotiation processes play an important role; (iv) the *implementation*  
90 phase in which the selected option is being realized, and (v) the *evaluation* phase in  
91 which the entire process is analysed in terms of a learning procedure, applied to all  
92 participants. This may have to include monitoring procedures to document



93 achievements. To be effective, all phases of the policy cycle require some form of  
94 interaction between stakeholders involved, governmental agencies, policy makers and  
95 scientists. A good example is certainly the US Soil Conservation Act of 1935,  
96 responding to the severe soil degradation processes leading to the well-known “Dust  
97 Bowl” syndrome that caused serious economic and social problems in that historical  
98 period of the United States. But soil related policies have only rarely completed the full  
99 policy cycle as described above. In Europe the attempt to reach the implementation  
100 phase of the proposed EU Soil Framework Directive was ultimately stopped by the  
101 lack of political will of some EU Member States to go beyond the negotiation and  
102 decision phase.

103 Policies can be pro-active and reactive, but the latter usually applies. An example is  
104 the Nitrate Directive (ND) (EC, 1991) that was initiated because of very high nitrate  
105 concentrations in groundwater in many European countries, following excessive  
106 fertilization practices in agriculture. A water quality threshold of 50 mg nitrates/litre  
107 had already been established in literature. It would have been most logical to require  
108 measurements of nitrate concentrations in groundwater at different locations, to  
109 compare these values with the threshold and next conclude whether or not quality  
110 was adequate. However, measurements of nitrate concentrations in water were  
111 cumbersome at the time, costly and time consuming and data were hardly available.  
112 As any policy measure needs to be organized in such a way that operational  
113 procedures can ensue, an alternative “proxy” was selected in terms of a maximum  
114 fertilization rate of organic manure corresponding with 170 kg N/ha (e.g. Bouma,  
115 2011). This corresponds with the manure production of approx. 1.7 animals/ha which  
116 can be easily controlled by regulators because the number of animals and ha’s are  
117 known for each farm. Groundwater quality in the late 1980’s was considered to be  
118 quite poor in many areas and measures had therefore to be taken quickly: the  
119 *signaling, design, decision* and *implementation* phases of the policy cycle followed  
120 very rapidly. The 170 kg N/ha was not based on research, relating different  
121 application rates of fertilizers to nitrate enrichment of groundwater as a function of  
122 weather and soil conditions but was essentially empirical in nature. Science played a  
123 role only as problem recognizer, documenting high nitrate contents of groundwater.  
124 After 25 years, this policy has been quite successful in the Netherlands. Average  
125 nitrate contents in groundwater in sandy soils were 190 mg/l in 1991 which was way



126 above the critical threshold. After introduction of the ND in 1991, contents have  
 127 gradually decreased and in 2012 the average content corresponded with the  
 128 threshold. However, contents in sandy soils were lower than the threshold in the  
 129 Northern part of the country and are still higher in the southern part. Nitrate contents  
 130 in clay soils were still 80 mg/l in 1998 but decreased to 20 mg/l in 2012, while  
 131 contents in peat soils were always lower than the threshold. Loess soils in the  
 132 southern tip of the country had higher contents than 50 mg/l in 2012 but these soils  
 133 only occupy a small area and their very deep watertables create quite different  
 134 conditions ([www.rivm.landelijk\\_meetnet\\_effecten\\_mestbeleid](http://www.rivm.landelijk_meetnet_effecten_mestbeleid)). Other problem areas,  
 135 such as the quality of surface waters and nature areas, are discussed elsewhere (  
 136 Bouma, 2016). Possibly due to the apparent success of the ND, there has not yet  
 137 been attention for an in-depth *evaluation* phase of the policy cycle and this will be  
 138 discussed later in more detail.

139 Restricting attention to the ND, should the role of science be different in future, and, if  
 140 so, why?

#### 141 **The changing roles of science and policy in the information society.**

142 The internet was only present in rudimentary form in 1991. Now, everybody is  
 143 connected to the internet by computer or mobile phone and this is also true for many  
 144 developing countries. The world-wide-web creates an enormous flow of information  
 145 and scientists are increasingly engaged in interpreting and screening information that  
 146 reaches and often confuses users, stakeholders and policy makers alike. At the same  
 147 time well educated users ask ever more pertinent and critical questions. The roles of  
 148 the various participants in the societal debate that seemed rather well defined even  
 149 thirty years ago, have fundamentally changed. Authority is gained by the quality of  
 150 what is presented, not by the position of the presenters. Some see contributions of  
 151 science as: "just another opinion" and feel that science has to regain its: 'license to  
 152 operate'. How to deal with this? And how do these effects influence policy makers?

153 Confronted with citizens of the Knowledge Democracy (In't Veld, 2011) and battered  
 154 by social media that react instantly to policy measures, and preferably to policy  
 155 failures, policy makers and regulators become highly risk averse, avoiding controversy  
 156 if at all possible. This does not invite introduction of innovative measures nor definition  
 157 of clear goals for future action which may be controversial. Also, there is a tendency in  
 158 many western countries to decentralize decision making providing more



responsibilities to regional, provincial or communal entities. Scientists not only face therefore more knowledgeable and critical stakeholders but also a more diverse group of policy makers. How to deal with this and how to turn these new conditions into an advantage by disruptive thinking, focusing on innovation? (e.g. Loorbach and Rotmans, 2010; Schot and Geels, 2008). A successful example of close linking of the scientific advice and the policy making process is certainly the climate change policy arena. Here the main driver has been the well recognized role of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) in providing high level policy relevant scientific advice through highly reliable assessments. This role of IPCC has gained the members the well deserved Nobel Prize in 2007. The strength of IPCC is that, while being an intergovernmental body nominated by governments, it retains a very high scientific credibility also within the scientific community. This allows IPCC to deliver assessments that are fully endorsed by the related scientific community and fully accepted by the policy making community as well. Such a crucial role of acting as a science-policy interface has been identified as urgently needed also for other multilateral environmental agreements (MEA's), like CBD (Convention on Biological Diversity) and UNCCD (Convention to Combat Desertification in Africa). The recently established Intergovernmental Platform for Biodiversity and Ecosystem Services (IPBES) has indeed the ambition to serve like IPCC as the science policy interface for CBD and also for other related MEAs. The need for such a science-policy interface also for soils was well recognized in 2011 during the negotiations for the establishment of the Global Soil Partnership (GSP). Indeed within the GSP the Intergovernmental Technical Panel on Soils (ITPS) has been established and is already operating since three years. Its first assessment will be the Status of World's Soil Resources report, released at the closing ceremony of the UN International Year of Soils 2015.

#### **Signaling as a crucial element of the policy cycle focusing on the SDG's.**

Despite all societal changes that soil scientists are confronted with, the policy cycle still applies. *Signaling* requires definition of goals and an assessment as to whether current conditions allow goals to be reached when proper measures are taken or when this will not be possible defining drastic change. The recent 17 UN Sustainable Development Goals (Table 1) (<http://sustainabledevelopment.un.org/focussdgs.html>) provide a valuable point of reference for the policy cycle and for *signaling* in particular. Soils are



192 not an SDG goal by themselves but they have a strong relation with health ( SDG 3),  
193 water (SDG 6),climate (SDG 13) ,biodiversity (SDG 15) and sustainable development  
194 (Several SDG's, for soil science particularly SDG 15 which mentions land  
195 degradation).All these goals cannot be reached by just studying soils but require  
196 interdisciplinary approaches, including contributions by soil science that often have a  
197 significant effect on results.For example,Bonfante and Bouma (2015) used soil maps  
198 and simulation modeling to assess the spatial effects of irrigation practices on the  
199 growth of eleven maize hybrids,considering effects of climate change.Results allowed  
200 more efficient targeting of water allocation and choice of hybrids for different soil  
201 conditions.This was new and surprising for the hydraulic engineers and plant  
202 breeders involved who had a rather traditional and static image of the soil science  
203 profession.The example shows the advantage of reaching out to other professions.  
204 More examples are available and they should be communicated more clearly,  
205 demonstrating interdisciplinarity in practice.

206 SDGs are globally applicable and will have to be implemented during the next years  
207 by all National governments.Of crucial importance will be the way in which progress  
208 towards achieving each goal will be measured.The adoption of an agreed set of  
209 indicators becomes therefore of fundamental relevance for the implementation and  
210 evaluation phase of the SDGs.Introducing soil related indicators for the SDGs that  
211 explicitly mention soil as a component would be desirable, but will face the well  
212 known lack of basic soil data and adequate soil monitoring systems in many Nations  
213 of the world.A more realistic approach will be to use proxy indicators adresssing the  
214 goals in a more holistic and integrated manner.

215 In general, the ecosystem services (ES) concept is suitable to express this  
216 interdisciplinary effort because disciplines by themselves cannot define ES. (Table 2)  
217 (De Groot et al, 2002, Dominati et al, 2014).The next step is to define the role of soils  
218 in contributing to the provision of ES and then the seven soil functions of the EC (  
219 EC, 2006) can be considered (Table 3).For example, SDG 2:"*End hunger, improve  
220 nutrition and promote sustainable agriculture*" relates to the provisioning ES 1,  
221 relating to food. But sustainable development also requires regulating ES 5, 6,7 and  
222 8.Soil functions 2,3 and 6 define the contributions that soil science can make to these  
223 more general ecosystem services, which, again, not only require an inter- but also a  
224 transdisciplinary approach.Bouma et al ( 2015) presented six transdisciplinary case



225 studies, identifying relevant SDG's, ES and soil functions as an example of framing  
 226 based on studies that were made and published in the past with a traditional scientific  
 227 focus. They also concluded that in three of the studies existing knowledge was  
 228 adequate to solve the problem being studied. In the remaining studies new research  
 229 was needed and defined based on observed gaps in existing knowledge. To avoid  
 230 confusion, it is important to refer to general ecosystem services and to soil  
 231 contributions towards those services to be articulated by the soil functions. Terms like  
 232 soil services or soil ecosystem services should be avoided.

### 233 **The DPSIR system**

234 When studying SDG's, ES and the application of soil functions in the context of the  
 235 policy cycle, the DPSIR system, (Van Camp et al, 2004, Bouma et al, 2008) is helpful  
 236 to analyse processes involved ( Figure 1). Here, S represents the state of the land; D  
 237 represents drivers of land use change, P are the resulting pressures on the land, I is  
 238 the impact, and R, finally, indicates a response in terms of development of strategies  
 239 and operational procedures for the mitigation of perceived threats. The flowchart in  
 240 Figure 1 shows the past, present, and future state S of the land. Drivers and  
 241 pressures in the past have led to impacts and, most likely, certain responses. This all  
 242 results in a present state S which is not only determined by soil factors but can be  
 243 defined by the ecosystem services it can provide by mobilizing relevant soil functions.  
 244 This dynamic characterization of the state S is preferred over a static one applying,  
 245 for instance, a set of soil characteristics as has been the traditional approach in land  
 246 evaluation (e.g. Bouma et al, 2012).

247 Of particular interest, of course, are future developments that are considered in terms  
 248 of different scenarios, each one associated with characteristic drivers, pressures and  
 249 impacts. Different scenarios represent different visions on sustainability and have, of  
 250 course, only an exploratory character. In the past scientists of different disciplines  
 251 acted rather independently when assessing the various components of the DPSIR  
 252 system and when defining scenarios, but today soil scientists would be well advised to  
 253 interact and engage colleagues in other sciences, stakeholders and policy makers  
 254 during the evaluation period to make sure that all options are considered and that  
 255 their input is taken into account. This requires a truly transdisciplinary process (e.g.  
 256 Thomson-Klein et al, 2001). The combined scenarios, presenting a series of  
 257 alternative options, are presented to the policy arena. Selection has to be made by





258 politicians and citizens, **not by scientists**. This is a crucial point because scientists  
 259 should maintain their independence and should not be seen as partners in the policy  
 260 arena or of certain business interests. Often risk averse politicians are more than  
 261 willing to escape their responsibilities and hide behind scientists, which can be  
 262 damaging to the scientific reputation. The described scenario approach, defining a  
 263 series of states S with all its attributes is therefore more appropriate than presenting  
 264 only one, “ideal” option as defined, for example, by a group of scientists. When  
 265 considering sustainable development, environmental, social, and economic  
 266 considerations and approaches have to be mutually balanced to achieve some type  
 267 of compromise that is acceptable to a wide range of stakeholders (be it grudgingly  
 268 because their demands can only be partly met in the ultimate compromise). Usually,  
 269 economic considerations largely determine the outcome of this type of  
 270 interdisciplinary analysis. The scheme in Figure 1 suggests an approach where  
 271 environmental and social aspects, expressed by DPIR, are considered first and  
 272 economic considerations come later in terms of a cost–benefit analysis for each of  
 273 the Sf scenarios. The recently proposed Soil Security concept (McBratney and Field,  
 274 2015), distinguishing capability, condition, capital, connectivity and codification, fits into  
 275 the DPSIR scheme. The actual condition corresponds with S and also represents  
 276 capital. Capability is represented by the scenario’s in figure 1, connectivity with the  
 277 required inter- and transdisciplinary approach and codification is the domain of  
 278 legislators being fed with relevant information.

279 This analysis indicates that the *signaling* phase of the policy cycle is very important  
 280 because the option being chosen in the end is, ideally, the result of an extensive  
 281 participatory process. If so, *design* can receive well focused attention and *decision and*  
 282 *implementation* can follow rather quickly and harmoniously.

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## 284 **Science versus policy in the real world**

285 As discussed, the introduction of the ND after 1991 did not follow the ideal policy  
 286 cycle. *Signaling, design, decision and implementation* followed quickly because the  
 287 groundwater quality issue was considered to be critical. In retrospect, the soil science  
 288 community was successful in the preceding years documenting the effect of different  
 289 fertilizer practices on groundwater quality but they paid no attention to what an  
 290 enforceable policy to overcome the problem might look like. Policymakers had to act on



291 their own. After 24 years the policy is unchanged, while many questions are being  
 292 raised. The universal application rate of 170 kg N/ha does no justice to different  
 293 processes in different soils and to effects of management. Examples are found where  
 294 much higher application rates result in low nitrate contents in groundwater. In fact, the  
 295 ND becomes a defacto means to restrict intensification of agriculture, which is a  
 296 much broader policy goal (with major societal implications) than groundwater quality.  
 297 Stakeholders are aware of this and even though well educated farmers support  
 298 measures to enhance environmental quality, they resist “policy drift”, when objectives  
 299 secretly change in time. Also, they question what appear to be separate regulations for  
 300 groundwater, surface water, air and nature quality while nutrient regimes are obviously  
 301 related to all of them: nitrogen that moves into groundwater cannot be emitted to the  
 302 air. (e.g. Bouma, 2016). Recent studies for Dutch dairy farms took a systems approach  
 303 by applying a Life Cycle Assessment for the entire farming operation, not only  
 304 covering the emission of nutrients to both air and water but net income and energy  
 305 use as well (Dolman et al, 2014; De Vries et al, 2015). A group of eight farmers  
 306 followed a nutrient cycling approach to reduce fertilizer use and results of their  
 307 farming operations were compared with a control group. The program was highly  
 308 interactive, involving intensive contact with farmers, demonstrating a good example  
 309 of inter- and transdisciplinary research. There was time for *signaling, design and*  
 310 *decisions* by cooperating scientists and farmers, followed by *implementation*. The  
 311 entire procedure took about 20 years. Farmers, following the nutrient cycling  
 312 approach, had lower use of fertilizer and energy, lower emissions and higher net  
 313 incomes and organic matter contents of their soils due to management. But due to the  
 314 high variability among farms, only energy use and organic matter contents were  
 315 significantly different when compared with a control group of eight farms. Rather than  
 316 focus on average values for a group of farmers it would in retrospect have been  
 317 preferable to focus on individual farms because every farm “has a different story to  
 318 tell”.

319 Droogers and Bouma (2012) studied accelerating future water shortages in Asia and  
 320 Africa, requiring development of operational water governance models, as illustrated  
 321 by three case studies: (1) upstream–downstream interactions in the Aral Sea basin,  
 322 where the *signaling* function of science was most prominent; (2) impact and  
 323 adaptation of climate change on water and food supply in the Middle East and North  
 324 Africa, where not only *signaling* was important but also a broad *design* and a timid



325 start of *implementation* and (3) Green Water Credits in Kenya, where the entire policy  
 326 cycle was covered, including the start of *implementation*. (Kauffman et al, 2012).

327

### 328 **From signaling to implementation**

329 Any impression that the sequence of *signaling* all the way to *implementation*  
 330 represents a smooth ,sequential process is,unfortunately, misleadingly simple. A  
 331 major study on sustainable agriculture in the Netherlands showed that interactions  
 332 between researchers, various stakeholders and policy makers were complex and  
 333 repetitive, which can be shown in a diagram visualizing interaction processes. Figure  
 334 2 (from Bouma et al, 2011) illustrates this for case study 1 in Dutch dairy farms, the  
 335 same study as the one mentioned above. *Implementation* could in the end only be  
 336 achieved because the farmers involved,assisted by soil scientists,persisted against  
 337 all odds.Kauffman et al ( 2012) presented comparable diagrams for the Kenya study.

338 The role of scientists in the *implementation* phase is different from the role in the  
 339 *signaling* and *design* phase.In the latter,all opinions are welcome,as described  
 340 above.But when plans and decisions have been made, *implementation* is a clear goal  
 341 and distractions are rather unhelpful.Soil scientists can play an important role here by  
 342 keeping the ultimate goal of the project in focus.It is also in their interest that specific  
 343 results are obtained to document the beneficial effect of their input.Designs on paper  
 344 of what appear to be most thoughtful and inventive projects have no impact and  
 345 create no credit for all involved when they are not realized.

346 There are in Europe already existing soil-related policy instruments that are  
 347 unfortunatly lacking the necessary scientific backup and support from the soil science  
 348 community.The most relevant example is the Common Agricultural Policy (CAP),  
 349 probably one of the most important (at least in monetary terms) policy of the  
 350 European Union.Obviously, there are major implications for soils when this policy is  
 351 fully implemented.The mandatory requirement for good agricultural and ecological  
 352 practices that farmers need to implement in order to access the direct payment  
 353 scheme of the CAP explicitly refers to soil parameters like soil erosion,organic carbon  
 354 and compaction.The correct implementation of such a cross-compliance scheme  
 355 should have a substantial impact on soil conditions across the EU.Unfortunately,  
 356 implementation has been rather weak and monitoring of the results by an



independent scientific community is essentially lacking. Soil scientists have missed an opportunity to play a key role in this process.

Current projects leave little time for scientists to be seriously engaged with both *signaling* and *implementation* and this may have to be changed in future considering the demands but also the challenges and opportunities of the modern information society (e.g. Bouma, 2015).

#### **Soil science linking stakeholders and policy makers in the information society**

Changes in society, as discussed, have a strong impact on both the scientific and policy arena. Both struggle to communicate well with modern stakeholders and to define the role of science in the information age. When dealing with land-related issues in the context of the SDG's, soil scientists are in an excellent position to become effective intermediaries in the stakeholder-policy-science NEXUS for at least two reasons: (i) traditionally soil scientists have worked intensively with stakeholders in the context of soil survey or soil fertility studies, that involved extensive field work. This has decreased as soil surveys were completed and fertility schemes became well established. But traditions can be rejuvenated as a basis for truly transdisciplinary research that can genuinely engage stakeholders and provide broad support for policy measures, and (ii) even though soils are not mentioned in the SDG's, they form a cross-cutting theme in issues that do receive attention: water, climate, biodiversity (e.g. Montanarella and Lobos Alva, 2015). This focus tends to unintentionally enforce the disciplinary nature of the water, climate, and biodiversity disciplines. Soil Science, related to "land" as no other discipline, can, in contrast, play a pioneering role in initiating system studies that integrate the various issues in a systems approach. Examples are the studies of Dolman et al, (2014) and De Vries et al, (2015). This type of study is attractive for stakeholders, like farmers, who have to operate complex production systems and for policy makers focusing on environmental quality, having to integrate separate requirements of water, air and nature.

One final aspect needs to be considered. The ND legislation in 1991 had a "top-down, command-and-control" character which was realistic at the time because groundwater quality was poor in many locations and something had to be done



389 quickly. But after 25 years still the same top-down approach is followed at a time  
 390 when not only environmental conditions have significantly improved, but when also  
 391 the information society has drastically changed relations between policy and  
 392 stakeholders, as discussed. Bouma (2016) therefore argued for a new “bottom-up”  
 393 approach where tailor-made systems are designed for individual farms, including  
 394 indicators that can be used for regulatory purposes. A “one-size-fits-all” approach  
 395 does not satisfy anymore at a time when well educated young farmers and other land  
 396 users have access to many tools and sensors that allow on-site characterization of  
 397 environmental conditions.

## 398 **Conclusions**

399 1. Traditional procedures in both science and policy are increasingly at odds with the  
 400 demands of the information society populated by well informed, critical stakeholders.  
 401 Soil scientists are in an excellent position to link the policy-stakeholder arenas when  
 402 dealing with land-related environmental issues, accepting the SDG's as common  
 403 goals. This will require not only inter- but also transdisciplinary research approaches  
 404 covering the entire policy cycle from *signaling* to *implementation*.

405 2. SDG's with an environmental focus can be approached by defining relevant  
 406 ecosystem services that require an interdisciplinary research approach including a  
 407 disciplinary assessment of the role of soil functions when contributing to these  
 408 ecosystem services.

409 3. Current research programs tend to emphasize the *design* phase of the policy chain.  
 410 More attention is needed for the *signaling* phase, where the DPSIR procedure can be  
 411 effective, as well as in the *design* phase. Attention for *implementation* is needed to  
 412 produce results supporting claims of relevance.

413 4. “Top-down, command-and-control” environmental policy measures, as discussed  
 414 here for the Nitrate Directive should in time be replaced by: “bottom-up, interactive”  
 415 approaches fed by “tailor-made” designs for individual enterprises using inter- and  
 416 transdisciplinary research approaches. Only this approach is in line with the  
 417 requirements of the information society in the 21st century.

418

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545 **LIST OF TABLES**

546 Table 1 The seventeen UN Sustainable Development Goals

547 (<http://sustainabledevelopment.un.org/focussdgs.html>).

548 Goal 1 End poverty in all its forms everywhere

549 Goal 2 End hunger, achieve food security and improved nutrition and promote sustainable agriculture

550 Goal 3 Ensure healthy lives and promote well-being for all at all ages

551 Goal 4 Ensure inclusive and equitable quality education and promote lifelong learning opportunities for  
552 all

553 Goal 5 Achieve gender equality and empower all women and girls



- 554 Goal 6 Ensure availability and sustainable management of water and sanitation for all
- 555 Goal 7 Ensure access to affordable, reliable, sustainable and modern energy for all
- 556 Goal 8 Promote sustained, inclusive and sustainable economic growth, full and productive
- 557 employment and decent work for all
- 558 Goal 9 Build resilient infrastructure, promote inclusive and sustainable industrialization and foster
- 559 innovation
- 560 Goal 10 Reduce inequality within and among countries
- 561 Goal 11 Make cities and human settlements inclusive, safe, resilient and sustainable
- 562 Goal 12 Ensure sustainable consumption and production patterns
- 563 Goal 13 Take urgent action to combat climate change and its impacts
- 564 Goal 14 Conserve and sustainably use the oceans, seas and marine resources for sustainable
- 565 development
- 566 Goal 15 Protect, restore and promote sustainable use of terrestrial ecosystems, sustainably manage
- 567 forests, combat desertification, and halt and reverse land degradation and halt biodiversity loss
- 568 Goal 16 Promote peaceful and inclusive societies for sustainable development, provide access to
- 569 justice for all and build effective, accountable and inclusive institutions at all levels
- 570 Goal 17 Strengthen the means of implementation and revitalize the global partnership for sustainable
- 571 development
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- 577
- 578 Table 2 Ecosystem services (ES) with an important soil component according to
- 579 Dominati et al. (2014).
- 580 **Provisioning services**
- 581 1. Provision of food, wood and fibre.
- 582 2. Provision of raw materials.
- 583 3. Provision of support for human infrastructures and animals.
- 584 **Regulating services**



585	4. Flood mitigation
586	5. Filtering of nutrients and contaminants
587	6. Carbon storage and greenhouse gases regulation
588	7. Detoxification and the recycling of wastes
589	8. Regulation of pests and disease populations
590	<b>Cultural services</b>
591	9. Recreation
592	10. Aesthetics
593	11. Heritage values
594	12. Cultural identity
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607	Table 3. The seven soil functions as defined by EC(2006)
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609	1 Biomass production, including agriculture and forestry
610	2 Storing, filtering and transforming nutrients, substances and water
611	3 Biodiversity pool, such as habitats, species and genes
612	4 Physical and cultural environment for humans and human activities
613	5 Source of raw material



614 6 Acting as carbon pool

615 7 Archive of geological and archaeological heritage

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637 **List of figures**

638 Figure 1

639 Future land use scenario's (Sf)(derived in consultation with stakeholders, policy

640 makers and colleague scientists), from which a choice has to be made in the policy

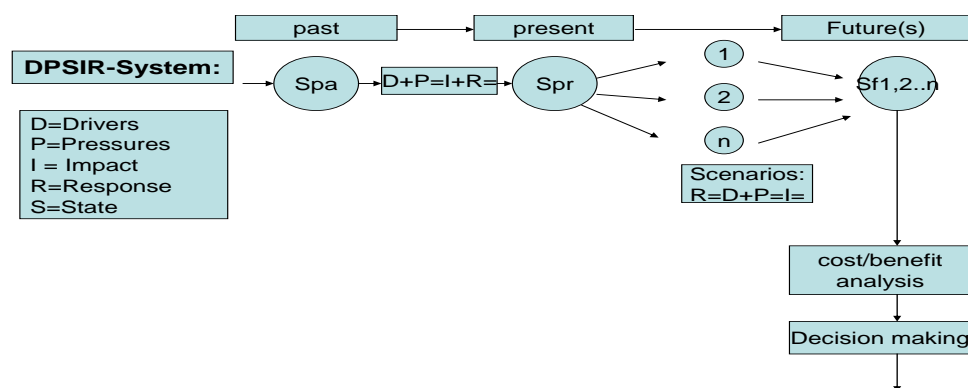


641 arena. Which one represents sustainable development best? (S=status of the land  
 642 defined in terms of the seven soil functions)

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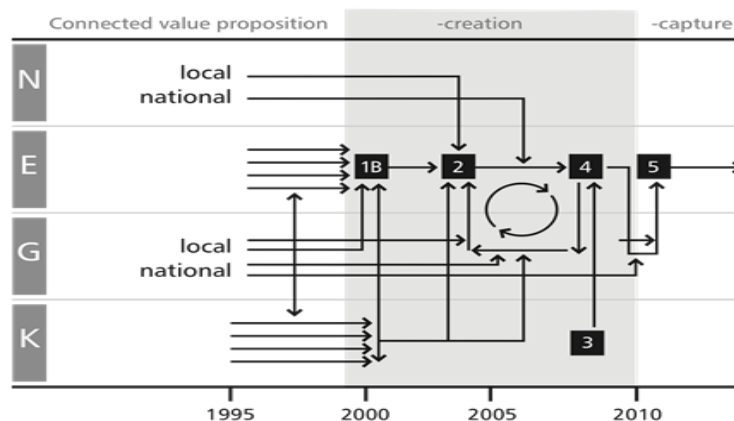
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658 Figure 2

659 Schematic diagram showing complicated and long-duration interaction patterns  
 660 between different partners in a transdisciplinary study, developing a sustainable dairy  
 661 system in the Netherlands. N=NGO's; E= entrepreneurs; G= Government and K= the



662 knowledge arena. In this study ( Bouma et al, 2011), the policy cycle was simplified  
 663 here by describing *signaling* as *connected value proposition*; *design* as *-creation*  
 664 which includes *decision* ,while *implementation* corresponds with *- capture*.



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