

Sevenfold variation in global feeding capacity depends on diets, land use and nitrogen management

Petros Chatzimpiros, Souhil Harchaoui

To cite this version:

Petros Chatzimpiros, Souhil Harchaoui. Sevenfold variation in global feeding capacity depends on diets, land use and nitrogen management. Nature Food, $2023, 4(5)$, pp.372-383. $10.1038/s43016-$ 023-00741-w . hal-04149976

HAL Id: hal-04149976 <https://hal.inrae.fr/hal-04149976v1>

Submitted on 6 Jul 2023

HAL is a multi-disciplinary open access archive for the deposit and dissemination of scientific research documents, whether they are published or not. The documents may come from teaching and research institutions in France or abroad, or from public or private research centers.

L'archive ouverte pluridisciplinaire **HAL**, est destinée au dépôt et à la diffusion de documents scientifiques de niveau recherche, publiés ou non, émanant des établissements d'enseignement et de recherche français ou étrangers, des laboratoires publics ou privés.

[Distributed under a Creative Commons Attribution - NonCommercial - NoDerivatives 4.0](http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/4.0/) [International License](http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/4.0/)

Sevenfold variation in global feeding capacity depends on diets, land use and nitrogen management

 Harvested food carries a fraction of the nitrogen applied through fertilization; the remainder is typically lost into the environment, impairing planetary sustainability. Using a global agriculture model that integrates key drivers of food production and nitrogen cycling, we simulated upper bounds to global feeding capacity – **and associated nitrogen pollution – in function of nitrogen limitation under organic and industrial fertilization regimes. We found that the current agricultural area could feed ca. 8-20 billion people under unconstrained industrial fertilization and ca. 3-14 billion under organic fertilization. These ranges are inversely correlated with animal proteins in human diets, and are a function of feed-food competition, grassland-to-cropland allocation, and** – **in the case of organic fertilization – nitrogen use efficiency. Improved nitrogen use efficiency is required to bring nitrogen pollution within planetary sustainability limits and is also essential in narrowing down food productivity gaps between organic and industrial fertilization regimes.**

 The feeding capacity of agriculture, or the supportable global population as constrained by food, depends on global agricultural area and human-edible production per hectare (the so-called 'food yield'). Today, agriculture is the largest human land appropriation on Earth, covering nearly 40% of 35 ice-free land¹ – a tenfold increase in twenty centuries² – and global population is higher than ever. However, agricultural land, food yield and, thereby, agriculture's global feeding capacity, are subject 37 to upper limits. Considering Earth system sustainability thresholds^{3,4}, agricultural land expansion is 38 widely dismissed as highly unsustainable⁵⁻⁹; in the case of food yield, upper bounds echo biophysical constraints in plants and livestock, as well as factors such as global agricultural land allocation between cropland and grassland, crop mix, human diets composition and nutrients management. An integrated analysis of these factors is necessary for framing the option space of global food production.

 Because proteins are essential nutrients and their production relies on reactive nitrogen (N), global 45 food production is conditioned by N availability^{10,11}. Global N availability and crop productivity have 46 dramatically increased with the development of fossil-fueled industrial N fertilizers by the early 20th 47 century¹¹, which have enabled the decoupling of global population growth from agricultural land 48 expansion^{12,13}. As a side-effect, increased N availability combined with poor N use efficiency in agriculture have triggered massive global N pollution with adverse impacts on climate, water resources, air quality, biodiversity, ecosystem services, economic development and human 51 health^{10,14,15}. By dismissing future global agricultural area expansion as unsustainable³, upper bounds to the food yield govern the maximum edible output of global agriculture and, thereby, the upper global feeding capacity and associated N pollution.

 The issue of global feeding capacity has been raised since the work of Antoni van Leeuwenhoek 56 (1679, ref. 16), who coined an upper estimate of 13.4 billion people on Earth by extrapolating the population density in the Netherlands at that time on the entire inhabitable surface of Earth. Much 58 later, Thomas Malthus (ref. 17) published his notorious prediction that human population growth would be limited by linearly growing food production, which has proven wrong to date thanks to agricultural land expansion combined with stepwise crop yield increases under abundant fertilization 61 and mechanization¹⁸. By the early 21st century, over hundred estimates of maximum supportable global population had been published, diverging by more than two orders of magnitude (from about 63 1 to 100 billion people^{16,19,20}). Despite great interest in this question and the diversity of approaches used to answer it, there is still poor understanding of the mechanisms, key drivers and constraints that shape the global feeding capacity.

 Here, we develop a deterministic model – the Agricultural Limits quantification through PHysical flows Analysis in cropland, grassland and livestock compartments ('ALPHA' – see Methods and Extended Data Figure 1 for a flow diagram) – to simulate the global feeding capacity and N pollution within an option space of diets, land use and N flows management. This model accounts for total agricultural area and captures essential trade-offs that affect food productivity, diets composition and N pollution. Also, it addresses global feeding capacity and N loss in function of feed-food competition, grassland-to-cropland allocation and N management without inherent assumptions on 74 future diets composition or implicit organic-to-industrial crop yield gaps^{21,22}. Food productivity was simulated as a function of six drivers that are commonly documented in reference databases, and that we integrated with a dozen drivers of agricultural N cycling including N input, use efficiency and biowaste N return from food supply to agriculture. We calibrated and validated the model with global scale data from the United Nations Food and Agricultural Organization (FAOSTAT) and existing literature over the benchmark period 1961-2013 following a three-step process. First, we calibrated model input variables with available global weighted average data. Then, in a validation step, we 81 confirmed the modeled feeding capacity and N cycling indicators with additional published data. After validation, we recalibrated the model by setting model input drivers at literature-derived upper thresholds, and simulated five global food production boundaries, i.e. maximum feeding capacity and 84 associated environmental N loss under industrial and organic fertilization regimes. We found the 85 global feeding capacity – considering total present agricultural area – to be ∞ 8-20 billion people under industrial and ~3-14 billion under organic fertilization. We outline that under organic 87 fertilization, N limitation is critically controlled by N loss, meaning that N use efficiency is essential for helping bridge food productivity gaps between organic and industrial systems. Our population 89 estimates intersect with current UN projections for the 21^{st} century²³ at levels that define global food demand compatibility with global average composition of diets, cropland-to-grassland allocation and 91 N management. Associated with food production, we show that global N loss is \sim 0.5-3 times the 92 medium threshold suggested for planetary N sustainability²⁴ – a threshold that has been transgressed 93 since the early 1960s. We discuss the relative change required in key drivers of food production and 94 N cycling to meet 21^{st} -century global food and N sustainability challenges.

95 **Key drivers of food yield**

96 Food yield at the global scale (Y_{food}) corresponds to global weighted average food productivity i.e. 97 global human-edible harvest per unit agricultural area. For the purposes of our analysis, an adequate 98 Yfood means that global food production is enough for meeting global food demand (both expressed 99 in proteins), whereas heterogeneity in respective spatial distributions is balanced through trade²⁵. 100 Accordingly, Y $_{food}$ sets an upper bound to global feeding capacity, as it implies a perfect match in 101 space and time between food availability and demand²⁶. We modeled global weighted average Y_{food} 102 and its content in animal proteins as a function of six drivers, four of which are positive and two of 103 which are negative (Fig.1a and Methods). The four positive drivers, namely crop yield (Y_{crou}), grass 104 yield (Y_{grass}), livestock nitrogen conversion efficiency (NCE) and crop residues used for feed ($\alpha_{residues}$), 105 are subject to biophysical upper bounds. Upper bounds have been recently specified for Y_{crop} by 106 previous studies based on biophysical factors analysis in world regions²⁷, and also condition crop 107 residues production according to the harvest index of crops, i.e. the ratio of human-edible to total 108 crop mass. Of all crop residues, $\alpha_{residues}$ is an allocation choice between food, energy, materials and 109 soil conservation strategies²⁸. Similarly, Y_{grass} is biophysically bounded (although upper bounds 110 remain elusive due to significant heterogeneity and uncertainty in grassland areas^{29,30}). For NCE, 111 upper bounds are specific to animal products³¹ – and, for this reason, largely depend on dietary 112 preference between animal products. The two remaining drivers, namely the share of crops used for 113 feed ($\alpha_{\rm cross}$) and the share of grassland in global agricultural area (τ), are negative since they divert 114 primary biomass from direct human use. These two negative drivers are not biophysically 115 constrained and vary according to dietary preferences, soil and climate conditions and ecological 116 valuation of resources $32,30$.

117

118 Based on FAOSTAT data³³, we reconstructed the six drivers of Y_{food} (Extended Data Figure 2a-f), global 119 agricultural area (Supplementary Figure 1), total feed and livestock production (Extended Data Figure 120 3a,b) from 1961 to 2013, and modeled the global weighted average Y_{food} over the benchmark period. 121 Y_{food} controls the maximum global feeding capacity depending on average food supply per capita, as 122 well as on human edible-harvest allocation to seed, losses and other uses. Our modeled Y_{food} has 123 tripled from 3.2 kgN·ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ in 1961 to 9.2 kgN·ha⁻¹·yr⁻¹ in 2013, and was validated by data reporting 124 global weighted average human-edible harvest per capita over the period³⁴ (Fig.1b). Following the 125 FAOSTAT Food Balance Sheets classification, "food supply" in Yfood represented 71-83% over the 126 period, "seed" 13-5%, and "other uses and losses" 6-17% (Fig.1b and Supplementary Figure 2). Total 127 human-edible harvest has tripled from 14 to 44 TgN \cdot yr⁻¹ and has increased global population by 128 130%, global weighted average food supply per capita by 27% (Supplementary Figure 3), animal 129 proteins in diets (excluding seafood) by 54%, other uses by 815%, as well as losses (between harvest 130 and the household) by 35% against a drop in seed by 52% (ref. 33). In parallel, the share of grassland 131 in global agricultural area (τ) has decreased from ~78% in 1961 to ~72% in 2013 (Extended Data 132 Figure 2f), suggesting a concomitant reduction in the ecological value of global agricultural area over 133 the last decades $32,35,36$.

134

135 To stress the competing relationship between the share of animal proteins in diets and τ, we 136 constructed in Fig.1c a theoretical trade-off curve between the two negative drivers of Y_{food} (α_{crops} 137 and τ) by setting the four positive drivers (Y_{crop}, Y_{grass}, NCE, $\alpha_{residues}$) at 2013 levels. The trade-off curve 138 shows that the same Y_{food} level as in 2013 could theoretically be sustained through various 139 combinations of α_{cross} and τ, meaning that the share of grassland could increase when animal 140 proteins in diets decrease, and vice versa. Of course, large-scale τ change is not a pure human choice, 141 but also depends on soil and climate conditions. Nonetheless, as a thought experiment, our trade-off 142 curve suggests that by lowering global τ at 31%, current (2013) global population could be 143 theoretically fed even with a generalized western diet (55% animal proteins). In this line, the ongoing 144 westernization of diets at the global scale³⁷ might be a threat to global grassland as it might drive τ 145 down as it happened since year 2000. We argue that the trade-off between α_{crops} and τ raises key 146 dilemmas on how future increases in crop yields and other food productivity factors should be 147 allocated among human population growth, animal proteins in diets³⁸ and τ increase for 148 sustainability $10,26$.

149

150 **Fig. 1|Food yield modeling. a.** Schematic representation of the six food yield (Y_{food}) drivers and total 151 agricultural land (AL). The positive drivers (in green letter) are the crop yield (Y_{crop}), grass yield (Y_{grass}), share of 152 crop residues used for feed ($\alpha_{residues}$) and livestock nitrogen conversion efficiency (NCE). The negative drivers (in 153 red letters) are the share of crops used for feed ($\alpha_{\rm crops}$) and the share of grassland in global agricultural area (τ). 154 Dotted arrows connect primary production from cropland (N_{crop} and N_{residues}) and grassland (N_{grass}) to human-155 edible vegetal (N_{cross}^{humans}) and animal ($N_{iivestock}$) production. **b**. Global average Y_{food} simulated in function of the 156 six drivers over the benchmark period (1961-2013) and validated upon FAOSTAT Food Balance Sheets data

 reporting total human-edible harvest per capita and use. The color grid displays the share of animal proteins in food supply. **c.** Theoretical trade-off curve between animal proteins in food supply (color grid), τ, and α_{crops} for a

159 given level of Y_{food} (here 2013 level). The trade-off curve emphasizes the competing relationship between α_{crops}
160 and τ, but does not imply that cropland-to-grassland allocation is a pure human choice.

and τ, but does not imply that cropland-to-grassland allocation is a pure human choice.

Global food production boundaries

162 Global weighted average Y_{food} as defined by the six drivers is a fraction of global N input per unit 163 agricultural area and defines total agricultural N use efficiency (NUE_{tot}); the remaining fraction is 164 environmental N loss per unit area (r_{loss}). By connecting N input and use efficiency in cropland, 165 grassland and livestock production to Y_{food} and r_{loss} (see Methods, Extended Data Figure 1 and Extended Data Table 1), we simulated five global food production boundaries – three under industrial (B1, B2, B3) and two under organic fertilization (B4, B5). Keeping today's total agricultural area constant (Supplementary Table 1), the five boundaries frame the global feeding capacity and N 169 pollution by considering, on the one hand, wide ranges of feed-food competition ($\alpha_{\rm cross}$ from 0 to 70%) and grassland-to-cropland allocation (τ from 72.2 to 70% i.e. 100 million hectares of grassland conversion to cropland) and, on the other hand, a variety of production practices and literature- derived upper thresholds to food productivity. The classification of model variables between input and output in each simulation and the model input data used in B1-B5 are detailed in Methods and summarized by comparison to 1961 and 2013 in Extended Data Tables 2 and 3. The model input data in B1-B5 reflect plausible global improvements based on literature estimates, past trends (Extended data Figure 2 and Supplementary Figures 1-8) and, as far as N use efficiency in cropland is concerned, best performing countries (Supplementary Figures 9-10). In B1-B3, industrial fertilization enables unconstrained N input, which – in absence of other limiting factors – supports the full closure of crop 179 yield gaps worldwide (ref. 27 and Supplementary Table 2). In B4-B5, crop yields are a function of N limitation and are simulated across wide ranges of total biological N fixation (BNF from currently 70 to 100 TgN), biowaste N return to agriculture (from currently 5 to 30%) and improved N use efficiency. The considered increase in total BNF combines extensive integration of fodder legumes in rotations, including a full plantation of current fallow land, legume-enriched grasslands and green manures intensification in cropland. Under unconstrained fertilization, N use efficiency governs N 185 input requirement and r_{loss} , whereas under N limitation, N use efficiency and r_{loss} govern food productivity. Across B1-B5, global average N use efficiency is set to range from levels as low as today in B1 and B4 – 44% for cropland and 35% for manure N management (Supplementary Figures 7,8) – 188 to very ambitious levels^{39,40} i.e. 70% in cropland in B2, B3 and B5 and 80% in manure N management in B3 and B5. The model was analyzed for sensitivity to input variables in Supplementary Figures 11- 13.

 Fig.2 shows the five global food production boundaries (B1-B5) and puts them in perspective with 192 global weighted Y_{food} and r_{loss} as simulated over the benchmark period. Note that the maximum global feeding capacity is independent of the spatial distribution of agricultural production and demand. Indeed, weighted global average data provide sufficient information for assessing the supportable global population, while spatial heterogeneity and subsequent regional food surpluses and deficits 196 are balanced through trade²⁵. Trade is considered a "zero-sum game" at the global scale, as total 197 imports and exports cancel out. In addition, Y_{food} and the supportable population were calculated in terms of proteins, which vary less than calories with production practices. In particular for animal 199 products, fat tissues are easier to produce than protein tissues⁴¹, meaning that adequate protein intake in human diets also implies sufficient calories intake.

201 We found that maximum feeding capacity of global agricultural area ranged from \approx 8 to \approx 20 billion 202 people under industrial fertilization (B1-B3) and from ~3 to ~14 billion under organic fertilization (B4-203 B5), depending on animal proteins in diets, grassland-to-cropland allocation and N cycling. In B1-B3, τ 204 decrease allowed for an increase of total feeding capacity thanks to unconstrained N input, whereas 205 in B4-B5 the τ change had a limited effect due to N limitation (Extended Data Figure 4).

206 In all five food production boundaries, Y_{food} varied with feed-food competition (α_{crops}), while r_{loss} 207 varied with N use efficiency (but in contrast to industrial fertilization, N use efficiency under organic 208 fertilization also governs Y_{food}). Indeed, r_{loss} virtually equates to a negative harvest, meaning that r_{loss} 209 abatement under N limitation is a way to close crop yield (Y_{crop}) gaps. Global average Y_{crop} ranged 210 from 18 to 26 kgN·ha⁻¹·yr⁻¹ in B4 against 36 to 74 kgN·ha⁻¹·yr⁻¹ in B5, meaning that, by comparison to 211 B1-B3, Y_{crop} gaps are of 65-75% in B4 against 0-51% in B5. These gaps reflect, on the one hand, 212 differences in N input and recycling in cropland, which are function of BNF rates, ρ and $\alpha_{\rm cross}$, and, on 213 the other hand, N use efficiency. As highlighted in Fig.2, the same increase in N input (through higher 214 BNF and ρ) had a much more limited effect on productivity in B4 (low N use efficiency) than in B5 215 (high N use efficiency). We argue that one of the reasons for the disagreement in the literature on 216 productivity gaps between industrial and organic systems is that N use efficiency is largely 217 $neglected^{42,43}$.

218 Current population projections for the 21^{st} century (ref. ²³ and Supplementary Figure 14) intersect with the feeding capacity in B1-B3 and in B5, whereas B4 clearly falls below challenges due to unimproved N use efficiency. Naturally, in all cases, the feeding capacity maximizes for zero feed-221 food competition ($\alpha_{\rm cross}$ =0), but this is not synonymous to vegan diets due to livestock production 222 from grassland and crop residues. In B1-B3, the diet that maximizes the feeding capacity (\approx 20 billion people) contains, on average, 15% animal proteins compared to 35% today. In B5, the global feeding capacity maximizes for ~20% animal proteins in the diet at 13.90 billion people. In B4, due to low 225 Y_{crop}, the minimum share of animal proteins in the diet (when α_{crops} is zero) is 35%, and maximum population is 7.4 billion. Assuming vegan diets (that is, no consumption of animal proteins), the feeding capacity falls to 17.4 billion people in B1-B3 – which is 11% below the estimated maximum. Because vegan diets further imply reduced nutrient transfer from grassland to cropland, the feeding capacity in B5 falls to 6.6 billion people. N input per source over the benchmark period 1961-2013 and in B1-B5 is shown in Supplementary Figure 6 and Extended Data Figure 5, respectively.

Fig.2| Food yield (Yfood, left axis), feeding capacity (Globalpop, right axis) and N loss rate (rloss 232 **) in the five global** 233 **food production boundaries (B1 to B5) and over the benchmark period (1961-2013, inset figure).** B1-B3 are 234 under industrial fertilization (full closure of crop yield gaps worldwide) and B4-B5 are under organic fertilization
235 (crop vields depending on N limitation). The color grid displays the share of animal proteins in 235 (crop yields depending on N limitation). The color grid displays the share of animal proteins in food supply. The
236 feeding capacity is compared to current UN population projections (low, medium and high variants – t 236 feeding capacity is compared to current UN population projections (low, medium and high variants – the peak date is given in brackets). Across B1-B5, feed-food competition (α_{crops}) drives Global_{pop} and r_{loss}. In B1-B3, dotted 238 borders indicate decrease in the share of grassland (τ) in total agricultural area from 7 238 borders indicate decrease in the share of grassland (τ) in total agricultural area from 72.3 to 70.2 %. In B4-B5,
239 borders indicate successive increases in biological N fixation rate in cropland (r_{gNg}), grasslan 239 borders indicate successive increases in biological N fixation rate in cropland ($r_{\rm BNF}^{\rm crop}$), grassland ($r_{\rm BNF}^{\rm grass}$) and 240 biowaste N return to agriculture (ρ). N use efficiency in cropland (NUE_{crop}) and the share of manure N 241 recovered to cropland (β) range from current levels in B1 and B4 to ambitious thresholds in B3 and B5. The 242 irregular population axis in the inset figure is due to agricultural land expansion over the benchmark period 243 paired with changing allocation of Y_{food} between food supply and other uses. The vertical dotted lines indicate 244 the lower, medium and upper thresholds of r_{loss} proposed in the literature for planetary N sustai the lower, medium and upper thresholds of r_{loss} proposed in the literature for planetary N sustainability.

245 Our results show that to reach the medium UN variant of 10.4 billion people, animal proteins in diets should not exceed ~40% in B1-B3 and ~37% in B5 (which are slightly higher levels than current global average, i.e. 35% - excluding seafood). A reduction of animal proteins in diets to 26%, as 248 recommended in healthy diets (Supplementary Table 3) would allow feeding ~13.6 billion people in 249 B1-B3 and ~12.2 billion in B5 – the associated livestock production is 16.3 TgN in B1-B3 and 14.8 TgN in B5 (Extended data Figure 6). In contrast, the high UN variant (14.7 billion people) is out of reach in all cases even with healthy diets, and only becomes reachable for diets containing less than 23% animal proteins. By extrapolating the current share of animal proteins in western diets (55%) at the global scale, and even after conversion of 100 Mha of grassland to cropland, the low UN variant of about 8.9 billion people is also out of reach. In B4 and B5, with current diets but without improvement in biological N fixation and biowaste N return to agriculture, the feeding capacity is about 5 and 7.5 billion people respectively. Note that crop productivity in the simulations assumes 257 current crop mix (Supplementary Table 1) – dominated by cereals, i.e. the highest yielding crops $-$ implying that crop mix change toward more vegetables, fruits and nuts as per health 259 recommendations⁴⁴ might result in reduced land productivity and decreased global feeding capacity in particular in B1-B3. Similarly, increases in the share of other uses and post-harvest loss or in global average per capita food supply above 2013 levels (Supplementary Figures 2,3) would also reduce the global feeding capacity across B1-B5.

Changes in nitrogen use efficiency

265 Total N use efficiency (NUE_{tot}), i.e. the ratio of Y_{food} to total N input, decreased between 1961 and 266 1980 and increased afterwards under continuous growth in Y_{food} (Fig.3a). Currently, NUE_{tot} is ~20%, which is barely 3% higher than in the mid-1960s and ~6% higher than the observed minimum in the 268 1980s. Nitrogen use efficiency in cropland alone (NUE_{crop}) has decreased in time and is today 44%, 269 which is in line with previous estimates^{40,45}(Supplementary Figure 8). Cropland is by far the most 270 studied agricultural land use in the literature, but the gap between NUE_{crop} and NUE_{tot} highlights the importance of other agricultural land uses for food systems sustainability.

272 Livestock systems play a major role in the gap between NUE_{crop} and NUE_{tot} . Of total current 273 agricultural N loss estimated at 170 TgN, which is in line with a recent estimate⁴⁶, livestock production contributes 75% - loss from manure, grassland and cropland accounting for 28, 15 and 32% respectively. Consequently, current global average N loss factor is 11.4 per unit animal against 276 0.9 per unit vegetal protein. The decrease in the share of manure N recovered to cropland over the past decades (Supplementary Figure 7) highlights increasing disconnection and, thus, growing global 278 challenges in closing nutrients loops between crop and livestock systems⁴⁷⁻⁴⁹. In Fig.3b, we stress that 279 each boundary has different NUE_{tot} depending on NUE_{crop}, β and Y_{food}, and that, for a given food 280 production boundary – meaning under constant production practices – NUE_{tot} decreases with $\alpha_{\rm cross}$.

 Accordingly, decreasing the consumption of animal proteins and recoupling livestock and crop systems are essential conditions for reducing N pollution and addressing sustainability challenges. Unfortunately, planetary N sustainability targets are out of reach in B1 and B2 even with vegan diets, and are hard to achieve even in B3 despite N use efficiency being at maximum. This suggests that tackling N sustainability issues under industrial fertilization would possibly require a decrease in the share of cropland in favor of grassland. Such land use change is also acknowledged to support carbon sequestration and other ecosystem services, suggesting potential synergies for meeting sustainability 288 targets^{7,32,35,50}. However, cropland to grassland conversion would contrast with past trends and lower down the global feeding capacity. Under organic fertilization, B4 highlights that agricultural intensification without improvement in N use efficiency is incompatible with both food production and environmental sustainability challenges, and that increased N use efficiency as in B5 is a key condition for meeting these challenges. Accordingly, pollution mitigation requires integrated and multi-scale nutrient management strategies such as the adoption of best management practices at 294 farm scale⁵¹ and a system design involving synergies between crop and livestock farms in view of intensive nutrient pooling and recycling at landscape scale. Although ambitious, such goals are actionable through knowledge-based system planning, whose adoption supports climate change 297 mitigation beyond the N cycle⁵⁰. In contrast, N waste reduction through dietary change is socially 298 more challenging because of global socioeconomic disparities. Indeed, reducing α_{cross} implies reducing global livestock production, which is likely to accentuate consumption inequalities between 300 population groups in rich and poor countries⁵² (Supplementary Figure 15). To tackle such risks and prevent environmental protection measures from accentuating inequalities or triggering food shocks,

 there is an increasing need for coordinated regulations and policy on food security and global sustainability challenges among countries.

304 In all simulations, Y_{food} and r_{loss} are complement fractions of N input even though the soil N pool might not always be constant in time. Indeed, N storage is controlled by soil conditions, land-use and management practices which are subject to change, but the way these factors combine into soil composition change is particularly hard to quantify at large spatiotemporal scales and is out of the scope of the present analysis. However, it can be argued that improved practices over time might have enabled potential N built-up in global soils, in particular grassland, but in contrast, the decline in the share of grassland through conversion to cropland over the last decades (τ decrease, Extended 311 Data Figure 2f) might have backfired and offset such storage. Accordingly, rloss trajectory from global agriculture might have been less regular than shown in our results due to inter-annual N stock change in relation to land-use change, which highlights that land management needs to integrate a long-term perspective.

Fig.3| Total N use efficiency (NUEtot) in global agriculture. a. NUEtot over the benchmark period (1961-2013). b. NUE_{tot} in the five global food production boundaries (B1 to B5) in function of the share of crops used for feed 318 (α_{cross}) . NUE_{tot} is the ratio of food yield (Y_{food}) to the sum of Y_{food} and N loss rate (r_{loss}). For B4,B5, the calculation 319 is done for the least N limitation (the highest Y_{food}) for each α_{crops} . The vertical dotted line indicates current 320 global average α_{cross} . The color grid displays the feeding capacity (Global_{pop}) in B1-B5.

Growth rate challenges

 We show in Fig.4 global average growth rates required to feed, by 2050, 10 billion people while respecting planetary N sustainability thresholds (blue and red lines for upper and medium threshold 325 respectively). The growth required is lower than observed since 1961 for Y_{crop} and NCE, and slightly 326 higher for Y_{grass}, whereas unprecedented efforts will be needed in NUE_{crop} and manure N recycling (β). 327 NUE_{crop}, which is today highly variable across countries (Supplementary Figure 9) should increase globally as fast as observed in a handful of best performing countries over the last decades (Fig.4 and Supplementary Figure 10, ref. 40). In parallel, global weighted average β, which is currently in decline, 330 should start increasing faster than Y_{crop}. To meet the medium threshold of N planetary sustainability, 331 the share of grassland in global agricultural area should also increase and animal production 332 decrease (Supplementary Table 4).

333 It would be groundless to position the organic boundaries (B4-B5) in Fig.4 for three reasons. First, 334 although global certified organic land has doubled between 2010 and 2019 (ref. ⁵³), it still represents 335 a tiny fraction of global agricultural area, i.e. ~1.5% – with grassland and cropland accounting for 83 336 and 17% respectively⁵³. Second, there is lack of large-scale data on organic systems in particular 337 regarding N cycling. Third, current organic systems receive considerable amounts of industrial N 338 indirectly through manure recovered from non-organic systems⁵⁴. Accordingly, we have refrained 339 from defining the required growth rates of organic farming in the option space of these variables.

340
341

Fig. 4| Average non-compounding growth rates (%·yr-1 341 **) required in key variables of global food production** 342 **and N cycling to feed, by 2050, 10 billion people while staying within planetary sustainability thresholds.** The 343 blue and red lines respectively indicate the growth rates required to reach the upper and medium thresholds of 344 planetary sustainability. The shown variables are the crop yield (Y_{crop}), grass yield (Y_{grass}), livestock nitrogen 345 conversion efficiency (NCE), share of crops used for feed (α_{crops}), share of grassland in global agricultural area
346 (τ), share of animal proteins in food supply (Share_{animal}), nitrogen use efficiency in cro (τ), share of animal proteins in food supply (Share_{animal}), nitrogen use efficiency in cropland (NUE_{crop}) and the 347 share of manure N recovered to cropland (β). All required rates are calculated for the period 2013-2050 348 (Supplementary Table 4) and are put in perspective with past global average and national-scale records 349 considering the five best performing countries in terms of Y_{crop} and NUE_{crop} (Supplementary Table 5 and 350 Supplementary Figure 10). The gray zone indicates negative rates.

353 **Conclusion**

354 Global food production and N loss are heading toward B1, and a synchronous increase in Yfood and 355 NUE_{tot} will be a great challenge in the $21st$ century. Such a synchronous increase is all the more 356 essential in organic farming to help closing Y_{food} gaps. The ongoing expansion in the demand for food 357 and animal protein - while keeping today's total agricultural area constant - is subject to upper 358 thresholds. We argue that demand beyond these thresholds is likely to further jeopardize planetary 359 sustainability by driving up global agricultural land⁵⁵, N fertilizers use and loss⁵⁶. Understanding the 360 drivers of Y_{food} and NUE_{tot} allows the assessment of these upper thresholds and can provide useful 361 insights for connecting population dynamics, land-use change and agricultural N cycling to the broad 362 range of environmental sustainability challenges.

363 **Methods**

364 **Model structure**

 The model builds on a set of 7 central equations that are analytically derived hereafter following a step-by-step presentation of all model variables. Equations 1-13 is the modelling system of the food yield (i.e. food production per unit total agricultural area) and global feeding capacity. Equations 14- 29 is the modelling system of N cycling in support of production. Greek letters are used for variables representing shares and fractions. A flow diagram of the model is given in Extended Data Figure 1.

370

371 **Food yield and production**

372 The food yield (Y_{food}, kgN·ha⁻¹·yr⁻¹) is defined as total human-edible harvest (N_{food}, kgN·yr⁻¹) per unit 373 agricultural land (AL, ha).

374

376

 $Y_{\text{food}} = \frac{N_{\text{food}}}{A L}$ (eq.1)

377 AL is the sum of cropland and grassland. Cropland and grassland have highly uneven food production 378 capacities. Harvest from grassland (N_{grass} , kgN·yr⁻¹) is convertible into food only by livestock with 379 efficiency of a few percent. Harvest from cropland $(N_{crop}$, kgN \cdot yr⁻¹) is directly human-edible and 380 potential use of crop residues for feed (N_{residues}, kgN·yr⁻¹) can increase food production from cropland. 381

382 N_{food} (kgN·yr⁻¹) can be written as the sum of N_{grass}, N_{crop} and N_{residues}, plus livestock production (N_{livestock}, 383 kgN·yr⁻¹) minus total feed (N_{feed}, kgN·yr⁻¹) (eq. 2). N_{feed} includes crops, residues and grass.

385

$$
N_{\text{food}} = N_{\text{crop}} + N_{\text{residues}} + N_{\text{grass}} + N_{\text{livestock}} - N_{\text{feed}}
$$
 (eq. 2)

386 N_{crop} is routed to feed (N^{livestock}) and to uses other than feed (Nhumans) according to the share of 387 crops used for feed (α_{cross} , %) following equations 3 to 5.

388

$$
N_{\text{crop}} = N_{\text{crops}}^{\text{humans}} + N_{\text{crops}}^{\text{lives tock}} \tag{eq. 3}
$$

390
$$
N_{\text{crops}}^{\text{humans}} = Y_{\text{crop}} \times (1 - \alpha_{\text{crops}}) \times AL \times (1 - \tau) \tag{eq. 4}
$$

391 $N_{cross}^{livestock} = Y_{crop} \times \alpha_{cross} \times AL \times (1 - \tau)$ (eq. 5)

392 where Y_{crop} (kgN·ha⁻¹·yr⁻¹) is the crop yield and τ (%) and (1-τ) (%) are respectively the shares of 393 grassland and cropland in global agricultural area (AL).

394 N_{feed} is the sum of feed from grassland, cropland and residues and connects to N_{livestock} according to 395 livestock nitrogen conversion efficiency (NCE, %) (eq. 6, 7):

 $N_{\text{feed}} = N_{\text{grass}} + N_{\text{crops}}^{\text{livestock}} + N_{\text{residues}}$ (eq. 6)

$$
N_{\text{livestock}} = N_{\text{feed}} \times \text{NCE}
$$
 (eq. 7)

398 N_{grass} and $N_{residues}$ are calculated from equations 8 and 9:

399

$$
N_{grass} = Y_{grass} \times \tau \times AL
$$
 (eq. 8)

401
$$
N_{residues} = (\alpha_{residues} \times \frac{1}{NH}) \times Y_{crop} \times (1 - \tau) \times AL
$$
 (eq. 9)

402 403 where Y_{grass} (kgN·ha⁻¹·yr⁻¹) is the grass yield, $\alpha_{residues}$ (%) is the share of crop residues used for feed and 404 NHI (%) is the harvest index of crops in terms of N, i.e. the ratio of N uptake in crop yield to the sum 405 of N uptake in crop yield and crop residues.

 $N_{residues} = (\alpha_{residues} \times \frac{1}{n})$

407 Y_{food} can be written in equation 10 in function of the four positive drivers (Y_{crop}, Y_{grass}, NCE, $\alpha_{residues}$) and 408 the two negative drivers (α_{cross} , τ).

409

406

$$
Y_{\text{food}} = \left(\text{NCE} \times \left(\alpha_{\text{residues}} \times \frac{1 - \text{NHI}}{\text{NHI}} \right) + 1 \right) \times Y_{\text{crop}} \times (1 - \tau) + \text{NCE} \times Y_{\text{grass}} \times \tau
$$

+
$$
\alpha_{\text{crops}} \times (1 - \tau) \times Y_{\text{crop}} \times (\text{NCE} - 1) \tag{eq. 10}
$$

411 We connect Y_{food} to food supply per hectare (Y_{food}^{supply} , kgN·ha⁻¹·yr⁻¹) i.e. the amount of Y_{food} available as 412 food supply compared to seed and loss, from equations 11:

413

414
$$
Y_{\text{food}}^{\text{supply}} = \frac{N_{\text{food}}^{\text{supply}}}{AL} = (\delta_{\text{animal}} \times N_{\text{livestock}} + \delta_{\text{vegetal}} \times N_{\text{crops}}^{\text{humans}})/AL \qquad (eq. 11)
$$

415

418

416 where $N_{\rm food}^{\rm supply}$ (kgN·yr⁻¹) is total food supply, and $\delta_{\rm vegetal}$ and $\delta_{\rm animal}$ (%) are respectively the allocation 417 shares of produced vegetal ($N_{\text{crops}}^{\text{human}}$) and animal ($N_{\text{livestock}}$) proteins to food supply.

419 The share of animal proteins (Share_{animal}, %) in food supply is calculated from equation 12:

420 Share_{animal} = δ 421 Share_{animal} $=$ $\frac{v_{\text{animal}}}{v_{\text{hoved}}}$ $\left\langle \frac{v_{\text{l p}}}{v_{\text{food}}} \right\rangle$ (eq.12)

422 We calculate the global feeding capacity (Global_{pop}, inhabitants) by accounting for average food 423 supply per capita ($n_{\text{food}}^{\text{supply}}$, kgN·cap⁻¹·yr⁻¹) following equation 13:

424

 425 (eq. 13)

427 where $\delta_{weighted}$ is the weighted average allocation of vegetal and animal proteins to food supply, i.e.

428
$$
\delta_{weighted} \times Y_{food} = Y_{food}^{supply} = (\delta_{animal} \times N_{livestock} + \delta_{vegetal} \times N_{cross}^{humans})/AL
$$

429 The replacement of $\delta_{vegetal}$ and δ_{animal} by $\delta_{weighted}$ in equation 13 allows for consistently 430 calculating Global_{pop} in function of $Y_{\rm food}^{\rm supply}$ and across a range of $\alpha_{\rm crops}$ despite changing shares of 431 vegetal and animal proteins in $Y_{\text{food}}^{\text{supply}}$.

432

434

438

440

442

444

433 **N cycling**

435 Total N input to agriculture (N_{tot}, kgN·yr⁻¹) is the sum of food production (N_{food}, kgN·yr⁻¹) and N loss 436 (N_{loss} , kgN·yr⁻¹) assuming no change in soil N pool, which is a common assumption in literature 437 addressing large spatiotemporal scales^{24,40,45}.

$$
N_{\text{tot}} = N_{\text{food}} + N_{\text{loss}} \tag{eq.14}
$$

441 Total N use efficiency (NUE_{tot}, %) is calculated with equation 15:

$$
NUE_{\text{tot}} = \frac{N_{\text{food}}}{N_{\text{tot}}} \tag{eq. 15}
$$

N_{tot} is the sum of biological nitrogen fixation (BNF, kgN·yr⁻¹), atmospheric N deposition (N_{atm}, kgN·yr⁻ 445 446 $-$ ¹), industrial N fertilizers (N_{ind}, kgN·yr⁻¹) and potential N return to agriculture via human excreta and 447 $\,$ food waste management (N $_{\text{biowaste_return}, \text{ kgN·yr}^{-1}}$):

448 $N_{\text{tot}} = BNF + N_{\text{ind}} + N_{\text{atm}} + N_{\text{biowaste}_\text{return}}$ (eq. 16)

451 Note that N_{tot} does not include livestock N excretion (N_{excretion}, kgN·yr⁻¹) which is an internal 452 agricultural flow.

453

450

454 Nbiowaste return is a fraction (ρ , %) of total food supply:

$$
N_{biowaste_return} = N_{food}^{supply} \times \rho
$$
 (eq. 17)

456 Input from BNF, N_{atm} and N_{ind} (kgN·yr⁻¹) is the weighted sum of input rates (kgN·ha⁻¹·yr⁻¹) in cropland 457 and grassland following equations 18-20, where weight is the share of grassland in global agricultural 458 area (τ):

$$
BNF = (r_{BNF}^{grass} \times \tau + r_{BNF}^{crop} \times (1 - \tau)) \times AL
$$
 (eq. 18)

461 where r_{BNF}^{grass} (kgN·ha⁻¹·yr⁻¹) and r_{BNF}^{crop} (kgN·ha⁻¹·yr⁻¹) are the BNF rates in grassland and cropland 462 respectively.

463
$$
N_{\text{atm}} = (r_{\text{atm}}^{\text{grass}} \times \tau + r_{\text{atm}}^{\text{crop}} \times (1 - \tau)) \times \text{AL}
$$
 (eq. 19)

465 where r_{atm}^{grass} (kgN·ha⁻¹·yr⁻¹) and r_{atm}^{crop} (kgN·ha⁻¹·yr⁻¹) are the N atmospheric deposition rates in 466 grassland and cropland respectively.

467

468
$$
N_{\text{ind}} = (r_{\text{ind}}^{\text{grass}} \times \tau + r_{\text{ind}}^{\text{crop}} \times (1 - \tau)) \times AL
$$
 (eq. 20)

470 but the refart $r_{\rm ind}^{\rm grass}$ (kgN·ha⁻¹·yr⁻¹) and $r_{\rm ind}^{\rm crop}$ (kgN·ha⁻¹·yr⁻¹) are the N industrial input rates in grassland and 471 cropland respectively.

472

473 Livestock N excretion (N_{excretion}, kgN·yr⁻¹) is the difference between total feed (N_{feed}) and livestock 474 production (N_{livestock}) and divides into N voided on grassland ($N_{\rm manure}^{\rm grass}$), N recovered as fertilizer in 475 support of crops and residues production ($N_{\text{manure}}^{\text{crop}}$ and $N_{\text{manure}}^{\text{residues}}$ respectively) and N loss from 476 manure (N $_{\text{manure}}^{loss}$). We assume that N $_{\text{manure}}^{grass}$ is a fraction (γ, %) of N feed from grassland (N_{grass}) and 477 bhat N^{residues} equals N feed from residues (N_{residues}). The difference between N_{excretion} and the sum of 478 S N $_{\text{manure}}^{\text{grass}}$ and N $_{\text{manure}}^{\text{residues}}$ divides into $N_{\text{manure}}^{\text{crop}}$ and $N_{\text{manure}}^{\text{loss}}$. β is the ratio of $N_{\text{manure}}^{\text{crop}}$ to the sum of 479 $\,$ N $\frac{\text{crop}}{\text{manure}}$ and N $\frac{\text{loss}}{\text{manure}}$. The N balance of total excretion follows equations 21 to 25:

480

482

484

486

 $N_{\text{excretion}} = N_{\text{manure}}^{\text{grass}} + N_{\text{manure}}^{\text{residues}} + N_{\text{manure}}^{\text{crop}} + N_{\text{manure}}^{\text{loss}}$ (eq. 21)

$$
N_{\text{manure}}^{\text{grass}} = (1 - NCE) \times N_{\text{grass}} \times \gamma \tag{eq. 22}
$$

$$
N_{\text{manure}}^{\text{residues}} = N_{\text{residues}} \tag{eq. 23}
$$

487
$$
N_{\text{manure}}^{\text{crop}} = ((1 - NCE) \times (N_{\text{crops}}^{\text{livestock}} + N_{\text{residues}} + N_{\text{grass}} \times (1 - \gamma)) - N_{\text{residues}}) \times \beta \quad \text{(eq. 24)}
$$

489 N^{loss}_{manure} = ((1 – NCE) × (N^{livestock} + N_{residues} + N_{grass} × (1 –
$$
\gamma
$$
)) – N_{residues}) × (1 – β) (eq. 25)

491 where NCE (%) is livestock nitrogen conversion efficiency.

493 Y_{grass} (kgN·ha⁻¹·yr⁻¹) and N loss per unit grassland (r^{loss}, kgN·ha⁻¹·yr⁻¹) connect to N input according to 494 N use efficiency in grassland (NUE_{grass}, %) (eq. 26-27):

$$
Y_{\text{grass}} = \text{NUE}_{\text{grass}} \times \left(r_{\text{BNF}}^{\text{grass}} + r_{\text{atm}}^{\text{grass}} + r_{\text{ind}}^{\text{grass}} + \frac{N_{\text{manure}}^{\text{grass}}}{\tau \times \text{AL}} \right) \tag{eq.26}
$$

497

499

502

492

495

$$
r_{grass}^{\text{loss}} = (1 - \text{NUE}_{grass}) \times (Y_{grass}/\text{NUE}_{grass}) \tag{eq. 27}
$$

500 Y_{crop} (kgN·ha⁻¹·yr⁻¹) and N loss per unit cropland (r_{crop}^{loss} , kgN·ha⁻¹·yr⁻¹) connect to N input according to 501 N use efficiency in cropland (NUE_{crop}, %) (eq. 28-29):

503
$$
Y_{\text{crop}} = \text{NUE}_{\text{crop}} \times \left(r_{\text{BNF}}^{\text{crop}} + r_{\text{atm}}^{\text{crop}} + r_{\text{ind}}^{\text{crop}} + \frac{N_{\text{manure}}^{\text{crop}} + N_{\text{biowaste_return}}}{(1 - \tau) \times \text{AL}} \right)
$$
(eq. 28)

504

$$
r_{\rm crop}^{\rm loss} = (1 - \text{NUE}_{\rm crop}) \times (Y_{\rm crop} / \text{NUE}_{\rm crop}) \tag{eq.29}
$$

507 Average N loss per unit global agricultural area (r_{loss} , kgN·ha⁻¹ ·yr⁻¹) is calculated from equation 30:

508

506

$$
r_{\text{loss}} = r_{\text{crop}}^{\text{loss}} \times (1 - \tau) + r_{\text{grass}}^{\text{loss}} \times \tau + N_{\text{manure}}^{\text{loss}} / \text{AL}
$$
 (eq. 30)

- 511 From equations 14-30, we derive equations 31-34.
- 512
- 513

$$
Y_{grass} = \frac{NUE_{grass} \times (r_{BNF}^{grass} + r_{atm}^{grass} + r_{ind}^{grass})}{(1 - NUE_{grass} \times (1 - NCE) \times \gamma)}
$$
 (eq. 31)

$$
Y_{\text{crop}} = \frac{\left(\frac{1}{Y_{\text{BNF}}}\times \left(\frac{1}{Y_{\text{BNF}}}\times \frac{1}{Y_{\text{atm}}}+\frac{1}{Y_{\text{ind}}}\times \left(1-\text{NCE}\right)\times \frac{1}{Y_{\text{grass}}}\times \tau \times \frac{1}{Y_{\text{crop}}}\times \beta + \frac{Y_{\text{food}}^{\text{supply}}}{Y_{\text{food}}}\times \frac{\rho}{1-\tau}\right)\right)}{1-\text{NUE}_{\text{crop}}\times \beta \times \left((1-\text{NCE})\times \alpha_{\text{crops}}-\text{NCE}\times \left(\alpha_{\text{residues}}\times \frac{1-\text{NHI}}{\text{NHI}}\right)\right)}
$$

- 517 (eq. 32)
- 518

519
$$
NUE_{tot} = \frac{Y_{food}}{((r_{BNF}^{grass} + r_{ind}^{grass}) \times \tau + (r_{BNF}^{crop} + r_{ind}^{crop}) \times (1 - \tau) + Y_{food}^{supply} \times \rho)}
$$
 (eq. 33)

520

$$
r_{loss} = (1 - NUE_{tot}) \times \left((r_{BNF}^{grass} + r_{ind}^{grass}) \times \tau + (r_{BNF}^{crop} + r_{ind}^{crop}) \times (1 - \tau) + Y_{food}^{supply} \times \rho \right)
$$
\n
$$
= 521 \tag{eq. 34}
$$

523 Equations 10, 12-13 and 31-34 are the 7 central model equations.

524

522

525 **Model variables classification and model calibration**

526 Equations 10, 12-13 and 31-34 allow calculating 7 model output variables with 21 input variables. We 527 simulate global food production and N cycling over the benchmark period 1961-2013, and in five 528 global food production boundaries. The next subsections present the data used in the simulations. Of 529 the 7 model output variables, 5 are common to all simulations (benchmark period and B1-B5). These 530 are the food yield (Yfood), the share of animal proteins in diets (Share_{animal}), global feeding capacity 531 (Global_{pop}), N loss rate (r_{loss}), and total N use efficiency (NUE_{tot}). Over the benchmark period, the 2 532 additional model output variables are the biological N fixation rate in grassland ($r_{\text{BNF}}^{\text{grass}}$) and N use 533 efficiency in cropland (NUE_{crop}). In B1-B3 (unconstrained industrial fertilization), the 2 additional 534 model output variables are the industrial N input rates in cropland ($r_{\text{ind}}^{\text{crop}}$) and grassland ($r_{\text{ind}}^{\text{grass}}$). In B4-535 B5 (organic fertilization), the 2 additional model output variables are the crop yield (Y_{crop}) and grass 536 yield (Y_{grass}). Note that in this case Y_{crop} is recursive by depending on N_{food} through ρ. The 537 Fesolution of the modeling system in B4-B5 requires two steps. First, we calculate Y_{crop} and Y_{food} for 538 ρ =0, then we inject the result in the modelling system and recalculate Y $_{\text{food}}^{\text{supply}}$.

 In the following subsection, we specify the classification of model variables between input and output in each simulation and present the model calibration. Full data series over the benchmark period are shown in Extended Data Figures 2-3 and Supplementary Figures 1-8. Extended Data Tables 2,3 summarize, on the one hand, the classification of model variables between input and output, and, on the other hand, global weighted average data in 1961 and 2013 (Extended Data Table 2) and 544 in B1-B5 (Extended Data Table 3a,b). Sensitivity analysis of the model is addressed in Supplementary 545 Figures 11-13.

546

547 **Food yield and production**

548 549 **Crop yield (Ycrop).** Over the benchmark period, Ycrop is a model input variable (Extended Data Figure 550 2a). It is calculated from global average yield of individual crops weighted by crop area³³ and N 551 content of crops^{57,58}.

552 In B1-B3, where industrial N fertilizers ensure a full closure of crop yield gaps worldwide²⁷, Y_{crop} is a 553 model input variable set at 74 kgN·ha⁻¹·yr⁻¹ (Supplementary Table 2), which is the global weighted 554 upper threshold of Y_{crop} given worldwide biophysical constraints and crop mix. Crops that are not 555 reported in ref. ²⁷ cover 29% of total cropland in 2013. We apply crop yield gaps of reported crops to 556 all crops. In B4-B5, Y_{crop} is a model output variable calculated in function of N cycling. Supplementary 557 Figure 11g, h provides model sensitivity analysis on Y_{crop} .

Share of crops used for feed (αcrops). Over the benchmark period, αcrops 558 is calculated from FAO 559 commodity balance sheets as the ratio of crops used for feed ($N_{cross}^{livestok}$) to total crops production 560 (excluding residues). We calculate $N_{cross}^{livestok}$ across all FAOSTAT crop categories i as the difference in 561 terms of N between total crop production (Prod_i) and the sum of food supply (Supply_i), seed (Seed_i), 562 other uses (such as soap, pet food) (Other_i) and food loss (Loss_i). Because the N content of primary 563 crops and final products are different, we use a set of reference N contents for primary crops⁵⁸ 564 (N_i^{prod}) that we also apply to seed and a set of N contents for food supply³⁴ (N_i^{supply}) that we also 565 apply to food loss:

566

567 $N_{cross}^{livestock} = \sum_i (Prod_i \times N_i^{prod} - (Supply_i + Loss_i) \times N_i^{supply} - (Seed_i + Other_i) \times N_i^{p}$ 568

569 α_{crops} over the benchmark period is shown in Extended Data Figure 2b.

570 In B1-B5, α_{crops} is a model input variable set to range from 0 to 70%. α_{crops} of 0 means no feed-food 571 competition, and implies that animal proteins in diets are exclusively supplied by ruminants fed on 572 grassland and crop residues. As a condition that maximizes feed conversion to food, $\alpha_{\rm cross}$ in B1-B5 is 573 allocated to meat from monogastrics and dairy production which have higher N conversion efficiency 574 than meat from ruminants (see respective subsection below).

575 **Grassland yield (Ygrass), N harvest index of crops (NHI) and the share of crop residues used for feed** 576 **(αresidues)**. Grass and crop residues used for feed are not reported in FAOSTAT. Their sum equals total 577 feed minus feed from crops. Over the benchmark period, feed from crops is reported in FAOSTAT and 578 total feed is calculated as the sum of $N_{\text{livestock}}$ and $N_{\text{excretion}}$ derived from ref. ³³. The amount of 579 residues used for feed is a fraction of total residues production. We calculate total residues 580 production from crops production using constant NHI of 70% over the benchmark period. NHI is 581 calculated by considering global weighted average harvest index of 42% in terms of mass (ref. 59) and 582 N contents in grain and crop residues of 1.9% and 0.6% respectively^{57,59}. Due to uncertainty in global 583 crop residues use over the benchmark period, the fraction used for feed ($\alpha_{residues}$) is assumed to vary 584 between the current value of 30% (ref. 24) and an asymptotic decline from 70 in 1961 to 30% today 585 (Extended Data Figure 2c,d). The breakdown of total feed among crops, grass and crop residues is 586 shown in Extended Data Figure 3a. Global average Y $_{\rm grass}$ is calculated by dividing feed from grassland 587 by grassland area.

- 588 In B1-B5, NHI and $\alpha_{residues}$ are kept constant at respectively 70% and 30% as in 2013 (see 589 Supplementary discussion and sensitivity analysis in Supplementary Figure 11a-d). In contrast to Y_{crop}, 590 Y_{grass} is poorly documented in the scientific literature. In B1-B3, global weighted Y_{grass} is a model input 591 variable set at 29 kgN·ha⁻¹·yr⁻¹, which is 30% above current (2013) level. Such increase is ambitious 592 given the majority of semi-natural areas in global grassland³⁰. In Supplementary Figure 10i,j, we 593 provide model sensitivity analysis on Y_{grass}. In B4-B5, Y_{grass} is a model output variable simulated in 594 function of N availability under N limitation.
- 595 **Livestock nitrogen conversion efficiency (NCE).** Over the benchmark period, NCE is a model input 596 variable calculated as the ratio of N_{livestock} to N_{feed} from ref.³³. Seafood is excluded. Global average 597 NCE has doubled from 4.1 in 1961 to 8.7% in 2013 (Extended Data Figure 2e).
- 598 In B1-B5, global aggregate NCE is a model input variable. Upper bounds to NCE are specific to animal 599 products³¹, meaning that global aggregate NCE depends on improvements in animal breeding but 600 also on choice of animal proteins in diets. In B1-B5, we assume product-specific NCE of 15% for 601 monogastrics⁶⁰ (pork, poultry and eggs) and dairy production and 5% for ruminants meat³¹, and set 602 the global upper threshold for aggregate NCE at 11.2%. This threshold is more ambitious than 603 previous estimates⁶¹ and is 30% above current NCE. We address model sensitivity analysis on NCE in 604 Supplementary Figure 10e,f and Supplementary discussion.
- 605 **Global agricultural area (AL) and the share of grassland in global agricultural area (τ).** AL is the sum 606 of grassland and all harvested cropland (excluding fibers which account for less than 3%). Grassland 607 is the sum of permanent meadows and pasture, temporary meadows and pasture, temporary fallow 608 land and fodder legumes. Over the benchmark period, data on cropland and grassland are from 609 FAOSTAT (ref. 33) except for fodder legumes which are not reported and are considered constant at 610 90 Mha (ref. 62). Over the benchmark period, τ is a model input variable calculated annually 611 (Extended Data Figure 2f, Supplementary Figure 1, Supplementary Table 1).
- 612 In B1-B5, AL is equal to year 2013 and τ is a model input variable reflecting potential change in global 613 grassland-to-cropland allocation. The feeding capacity increases inversely to τ due to higher human-614 edible yield of cropland compared to grassland. Starting with current (2013) global τ of 72.3%, we 615 consider τ decrease to 70.2%, which equates to 100 Mha conversion of grassland to cropland (8% 616 increase in global cropland). This number exceeds the latest FAOSTAT projection⁶³ of 11 Mha (see 617 Supplementary discussion).
- **Global average food yield (Yfood) allocation and average food supply per capita** (618)**.** Over the 619 benchmark period, Y_{food} as reconstructed annually from equation 10 is validated on FAOSTAT data. 620 After validation, global weighted average Y_{food} is allocated between food supply, seed, other uses and 621 food losses (Supplementary Figure 2) by considering annual allocation shares for vegetal (δ_{vegetal}) 622 and animal proteins (δ_{animal}). Average δ_{veeetal} and δ_{animal} over the benchmark period are 623 respectively 69% and 98% (ref. 33). The calculated annual Y_{food}, food supply and its content in animal 624 proteins are smoothened over time assuming global harvest variability absorption through 625 interannual stocks. Global average food supply per capita $(n_{\text{food}}^{\text{supply}})$ excluding seafood allows 626 connecting food availability to global population, and has increased from 3.43 kgN·cap⁻¹·yr⁻¹ in 1961 627 to 4.43 kgN·cap⁻¹·yr⁻¹ in 2013 (ref. 33 and Supplementary Figure 3).
- 628 In B1-B5, we assume global weighted average allocation ($\delta_{weighted}$) of Y_{food} to Y_{food} equal to 72% 629 which is the weighted average δ_{vegetal} and δ_{animal} in 2013. Global weighted average $n_{\rm food}^{\rm supply}$ in B1-B5 is 630 also assumed identical to 2013 i.e. 4.43 kgN·cap⁻¹·yr⁻¹. The supply of calories is out of the scope of the 631 paper.

632 **N cycling**

633 **Atmospheric N deposition (Natm).** Over the benchmark period, Natm on agricultural land is a model 634 input variable. N_{atm} represents N deposition resulting from emissions (in particular NO_x) of non-635 agricultural sectors. Global NO_x emissions from non-agricultural sectors have increased by 60% over 636 the period⁶⁴. Accordingly, N_{atm} is reconstructed by considering a baseline global average atmospheric 637 deposition rate in cropland (r_{atm}^{crop}) and grassland (r_{atm}^{grass}) of 5kgN·ha⁻¹·yr⁻¹ in 1961 (ref. ⁵²) and a linear 638 increase to 8 kgN·ha⁻¹·yr⁻¹ (60% increase) to 2013. In B1-B5, r_{atm}^{crop} and r_{atm}^{grass} are model input variables 639 considered equal to 8 kgN \cdot ha⁻¹ \cdot yr⁻¹ as in year 2013.

640 **Industrial N fertilizer (Nind).** Over the benchmark period, Nind is a model input variable derived from 641 FAOSTAT (ref. ¹ and Supplementary Figure 6). FAOSTAT does not report separately N_{ind} application on 642 grassland and cropland. For recent years, the share of N_{ind} applied to global grassland is reported at 643 4.6% (ref. 65). We assume the same share in 1961 which is consistent with constant share of N_{ind} 644 applied to grassland over the period 1961-2013 reported for Europe (ref. 66). Based on this, we derive 645 N_{ind} fertilization rates (kgN·ha⁻¹·yr⁻¹) in cropland (r_{ind}^{crop}) and grassland (r_{ind}^{grass}) over the benchmark 646 period (Supplementary Figure 5).

- 647 In B1-B3, r_{ind}^{crop} and r_{ind}^{grass} are model output variables. In B4-B5, r_{ind}^{crop} and r_{ind}^{grass} are null by definition.
- **Global average biological nitrogen fixation (BNF) rates in cropland () and grassland (** 648 **).** Over 649 the benchmark period, r_{BNF}^{crop} is reconstructed in function of global weighted average crop yield for 650 fixing crops (soybean, groundnuts and pulses) using the methodology in Lassaletta et al. (ref. 40), and 651 includes green manures of 2.2 TgN (ref. 62) and fixation rates of 25 and 33 kgN·ha⁻¹·yr⁻¹ for sugarcane 652 and rice respectively⁶⁷. r_{BNF}^{crop} is shown over the benchmark period in Supplementary Figure 4 and is 653 24.8 kgN·ha⁻¹·yr⁻¹ in 2013. r_{BNF}^{grass} is not recorded over the benchmark period and is a model output 654 variable (Supplementary Figure 4).
- 655 In B1-B3, r_{BNF}^{crop} and r_{BNF}^{grass} do not affect Y_{food} thanks to unconstrained N_{ind}, and are model input 656 variables equal to year 2013. In contrast, in B4-B5, r_{BNF}^{crop} and r_{BNF}^{grass} are critical to Y_{food} (due to banned 657 N_{ind}) and are model input variables assigned improvements assumed feasible at the global scale. We 658 assume these improvements to rely on more green manures and fodder legumes cultivation in global 659 cropland and grassland. Because in our model fallow land, temporary meadows and fodder legumes 660 are classified as grassland, fodder legumes plantation in these land systems is the main lever of 661 global BNF intensification. We calculate improved r_{BNF}^{grass} by assuming the plantation of all global 662 fallow land estimated at ~100 Mha (ref. 33) with fodder legumes fixing 125 kgN·ha⁻¹·yr⁻¹ throughout 663 the year. In addition, we assume that half of global cropland enters rotations with temporary 664 grassland and fodder legumes fixing 125 kgN·ha⁻¹·yr⁻¹ over multiannual cycles. The frequency of fixing 665 crops in these cycles is assumed to be of 2 years within 8 year rotations, resulting in average annual 666 fixation rate of about 30 kgN·ha⁻¹·yr⁻¹ over 690 Mha of global agricultural area. In sum, r^{grass} in B4-B5 is increased from currently 10.2 kgN·ha $^{-1}\cdot$ yr $^{-1}$ (year 2013) to 18 kgN·ha $^{-1}\cdot$ yr $^{-1}$ which adds 26 TgN·yr $^{-1}$ 667 668 compared to 2013. In addition to BNF intensification through fodder legumes, BNF intensification in 669 cropland also assumes a fourfold increase in green manures from currently 2.2 to 8.8 TgN·yr⁻¹, which 670 is consistent with the detailed analysis in Smil (ref. 62). In sum, r_{BNF}^{crop} in B4-B5 is increased from 671 currently 24.8 kgN·ha⁻¹·yr⁻¹ to 30 kgN·ha⁻¹·yr⁻¹, and total BNF in global agricultural area is increased 672 from 69 to 102 TgN \cdot yr⁻¹.
- 673
- 674 **Fraction of N voided on grassland (γ)**. There are no reliable large-scale literature estimates for γ. 675 Both over the benchmark period and in B1-B5, $γ$ is a model input variable equal to 50%. Model 676 sensitivity analysis for γ is addressed in Supplementary Figure 11n-p.
- 677 **Share of biowaste N return to agriculture (ρ) via human excreta and food waste management**. 678 There are no global estimates for ρ, and scarce available studies like for China suggest a sharp 679 decrease over the last decades⁶⁸. Over the benchmark period, we assume a linear decrease in ρ from 680 30% to 5%. In B1-B3, where industrial N fertilizers ensure no N limitation, ρ is equal to 5% as in 2013. 681 In B4-B5, ρ is a model input variable set to range from 5% to 30% (see Supplementary discussion).
- 682 **Nitrogen use efficiency in cropland (NUEcrop).** Over the benchmark period, NUEcrop is a model output 683 variable. Although upper thresholds for NUE_{crop} are unclear, historical trajectories at the scale of 684 countries indicate that NUE_{crop} improves with agricultural practices and, in rare cases, tends toward 685 an asymptote at around 70% (ref. 40 and Supplementary Figure 9). Only a handful of countries 686 (Austria, Denmark, France, Germany and USA) have managed to achieve this asymptote while 687 maintaining crop yields above 70 kgN·ha⁻¹·yr⁻¹ (Supplementary Figure 10). In B1 and B4, NUE_{crop} is 688 assumed equal to year 2013. In B2, B3 and B5, NUE_{crop} is set at 70%, which is very ambitious at the 689 global scale.
- 690 **Nitrogen use efficiency in grassland (NUE**_{grass}). NUE_{grass} is barely documented in the scientific 691 literature. Both over the benchmark period and in B1-B5, NUE $_{\rm grass}$ is a model input variable that we 692 assume constant at 75%. We address model sensitivity analysis on NUE_{grass} in Supplementary Figure 693 11k-m.
- 694 **Share of manure N recovery to cropland (β).** Over the benchmark period, β is a model input variable 695 (Supplementary Figure 7) calculated by combining N balance between N_{feed} and $N_{\text{excretion}}$ with data 696 reporting manure applied to soils 33 .
- 697 In B1-B2 and B4, β is assumed equal to 35% as in 2013. In B3 and B5, β is set at 80% which has 698 recently been suggested as an upper limit 69 .
- 699

700 **Uncertainty**

 The modeling system totals 28 variables, and allows simulating 7 output variables. Except for 4 model 702 variables for which long-term global data are not available (NHI, γ, ρ, NUE_{grass}), all model input variables (16 in each simulation) are calibrated over a benchmark period of half a century (1961- 2013) using best available literature estimates and global weighted average FAOSTAT data (Extended Data Figure 2,3 and Supplementary Figures 1-9). Model calibration on long data series reduces uncertainty and, in addition, simulations integrate minimum-maximum ranges for key model input 707 variables (α_{crops}, τ, r^{crop}, rgrass, NUE_{crop}, β, and ρ). Further, model sensitivity is addressed for individual variables (one-at-a-time) in Supplementary Figure 11 and for all model input variables combined through Monte Carlo simulations (Supplementary Figure 12 for B1-B3 and Supplementary Figure 13 for B4-B5).

711 **Planetary N sustainability thresholds**

712 Allowable N loss from global agriculture to remain within planetary N sustainability thresholds^{3,4,70} is 713 reported between 50 and 100 TgN (ref. 24). Expressed per hectare of global agricultural area, the 714 allowable global average N loss rate (r_{loss}) is between 10.5 and 21 kgN·ha⁻¹·yr⁻¹, with medium at 15.5 715 kgN·ha⁻¹·yr⁻¹. The above 3 r_{loss} values are adopted respectively as the lower, upper and medium 716 thresholds of planetary N sustainability.

717 __

Data availability

 The bulk of input data used in the analysis is derived from the statistics of the United Nations Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO), available at: [http://www.fao.org/faostat/en/#data.](http://www.fao.org/faostat/en/#data) The N 723 content coefficients of primary crops are taken from Lassaletta et al. (ref.) and the N content 724 coefficients of food supply are from FAOSTAT Food Balance Sheets (ref. ³⁴). Data on crop yield gaps 725 are taken from Mueller et al. (ref. 27). Other data sources are specified in Methods.

Code availability

 The code developed in the study is available from the corresponding author upon reasonable request.

Acknowledgements

 The work was developed with funding from the research program Emergence Ville de Paris Convention 2015 DDEES 165. The authors would like to thank Thomas Gregor for valuable stylistic remarks on a previous version of the manuscript.

Author Contributions Statement

 Both authors conceived and designed the study, analyzed and interpreted the data, defined the Methods, developed the ALPHA model, discussed the ideas and results, and wrote and revised the

paper.

Competing Interests Statement

- The authors declare no competing interest.
-
-
-
-
-

References

- 1. Foley, J. A. *et al.* Solutions for a cultivated planet. *Nature* **478**, 337–342 (2011).
- 2. Klein Goldewijk, K., Beusen, A., Doelman, J. & Stehfest, E. Anthropogenic land use estimates for the Holocene – HYDE 3.2. *Earth Syst. Sci. Data* **9**, 927–953 (2017).
- 3. Steffen, W. *et al.* Planetary boundaries: Guiding human development on a changing planet. *Science* **347**, 1259855–1259855 (2015).
- 4. Rockström, J. *et al.* A safe operating space for humanity. *Nature* **461**, 472–475 (2009).
- 5. Erb, K.-H. *et al.* Exploring the biophysical option space for feeding the world without deforestation. *Nat. Commun.* **7**, 11382 (2016).

 6. Ramankutty, N. *et al.* Trends in Global Agricultural Land Use: Implications for Environmental Health and Food Security. *Annu. Rev. Plant Biol.* **69**, 789–815 (2018). 7. Foley, J. A. Global Consequences of Land Use. *Science* **309**, 570–574 (2005). 8. Tilman, D., Cassman, K. G., Matson, P. A., Naylor, R. & Polasky, S. Agricultural sustainability and intensive production practices. *Nature* **418**, 671–677 (2002). 9. Krausmann, F. *et al.* Global human appropriation of net primary production doubled in the 20th century. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci.* **110**, 10324–10329 (2013). 10. Galloway, J. N. *et al.* The Nitrogen Cascade. *BioScience* **53**, 341–356 (2003). 11. Smil, V. *Enriching the earth: Fritz Haber, Carl Bosch, and the transformation of world food production*. (MIT, 2001). 12. Erisman, J. W., Sutton, M. A., Galloway, J., Klimont, Z. & Winiwarter, W. How a century of ammonia synthesis changed the world. *Nat. Geosci.* **1**, 636–639 (2008). 13. Smil, V. Nitrogen and Food Production: Proteins for Human Diets. *AMBIO J. Hum. Environ.* **31**, 126–131 (2002). 14. Vitousek, P. M. *et al.* Human Alteration of the Global Nitrogen Cycle: Sources and Consequences. *Ecol. Appl.* **7**, 737–750 (1997). 15. Sutton, M. A. *et al. The European nitrogen assessment: sources, effects and policy perspectives*. (Cambridge Univ. Press, 2011). 16. Cohen, J. E. *How many people can the Earth support?* (Norton, 1995). 17. Malthus, T. R. *First Essay on Population 1798*. (Palgrave Macmillan UK, 1966). doi:10.1007/978-1-349-81729-0. 18. Harchaoui, S. & Chatzimpiros, P. Energy, Nitrogen, and Farm Surplus Transitions in 777 Agriculture from Historical Data Modeling. France, 1882-2013.: Energy, Nitrogen, and Farm Surplus Transitions. *J. Ind. Ecol.* (2018) doi:10.1111/jiec.12760. 19. Van Den Bergh, J. C. J. M. & Rietveld, P. Reconsidering the Limits to World Population: Meta- analysis and Meta-prediction. *BioScience* **54**, 195 (2004). 20. Cohen, J. E. How many people can the Earth support? *J. Popul. Sustain.* **2**, 37–42 (2017). 21. Barbieri, P. *et al.* Global option space for organic agriculture is delimited by nitrogen availability. *Nat. Food* **2**, 363–372 (2021). 22. Billen, G. *et al.* Reshaping the European agro-food system and closing its nitrogen cycle: The potential of combining dietary change, agroecology, and circularity. *One Earth* **4**, 839–850 (2021). 23. UNDESA. *World Population Prospects: The 2022 Revision, Key Findings and Advance Tables.* (2022). 24. Bodirsky, B. L. *et al.* Reactive nitrogen requirements to feed the world in 2050 and potential to mitigate nitrogen pollution. *Nat. Commun.* **5**, (2014). 25. Dupas, M.-C., Halloy, J. & Chatzimpiros, P. Power law scaling and country-level centralization of global agricultural production and trade. *Environ. Res. Lett.* (2022) doi:10.1088/1748- 9326/ac54ca. 26. D'Odorico, P., Carr, J. A., Laio, F., Ridolfi, L. & Vandoni, S. Feeding humanity through global food trade. *Earths Future* **2**, 458–469 (2014). 27. Mueller, N. D. *et al.* Closing yield gaps through nutrient and water management. *Nature* **490**, 254–257 (2012). 28. Daioglou, V., Stehfest, E., Wicke, B., Faaij, A. & Vuuren, D. P. van. Projections of the availability and cost of residues from agriculture and forestry. *GCB Bioenergy* **8**, 456–470 (2016). 29. Oenema, O., de Klein, C. & Alfaro, M. Intensification of grassland and forage use: driving forces and constraints. *Crop Pasture Sci.* **65**, 524 (2014).

- 30. Fetzel, T. *et al.* Quantification of uncertainties in global grazing systems assessment: Uncertainties in Global Grazing Data. *Glob. Biogeochem. Cycles* **31**, 1089–1102 (2017).
- 31. Smil, V. *Feeding the world: a challenge for the twenty-first century*. (MIT Press, 2000).
- 32. Bengtsson, J. *et al.* Grasslands-more important for ecosystem services than you might think. *Ecosphere* **10**, e02582 (2019).
- 33. FAOSTAT. *FAO statistical database*. http://www.fao.org/faostat/en/#data/RL (2018).
- 34. FAOSTAT FBS. FAOSTAT Food Balance Sheet. *FAOSTAT Food Balance Sheet* http://www.fao.org/faostat/en/#data/FBS (2021).
- 35. Lemaire, G. *Grassland productivity and ecosystem services*. (CABI, 2011). doi:10.1079/9781845938093.0000.
- 36. Tilman, D., Wedin, D. & Knops, J. Productivity and sustainability influenced by biodiversity in grassland ecosystems. *Nature* **379**, 718–720 (1996).
- 37. OECD & Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations. *OECD-FAO Agricultural Outlook 2020-2029*. (OECD, 2020). doi:10.1787/1112c23b-en.
- 38. Mottet, A. *et al.* Livestock: On our plates or eating at our table? A new analysis of the feed/food debate. *Glob. Food Secur.* **14**, 1–8 (2017).
- 39. Bai, Z. *et al.* China's livestock transition: Driving forces, impacts, and consequences. *Sci. Adv.* **4**, eaar8534 (2018).
- 40. Lassaletta, L., Billen, G., Grizzetti, B., Anglade, J. & Garnier, J. 50 year trends in nitrogen use 822 efficiency of world cropping systems: the relationship between yield and nitrogen input to cropland. *Environ. Res. Lett.* **9**, 105011 (2014).
- 41. Smil, V. Eating Meat: Evolution, Patterns, and Consequences. *Popul. Dev. Rev.* **28**, 599–639 (2002).
- 42. Connor, D. J. Organic agriculture and food security: A decade of unreason finally implodes. *Field Crops Res.* **225**, 128–129 (2018).
- 43. Muller, A. *et al.* Strategies for feeding the world more sustainably with organic agriculture. *Nat. Commun.* **8**, (2017).
- 44. Willett, W. *et al.* Food in the Anthropocene: the EAT–Lancet Commission on healthy diets from sustainable food systems. *The Lancet* **393**, 447–492 (2019).
- 45. Zhang, X. *et al.* Managing nitrogen for sustainable development. *Nature* (2015) doi:10.1038/nature15743.
- 46. Conijn, J. G., Bindraban, P. S., Schröder, J. J. & Jongschaap, R. E. E. Can our global food system meet food demand within planetary boundaries? *Agric. Ecosyst. Environ.* **251**, 244–256 (2018).
- 47. Cowling, E. B. & Galloway, J. N. Challenges and opportunities facing animal agriculture: Optimizing nitrogen management in the atmosphere and biosphere of the Earth1. *J. Anim. Sci.* **80**, E157–E167 (2002).
- 48. Naylor, R. *et al.* Losing the Links Between Livestock and Land. *Science* **310**, 1621–1622 (2005).
- 49. Uwizeye, A. *et al.* Nitrogen emissions along global livestock supply chains. *Nat. Food* **1**, 437– 446 (2020).
- 50. Xia, L., Lam, S. K., Yan, X. & Chen, D. How Does Recycling of Livestock Manure in Agroecosystems Affect Crop Productivity, Reactive Nitrogen Losses, and Soil Carbon Balance? *Environ. Sci. Technol.* **51**, 7450–7457 (2017).
- 51. Xia, L. *et al.* Can knowledge-based N management produce more staple grain with lower greenhouse gas emission and reactive nitrogen pollution? A meta-analysis. *Glob. Change Biol.* **23**, 1917–1925 (2017).
- 52. Downs, S. M. & Fox, E. L. Uneven decline in food system inequality. *Nat. Food* **2**, 141–142 (2021).
- 53. FiBL. Area data on organic agriculture worldwide 2008-2019. https://statistics.fibl.org/world/area-
- world.html?tx_statisticdata_pi1%5Bcontroller%5D=Element2Item&cHash=f367262839ab9ca 2e7ac1f333fbb1ca2 (2021).
- 54. Nowak, B., Nesme, T., David, C. & Pellerin, S. To what extent does organic farming rely on nutrient inflows from conventional farming? *Environ. Res. Lett.* **8**, 044045 (2013).
- 55. Steffen, W. *et al.* Trajectories of the Earth System in the Anthropocene. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci.* **115**, 8252–8259 (2018).
- 56. Cassman, K. G. & Dobermann, A. Nitrogen and the future of agriculture: 20 years on: This article belongs to Ambio's 50th Anniversary Collection. Theme: Solutions-oriented research. *Ambio* s13280-021-01526-w (2021) doi:10.1007/s13280-021-01526-w.
- 57. FAO. *FOOD BALANCE SHEETS - A Handbook*. (FAO, 2001).
- 58. Lassaletta, L. *et al.* Food and feed trade as a driver in the global nitrogen cycle: 50-year trends. *Biogeochemistry* **118**, 225–241 (2014).
- 59. Smil, V. Crop Residues: Agriculture's Largest Harvest. *BioScience* **49**, 299–308 (1999).
- 60. Shepon, A., Eshel, G., Noor, E. & Milo, R. Energy and protein feed-to-food conversion efficiencies in the US and potential food security gains from dietary changes. *Environ. Res. Lett.* **11**, 105002 (2016).
- 61. Lassaletta, L. *et al.* Nitrogen use in the global food system: past trends and future trajectories of agronomic performance, pollution, trade, and dietary demand. *Environ. Res. Lett.* **11**, 095007 (2016).
- 62. Smil, V. Nitrogen in crop production: An account of global flows. *Glob. Biogeochem. Cycles* **13**, 647–662 (1999).
- 63. OECD-FAO. *OECD-FAO Agricultural Outlook 2022-2031*. (OECD, 2022). doi:10.1787/f1b0b29c-en.
- 64. McDuffie, E. E. *et al.* A global anthropogenic emission inventory of atmospheric pollutants 877 from sector- and fuel-specific sources (1970–2017): an application of the Community Emissions Data System (CEDS). *Earth Syst. Sci. Data* **12**, 3413–3442 (2020).
- 65. Heffer, P., Gruère, A. & Roberts, T. *Assessment of Fertilizer Use by Crop at the Global Level 2014-2014/15*. (International Fertilizer Industry Association, 2017).
- 66. Einarsson, R. *et al.* Crop production and nitrogen use in European cropland and grassland 1961–2019. *Sci. Data* **8**, 288 (2021).
- 67. Herridge, D. F., Peoples, M. B. & Boddey, R. M. Global inputs of biological nitrogen fixation in agricultural systems. *Plant Soil* **311**, 1–18 (2008).
- 68. Berendes, D. M., Yang, P. J., Lai, A., Hu, D. & Brown, J. Estimation of global recoverable human and animal faecal biomass. *Nat. Sustain.* **1**, 679–685 (2018).
- 69. Ju, X., Gu, B., Wu, Y. & Galloway, J. N. Reducing China's fertilizer use by increasing farm size. *Glob. Environ. Change* **41**, 26–32 (2016).
- 70. de Vries, W., Kros, J., Kroeze, C. & Seitzinger, S. P. Assessing planetary and regional nitrogen boundaries related to food security and adverse environmental impacts. *Curr. Opin. Environ. Sustain.* **5**, 392–402 (2013).
-

895 **Extended data Figure 1| Flow diagram of the modeling system.** Nitrogen (N) flows are indicated in absolute 896 terms (in bold, i.e. kgN·yr⁻¹) and per unit land (in light, i.e. kgN·ha⁻¹·yr⁻¹). τ and (1-τ) are re 896 terms (in bold, i.e. kgN·yr⁻¹) and per unit land (in light, i.e. kgN·ha⁻¹·yr⁻¹). τ and (1-τ) are respectively the share of 897 grassland and cropland in total agricultural land. Food production (N_{food}) is total primary production extracted 898 from grassland (N_{grass}) and cropland (N_{crop}), plus crop residues used for feed (N_{residues}), plus livestock production 899 (N_{livestock}) minus total feed (N_{feed}). N_{food} is human-edible biomass and is the sum of food supply (N_{food}^{supply}), seed, 900 loss and other uses. N_{food} and N_{food}^{supply} per unit agricultural land (ha) are respectively the food yield (Y_{food}) and 901 unitary food supply (Y_{food}^{supply}). α_{cross} and $\alpha_{residues}$ are respectively the shares of N_{crop} and crop residues production 902 used for feed. Total N input (N_{tot} in the equations – not illustrated) is the sum of N input to cropland and 903 grassland from biological nitrogen fixation (BNF), industrial N fertilizers (N_{ind}), atmospheric deposition (N_{atm})
904 and potential N return to agriculture (N_{hiowaste return}) from human waste management. N_{hiowa} and potential N return to agriculture (N_{biowaste_return}) from human waste management. N_{biowaste_return} is a fraction 905 (ρ) of N_{food}^{supply} . Total N input divides into N_{food} and N loss. Total system N use efficiency (NUE_{tot}) is the ratio of 906 N_{food} to total N input. NUE_{tot} integrates N use efficiency in cropland (NUE_{crop}) and grassland (NUE_{grass}), livestock
907 proteins conversion efficiency (NCE), the fraction of N excretion voided on grassland (y proteins conversion efficiency (NCE), the fraction of N excretion voided on grassland (γ) and the share of 908 manure N recovered to cropland (β).

910
911 **Extended Data Figure 2** | Food yield drivers over the benchmark period (1961-2013). Data are from ref. ³³. a. Solution 13 Crop yield (Y_{crop}) b. Share of crops used for feed (α_{crops}). c. Share of crop residues used for feed ($\alpha_{residues}$)
913 including uncertainty between constant share of 30% and decreasing share from 75 to 30% 913 including uncertainty between constant share of 30% and decreasing share from 75 to 30% over the period 914 (see Methods) d. Grass yield (Y_{grass}) and uncertainty according to the value of $\alpha_{residues}$ e. Livestock nitr 914 (see Methods) d. Grass yield (Y_{grass}) and uncertainty according to the value of α_{residues} e. Livestock nitrogen
915 conversion efficiency (NCE) f. share of grassland in total agricultural land (τ). 915 conversion efficiency (NCE) f. share of grassland in total agricultural land (τ).

Extended Data Figure 3| a. Total feed (TgN·yr-1 917 **) and breakdown among crops, grass and crop residues over the benchmark period (1961-2013) b. Current (2013) total livestock production (TgN·yr-1** 918 **).** Total feed and the 919 amount delivered from crops are derived from FAOSTAT (ref. 33) as described in Methods. The sum of grass and 920 residues is calculated as the difference between total feed and feed from crops. The relative contribution of 921 grass and crop residues is approximated considering a range for crop residues used for feed from 70 to 30%
922 (see Supplementary Figures 2c,d and Methods). Livestock production is derived from FAOSTAT (ref. 1) fo 922 (see Supplementary Figures 2c,d and Methods). Livestock production is derived from FAOSTAT (ref. 1) for year 923 2013 and split into ruminants meat, dairy and monogastric production. Monogastrics are exclusively grain-fed, 924 but feed of ruminants (dairy and beef) also includes crops.

926
927 **Extended Data Figure 4| Global average crop yield (Ycrop), food yield (Yfood) and N loss rate (rloss** 927 **) per unit** 928 **agricultural land in the organic boundary (B5) in function of the share of grassland in total agricultural land** 929 **(τ).** The calculation is done for biowaste N return to agriculture (ρ) of 30% and for share of crops used for feed 930 ($\alpha_{\rm crop}$) of 57% and 70%. The vertical dotted line indicates current global τ. The change in slope corresponds to 931 Y_{crop} equaling maximum Y_{crop} (full closure of organic crop yield gap). For Y_{crop} below maximum, Y_{crop} increases 932 with τ (because N limitation per unit cropland decreases with τ), but Y_{food} slightly decreases. For maximum Y_{crop}, 933 the decrease in Y_{food} in function of τ is steeper. The curves highlight that Y_{crop} increases with α_{crops} due to higher

934 manure production, and the increase also depends on the share of manure N return to cropland (β). The higher

935 the β, the faster the increase in Y_{crop} in function of α_{crops} .

Extended Data Figure 5 | Total simulated N input (N_{tot}) per source in the five food production boundaries (B1 939 **to B5).** B1-B3 are under industrial fertilization (N_{ind}) and B4-B5 under organic fertilization. N_{tot} is calculated for 940 a. current share of crops used for feed (α_{crops} = 57%) b. α_{crops} = 70% and c. α_{crops} = 0%. N_{tot} is the sum of N input

941 to cropland and grassland. N_{atm} stands for atmospheric N deposition, BNF for biological N fixation, N_{ind} for

942 industrial fertilizers input and N_{biowaste return} for biowaste N return to agriculture via human waste management.

943
944 **Extended Data Figure 6| Livestock production (TgN·yr-1 and %) in global food production boundaries (B1-B5) in function of the share of crops used for feed (αcrops)**. a. Food production boundaries under industrial fertilization (B1-B3). b. Organic food production boundary with current N use efficiency (B4). c. Organic food production boundary with improved N use efficiency (B5)**.** We distinguish between livestock production from grassland and residues (no feed competition) and livestock production from cropland (grain-fed livestock). Production from grassland and residues is dairy and ruminants meat, and production from cropland is undifferentiated between dairy and monogastrics production (pork, poultry and eggs). The red line divides ruminants' production between meat and milk. The vertical dotted lines indicate the share of crops used for 952 feed ($α_{cross}$) that corresponds to animal proteins content in healthy diet i.e. 26% (ref. ⁴⁴, Supplementary Table 5). Note that in B4, the share of animal proteins always exceeds the recommendation in healthy diets due to low crop yields.

-
- 956 **Extended Data Table 1| Summary table of model variables, abbreviations, and units. Model variables are classified between drivers of food yield, drivers of N cycling, drivers of food yield allocation to food supply, a** 957 classified between drivers of food yield, drivers of N cycling, drivers of food yield allocation to food supply, and
958 system-wide variables
- system-wide variables

962

963

964

966 **Extended Data Table 2 | Summary table of model variables classified between input and output over the**

967 **benchmark period and global weighted average data in 1961 and 2013.** Model input variables are further 968 distinguished between constant and fluctuating. Model output variables are systematically validated with literature data whenever available.

970

971

972

973

974

975

976

977

979 **Extended Data Table 3 | Summary table of model variables classified between input and output in the five**

980 **global food production boundaries (B1-B5), and data used in the simulations.** Model input variables are

981 further distinguished between constant and affected with a range. a. Global food production boundaries under
982 industrial fertilization (B1, B2, B3). b. Global food production boundaries under organic fertilization (

982 industrial fertilization (B1, B2, B3). b. Global food production boundaries under organic fertilization (B4, B5).
983 Values in square brackets indicate minimum-maximum range for model input variables in a given bounda

Values in square brackets indicate minimum-maximum range for model input variables in a given boundary.

984 **a. b.**

985

986

987

988

989

990