

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 International License

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

Petros Chatzimpiros^{1*} and Souhil Harchaoui^{2*} 3 4 5 petros.chatzimpiros@u-paris.fr 6 souhil.harchaoui@inrae.fr 7 8 Université Paris Cité, LIED, CNRS UMR 8236, F-75013 Paris, France 2 9 INRAE, Institut Agro Rennes-Angers, UMR SAS, 35000 Rennes, France 10 [•] Corresponding authors 11 12 This document is a preprint of the following paper: 13 Chatzimpiros, P., Harchaoui, S., 2023. Sevenfold variation in global feeding capacity 14 15 depends on diets, land use and nitrogen management. Nat. Food. https://doi.org/10.1038/s43016-023-00741-w 16 Please cite this reference if you mention this work 17

18

19

20 Harvested food carries a fraction of the nitrogen applied through fertilization; the remainder is 21 typically lost into the environment, impairing planetary sustainability. Using a global agriculture 22 model that integrates key drivers of food production and nitrogen cycling, we simulated upper 23 bounds to global feeding capacity - and associated nitrogen pollution - in function of nitrogen 24 limitation under organic and industrial fertilization regimes. We found that the current agricultural 25 area could feed ca. 8-20 billion people under unconstrained industrial fertilization and ca. 3-14 26 billion under organic fertilization. These ranges are inversely correlated with animal proteins in 27 human diets, and are a function of feed-food competition, grassland-to-cropland allocation, and -28 in the case of organic fertilization - nitrogen use efficiency. Improved nitrogen use efficiency is 29 required to bring nitrogen pollution within planetary sustainability limits and is also essential in 30 narrowing down food productivity gaps between organic and industrial fertilization regimes.

31

32 The feeding capacity of agriculture, or the supportable global population as constrained by food, 33 depends on global agricultural area and human-edible production per hectare (the so-called 'food 34 yield'). Today, agriculture is the largest human land appropriation on Earth, covering nearly 40% of ice-free $land^1 - a$ tenfold increase in twenty centuries² – and global population is higher than ever. 35 36 However, agricultural land, food yield and, thereby, agriculture's global feeding capacity, are subject to upper limits. Considering Earth system sustainability thresholds^{3,4}, agricultural land expansion is 37 widely dismissed as highly unsustainable⁵⁻⁹; in the case of food yield, upper bounds echo biophysical 38 39 constraints in plants and livestock, as well as factors such as global agricultural land allocation 40 between cropland and grassland, crop mix, human diets composition and nutrients management. An 41 integrated analysis of these factors is necessary for framing the option space of global food 42 production.

44 Because proteins are essential nutrients and their production relies on reactive nitrogen (N), global food production is conditioned by N availability^{10,11}. Global N availability and crop productivity have 45 dramatically increased with the development of fossil-fueled industrial N fertilizers by the early 20th 46 47 century¹¹, which have enabled the decoupling of global population growth from agricultural land expansion^{12,13}. As a side-effect, increased N availability combined with poor N use efficiency in 48 49 agriculture have triggered massive global N pollution with adverse impacts on climate, water 50 resources, air quality, biodiversity, ecosystem services, economic development and human health^{10,14,15}. By dismissing future global agricultural area expansion as unsustainable³, upper bounds 51 52 to the food yield govern the maximum edible output of global agriculture and, thereby, the upper 53 global feeding capacity and associated N pollution.

54

43

55 The issue of global feeding capacity has been raised since the work of Antoni van Leeuwenhoek (1679, ref. ¹⁶), who coined an upper estimate of 13.4 billion people on Earth by extrapolating the 56 population density in the Netherlands at that time on the entire inhabitable surface of Earth. Much 57 later, Thomas Malthus (ref. ¹⁷) published his notorious prediction that human population growth 58 59 would be limited by linearly growing food production, which has proven wrong to date thanks to 60 agricultural land expansion combined with stepwise crop yield increases under abundant fertilization and mechanization¹⁸. By the early 21st century, over hundred estimates of maximum supportable 61 global population had been published, diverging by more than two orders of magnitude (from about 62 1 to 100 billion people^{16,19,20}). Despite great interest in this question and the diversity of approaches 63 64 used to answer it, there is still poor understanding of the mechanisms, key drivers and constraints 65 that shape the global feeding capacity.

66

Here, we develop a deterministic model – the Agricultural Limits quantification through PHysical 67 68 flows Analysis in cropland, grassland and livestock compartments ('ALPHA' - see Methods and 69 Extended Data Figure 1 for a flow diagram) – to simulate the global feeding capacity and N pollution 70 within an option space of diets, land use and N flows management. This model accounts for total 71 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 72 73 competition, grassland-to-cropland allocation and N management without inherent assumptions on future diets composition or implicit organic-to-industrial crop yield gaps^{21,22}. Food productivity was 74 75 simulated as a function of six drivers that are commonly documented in reference databases, and 76 that we integrated with a dozen drivers of agricultural N cycling including N input, use efficiency and 77 biowaste N return from food supply to agriculture. We calibrated and validated the model with 78 global scale data from the United Nations Food and Agricultural Organization (FAOSTAT) and existing 79 literature over the benchmark period 1961-2013 following a three-step process. First, we calibrated 80 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. 82 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 83 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 86 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 88 helping bridge food productivity gaps between organic and industrial systems. Our population estimates intersect with current UN projections for the 21st century²³ at levels that define global food 89 90 demand compatibility with global average composition of diets, cropland-to-grassland allocation and N management. Associated with food production, we show that global N loss is ~0.5-3 times the
 medium threshold suggested for planetary N sustainability²⁴ – a threshold that has been transgressed
 since the early 1960s. We discuss the relative change required in key drivers of food production and
 N cycling to meet 21st-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 Y_{food} means that global food production is enough for meeting global food demand (both expressed in proteins), whereas heterogeneity in respective spatial distributions is balanced through trade²⁵. 99 Accordingly, Y_{food} sets an upper bound to global feeding capacity, as it implies a perfect match in 100 space and time between food availability and demand²⁶. We modeled global weighted average Y_{food} 101 102 and its content in animal proteins as a function of six drivers, four of which are positive and two of which are negative (Fig.1a and Methods). The four positive drivers, namely crop yield (Y_{crop}), grass 103 yield (Y_{erass}), livestock nitrogen conversion efficiency (NCE) and crop residues used for feed ($\alpha_{residues}$), 104 are subject to biophysical upper bounds. Upper bounds have been recently specified for Y_{crop} by 105 previous studies based on biophysical factors analysis in world regions²⁷, and also condition crop 106 residues production according to the harvest index of crops, i.e. the ratio of human-edible to total 107 crop mass. Of all crop residues, $\alpha_{residues}$ is an allocation choice between food, energy, materials and 108 soil conservation strategies²⁸. Similarly, Y_{grass} is biophysically bounded (although upper bounds 109 remain elusive due to significant heterogeneity and uncertainty in grassland areas^{29,30}). For NCE, 110 upper bounds are specific to animal products 31 – and, for this reason, largely depend on dietary 111 preference between animal products. The two remaining drivers, namely the share of crops used for 112 feed (α_{croos}) and the share of grassland in global agricultural area (τ), are negative since they divert 113 114 primary biomass from direct human use. These two negative drivers are not biophysically constrained and vary according to dietary preferences, soil and climate conditions and ecological 115 116 valuation of resources^{32,30}.

117

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

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}

and τ) by setting the four positive drivers (Y_{crop}, Y_{grass}, NCE, $\alpha_{residues}$) at 2013 levels. The trade-off curve 137 138 shows that the same Y_{food} level as in 2013 could theoretically be sustained through various combinations of α_{croops} and τ , meaning that the share of grassland could increase when animal 139 140 proteins in diets decrease, and vice versa. Of course, large-scale τ change is not a pure human choice, but also depends on soil and climate conditions. Nonetheless, as a thought experiment, our trade-off 141 curve suggests that by lowering global τ at 31%, current (2013) global population could be 142 theoretically fed even with a generalized western diet (55% animal proteins). In this line, the ongoing 143 westernization of diets at the global scale $^{\rm 37}$ might be a threat to global grassland as it might drive τ 144 down as it happened since year 2000. We argue that the trade-off between α_{crops} and τ raises key 145 146 dilemmas on how future increases in crop yields and other food productivity factors should be allocated among human population growth, animal proteins in diets³⁸ and τ increase for 147 sustainability^{10,26}. 148



149

Fig. 1|Food yield modeling. a. Schematic representation of the six food yield (Y_{food}) drivers and total agricultural land (AL). The positive drivers (in green letter) are the crop yield (Y_{crop}) , grass yield (Y_{grass}) , share of trop residues used for feed $(\alpha_{residues})$ and livestock nitrogen conversion efficiency (NCE). The negative drivers (in red letters) are the share of crops used for feed (α_{crops}) and the share of grassland in global agricultural area (τ) . Dotted arrows connect primary production from cropland (N_{crop} and $N_{residues}$) and grassland (N_{grass}) to humanedible vegetal (N_{crops}^{humans}) and animal ($N_{livestock}$) production. **b**. Global average Y_{food} simulated in function of the 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 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.

161 Global food production boundaries

Global weighted average Y_{food} as defined by the six drivers is a fraction of global N input per unit 162 agricultural area and defines total agricultural N use efficiency (NUE_{tot}); the remaining fraction is 163 164 environmental N loss per unit area (r_{loss}). By connecting N input and use efficiency in cropland, grassland and livestock production to Y_{food} and r_{loss} (see Methods, Extended Data Figure 1 and 165 166 Extended Data Table 1), we simulated five global food production boundaries – three under 167 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 168 169 pollution by considering, on the one hand, wide ranges of feed-food competition (α_{crops} from 0 to 170 70%) and grassland-to-cropland allocation (τ from 72.2 to 70% i.e. 100 million hectares of grassland 171 conversion to cropland) and, on the other hand, a variety of production practices and literature-172 derived upper thresholds to food productivity. The classification of model variables between input 173 and output in each simulation and the model input data used in B1-B5 are detailed in Methods and 174 summarized by comparison to 1961 and 2013 in Extended Data Tables 2 and 3. The model input data 175 in B1-B5 reflect plausible global improvements based on literature estimates, past trends (Extended 176 data Figure 2 and Supplementary Figures 1-8) and, as far as N use efficiency in cropland is concerned, 177 best performing countries (Supplementary Figures 9-10). In B1-B3, industrial fertilization enables 178 unconstrained N input, which – in absence of other limiting factors – supports the full closure of crop yield gaps worldwide (ref. ²⁷ and Supplementary Table 2). In B4-B5, crop yields are a function of N 179 180 limitation and are simulated across wide ranges of total biological N fixation (BNF from currently 70 181 to 100 TgN), biowaste N return to agriculture (from currently 5 to 30%) and improved N use 182 efficiency. The considered increase in total BNF combines extensive integration of fodder legumes in 183 rotations, including a full plantation of current fallow land, legume-enriched grasslands and green 184 manures intensification in cropland. Under unconstrained fertilization, N use efficiency governs N input requirement and r_{loss}, whereas under N limitation, N use efficiency and r_{loss} govern food 185 productivity. Across B1-B5, global average N use efficiency is set to range from levels as low as today 186 187 in B1 and B4 – 44% for cropland and 35% for manure N management (Supplementary Figures 7,8) – to very ambitious levels^{39,40} i.e. 70% in cropland in B2, B3 and B5 and 80% in manure N management 188 in B3 and B5. The model was analyzed for sensitivity to input variables in Supplementary Figures 11-189 190 13.

191 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 193 feeding capacity is independent of the spatial distribution of agricultural production and demand. 194 Indeed, weighted global average data provide sufficient information for assessing the supportable global population, while spatial heterogeneity and subsequent regional food surpluses and deficits 195 are balanced through trade²⁵. Trade is considered a "zero-sum game" at the global scale, as total 196 197 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 198 products, fat tissues are easier to produce than protein tissues⁴¹, meaning that adequate protein 199 200 intake in human diets also implies sufficient calories intake.

We found that maximum feeding capacity of global agricultural area ranged from ~8 to ~20 billion people under industrial fertilization (B1-B3) and from ~3 to ~14 billion under organic fertilization (B4-B5), depending on animal proteins in diets, grassland-to-cropland allocation and N cycling. In B1-B3, τ decrease allowed for an increase of total feeding capacity thanks to unconstrained N input, whereas 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} varied with N use efficiency (but in contrast to industrial fertilization, N use efficiency under organic 207 208 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 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 210 211 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 α_{crops} , and, on 213 the other hand, N use efficiency. As highlighted in Fig.2, the same increase in N input (through higher BNF and p) had a much more limited effect on productivity in B4 (low N use efficiency) than in B5 214 215 (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 neglected^{42,43}. 217

Current population projections for the 21st century (ref. ²³ and Supplementary Figure 14) intersect 218 with the feeding capacity in B1-B3 and in B5, whereas B4 clearly falls below challenges due to 219 220 unimproved N use efficiency. Naturally, in all cases, the feeding capacity maximizes for zero feed-221 food competition ($\alpha_{cross}=0$), 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 (~20 billion 223 people) contains, on average, 15% animal proteins compared to 35% today. In B5, the global feeding 224 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 226 population is 7.4 billion. Assuming vegan diets (that is, no consumption of animal proteins), the 227 feeding capacity falls to 17.4 billion people in B1-B3 – which is 11% below the estimated maximum. 228 Because vegan diets further imply reduced nutrient transfer from grassland to cropland, the feeding 229 capacity in B5 falls to 6.6 billion people. N input per source over the benchmark period 1961-2013 230 and in B1-B5 is shown in Supplementary Figure 6 and Extended Data Figure 5, respectively.





232 Fig.2 | Food yield (Y_{food}, left axis), feeding capacity (Global_{pop}, right axis) and N loss rate (r_{loss}) 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 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 - the peak 237 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 72.3 to 70.2 %. In B4-B5, borders indicate successive increases in biological N fixation rate in cropland (r_{BNF}^{crop}) , grassland (r_{BNF}^{grass}) and 239 biowaste N return to agriculture (p). N use efficiency in cropland (NUE_{crop}) and the share of manure N 240 241 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 sustainability.

245 Our results show that to reach the medium UN variant of 10.4 billion people, animal proteins in diets 246 should not exceed ~40% in B1-B3 and ~37% in B5 (which are slightly higher levels than current global 247 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 250 in B5 (Extended data Figure 6). In contrast, the high UN variant (14.7 billion people) is out of reach in 251 all cases even with healthy diets, and only becomes reachable for diets containing less than 23% 252 animal proteins. By extrapolating the current share of animal proteins in western diets (55%) at the 253 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 254 255 improvement in biological N fixation and biowaste N return to agriculture, the feeding capacity is 256 about 5 and 7.5 billion people respectively. Note that crop productivity in the simulations assumes 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 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.

263

264 Changes in nitrogen use efficiency

Total N use efficiency (NUE_{tot}), i.e. the ratio of Y_{food} to total N input, decreased between 1961 and 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 1980s. Nitrogen use efficiency in cropland alone (NUE_{crop}) has decreased in time and is today 44%, which is in line with previous estimates^{40,45}(Supplementary Figure 8). Cropland is by far the most 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.

Livestock systems play a major role in the gap between NUE_{crop} and NUE_{tot}. Of total current 272 agricultural N loss estimated at 170 TgN, which is in line with a recent estimate⁴⁶, livestock 273 274 production contributes 75% - loss from manure, grassland and cropland accounting for 28, 15 and 275 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 277 past decades (Supplementary Figure 7) highlights increasing disconnection and, thus, growing global challenges in closing nutrients loops between crop and livestock systems⁴⁷⁻⁴⁹. In Fig.3b, we stress that 278 each boundary has different NUE_{tot} depending on NUE_{crop}, β and Y_{food}, and that, for a given food 279 280 production boundary – meaning under constant production practices – NUE_{tot} decreases with α_{cross} .

Accordingly, decreasing the consumption of animal proteins and recoupling livestock and crop 281 systems are essential conditions for reducing N pollution and addressing sustainability challenges. 282 283 Unfortunately, planetary N sustainability targets are out of reach in B1 and B2 even with vegan diets, 284 and are hard to achieve even in B3 despite N use efficiency being at maximum. This suggests that 285 tackling N sustainability issues under industrial fertilization would possibly require a decrease in the 286 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 287 targets^{7,32,35,50}. However, cropland to grassland conversion would contrast with past trends and lower 288 289 down the global feeding capacity. Under organic fertilization, B4 highlights that agricultural 290 intensification without improvement in N use efficiency is incompatible with both food production 291 and environmental sustainability challenges, and that increased N use efficiency as in B5 is a key 292 condition for meeting these challenges. Accordingly, pollution mitigation requires integrated and 293 multi-scale nutrient management strategies such as the adoption of best management practices at farm scale⁵¹ and a system design involving synergies between crop and livestock farms in view of 294 295 intensive nutrient pooling and recycling at landscape scale. Although ambitious, such goals are 296 actionable through knowledge-based system planning, whose adoption supports climate change mitigation beyond the N cycle⁵⁰. In contrast, N waste reduction through dietary change is socially 297 more challenging because of global socioeconomic disparities. Indeed, reducing α_{crops} implies 298 reducing global livestock production, which is likely to accentuate consumption inequalities between 299 population groups in rich and poor countries⁵² (Supplementary Figure 15). To tackle such risks and 300 prevent environmental protection measures from accentuating inequalities or triggering food shocks, 301

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

304 In all simulations, Y_{food} and r_{loss} are complement fractions of N input even though the soil N pool 305 might not always be constant in time. Indeed, N storage is controlled by soil conditions, land-use and 306 management practices which are subject to change, but the way these factors combine into soil 307 composition change is particularly hard to quantify at large spatiotemporal scales and is out of the 308 scope of the present analysis. However, it can be argued that improved practices over time might 309 have enabled potential N built-up in global soils, in particular grassland, but in contrast, the decline in 310 the share of grassland through conversion to cropland over the last decades (τ decrease, Extended Data Figure 2f) might have backfired and offset such storage. Accordingly, rloss trajectory from global 311 312 agriculture might have been less regular than shown in our results due to inter-annual N stock 313 change in relation to land-use change, which highlights that land management needs to integrate a 314 long-term perspective.



315

Fig.3 Total N use efficiency (NUE_{tot}) **in global agriculture.** a. NUE_{tot} 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 (α_{crops}). 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 is done for the least N limitation (the highest Y_{food}) for each α_{crops} . The vertical dotted line indicates current global average α_{crops} . The color grid displays the feeding capacity (Global_{pop}) in B1-B5.

321

322 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 respectively). The growth required is lower than observed since 1961 for Y_{crop} and NCE, and slightly higher for Y_{grass}, whereas unprecedented efforts will be needed in NUE_{crop} and manure N recycling (β). 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, should start increasing faster than Y_{crop}. To meet the medium threshold of N planetary sustainability, the share of grassland in global agricultural area should also increase and animal production decrease (Supplementary Table 4).

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



341 Fig. 4| Average non-compounding growth rates (%·yr⁻¹) 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 conversion efficiency (NCE), share of crops used for feed (α_{crops}), share of grassland in global agricultural area 345 346 (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.

- 351
- 352

353 Conclusion

354 Global food production and N loss are heading toward B1, and a synchronous increase in Y_{food} and NUE_{tot} will be a great challenge in the 21st century. Such a synchronous increase is all the more 355 essential in organic farming to help closing Y_{food} gaps. The ongoing expansion in the demand for food 356 357 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 sustainability by driving up global agricultural land⁵⁵, N fertilizers use and loss⁵⁶. Understanding the 359 drivers of Y_{food} and NUE_{tot} allows the assessment of these upper thresholds and can provide useful 360 361 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 $(Y_{food}, kgN \cdot ha^{-1} \cdot yr^{-1})$ is defined as total human-edible harvest $(N_{food}, kgN \cdot yr^{-1})$ per unit 373 agricultural land (AL, ha).

374 375

376

 $Y_{food} = \frac{N_{food}}{AL}$ (eq.1)

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

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

384 385

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

 $\begin{array}{ll} 386 & N_{crop} \text{ is routed to feed } (N_{crops}^{livestock}) \text{ and to uses other than feed } (N_{crops}^{humans}) \text{ according to the share of} \\ 387 & crops used for feed } (\alpha_{crops}, \%) \text{ following equations 3 to 5.} \end{array}$

388 389

$$N_{\rm crop} = N_{\rm crops}^{\rm humans} + N_{\rm crops}^{\rm livestock}$$
(eq. 3)

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

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

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

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

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

 $N_{\text{residues}} = \left(\alpha_{\text{residues}} \times \frac{1 - \text{NHI}}{\text{NHI}}\right) \times Y_{\text{crop}} \times (1 - \tau) \times \text{AL}$

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

399 400

396

397

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

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.

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_{crops} , τ).

409

406

$$Y_{food} = \left(NCE \times \left(\alpha_{residues} \times \frac{1 - NHI}{NHI}\right) + 1\right) \times Y_{crop} \times (1 - \tau) + NCE \times Y_{grass} \times \tau + \alpha_{crops} \times (1 - \tau) \times Y_{crop} \times (NCE - 1)$$
(eq. 10)

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

413

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

415

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

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

420

418

421 Share_{animal} =
$$\frac{\delta_{animal} \times N_{livestock}}{N_{food}^{supply}}$$
 (eq.12)

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

424

425
$$Global_{pop} = \delta_{weighted} \times Y_{food} \times AL / n_{food}^{supply}$$
(eq. 13)

426

(eq. 9)

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

428
$$\delta_{\text{weighted}} \times Y_{\text{food}} = Y_{\text{food}}^{\text{supply}} = \left(\delta_{\text{animal}} \times N_{\text{livestock}} + \delta_{\text{vegetal}} \times N_{\text{crops}}^{\text{humans}} \right) / AI$$

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

432

434

438 439 440

442 443

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}.

$$N_{tot} = N_{food} + N_{loss}$$
 (eq. 14)

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

$$NUE_{tot} = \frac{N_{food}}{N_{tot}}$$
 (eq. 15)

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

448 449 $N_{tot} = BNF + N_{ind} + N_{atm} + N_{biowaste_return}$ (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

459

460

450

454 $N_{biowaste return}$ is a fraction (ρ , %) of total food supply:

455
$$N_{biowaste_return} = N_{food}^{supply} \times \rho$$
 (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
$$N_{atm} = (r_{atm}^{grass} \times \tau + r_{atm}^{crop} \times (1 - \tau)) \times AL$$
 (eq. 19)
464

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.

470 where $r_{ind}^{grass}(kgN\cdot ha^{-1}\cdot yr^{-1})$ and $r_{ind}^{crop}(kgN\cdot ha^{-1}\cdot yr^{-1})$ are the N industrial input rates in grassland and 471 cropland respectively.

472

480

481

482 483

484 485 486

469

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^{grass}_{manure}), N recovered as fertilizer in 475 support of crops and residues production (N^{crop}_{manure} and N^{residues} respectively) and N loss from 476 manure (N^{loss}_{manure}). We assume that N^{grass}_{manure} is a fraction (γ, %) of N feed from grassland (N_{grass}) and 477 that N^{residues} equals N feed from residues (N_{residues}). The difference between N_{excretion} and the sum of 478 N^{grass}_{manure} and N^{residues}_{manure} divides into N^{crop}_{manure} and N^{loss}_{manure}. β is the ratio of N^{crop}_{manure} to the sum of 479 N^{crop}_{manure} and N^{loss}_{manure}. The N balance of total excretion follows equations 21 to 25:

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

 $N_{ind} = \left(r_{ind}^{grass} \times \tau + r_{ind}^{crop} \times (1 - \tau)\right) \times AL$

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

$$N_{manure}^{residues} = N_{residues}$$
 (eq. 23)

487
$$N_{\text{manure}}^{\text{crop}} = ((1 - \text{NCE}) \times (N_{\text{crops}}^{\text{livestock}} + N_{\text{residues}} + N_{\text{grass}} \times (1 - \gamma)) - N_{\text{residues}}) \times \beta$$
 (eq. 24)
488

489
$$N_{\text{manure}}^{\text{loss}} = ((1 - \text{NCE}) \times (N_{\text{crops}}^{\text{livestock}} + N_{\text{residues}} + N_{\text{grass}} \times (1 - \gamma)) - N_{\text{residues}}) \times (1 - \beta)$$

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

- $Y_{grass} = NUE_{grass} \times \left(r_{BNF}^{grass} + r_{atm}^{grass} + r_{ind}^{grass} + \frac{N_{manure}^{grass}}{\tau \times AL} \right)$ (eq. 26)
- 497 498

499

502 503

492

495

496

$$r_{grass}^{loss} = (1 - NUE_{grass}) \times (Y_{grass}/NUE_{grass})$$
 (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):

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

506

 $r_{crop}^{loss} = (1 - NUE_{crop}) \times (Y_{crop}/NUE_{crop})$ (eq. 29)

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

508

509
$$r_{loss} = r_{crop}^{loss} \times (1 - \tau) + r_{grass}^{loss} \times \tau + N_{manure}^{loss} / AL$$
 (eq. 30)

510

14

(eq. 20)

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

513 514 $Y_{grass} = \frac{NUE_{grass} \times (r_{BNF}^{grass} + r_{atm}^{grass} + r_{ind}^{grass})}{(1 - NUE_{grass} \times (1 - NCE) \times \gamma)}$ (eq. 31)

515 516

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

- 517
- 518

519
$$\text{NUE}_{\text{tot}} = \frac{Y_{\text{food}}}{\left(\left(r_{\text{BNF}}^{\text{grass}} + r_{\text{ind}}^{\text{grass}} + r_{\text{atm}}^{\text{grass}}\right) \times \tau + \left(r_{\text{BNF}}^{\text{crop}} + r_{\text{ind}}^{\text{crop}} + r_{\text{atm}}^{\text{crop}}\right) \times (1 - \tau) + Y_{\text{food}}^{\text{supply}} \times \rho\right) \quad (\text{eq. 33})$$

520

521 522

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

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

524

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 (Y_{food}), the share of animal proteins in diets (Share_{animal}), global feeding capacity (Global_{pop}), N loss rate (r_{loss}), and total N use efficiency (NUE_{tot}). Over the benchmark period, the 2 531 additional model output variables are the biological N fixation rate in grassland (r^{grass}) and N use 532 efficiency in cropland (NUE_{crop}). In B1-B3 (unconstrained industrial fertilization), the 2 additional 533 model output variables are the industrial N input rates in cropland (r_{ind}^{crop}) and grassland (r_{ind}^{grass}). In B4-534 535 B5 (organic fertilization), the 2 additional model output variables are the crop yield (Y_{crop}) and grass yield (Y_{grass}). Note that in this case Y_{crop} is recursive by depending on N_{food}^{supply} through $\rho.$ The 536 resolution of the modeling system in B4-B5 requires two steps. First, we calculate Y_{crop} and Y_{food}^{supply} for 537 ρ =0, then we inject the result in the modelling system and recalculate Y_{food}^{supply} . 538

539 In the following subsection, we specify the classification of model variables between input and 540 output in each simulation and present the model calibration. Full data series over the benchmark 541 period are shown in Extended Data Figures 2-3 and Supplementary Figures 1-8. Extended Data Tables 542 2,3 summarize, on the one hand, the classification of model variables between input and output, 543 and, on the other hand, global weighted average data in 1961 and 2013 (Extended Data Table 2) and

(eq. 32)

in B1-B5 (Extended Data Table 3a,b). Sensitivity analysis of the model is addressed in SupplementaryFigures 11-13.

546

547 Food yield and production

548

549 **Crop yield (Y_{crop}).** Over the benchmark period, Y_{crop} 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}.

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

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

566

567 $N_{crops}^{livestock} = \sum_{i} \left(Prod_{i} \times N_{i}^{prod} - (Supply_{i} + Loss_{i}) \times N_{i}^{supply} - (Seed_{i} + Other_{i}) \times N_{i}^{prod} \right)$ 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, α_{crops} 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).

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

- In B1-B5, NHI and $\alpha_{residues}$ are kept constant at respectively 70% and 30% as in 2013 (see Supplementary discussion and sensitivity analysis in Supplementary Figure 11a-d). In contrast to Y_{crop}, Y_{grass} is poorly documented in the scientific literature. In B1-B3, global weighted Y_{grass} is a model input variable set at 29 kgN·ha⁻¹·yr⁻¹, which is 30% above current (2013) level. Such increase is ambitious given the majority of semi-natural areas in global grassland³⁰. In Supplementary Figure 10i,j, we provide model sensitivity analysis on Y_{grass}. In B4-B5, Y_{grass} is a model output variable simulated in 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).
- In B1-B5, global aggregate NCE is a model input variable. Upper bounds to NCE are specific to animal products³¹, meaning that global aggregate NCE depends on improvements in animal breeding but also on choice of animal proteins in diets. In B1-B5, we assume product-specific NCE of 15% for monogastrics⁶⁰ (pork, poultry and eggs) and dairy production and 5% for ruminants meat³¹, and set the global upper threshold for aggregate NCE at 11.2%. This threshold is more ambitious than previous estimates⁶¹ and is 30% above current NCE. We address model sensitivity analysis on NCE in Supplementary Figure 10e,f and Supplementary discussion.
- 605 **Global agricultural area (AL) and the share of grassland in global agricultural area (t).** 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 (Y_{food}) allocation and average food supply per capita (n_{food}^{supply}). Over the 618 benchmark period, Y_{food} as reconstructed annually from equation 10 is validated on FAOSTAT data. 619 620 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 ($\delta_{vegetal}$) 622 and animal proteins (δ_{animal}). Average $\delta_{vegetal}$ and δ_{animal} over the benchmark period are respectively 69% and 98% (ref. ³³). The calculated annual Y_{food}, food supply and its content in animal 623 proteins are smoothened over time assuming global harvest variability absorption through 624 interannual stocks. Global average food supply per capita (n_{food}^{supply}) excluding seafood allows connecting food availability to global population, and has increased from 3.43 kgN·cap⁻¹·yr⁻¹ in 1961 625 626 to 4.43 kgN·cap⁻¹·yr⁻¹ in 2013 (ref. 33 and Supplementary Figure 3). 627
- 628 In B1-B5, we assume global weighted average allocation ($\delta_{weighted}$) of Y_{food} to Y_{food}^{supply} equal to 72% 629 which is the weighted average $\delta_{vegetal}$ and δ_{animal} in 2013. Global weighted average n_{food}^{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 (N**_{atm}). Over the benchmark period, N_{atm} 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·ha⁻¹·yr⁻¹ as in year 2013.

640 **Industrial N fertilizer (N**_{ind}). Over the benchmark period, N_{ind} 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^{crop}_{ind}) and grassland (r^{grass}_{ind}) 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.

648 **Global average biological nitrogen fixation (BNF) rates in cropland (** r_{BNF}^{crop} **) and grassland (** r_{BNF}^{grass} **).** 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).

variable (Supplementary Figure 4). In B1-B3, r_{BNF}^{crop} and r_{BNF}^{grass} do not affect Y_{food} thanks to unconstrained N_{ind} , and are model input 655 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 656 657 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 cropland and grassland. Because in our model fallow land, temporary meadows and fodder legumes 659 are classified as grassland, fodder legumes plantation in these land systems is the main lever of 660 global BNF intensification. We calculate improved r_{BNF}^{grass} by assuming the plantation of all global 661 fallow land estimated at ~100 Mha (ref. ³³) with fodder legumes fixing 125 kgN·ha⁻¹·yr⁻¹ throughout 662 the year. In addition, we assume that half of global cropland enters rotations with temporary 663 grassland and fodder legumes fixing 125 kgN·ha⁻¹·yr⁻¹ over multiannual cycles. The frequency of fixing 664 crops in these cycles is assumed to be of 2 years within 8 year rotations, resulting in average annual 665 fixation rate of about 30 kgN·ha⁻¹·yr⁻¹ over 690 Mha of global agricultural area. In sum, r^{grass}_{BNF} in B4-B5 666 is increased from currently 10.2 kgN·ha⁻¹·yr⁻¹ (year 2013) to 18 kgN·ha⁻¹·yr⁻¹ which adds 26 TgN·yr⁻¹ 667 compared to 2013. In addition to BNF intensification through fodder legumes, BNF intensification in 668 cropland also assumes a fourfold increase in green manures from currently 2.2 to 8.8 TgN·yr⁻¹, which 669 is consistent with the detailed analysis in Smil (ref. ⁶²). In sum, r_{BNF}^{crop} in B4-B5 is increased from 670 currently 24.8 kgN·ha⁻¹·yr⁻¹ to 30 kgN·ha⁻¹·yr⁻¹, and total BNF in global agricultural area is increased 671 672 from 69 to 102 TgN·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).
- Nitrogen use efficiency in cropland (NUE_{crop}). Over the benchmark period, NUE_{crop} is a model output 682 683 variable. Although upper thresholds for NUE_{crop} are unclear, historical trajectories at the scale of countries indicate that NUE_{crop} improves with agricultural practices and, in rare cases, tends toward 684 an asymptote at around 70% (ref. 40 and Supplementary Figure 9). Only a handful of countries 685 (Austria, Denmark, France, Germany and USA) have managed to achieve this asymptote while 686 maintaining crop yields above 70 kgN·ha⁻¹·yr⁻¹ (Supplementary Figure 10). In B1 and B4, NUE_{crop} is 687 assumed equal to year 2013. In B2, B3 and B5, NUE_{crop} is set at 70%, which is very ambitious at the 688 689 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_{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 $N_{excretion}$ with data 696 reporting manure applied to soils³³.
- 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 limit⁶⁹.
- 699

700 Uncertainty

701 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 703 variables (16 in each simulation) are calibrated over a benchmark period of half a century (1961-704 2013) using best available literature estimates and global weighted average FAOSTAT data (Extended 705 Data Figure 2,3 and Supplementary Figures 1-9). Model calibration on long data series reduces 706 uncertainty and, in addition, simulations integrate minimum-maximum ranges for key model input variables (α_{crops} , τ , r_{BNF}^{crop} , r_{BNF}^{grass} , NUE_{crop}, β , and ρ). Further, model sensitivity is addressed for individual 707 708 variables (one-at-a-time) in Supplementary Figure 11 and for all model input variables combined 709 through Monte Carlo simulations (Supplementary Figure 12 for B1-B3 and Supplementary Figure 13 710 for B4-B5).

711 Planetary N sustainability thresholds

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

720 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: <u>http://www.fao.org/faostat/en/#data</u>. The N content coefficients of primary crops are taken from Lassaletta et al. (ref. ⁵⁸) and the N content coefficients of food supply are from FAOSTAT Food Balance Sheets (ref. ³⁴). Data on crop yield gaps are taken from Mueller et al. (ref. ²⁷). Other data sources are specified in Methods.

726 Code availability

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

729

730 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.

734

735 Author Contributions Statement

736Both authors conceived and designed the study, analyzed and interpreted the data, defined the737Methods, developed the ALPHA model, discussed the ideas and results, and wrote and revised the

738 paper.

739 Competing Interests Statement

- 740 The authors declare no competing interest.
- 741
- 742
- 743
- 744
- 745

746 **References**

- 1. Foley, J. A. *et al.* Solutions for a cultivated planet. *Nature* **478**, 337–342 (2011).
- 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).
- 752 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).

755 6. Ramankutty, N. et al. Trends in Global Agricultural Land Use: Implications for Environmental 756 Health and Food Security. Annu. Rev. Plant Biol. 69, 789-815 (2018). 757 7. Foley, J. A. Global Consequences of Land Use. Science 309, 570–574 (2005). 758 8. Tilman, D., Cassman, K. G., Matson, P. A., Naylor, R. & Polasky, S. Agricultural sustainability 759 and intensive production practices. *Nature* **418**, 671–677 (2002). 760 9. Krausmann, F. et al. Global human appropriation of net primary production doubled in the 761 20th century. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. 110, 10324–10329 (2013). 762 10. Galloway, J. N. et al. The Nitrogen Cascade. BioScience 53, 341–356 (2003). 763 11. Smil, V. Enriching the earth: Fritz Haber, Carl Bosch, and the transformation of world food 764 production. (MIT, 2001). 765 12. Erisman, J. W., Sutton, M. A., Galloway, J., Klimont, Z. & Winiwarter, W. How a century of 766 ammonia synthesis changed the world. Nat. Geosci. 1, 636–639 (2008). 767 13. Smil, V. Nitrogen and Food Production: Proteins for Human Diets. AMBIO J. Hum. Environ. 31, 768 126-131 (2002). 769 14. Vitousek, P. M. et al. Human Alteration of the Global Nitrogen Cycle: Sources and 770 Consequences. Ecol. Appl. 7, 737–750 (1997). 771 15. Sutton, M. A. et al. The European nitrogen assessment: sources, effects and policy 772 perspectives. (Cambridge Univ. Press, 2011). 773 Cohen, J. E. How many people can the Earth support? (Norton, 1995). 16. 774 Malthus, T. R. First Essay on Population 1798. (Palgrave Macmillan UK, 1966). 17. 775 doi:10.1007/978-1-349-81729-0. 776 18. Harchaoui, S. & Chatzimpiros, P. Energy, Nitrogen, and Farm Surplus Transitions in Agriculture from Historical Data Modeling. France, 1882-2013.: Energy, Nitrogen, and Farm 777 778 Surplus Transitions. J. Ind. Ecol. (2018) doi:10.1111/jiec.12760. 779 19. Van Den Bergh, J. C. J. M. & Rietveld, P. Reconsidering the Limits to World Population: Meta-780 analysis and Meta-prediction. BioScience 54, 195 (2004). 781 20. Cohen, J. E. How many people can the Earth support? J. Popul. Sustain. 2, 37–42 (2017). 782 21. Barbieri, P. et al. Global option space for organic agriculture is delimited by nitrogen 783 availability. Nat. Food 2, 363-372 (2021). 784 22. Billen, G. et al. Reshaping the European agro-food system and closing its nitrogen cycle: The 785 potential of combining dietary change, agroecology, and circularity. One Earth 4, 839-850 786 (2021). 787 UNDESA. World Population Prospects: The 2022 Revision, Key Findings and Advance Tables. 23. 788 (2022). 789 24. Bodirsky, B. L. et al. Reactive nitrogen requirements to feed the world in 2050 and potential 790 to mitigate nitrogen pollution. Nat. Commun. 5, (2014). 791 25. Dupas, M.-C., Halloy, J. & Chatzimpiros, P. Power law scaling and country-level centralization 792 of global agricultural production and trade. Environ. Res. Lett. (2022) doi:10.1088/1748-793 9326/ac54ca. 794 26. D'Odorico, P., Carr, J. A., Laio, F., Ridolfi, L. & Vandoni, S. Feeding humanity through global 795 food trade. *Earths Future* **2**, 458–469 (2014). 796 27. Mueller, N. D. et al. Closing yield gaps through nutrient and water management. Nature 490, 797 254-257 (2012). 798 Daioglou, V., Stehfest, E., Wicke, B., Faaij, A. & Vuuren, D. P. van. Projections of the 28. 799 availability and cost of residues from agriculture and forestry. GCB Bioenergy 8, 456-470 800 (2016). 801 29. Oenema, O., de Klein, C. & Alfaro, M. Intensification of grassland and forage use: driving 802 forces and constraints. Crop Pasture Sci. 65, 524 (2014).

- 80330.Fetzel, T. et al. Quantification of uncertainties in global grazing systems assessment:804Uncertainties in Global Grazing Data. Glob. Biogeochem. Cycles **31**, 1089–1102 (2017).
- 805 31. Smil, V. Feeding the world: a challenge for the twenty-first century. (MIT Press, 2000).
- Bengtsson, J. *et al.* Grasslands-more important for ecosystem services than you might think.
 Ecosphere 10, e02582 (2019).
- 808 33. FAOSTAT. FAO statistical database. http://www.fao.org/faostat/en/#data/RL (2018).
- 80934.FAOSTATFBS.FAOSTATFoodBalanceSheet810http://www.fao.org/faostat/en/#data/FBS (2021).
- 811
 35.
 Lemaire,
 G.
 Grassland
 productivity
 and
 ecosystem
 services.
 (CABI,
 2011).

 812
 doi:10.1079/9781845938093.0000.
 doi:10.1079/9781845938093.0000.
- 81336.Tilman, D., Wedin, D. & Knops, J. Productivity and sustainability influenced by biodiversity in814grassland ecosystems. Nature **379**, 718–720 (1996).
- 815 37. OECD & Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations. *OECD-FAO Agricultural* 816 *Outlook 2020-2029*. (OECD, 2020). doi:10.1787/1112c23b-en.
- 81738.Mottet, A. *et al.* Livestock: On our plates or eating at our table? A new analysis of the818feed/food debate. *Glob. Food Secur.* 14, 1–8 (2017).
- 819 39. Bai, Z. *et al.* China's livestock transition: Driving forces, impacts, and consequences. *Sci. Adv.*820 4, eaar8534 (2018).
- 40. Lassaletta, L., Billen, G., Grizzetti, B., Anglade, J. & Garnier, J. 50 year trends in nitrogen use efficiency of world cropping systems: the relationship between yield and nitrogen input to cropland. *Environ. Res. Lett.* **9**, 105011 (2014).
- 824 41. Smil, V. Eating Meat: Evolution, Patterns, and Consequences. *Popul. Dev. Rev.* 28, 599–639
 825 (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).
- 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).
- 83245.Zhang, X. et al.Managing nitrogen for sustainable development.Nature (2015)833doi: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.*839 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).
- Si 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).
- 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).
- 849
 52.
 Downs, S. M. & Fox, E. L. Uneven decline in food system inequality. Nat. Food 2, 141–142

 850
 (2021).

- 85153.FiBL.Areadataonorganicagricultureworldwide2008-2019.852https://statistics.fibl.org/world/area-
- 853world.html?tx_statisticdata_pi1%5Bcontroller%5D=Element2Item&cHash=f367262839ab9ca8542e7ac1f333fbb1ca2 (2021).
- 85554.Nowak, B., Nesme, T., David, C. & Pellerin, S. To what extent does organic farming rely on856nutrient inflows from conventional farming? *Environ. Res. Lett.* **8**, 044045 (2013).
- Steffen, W. *et al.* Trajectories of the Earth System in the Anthropocene. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci.* **115**, 8252–8259 (2018).
- S6. 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.
- 862 57. FAO. FOOD BALANCE SHEETS A Handbook. (FAO, 2001).
- 86358.Lassaletta, L. *et al.* Food and feed trade as a driver in the global nitrogen cycle: 50-year864trends. *Biogeochemistry* **118**, 225–241 (2014).
- 59. Smil, V. Crop Residues: Agriculture's Largest Harvest. *BioScience* **49**, 299–308 (1999).
- 866 60. Shepon, A., Eshel, G., Noor, E. & Milo, R. Energy and protein feed-to-food conversion
 867 efficiencies in the US and potential food security gains from dietary changes. *Environ. Res.*868 *Lett.* 11, 105002 (2016).
- 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).
- 872 62. Smil, V. Nitrogen in crop production: An account of global flows. *Glob. Biogeochem. Cycles*873 13, 647–662 (1999).
- 874
 63.
 OECD-FAO. OECD-FAO Agricultural Outlook 2022-2031. (OECD, 2022). doi:10.1787/f1b0b29c

 875
 en.
- McDuffie, E. E. *et al.* A global anthropogenic emission inventory of atmospheric pollutants
 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).
- 879 65. Heffer, P., Gruère, A. & Roberts, T. Assessment of Fertilizer Use by Crop at the Global Level
 880 2014-2014/15. (International Fertilizer Industry Association, 2017).
- 88166.Einarsson, R. et al. Crop production and nitrogen use in European cropland and grassland8821961–2019. 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).
- 885 68. Berendes, D. M., Yang, P. J., Lai, A., Hu, D. & Brown, J. Estimation of global recoverable
 886 human and animal faecal biomass. *Nat. Sustain.* 1, 679–685 (2018).
- 487 69. Ju, X., Gu, B., Wu, Y. & Galloway, J. N. Reducing China's fertilizer use by increasing farm size.
 488 *Glob. Environ. Change* 41, 26–32 (2016).
- 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).



895 896 897 898	Extended data Figure 1 Flow diagram of the modeling system. Nitrogen (N) flows are indicated in absolute 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 grassland and cropland in total agricultural land. Food production (N _{food}) is total primary production extracted from grassland (N _{grass}) and cropland (N _{crop}), plus crop residues used for feed (N _{residues}), plus livestock production
899	$(N_{\text{livestock}})$ minus total feed (N_{feed}) . N_{food} is human-edible biomass and is the sum of food supply $(N_{\text{food}}^{\text{supply}})$, 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_{crops} and $\alpha_{residues}$ are respectively the shares of N_{crop} and crop residues production
902	used for feed. Total N input (Ntot 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 _{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
906 907 908	N_{food} to total N input. NUE _{tot} integrates N use efficiency in cropland (NUE _{crop}) and grassland (NUE _{grass}), livestock proteins conversion efficiency (NCE), the fraction of N excretion voided on grassland (γ) and the share of 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. 912 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% over the period 914 (see Methods) d. Grass yield (Y_{grass}) and uncertainty according to the value of $\alpha_{residues}$ e. Livestock nitrogen 915 conversion efficiency (NCE) f. share of grassland in total agricultural land (τ) .



Extended Data Figure 3 | a. Total feed (TgN·yr⁻¹) and breakdown among crops, grass and crop residues over 917 the benchmark period (1961-2013) b. Current (2013) total livestock production (TgN·yr⁻¹). Total feed and the 918 amount delivered from crops are derived from FAOSTAT (ref. ³³) as described in Methods. The sum of grass and 919 920 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) 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.

925



Extended Data Figure 4| Global average crop yield (Y_{crop}), food yield (Y_{food}) and N loss rate (r_{loss}) per unit agricultural land in the organic boundary (B5) in function of the share of grassland in total agricultural land (τ). The calculation is done for biowaste N return to agriculture (ρ) of 30% and for share of crops used for feed (α_{crop}) of 57% and 70%. The vertical dotted line indicates current global τ. The change in slope corresponds to Y_{crop} equaling maximum Y_{crop} (full closure of organic crop yield gap). For Y_{crop} below maximum, Y_{crop} increases with τ (because N limitation per unit cropland decreases with τ), but Y_{food} slightly decreases. For maximum Y_{crop}, 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} .





938Extended Data Figure 5 | Total simulated N input (Ntot) per source in the five food production boundaries (B1939to B5). B1-B3 are under industrial fertilization (Nind) and B4-B5 under organic fertilization. Ntot is calculated for940a. current share of crops used for feed ($\alpha_{crops} = 57\%$) b. $\alpha_{crops} = 70\%$ and c. $\alpha_{crops} = 0\%$. Ntot 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.



Extended Data Figure 6| Livestock production (TgN·yr-¹ and %) in global food production boundaries (B1-B5) 944 945 in function of the share of crops used for feed (α_{crops}). a. Food production boundaries under industrial 946 fertilization (B1-B3). b. Organic food production boundary with current N use efficiency (B4). c. Organic food 947 production boundary with improved N use efficiency (B5). We distinguish between livestock production from 948 grassland and residues (no feed competition) and livestock production from cropland (grain-fed livestock). 949 Production from grassland and residues is dairy and ruminants meat, and production from cropland is 950 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 951 feed (α_{crops}) that corresponds to animal proteins content in healthy diet i.e. 26% (ref. ⁴⁴, Supplementary Table 952 5). Note that in B4, the share of animal proteins always exceeds the recommendation in healthy diets due to 953 954 low crop yields.

956 Extended Data Table 1| Summary table of model variables, abbreviations, and units. Model variables are

957 classified between drivers of food yield, drivers of N cycling, drivers of food yield allocation to food supply, and
 958 system-wide variables

Name	Abbreviation	Unit		
Drivers	of the food yield:	6		
Crop yield	Crop yield Y _{crop} kgN·ha ⁻¹ ·yr ⁻¹ of croplar			
Grass yield	Ygrass	kg N·ha ⁻¹ ·yr ⁻¹ of grassland		
Livestock nitrogen conversion efficiency	NCE	%		
Share of crop residues used for feed	$\alpha_{residues}$	%		
Grassland share	τ	%		
Share of crops used for feed	α_{crops}	%		
Driver	s of N cycling: 12			
Atmospheric deposition rate in cropland	r_{atm}^{crop}	kgN·ha ⁻¹ ·yr ⁻¹ of cropland		
Atmospheric deposition rate in grassland	r_{atm}^{grass}	kgN·ha ⁻¹ ·yr ⁻¹ of grassland		
Biological N fixation rate in cropland	r ^{crop} BNF	kgN·ha ⁻¹ ·yr ⁻¹ of cropland		
Biological N fixation rate in grassland	$r_{ m BNF}^{ m grass}$	kgN·ha⁻¹·yr⁻¹of grassland		
N industrial rate in cropland	r_{ind}^{crop}	kgN·ha ⁻¹ ·yr ⁻¹ of cropland		
N industrial rate in grassland	r ^{grass}	kgN·ha ⁻¹ ·yr ⁻¹ of grassland		
N use efficiency in cropland	NUE _{crop}	%		
N use efficiency in grassland	NUEgrass	%		
Nitrogen harvest index of crops	NHI	%		
Fraction of N voided on grassland	γ	%		
Share of manure N recovered to cropland	β	%		
Biowaste N return to agriculture	ρ	%		
Drivers of food yiel	ld allocation to for	od supply: 4		
Vegetal proteins	$\delta_{vegetal}$	%		
Animal proteins	δ_{animal}	%		
Weighted average vegetal/animal proteins	$\delta_{weighted}$	%		
Annual food supply per capita	$n_{ m food}^{ m supply}$	kgN·cap ⁻¹ ·yr ⁻¹		
System-wide variables: 6				
Food yield	Y _{food}	kgN·ha ⁻¹ ·yr ⁻¹ of total agricultural area		
Total agricultural land	AL	ha		
Feeding capacity	Global_pop	inhabitants		
Share of animal proteins in food supply	Shareanimal	%		
N loss rate	r _{loss}	kgN·ha ⁻¹ ·yr ⁻¹ of total agricultural area		
Total N use efficiency	NUE _{tot}	%		
Sum of model variables: 28				

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

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

Model variables		Global weighted average values			
Abbreviation	unit	1961	Current (2013)		
Constant model inp	ut variables: 3				
NHI	%	70	70		
γ	%	50	50		
NUEgrass	%	75	75		
Fluctuating model input variables: 18					
Y _{crop}	kgN∙ha⁻¹·yr⁻¹	22.3	57.0		
Y _{grass}	kgN∙ha⁻¹·yr⁻¹	17.6	22.0		
$\alpha_{residues}$	%	78	30		
τ	%	78.1	72.2		
α_{crop}	%	48	57		
r _{atm}	kgN∙ha⁻¹·yr⁻¹	5	8		
r ^{grass}	kgN·ha ⁻¹ ·yr ⁻¹	5	8		
r ^{crop}	kgN·ha⁻¹·yr⁻¹	10.9	24.8		
r ^{crop}	kgN·ha⁻¹·yr⁻¹	11.6	76.1		
r ^{grass}	kgN·ha⁻¹·yr⁻¹	0.15	1.50		
NCE	%	4.1	8.6		
ρ	%	30	5		
$\delta_{vegetal}$	%	69	63		
δ_{animal}	%	97	99		
$\delta_{weighted}$	%	75	72		
β	%	47.7	35.4		
AL	ha	4.36 × 10 ⁹	4.84×10^{9}		
n _{food}	kgN·cap⁻¹·yr⁻¹	3.43	4.43		
Model validation ou	tput variables: 4				
Y _{food}	kgN∙ha⁻¹·yr⁻¹	3.25	9.15		
Share _{animal}	%	29	35		
NUE _{crop}	%	44.6	44.0		
Global_pop	inhabitants	3.09 x 10 ⁹	7.22 x 10 ⁹		
Model output variables (for which no reference data exist): 3					
r ^{grass}	kgN·ha⁻¹·yr⁻¹	9.93	10.24		
r _{loss}	kgN·ha⁻¹·yr⁻¹	15.1	35.6		
NUE _{tot}	%	17.5	20.5		
Sum of model varial	Sum of model variables: 28				

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 (B4, B5).

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

b.

984

a.

		Global food production			
Model variabl	es	boundaries under industrial			
		fertilization			
Abbreviation	unit	B1	B2	B3	
Constant mod	lel input variables	: 17			
Ycrop	kgN·ha⁻¹·yr⁻¹	74	74	74	
Ygrass	kgN∙ha⁻¹∙yr-1	29	29	29	
NCE	%	11.2	11.2	11.2	
$\alpha_{residues}$	%	30	30	30	
r_{atm}^{crop}	kgN∙ha⁻¹∙yr⁻¹	8	8	8	
r _{atm}	kgN·ha ⁻¹ ·yr ⁻¹	8	8	8	
r ^{crop} BNF	kgN·ha⁻¹·yr⁻¹	24.8	24.8	24.8	
r ^{grass} BNF	kgN∙ha⁻¹∙yr⁻¹	10.2	10.2	10.2	
NUEgrass	%	75	75	75	
γ	%	50	50	50	
ρ	%	5	5	5	
NHI	%	70	70	70	
AL	ha	4.84×10 ⁹	4.84×10 ⁹	4.84×10 ⁹	
δ_{animal}	%	100	100	100	
$\delta_{vegetal}$	%	69	69	69	
$\delta_{weighted}$	%	72	72	72	
n_{food}^{supply}	kgN·cap ⁻¹ ·yr ⁻¹	4.43	4.43	4.43	
Model input variables with range: 4					
α _{crop}	%	[0, 70]	[0, 70]	[0, 70]	
τ	%	[70.2, 72.3]	[70.2, 72.3]	[70.2 <i>,</i> 72.3]	
NUEcrop	%	44.3	70	70	
β	%	35.4	35.4	80	
Model output variables: 7					
Y _{food}	kgN·ha⁻¹·yr⁻¹	output	output	output	
Share _{animal}	%	output	output	output	
Global_pop	inhabitants	output	output	output	
r ^{crop}	kgN·ha⁻¹·yr⁻¹	output	output	output	
r ^{grass}	kgN·ha⁻¹·yr⁻¹	output	output	output	
r _{loss}	kgN·ha⁻¹·yr⁻¹	output	output	output	
NUE _{tot}	%	output	output	output	
Sum of model variables: 28					

		Global food production			
Model variables		boundary under organic			
		fertilization	1		
Abbreviation	unit	B4	B5		
Constant model	input variables: 1	4			
NCE	%	11.2	11.2		
$\alpha_{residiues}$	%	30	30		
r_{atm}^{crop}	kgN∙ha⁻¹∙yr⁻¹	8	8		
r ^{grass}	kgN·ha⁻¹·yr⁻¹	8	8		
rind	kgN∙ha⁻¹∙yr⁻¹	0	0		
r _{ind} grass	kgN·ha⁻¹·yr⁻¹	0	0		
NUEgrass	%	75	75		
γ	%	50	50		
NHI	%	70	70		
AL	ha	4.84×10 ⁹	4.84×10 ⁹		
δ_{animal}	%	100	100		
δ_{vegetal}	%	69	69		
$\delta_{weighted}$	%	72	72		
n_{food}^{supply}	kgN·cap ⁻¹ ·yr ⁻¹	4.43	4.43		
Model input var	iables with range:	7			
α_{crop}	%	[0, 70]	[0, 70]		
τ	%	[70.2, 72.3]	[70.2, 72.3]		
NUEcrop	%	44	70		
β	%	35.4	80		
ρ	%	[5,30]	[5,30]		
r ^{crop} BNF	kgN∙ha⁻¹∙yr⁻¹	[24.8, 30]	[24.8, 30]		
r_{BNF}^{grass}	kgN∙ha⁻¹∙yr⁻¹	[10.2, 18]	[10.2, 18]		
Model output variables: 7					
Ycrop	kgN∙ha⁻¹∙yr⁻¹	output	output		
Ygrass	kgN∙ha⁻¹∙yr⁻¹	output	output		
Y _{food}	kgN·ha⁻¹·yr⁻¹	output	output		
Shareanimal	%	output	output		
Global_pop	Inhabitants	output	output		
r _{loss}	kgN∙ha⁻¹∙yr⁻¹	output	output		
NUE _{tot}	%	output	output		
Sum of model variables: 28					

985

986

987

988

989

990