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# 1 Soils, climate change and food security: A commentary on Moinet 2 et al. (2023)

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9  
10 There is overwhelming evidence that increasing the organic carbon (C) content of cropland  
11 soil improves its physical, chemical and biological properties, with benefits for the growth of  
12 crop roots and the functioning of soils in the wider environment (King et al., 2020; Kopittke et  
13 al., 2022; Lal 2020). This is entirely uncontroversial. It is currently relevant because there is  
14 evidence that soil organic carbon (SOC) in many cropland soils globally is declining  
15 (Sanderman et al., 2017) and is vulnerable to further loss from climate change (Lugato et al.,  
16 2021). It may, therefore, seem counterintuitive, and even heretical or downright unhelpful,  
17 for a paper to challenge two widely stated claims connected with SOC as is done in the  
18 paper entitled “*Carbon for soils, not soils for carbon*” by Moinet et al. (2023). The two claims  
19 challenged by the authors are:

- 20 1. Sequestration of C in agricultural soils can make a substantial contribution to climate  
21 change mitigation.
- 22 2. Increasing SOC will routinely lead to increased crop yields and contribute to global  
23 food security.

24 The authors are particularly critical of these two assertions being combined to make the  
25 claim that SOC sequestration is a “*win-win*” strategy. They point out that climate change and  
26 food security have both been described as “wicked problems” of “daunting complexity” so  
27 blanket solutions that claim to solve both “should prompt some degree of scepticism.”

## 29 Limitations of SOC sequestration for climate change mitigation

30 Moinet et al. (2023) cite numerous publications and international initiatives that give  
31 prominence to SOC sequestration as a highly significant contributor to climate change  
32 mitigation. In contrast to the enthusiasm for this approach, they review some of the  
33 misconceptions regarding the role of soil C sequestration. They point out the many sources  
34 of uncertainty in attempting to estimate the quantity of additional C that could be transferred  
35 from atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> to stabilized SOC through alterations in land management such as  
36 no-till, cover crops, improved grazing management, or agroforestry. They focus particularly  
37 on the issue of SOC saturation. Evidence from all long-term studies shows that, with the  
38 exception of peat formation, SOC does not increase indefinitely but tends towards a new  
39 quasi-equilibrium value with the annual accumulation rate slowing over time (e.g. Poulton et  
40 al., 2018). For convenience, when comparing rates of SOC increase between management  
41 practices, it is common to express the rate on an annual basis (i.e. as kg C per ha per year  
42 to a specified soil depth). But failing to recognise the effect of saturation, and the resulting  
43 slowing of SOC accumulation, can lead to serious over-estimation of C sequestration  
44 potential.

45 To meet the Paris Agreement aim of limiting the mean global temperature increase by 2100  
46 to 1.5°C requires a cumulative decrease in CO<sub>2</sub> emissions by then of around 3000 Gt CO<sub>2</sub>.  
47 Moinet et al. (2023) consider a range of assumptions in published data regarding SOC  
48 sequestration rates in agricultural soils. Taking one example, the assumption of no  
49 saturation and a constant sequestration rate over time gives an estimated C sequestration  
50 by the year 2100 of 257 Gt CO<sub>2</sub>. However, introducing two different but reasonable  
51 assumptions about the slowing of C sequestration as SOC content increases reduces this to  
52 121 or 49 Gt CO<sub>2</sub>. Thus, ignoring saturation leads to an overestimation of C sequestration of  
53 53-81%. They conclude that taking account of saturation and using more realistic  
54 assumptions than is often done, the contribution from SOC sequestration by 2100 is likely to  
55 be in the range of 4% to less than 1% of global emissions. Whilst any contribution is  
56 welcome, this analysis is valuable in putting it into a quantitative perspective and is in line  
57 with other recent estimations approached from different viewpoints, e.g. Janzen et al (2022).

58

### 59 **SOC and food security**

60 Does increasing SOC lead to increased crop yields? This is a notoriously difficult question to  
61 answer. In virtually all long-term agricultural experiments globally, treatments giving higher  
62 crop yields (e.g. from N fertilizer application) have slightly higher SOC than in lower yielding  
63 treatments (Ladha et al., 2011; Tang et al., 2022). But what is cause and what is effect?  
64 Higher yielding crops deposit slightly more organic C into the soil in roots, root exudates and  
65 above-ground residues leading to increased SOC in the long term (Jenkinson et al., 1992;  
66 Tang et al., 2023). So SOC and yield tend to be correlated but, as is well known, correlation  
67 does not equal causation.

68 Moinet et al. (2023) collate data from 21 meta-analyses relating to SOC and crop yields. Two  
69 main approaches have been used to seek causality, both of which have serious drawbacks  
70 because any direct effect of SOC is confounded with other factors:

- 71 1. Comparing crop yields at a range of sites that differ in SOC content (space-for-time  
72 comparisons).
- 73 2. Comparing crop yields at single sites where SOC has been increased by addition of  
74 manure or other organic inputs.

75 In the first approach sites that differ in SOC content often also differ in other respects,  
76 especially soil type. Soils with a higher clay content generally have higher SOC so any effect  
77 on crop yield could either be from SOC or from a factor associated with clay content such as  
78 increased availability of water or nutrients. In the second approach crop growth and yield is  
79 likely to be influenced by release of nutrients from the manure in addition to any effect  
80 directly related to soil C. The studies reviewed showed examples of crop yields being  
81 increased, decreased or unchanged where SOC was greater. In cases where additional  
82 nutrient supply from mineralization of manure or soil organic matter was taken into account  
83 there were no examples of an overall positive effect of SOC on yield. It was therefore  
84 concluded that this aspect of the “win-win” assertion was not substantiated.

85 Moinet et al. (2023) point out some nuances within the overall data and these deserve rather  
86 more emphasis. First, in sandy soils there was a greater tendency for higher yields to be  
87 associated with increased SOC. Second, crops with a short growing season were more likely  
88 to show increased yield where SOC was higher. This was previously noted by Hijbeek et al.  
89 (2017) in an analysis of crop yields in long-term experiments. It is also seen in the  
90 comparison of autumn-sown wheat and spring-sown barley in the long-term experiments at  
91 Rothamsted, UK (Macdonald et al., 2017). This finding may be particularly relevant for

92 tropical situations where it is common to grow two or more crops per year instead of one that  
93 is the norm under temperate conditions. So, although the “win-win” from increased SOC may  
94 not be correct overall, in some situations of global significance for food security the yield  
95 “win” is valid.

96 In many agricultural situations globally, organic resources such as manure or crop residues  
97 are in short supply and have competing uses, so decisions have to be made on how best to  
98 use them. A focus on maximising C storage for climate change mitigation would lead to  
99 prioritising their use on clay soils as these offer greater SOC sequestration capacity than  
100 sandy soils. However, the meta-analyses provide evidence that greater yield benefits are  
101 likely in sandy soils. Hence situation-specific assessments are needed rather than a blanket  
102 assumption of “win-win”.

### 103 **What the paper does *not* say**

104 Papers that challenge orthodox opinions can easily be misunderstood or misinterpreted and  
105 it is likely that this will be the case with Moinet et al. (2023). It is important to point out that  
106 the authors do *not* say that SOC is unimportant – quite the opposite. Their key points are:

- 107 1. The extent of climate change mitigation attainable by sequestering additional organic C  
108 in agricultural soils is very limited. But of course, any such benefit is welcome.
- 109 2. Evidence does not support the idea that increased SOC inevitably leads to increased  
110 crop yields – it does in some situations but by no means all.

111 Regarding crop production and food security, we would emphasise two additional points.  
112 First, where SOC has been increased, the soil is likely to supply more nutrients, especially  
113 N. This means that less inorganic N fertilizer is required to attain the desired yield thus  
114 saving greenhouse gas emissions associated with N fertilizer manufacture and so  
115 contributing indirectly to climate change mitigation. Second, in most agricultural situations  
116 increased SOC almost certainly contributes to the sustainability of crop production mainly  
117 through maintaining soil physical conditions that are suitable for root growth and water  
118 infiltration and retention (King et al., 2020). This is difficult to prove unequivocally but is a  
119 strong reason to adopt management practices that maintain or increase SOC, even where  
120 there is no short-term yield benefit.

121 Our recommendation regarding SOC management is in line with the conclusions of Moinet  
122 et al. (2023). It is more helpful to focus on the role of SOC in climate change *adaptation* and  
123 the *resilience* of agricultural systems to adverse weather conditions (Droste et al., 2020)  
124 rather than continuing to concentrate narrowly on mitigation through C sequestration. This  
125 will contribute to agricultural and environmental sustainability. Hence “*Carbon for soils, not  
126 soils for carbon*”.

127

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