AGRICULTURAL PRODUCTION CAPACITY OF NORTH AMERICA'S SOIL RESOURCES

Fred P. Miller

School of Natural Resources, The Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio, USA

Keywords: Agriculture production, Global Food demands, Biotechnology, Genetics

Contents

- 1. Retrospective The Perils of Projecting into Unknown Futures
- 2. A World View Ratcheting Up Demands on the Land
- 3. Can Global Cropland Yield More Food Sustainably?
- 4. North America's Agricultural Production: Character and Nemesis
- 5. Capacity of North America's Agricultural Productivity
- 5.1. How Much Can Be Gained from Expanding the Agricultural Base?
- 5.2. How Much More Production Can Be Coaxed from Existing Cropland?
- 6. What Production and Demand Scenarios Would Test the Limits of North America's Agricultural Production Capacity?
- 6.1. Divining Future Global Food Demands
- 6.2. Soil Quality, Can It Be Sustained?
- 6.3. The Impact of Genetics and Biotechnology on Carrying Capacity
- 6.4. Water Availability Scarcity
- 6.5. Global Change: Impacts on North America's Agricultural Capacity
- 6.6. Resource Competition for Non-Food Plant-Animal Products
- 6.7. The Impact of Urbanization-Development on Agricultural Productivity
- 7. Concluding Thoughts and Summary

Bibliography

1. Retrospective – The Perils of Projecting into Unknown Futures

To assess the capacity of agricultural productivity begs the foretelling of the future. As Arrow et al. (1995) noted, carrying capacities in nature are not fixed, static, or simple relations, but are contingent on technology, preferences, and the structure of production and consumption. Cohen (1997), too, cautions about predicting the future carrying capacity of the global biosphere since the 'answer' to this question must be probabilistic, conditional, and dynamic: probabilistic, because humans cannot perfectly predict the future; conditional, because the answer depends on choices yet to be made; and dynamic, because predictions and choices are susceptible to change.

Agricultural production is driven and modified by a variety of forces and factors, including the character, capability, and care or stewardship of the natural resource base undergirding all agricultural production systems; climate and weather; product demand (economic); technology; political events and policies; demographics; and cultural customs (e.g., dietary preferences). Therefore, to speak of the capacity of manipulated ecosystems, one must be mindful of the potential impact of unforeseen technologies, events, and demand scenarios that will certainly alter projections of agricultural capacity based on the datum of the present.

History is replete with bold prognostications of future outcomes that were well off the mark when such prophesies were later assessed against the reality of their targeted times. Cohen (1995a; 1995b; 1997) has done a comprehensive review of the literature on the many divergent projections of the earth's capacity to support and sustain various population numbers.

Projecting the capacity of agricultural production has seen its share of errant forecasts. The heralding of cataclysmic food and natural resources shortfalls has been sounded for centuries, from the Reverend Thomas Malthus (1798) to the more recent projections of Paul Ehrlich (1968; 1969) and Lester Brown (1995). Yet, despite the fact that about 15% of our global population is malnourished, global food production has more than kept pace with population growth. Between 1950 and 1997, the area planted to grain in the world expanded by 17% while total grain production rose by 190%, resulting in a 2.5 fold increase in grain productivity over this period. This rate of increased food production has more than kept pace with the global population growth rate. For the more than 800 million people suffering hunger and malnutrition, the problem is mostly one of deprived food access and poverty-induced inability to pay for available food exacerbated by political conflict, regional climatic aberrations, inadequate food distribution and storage capabilities, and mismanagement.

Malthus made his projection in 1798 that humanity's penchant for procreation would eventually outstrip his capability and capacity to feed himself. His forecast was made from a datum of a global population less than one-sixth the population in 2000. But just five years later in the second (and rarely read) edition of his famous 1798 essay on the principle of population, Malthus was more sanguine about humanity's prospects for the future, stating that "we may confidently indulge the hope" for a better future. Malthus' hope in the progress of humanity was mostly faith-based since he did not and could not foresee the globalization of markets and technological advances that allowed agricultural production to more than keep pace with population in most areas of the world (exceptions include parts of Africa, especially sub-Saharan Africa). Even Ehrlich's previously pessimistic views of humanity's future have mellowed, giving way to more hopeful scenarios (Ehrlich, 2000).

This brief reflection on past attempts to predict the future carrying capacity of the earth should caution anyone attempting such an undertaking about the pitfalls of forecasting unforeseeable futures. It is against this backdrop that the capacity of North America's agricultural production capacity will be discussed.

2. A World View: Ratcheting Up Demands on the Land

To suggest that feeding a UN FAO-projected 1.2 billion additional mouths in 2030 (Mann, 1997) will be without considerable effort is to miss the point. Not only will this expansion of humanity need to be fed, but increasing global affluence means many more people will be eating higher on the food chain. By 2020, one projection of global demand for rice, wheat, and maize sees an increase of 40%, or 1.3% per year (Mann, 1999). This double-barrel circumstance of more mouths compounded by increased affluence will require proportionately more grain production to feed both humans and the animals whose products they'll demand. Furthermore, this demand scenario is

occurring simultaneously with the slowing down of the Green Revolution as most grain and other crop yield increases have decelerated over the last three decades of the twentieth century. Global cereal grain yields have slipped from annual yield increases of 2.2% in 1967-1982 to 1.5-1.3% during the 1982-1994 period. If the Green Revolution is to be revived or a second Green Revolution is to occur again, squeezing out additional yield from crops and the land will be proportionately more difficult than the first Green Revolution. The low hanging "research fruit" has already been harvested.

Exacerbating this situation is the fact that supplies of fresh water are becoming scarcer, soil quality is deteriorating across much cultivated land, and there is limited, problemfree uncultivated land left to exploit. Will humankind be able to feed itself adequately? The agricultural science consensus is that it can, but only if there is a global priority to fund the necessary research, see it applied, and distribute the produce equitably. Since food scarcity manifests itself locally, global food adequacy is meaningless without tailoring food access to local circumstances.

3. Can Global Cropland Yield More Food Sustainably?

Daily et al. (1998) posit that there are two broad criteria by which one can judge humanity's success in feeding itself: 1) the proportion of people whose access to basic nutritional requirements is secure, and 2) the extent to which global food production is sustainable. The land-soil resource base now committed to producing humanity's food will bear the brunt of yielding even greater productivity in the future.

It is not clear, according to Tilman (1998), which are greater-the successes of modern high-intensity agriculture, which have been immense, or its short-comings. Laszlo (1994) argues that the wave of optimism engendered by recent gains in food production does not account for the fact that much of this gain is unsustainable. These unsustainable short-comings of high tech agriculture manifest themselves through such impacts as degraded and eroded land, release of greenhouse gases and loss of soil organic matter or carbon (SOC), soil salinization, contaminated groundwater, eutrophication of freshwater bodies and coastal waters, high energy and synthetic chemical inputs, heavy demands on scarce water resources, increased incidence of crop and livestock diseases, and loss of biodiversity. While many of these agricultural impacts are not clearly understood and are vigorously debated (e.g.: Pimentel et al., 1995; Crossen, 1995; Avery, 1997; Daily et al., 1998; Pimentel and Skidmore, 1999; Trimble, 1999; Trimble and Crosson, 2000a; Trimble and Crosson, 2000b; Nearing et al., 2000), the fact remains that if humanity is to manipulate nearly 1.5 billion hectares of global cropland to feed itself, it must strive to do so in a sustainable manner. About 38% of this global cropland base has been degraded to some extent by poor agricultural practices, thereby reducing to some degree the yield gains provided by technology.

It is the consensus of most agronomists and allied agricultural scientists that global agriculture must accommodate high yielding production systems, albeit with more sustainable systems. Otherwise, continued agricultural expansion will consume lands and ecosystems now devoted to wildlife and a host of other land uses and ecosystem functions that would be forfeited. High technology agriculture, despite its exhaustion of resources and environmental impacts, has resulted in saving much land, habitats, and

fragile ecosystems that would otherwise have been converted to cropland and pasture a benefit that must be factored into any accounting of technology-based global food production.

Ausubel (1996) points out that, despite societies' chronic fears about the exhaustion of their potential to increase food supply, the reality is that the agricultural production frontier is still spacious, even without invoking the engineering of plants with molecular genetic techniques. There is still much agricultural production technology on the shelf that is yet to be implemented. In Iowa, the average corn-soybean grower has managed only half the yield of the Iowa master grower. Furthermore, the global situation is that the world grows only about 20%, per unit of land, of that grown by the top Iowa farmer (given Iowa's ideal agricultural natural resource base). This production ratio of producers has not changed much since 1960 (Ausubel, 1996).

Economists and non-agriculturalists tend to be much more optimistic about future trends and the earth's capacity to feed humanity sustainably. That's because agronomists, plant breeders-geneticists, soil scientists and other agricultural scientists know the challenges involved in coaxing out a second Green Revolution over the next 20 to 30 years. Economists can project trends, but agronomists and plant breeders-geneticists must deliver the future food.

Yes, global cropland can yield more food. And this food increase can be accomplished more sustainably, but not without providing the necessary incentives and policies for farmers to accomplish such an immense undertaking. Smil (2000) has provided a thorough review and assessment of our global food carrying capacity and how to sustain a global food future that eases the burden that modern agriculture puts on the biosphere. Also, Lackey (1998) has provided a blueprint on how global ecosystem management can be accomplished and made more sustainable. Technology without social science input will not get us there.



Bibliography

Acton, D.F. (1995). Development and Effects of Farming in Canada. In: Soil Health (Chapter 2). Eastern Cereal and Oilseed Research Center. Agriculture and Agri-Food Canada. Website: http://sis.agr.gc.ca/cansis/publications/health/chapter02.html

Andre, H.M.; X. Ducarme; J.M. Anderson; D.A. Crossley, Jr.; H.H. Koehler; M.G. Paoletti; D.E. Walter; and P. Lebrun (2001). Skilled eyes are needed to go on studying the richness of the soil. Nature 409: 761.

Arrow, K.; G. Daily; P. Dasgupta; S. Levin; K-G. Mäler; E. Maskin; D. Starrett; T. Sterner; and T. Tietenberg (2000). Managing ecosystem resources. Environmental Science and Technology 34: 1401-

1406.

Ausubel, J.H. (1996). Can technology spare the earth? American Scientist 84: 166-178.

Avery, D.T. (1997). Saving nature's legacy through better farming. Issues in Science and Technology. XIV(1): 59-64.

Bouma, J. (1994). Sustainable land use as a factor focus for pedology? Soil Science Society of America Journal 58(3): 645-646.

Brown, L.R. (1995). Who Will Feed China? W.W. Norton, New York.

Buringh, P. (1989). Availability of Agricultural Land for Crop and Livestock Production. In (Pimentel, D. and C.W. Hall, eds) *Food and Natural Resources*. Academic Press, Inc. San Diego, CA: 69-83pp.

Cassman, K.G. (1999). Ecological intensification of cereal production systems: Yield potential, soil quality, and precision farming. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the USA 96: 5952-5959.

Cohen, J.E. (1997). Population, economics, environment and culture: An introduction to human carrying capacity. Journal of Applied Ecology 34(6): 1325-1333.

Cohen, J.E. (1995a). How Many People Can the Earth Support? W.W. Norton, New York.

Cohen, J.E. (1995b) Population growth and the earth's carrying capacity. Science 269: 341-345.

Crosson, P. (1995). Soil erosion estimates and costs. Science 269: 461-463.

Crosson, P. (1997). Will erosion threaten agricultural productivity? Environment 39: 4-9, 29-31.

Crosson, P. and J.R. Anderson (1992). *Resources and Global Food Prospects: Supply and Demand for Cereals to 2030*. World Bank, Washington, D.C.

Daily, G.; P. Dasgupta; B. Bolin; P. Crosson; J. du Guerny; P. Ehrlich; C. Folke; A.M. Jansson; B-O. Jansson; N. Kautsky; A. Kinzig; S. Levin; K-G. Mäler; P. Pinstrup-Andersen; D. Sinisalco; and B. Walker (1998). Food production, population growth, and the environment. Science 281: 1291-1292.

Diamond, H.L. and P.F. Noonan (1996). Land Use in America. Island Press, Washington, D.C.

Dideriksen, R.I.; A.R. Hidlebaugh; and K.O. Schmude (1977). *Potential Cropland Study*. U.S. Department of Agriculture, Soil Conservation Service. Statistical Bull. No. 578, 1-104pp.

Ehrlich, P.R. (1968). The Population Bomb. Ballantine, New York.

Ehrlich, P.R. (1969). Eco-Catastrophe! Ramparts 8(3): 24-28.

Ehrlich, P.R. (2000). Human Natures: Genes, Cultures, and the Human Prospect. Island Press, Washington, D.C., 576pp.

Evans, L.T. (1998). Adapting and improving crops: The endless task. In: (Greenland, D.J.; P.J. Gregory; and P.H. Nye, eds.) *Land Resources: On the Edge of the Malthusian Precipice?* CAB International, Wallingford, U.K. and the Royal Society, London, pp. 41-46.

Food and Agricultural Organization (FAO) of the United Nations (1999). 1998 FAO Yearbook – Production. Vol. 52, FAO Statistics Series No. 148, Rome.

Food and Agricultural Organization (FAO) of the United Nations (1999). 1998 FAO Yearbook – Trade. Vol. 52, FAO Statistics Series No. 151, Rome.

International Food Policy Research Institute (IFPRI) (2000). *Global Study Reveals New Warning Signals: Degraded Agricultural Lands Threaten World's Food Production Capacity*. News release, May 21, 2000, Washington, D.C. Website: http://www.ifpri.org.pressrel/2000/052500.htm

Kennedy, P. (1993). Preparing for the Twenty-First Century. Random House, New York: p. 32, 69, 72.

Lackey, R.T. (1998). Ecosystems management: Paradigms and prattle, people and prizes. Renewable Resources Journal 16: 8-13.

Larson, W.E.; F.J. Pierce; and R.H. Dowdy (1983). The threat of soil erosion to long-term crop production. Science 219: 458-465.

Laszlo, E. (1994). *Vision 2020: Reordering Chaos for Global Survival*. Gordon and Breach, Amsterdam, Netherlands, 133pp.

Lovejoy, S. (2000). Not calculating on an abacus. Soil and Water Conservation Society. Conservation Voices 3(3): 6.

MacDonald, K.B.; W.R. Fraser; F. Wang; and G.W. Lelyk (1995). A Geographical Framework for Assessing Soil Quality. In: Soil Health (Chapter 3). Eastern Cereal and Oilseed Research Center. Agriculture and Agri-Food Canada. Website: http://sis.agr.gc.ca/cansis/publications/health/chapter03.html

Malthus, T.R. (1798). An Essay on the Principle of Population, As It Affects the Future Improvement of Society. J. Johnson, London.

Malthus, T.R. (1803). An Essay on the Principle of Population; or, A View of Its Past and Present Effect on Human Happiness. J.Johnson, London.

Mann, C.C. (1997). Reseeding the Green Revolution. Science 277: 1038-1043.

Mann, C.C. (1999). Crop scientists seek a new revolution. Science 283: 310-314.

Meyer, J.H. (1993). The stalemate in food and agricultural research, teaching, and extension. Science 260: 881 and 1007.

Miller, F.P. (2000). Land Grant Colleges of Agriculture: Preempting a Post-Mortem – Requisites for a Renaissance. Lecture Series, School of Natural Resources, The Ohio State University, Columbus, OH: p. 1-35.

National Research Council (NRC) (1996). A New Era for Irrigation. National Academy Press, Washington, D.C.

Nearing, M.A.; M.J.M. Romkens; L.D. Norton; D.E. Stott; F.E. Rhoton; J.M. Laflen; D.C. Flanagan; C.V.Alonso; R.L. Binger; S.M. Dabney; O.C. Doering; C.H. Huang; K.C. McGregor; and A. Simon (2000). Measurements and models of soil loss rates. Science 290: 1300-1301.

Oldeman, L.R. (1994). The global extent of soil degradation. In: (Greenland, D.J. and I. Szabolcs, eds.) *Soil Resilience and Sustainable Land Use*. CAB International, Wallingford, U.K., pp. 99-118.

Oldeman, L.R. (1992). Global extent of soil degradation. Biannual Report. International Soil Reference and Information Center, Wageningen, Netherlands.

Oldeman, L.R.; V.W.P. van Engelen; and J.H.M. Pulles (1990). The extent of human-induced soil degradation. In: (Oldeman, L.R.; R.T.A. Hakkeling; and W.G. Sombroek, eds.) *World Map of the Statue of Human-Induced Soil Erosion: An Explanatory Note.* Annex 5 2nd Edition. International Soil Reference and Information Center, Wageningen, Netherlands and United Nations Environment Program, Nairobi, Kenya.

Pierce, F.J.; R.H. Dowdy; W.E. Larson; and W.A.P. Grahm (1984). Productivity of soils in the Corn Belt: An assessment of the long-term impact of erosion. Journal of Soil and Water Conservation 39: 131-136.

Pimentel, D.; C. Harvey; P. Resosudarmo; K. Sinclair; D. Kurz; M. McNair; S. Crist; L. Shpritz; L. Fitton; R. Saffouri; and R. Blair (1995). Environmental and economic costs of soil erosion and conservation benefits. Science 267: 1117-1122.

Pimentel, D. and E.L. Skidmore (1999). Rates of soil erosion. Science 286: 1477-1478.

Pinstrup-Andersen, P. (1994). *World Food Trends and Future Food Security*. Food Policy Report, The International Food Policy Research Institute, Washington, D.C., i-25pp.

Pinstrup-Andersen, P; R. Pandya-Lorch; and M.W. Rosegrant (1999). *World Food Prospects: Critical Issues for the Early Twenty-First Century*. Food Policy Report, International Food Policy Research Institute (October, 1999), Washington, D.C., p. 1-30.

Postel, S. (1999). Pillars of Sand: Can the Irrigation Miracle Last? W.W. Norton Co., New York, 312pp.

Putman, J.; J.R. Williams; and D. Sawyer (1988). Using the erosion-productivity impact calculator (EPIC) model to estimate the impact of soil erosion for the 1985 RCA appraisal. Journal of Soil and Water Conservation 43(4): 321-326.

Rosegrant, M.W.; M. Agcroili-Sombilla; and N.D. Perez (1995). *Global Food Projections to 2020: Implications for Investment*. Food, Agriculture and the Environment Discussion Paper 5. International Food Policy Research Institute, Washington, D.C.

Schiermeier, Q. (2001). Fears grow over melting of permafrost. Nature 409: 751.

Smil, V. (2000). Feeding the World. The MIT Press, Cambridge, MA and London.

Tilman, D. (1998). The greening of the green revolution. Nature 396: 211-212.

Trimble, S.W. (1999). Decreased rates of alluvial sediment storage in the Coon Creek Basin, Wisconsin. Science 285: 1244-1246.

Trimble, S.W. and P. Crosson (2000a). U.S. soil erosion rates - myth and reality. Science 290: 248.

Trimble, S.W. and P. Crosson (2000b). Response to Nearing et al. (2000) on measurements of soil erosion. Science 290: 1301.

Tweeten, L. (1998). *Competing for Scarce Land: Food Security and Farmland Preservation*. Occasional Paper ESO2385 Department of Agricultural, Environmental, and Development Economics. The Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio: 1-24.

Tyner, W. and M. Boehlje (1997). *Food System 21: Gearing Up for the New Millennium*. Purdue University Cooperative Extension Service, West Lafayette, IN: pp. 1-432.

US Department of Agriculture (2000a). *Agricultural Statistics 2000*. National Agricultural Statistics Service, Washington, D.C.

US Department of Agriculture (2000b). *Summary Report 1997 National Resources Inventory (NRI)*. Revised Dec. 2000. Natural Resources Conservation Service and Iowa State University Statistical Laboratory, Washington, D.C.

Vitousek, P.M.; H.A. Mooney; and J.M. Lubchenco (1997). Human domination of earth's ecosystems. Science 277: 494-499.

Waggoner, P.E. (1994). *How Much Land Can Ten Billion People Spare for Nature?* Task Force Report No. 121, Council for Agricultural Science and Technology, Ames, IA: 1-64.

Weesies, G.A.; S.J. Livingston; W.D. Hosteter; and D.L. Schertz (1994). Effect of soil erosion on crop yield in Indiana: Results of a 10-year study. Journal of Soil and Water Conservation 49: 597-600.

Wood, S.; K. Sebastian; and S.J. Scherr (2001). *Pilot Analysis of Global Ecosystems: Agroecosystems*. A joint study by World Resources Institute and International Food Policy Research Institute, Washington, D.C. Website: http://www.ifpri.org/pubs/books/page.htm

World Resources Institute (WRI) (1998). 1998-99 World Resources; A Guide to the Global Environment. Oxford University Press, New York, 156 p.

World Resources Institute (WRI) (2000). World Resources 2000-2001; People and Ecosystems, The Fraying Web of Life. World Resources Institute, Washington, D.C., p. 24, 26, 270-307.