

1 **Challenges and opportunities for enhancing food security and greenhouse**
2 **gas mitigation in smallholder farming in sub-Saharan Africa. A review**

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67 **Abstract**

68 Smallholder farmers struggle to achieve food security in many countries of sub-
69 Saharan Africa (SSA). It is urgently required to find appropriate practices for enhancing crop
70 production while avoiding large increases in greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions in SSA. This
71 review aims to identify common smallholder farming practices for enhancing crop production,
72 to assess how these affect GHG emissions and to identify strategies that not only enhance
73 crop production but also mitigate GHG emissions in SSA. To increase crop production and
74 ensure food security, smallholder farmers usually expand agricultural land, develop water
75 harvesting and irrigation techniques and increase cropping intensity and fertilizer use. These
76 practices may result in changing carbon stocks and GHG emissions, potentially creating
77 trade-offs between food security and GHG mitigation. Agricultural land expansion at the
78 expense of forests is the most dominant source of GHG emissions in SSA. While water
79 harvesting and irrigation can increase soil organic carbon, they can trigger GHG emissions.
80 Increasing cropping intensity can enhance the decomposition of soil organic matter, thus
81 releasing carbon dioxide. Increasing nitrogen fertilizer use can enhance soil organic carbon,
82 but also leads to increasing nitrous oxide emissions. An integrated land, water and nutrient
83 management strategy is necessary to enhance crop production and mitigate GHG emissions.
84 Among the most relevant strategies found, agroforestry practices in degraded and marginal
85 lands could replace expanding agricultural croplands. In addition, water management, via
86 adequate rainwater harvesting and irrigation techniques, together with appropriate nutrient
87 management should be considered. Therefore, a land-water-nutrient nexus (LWNN) approach
88 will enable an integrated and sustainable solution to increasing crop production and
89 mitigating GHG emissions. Various technical, economic and policy barriers hinder
90 implementing the LWNN approach on the ground, but these may be overcome through

91 developing appropriate technologies, disseminating them through farmer to farmer
92 approaches and developing specific policies to address smallholder land tenure issues and
93 motivate long-term investment.

94

95 **Keywords:** Sub-Saharan Africa; Smallholder farming systems; Crop production; Greenhouse
96 gas emission; Agricultural land, Water harvesting, Irrigation, Cropping intensity, Fertilizer

97 **1 Introduction**

98 Agriculture in sub-Saharan Africa (SSA) plays an important role in livelihood and
99 economic growth through employing 51.6% of the population and generating 20.5% of the
100 gross domestic product (GDP) of these countries (in 2016) (The Global Economy 2019).
101 Agricultural production systems in SSA are largely based on smallholder farming systems,
102 which are defined by farms covering an area of ≤ 2 ha (Lowder et al. 2016; Fig. 1). Recent
103 estimates suggest the presence of approximately 33 million smallholder farms in SSA (IFC
104 2013), which contribute up to 90% of the agricultural production in some SSA countries
105 (Wiggins 2009).

106 Currently, consumption of self-produced food crops only covers 20% of the food
107 need of SSA households (Frelat et al. 2016). Thus, food security remains difficult to achieve
108 among smallholder farmers and they face a large number of challenges (van Ittersum et al.
109 2016; Tilman et al. 2011). First, the agricultural sector is underdeveloped and is characterized
110 by over-reliance on primary agriculture, minimal use of external farm inputs, significant pre-
111 and post-harvest food crop loss and minimal value addition and product differentiation
112 (Assefa et al. 2020; van Ittersum et al. 2016; Tilman et al. 2011). All lead to low crop
113 productivity (Singh et al. 2020; Assefa et al. 2020; Frelat et al. 2016; Fig. 2). Second, water
114 availability is highly affected by droughts in the context of regional and global climate
115 variability and change (Misra 2014). Third, severe degradation of agricultural soils negatively
116 affects crop yield (Tittonell and Giller 2013). Fourth, SSA's population is predicted to grow
117 from 1.02 billion in 2017 to 1.4 billion by 2030 and to 2.17 billion by 2050 (United Nations
118 Population Division 2017). Given population expansion, food demand in SSA will
119 substantially increase; while cereal demands will most likely triple, current levels of cereal
120 consumption already depend on substantial imports (van Ittersum et al. 2016).

121 In addition, growing concern exists that ongoing practices for increasing crop yield
122 in SSA may cause increasing greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions and further contribute to
123 global climate change (Leitner et al. 2020; van Loon et al. 2019; FAO 2018; Tongwane and
124 Moeletsi 2018). Agricultural land expansion at the expense of forests is expected to continue
125 (Hertel et al. 2016; Lambin and Meyfroidt 2011). Deforestation for agricultural land
126 expansion is a substantial source of GHG emissions (Grewer et al. 2018; Wanyama et al.
127 2018; Kim and Kirschbaum 2015) and agricultural intensification tends to increase GHG
128 emissions (Grewer et al. 2018; Kim et al. 2013). These increases can be particularly relevant
129 when inappropriate agricultural practices, such as severe soil disturbance or excessive
130 nitrogen (N) fertilizer use, are adopted (Grewer et al. 2018; Kim et al. 2013). Although
131 emissions of the GHG nitrous oxide (N₂O), per unit area, may be low due to the small
132 amount of N fertilizer applied by most African smallholders (Kim et al. 2016 c), N₂O
133 emissions per unit of agricultural production (e.g., yield-scaled N₂O emissions; Kim and
134 Giltrap 2017; Sainju 2016) may be high due to low productivity (Pelster et al. 2017; Seebauer
135 2014; Kimaro et al. 2006). Overall, agricultural GHG emissions in SSA increased by 1.2 - 4.7%
136 annually between 1994 and 2014 (Tongwane and Moeletsi 2018), while global agricultural
137 GHG emissions increased by 1.1% annually between 2000 and 2010 (Tubiello et al. 2013).
138 To sustainably improve agricultural production in SSA, efforts are needed to identify and
139 implement measures, which can enhance crop yields while avoiding large increases in GHG
140 emissions (Leitner et al. 2020; van Loon et al. 2019; FAO 2018; Tongwane and Moeletsi
141 2018).

142 To enhance crop yields, smallholder farmers in SSA generally adopt a single
143 approach rather than an integration of multiple approaches (Thierfelder et al. 2017; Sheahan
144 and Barrett 2017). However, to enhance crop yield and GHG mitigation simultaneously in

145 smallholder crop farming, it is necessary to comprehensively consider different approaches
146 (Sheahan and Barrett 2017; Zougmore et al. 2014; Branca et al. 2013), since adopting a single
147 approach cannot properly manage the complexity of crop production and GHG mitigation
148 challenges. The adoption of different approaches can create positive synergetic effects
149 beyond the additive effect of each approach (Sanz-Cobena et al. 2017; Zougmore et al. 2014;
150 Branca et al. 2013). Even so, due to the lack of on-site data, further efforts including research
151 and field demonstrations identifying optimal combinations of different approaches are
152 urgently needed (Sheahan and Barrett 2017; Thierfelder et al. 2017; Zougmore et al. 2014;
153 Branca et al. 2013).

154 This review aims 1) to identify the current status and future potentials of smallholder
155 farming practices for enhancing crop production, 2) to assess how these practices can affect
156 GHG emissions, 3) to identify management practices that can both enhance crop yield and
157 mitigate GHG emissions and 4) to assess the main barriers to their implementation and
158 propose potential solutions in smallholder crop farming systems in SSA.

159

160 **2 Common practices for increasing crop production of smallholder farms in SSA**

161 Smallholder farmers adopt various practices to increase crop production in SSA. For
162 this review, we selected the most adopted practices by smallholder farmers throughout SSA,
163 of which the magnitudes of adoption were also relatively well quantified: 1) land
164 management, exemplified by the expansion of agricultural lands and the increase of cropping
165 intensity; 2) water management, exemplified by the development of water harvesting and
166 irrigation techniques; and 3) nutrition management, exemplified by the increase of fertilizer
167 use. Current status and future potential of these practices are discussed below.

168

169 **2.1 Expansion of agricultural lands and increase of cropping intensity**

170 Expanding agricultural lands is one of the most common land management practices
171 to increase crop production in smallholder crop farming in SSA (Nakawuka et al. 2018;
172 Droppelmann et al. 2017; Heady 2015). Agricultural lands in SSA have increased from $86.9 \times$
173 10^7 in 1993 to 92.0×10^7 ha in 2009 with an average increase rate of 3.2×10^6 ha per year
174 (FAOSTAT 2019). Mainly natural lands, such as forests, savannahs and wetlands, have been
175 converted to agricultural lands (Gibbs et al. 2010; Brink and Eva 2009; DeFries et al. 2010).
176 In SSA, natural forest decreased from 65.4×10^7 in 1993 to 59.9×10^7 ha in 2009 with an
177 average deforestation rate of 3.4×10^6 ha per year (FAOSTAT 2019). While overall
178 agricultural lands have increased in SSA, in most of the land-constrained countries, such as
179 Ethiopia, Kenya and Malawi, the farm size of most smallholder farms has been gradually
180 shrinking. Average farm sizes have been reduced by 30–40% since the 1970s, mainly due to
181 rapidly increasing populations (Jayne et al. 2014; Headey and Jayne 2014). Expansion of
182 agricultural lands will likely continue in SSA to meet growing food demand (Molotoks et al.
183 2018; Hertel et al. 2016; OECD/FAO 2015). Alexandratos and Bruinsma (2012) projected
184 that the area used for crop production in Africa will increase to 266×10^6 ha in 2030 and 291
185 $\times 10^6$ ha in 2050. Previous studies have shown substantial potential to expand agricultural
186 land in wet savannahs, shrublands and sparse woodlands in SSA (Chamberlin et al. 2014;
187 Alexandratos and Bruinsma 2012; Deininger and Byerlee 2011). However, it was found that
188 many countries in SSA have limited potential for agricultural land expansion while avoiding
189 deforestation (Jayne et al. 2014; Chamberlin et al. 2014; Deininger et al. 2011). Except for a
190 few countries, such as the Democratic Republic of Congo and Angola, most countries in SSA
191 have less than 6% (0.4 to 5.9%) of non-forested unutilized land available (Jayne et al. 2014).
192 Chamberlin et al. (2014) estimated that potentially expandable cropland for smallholder

193 farms is only 80×10^6 ha in SSA if forest conversion is to be avoided.

194 Intensification has been adopted to enhance crop production in SSA (van Ittersum et
195 al. 2016; Headey and Jayne 2014; Mueller et al. 2012), most notably by increasing cropping
196 intensity—the number of crops grown per a year on the same field (Headey and Jayne 2014).
197 As population pressures cause a gradual shrinking of farm sizes over time (Jayne et al. 2014;
198 Headey and Jayne 2014), smallholder farmers have been practicing cultivating their fields
199 continuously, shortening fallow periods between individual cropping periods and changing
200 the traditional crop types to high-value mono-species cash crops (Kim et al. 2016 b; Jayne et
201 al. 2014; Headey and Jayne 2014). Cropping intensity in SSA increased 10.6% and 25.4% in
202 low and high population density countries, respectively, in the period 1977-2007 (Headey and
203 Jayne 2014).

204

205 **2.2 Development of rainwater harvesting and irrigation**

206 Since more than 90% of cultivated land in SSA is rainfed, crop production in arid,
207 semi-arid and sub-humid areas in SSA is at risk from highly variable rainfall, frequent
208 droughts and low water productivity (Karpouzoglou and Barron 2014; Misra 2014).

209 Rainwater harvesting technologies such as pitting, contouring, terracing, open ponds, and
210 cisterns have been used to enhance crop production in certain regions of SSA (Leal Filho and
211 Trincheria Gomez 2018; Karpouzoglou and Barron 2014; Dlie et al. 2013; Biazin et al. 2012).
212 These technologies have been advanced as essential to achieving water availability and crop
213 production in these areas (Taffere et al. 2016; Rockström et al. 2010). Indigenous rainwater
214 harvesting techniques (e.g. spate irrigation) or those modified from traditional techniques are
215 more common and widely accepted by smallholder farmers compared to introduced ones

216 (Biazin et al. 2012; Mbilinyi et al. 2005). Studies on the economic costs and benefits of
217 rainwater harvesting found significant profits in Ethiopia (Hagos et al. 2012), Tanzania
218 (Senkondo et al. 2004), Kenya (Ngigi et al. 2005) and Burkina Faso (Fox et al. 2005). Due to
219 substantial rain and currently underexploited surface and ground water resources, great
220 potential exists for expanding rainwater harvesting in SSA (Altchenko and Villholth 2015;
221 Cassman and Grassini 2013; Pavelic et al. 2013). In Ethiopia, Kenya, Uganda and Tanzania,
222 rainwater harvesting potential was estimated at over 10,000 to 25,000 m³ rainwater person⁻¹
223 (Mati et al. 2006).

224 Irrigation holds the potential to improve crop production and mitigate the impacts of
225 climate stress associated with drought and extreme heat in SSA (Burney et al. 2013).

226 Irrigation has gradually been expanded in SSA (Altchenko and Villholth 2015; Sheahan and
227 Barrett 2014; You et al. 2011). The average rate of expansion of irrigated area over the past
228 30 years is 2.3% in SSA (You et al. 2011), where the area currently equipped for irrigation is
229 estimated to be slightly more than 13×10^6 ha, making up 6% of the total cultivated area
230 (Cassman and Grassini 2013; You et al. 2011). Around 0.2 to 3.5% of smallholder farms in
231 Ethiopia, Malawi, Niger, Nigeria, Tanzania and Uganda can access irrigation (Sheahan and
232 Barrett 2014). Despite low irrigation development, irrigated agriculture accounts for nearly
233 38% of the economic value of all agricultural output (Svendsen et al. 2009). A field survey of
234 1554 smallholder farmers in nine SSA countries showed that gravity-flow, manual-lift and
235 motor-pump irrigation increased the value of agricultural production per farmland size as
236 well as per family worker compared to rain-fed-only farms (Shah et al. 2013).

237 There is substantial potential for further irrigation development and expansion in
238 SSA (Cassman and Grassini 2013; You et al. 2011). In SSA, average annual renewable
239 groundwater availability for irrigation ranges from 692 to 1644 km³; therefore, the total area

240 of irrigable cropland with renewable groundwater includes between 20.5 to 48.6% of the
241 continent's cropland (Altchenko and Villholth 2015). Xie et al. (2014) revealed a large
242 potential for profitable smallholder irrigation expansion in SSA, with irrigation technologies
243 benefiting between 113 and 369×10^6 rural people in the region by generating net revenues
244 of US \$14–22 billion yr⁻¹ (Xie et al. 2014). Improving rainwater harvesting and irrigation
245 development in SSA will contribute to enhancing crop production in smallholder households.
246

247 **2.3 Increase of fertilizer use**

248 Research demonstrated that the amount of fertilizer application in SSA was very low
249 compared to other regions (Fig. 3). Mean N application rates in SSA were 16 kg N ha⁻¹ in
250 2009 compared to 169.1 kg N ha⁻¹ in the United States in the same year (Lassaletta et al.
251 2014). The low fertilizer use in SSA has been attributed to low financial capacity of farmers,
252 low availability of input products in local markets, unfavorable fertilizer/crop-price ratios
253 (Duflo et al. 2008; Croppendstedt et al. 2003) and low response rates of crops to fertilizer
254 inputs (Roobroeck et al. 2020; Ichami et al. 2019; Riesgo et al. 2016). Some governments in
255 SSA have introduced fertilizer subsidy programs to increase crop productivity (Koussoubé
256 and Nauges 2017; Jayne et al. 2013). Ten African governments spend roughly US\$1 billion
257 annually on fertilizer subsidy programs (Jayne and Rashid 2014). Recent studies found that
258 synthetic fertilizer use among smallholders is far more widespread than commonly assumed
259 (Sheahan and Barrett 2017). Over 75% of all cultivating households in Malawi, 50% in
260 Ethiopia and around 40% in Nigeria use synthetic fertilizer in some amount in the main
261 growing season (Sheahan and Barrett 2017). Maize fields receive more synthetic fertilizer
262 than non-maize-dominated plots (Sheahan and Barrett 2017). Increasing use of synthetic
263 fertilizer is predicted in SSA (Ten Berge et al. 2019; Zhang et al. 2015; Tenkorang and

264 Lowenberg-DeBoer 2009). The annual growth rate of synthetic fertilizer demand (2015-2020)
265 in SSA is predicted to be 3.1, 1.8 and 1.3 times higher than the global average for N,
266 phosphate (P₂O₅) and potash (K₂O) fertilizers, respectively (FAO 2017; Fig. 4). Similarly, N
267 fertilizer use is expected to increase from 0.9 Mt in 2015 to 1.2 Mt in 2030 in SSA
268 (Tenkorang and Lowenberg-DeBoer 2009).

269

270 **3 Impact of the smallholder farming practices on GHG emissions**

271 Increasing crop production in SSA is an urgent and indubitable necessity. Finding
272 approaches to attaining sustainable crop production requires an understanding of the
273 environmental implications of different pathways of agricultural growth. Here we assess the
274 changes in GHG emissions associated with the management practices detailed in section 2.

275

276 **3.1 Expansion of agricultural lands and increase of cropping intensity**

277 The conversion of natural forest to agricultural land and increasing cropping intensity
278 affect carbon (C) budgets (Kim and Kirschbaum 2015) due to loss of C stored in standing
279 woody biomass (Pearson et al. 2017) and degraded SOC (Wei et al. 2014; Murty et al. 2002).
280 The changes in SOC and C in vegetation biomass driven by conversion of natural forest to
281 agricultural land are directly related to changes in the CO₂ budget, since any loss of biosphere
282 C stocks increases atmospheric CO₂ (Kim and Kirschbaum 2015). Intensive soil disturbance
283 caused by increasing cropping intensity can enhance the loss of SOC through decomposition
284 of soil organic matter (Kim et al. 2016 a; Jayne et al. 2014; Headey and Jayne 2014),
285 resulting in CO₂ emissions.

286 The conversion of natural forest to agricultural land and increasing cropping intensity

287 also affect fluxes of other GHGs such as methane (CH₄) and N₂O (Tate 2015; Kim and
288 Kirschbaum 2015; van Lent et al. 2015). In a global meta-analysis, Kim and Kirschbaum
289 (2015) found that the conversion of forest to cropland increased net soil CH₄ emissions. This
290 has been associated with changes in the composition (Singh et al. 2007, 2009) and abundance
291 (Menyailo et al. 2008) of the methanotroph communities driven by changed soil properties
292 such as soil moisture, N status, and pH (Tate 2015; Levine et al. 2011). Global meta-analyses
293 found that the conversion of forest to agricultural lands tended to increase soil N₂O emissions
294 (Kim and Kirschbaum 2015; van Lent et al. 2015). In general, the effect of the conversion on
295 N₂O emissions is related to the increase of N input, changed water-filled pore space, changed
296 soil management and microclimatic conditions (Wanyama et al. 2018; van Lent et al. 2015;
297 Smith 2010). Effects of conversion of natural forest to agriculture on soil GHG emissions
298 have been observed in SSA (Wanyama et al. 2018; Gütlein et al. 2018; Mapanda et al. 2012).
299 In Zimbabwe, clearing and converting woodlands to crop lands increased soil emissions of
300 CO₂, CH₄ and N₂O (Mapanda et al. 2012). In Kenya, converted crop lands receiving N input
301 emitted higher N₂O emissions than natural forest (Wanyama et al. 2018).

302 Overall, conversion from natural forest to crop lands is recognized as the largest
303 source of GHG emissions in SSA, resulting in the release of 0.16×10^9 Mg C yr⁻¹ between
304 1990 and 2009 (Valentini et al. 2014) or a total of 84.2×10^9 Mg CO₂ eq between 1765 and
305 2005 [emission of 7.3 ± 0.6 Mg CO₂ eq per a converted cropland (ha) per a year; Kim and
306 Kirschbaum 2015]. These emissions contribute to 14.7% of global land use change GHG
307 emissions (Li et al. 2017). Assuming that agricultural expansion will continue to be
308 associated with deforestation, Molotoks et al. (2018) projected that 11.48×10^9 Mg C will be
309 lost in SSA due to agricultural expansion during 2010 to 2050 (loss of average 0.29×10^9 Mg
310 C yr⁻¹). Results overwhelmingly suggest that expanding agricultural lands to enhance crop

311 production can result in loss of carbon stocks and increasing GHG emissions in SSA.

312

313 **3.2 Development of rainwater harvesting and irrigation**

314 Rainwater harvesting and irrigation can affect SOC. Increased water supply through
315 water harvesting and irrigation can result in an increased crop biomass and consequently
316 higher input of organic matter into soils through litter and fine root exudates and further
317 decomposition, thus resulting in an increase of SOC (Qiu et al. 2018; Trost et al. 2013;
318 Kochsiek et al. 2009). On the other hand, water harvesting and irrigation can enhance
319 microbial activity, resulting in enhanced degradation of SOC (Trost et al. 2013). A global
320 review by Trost et al. (2013) found that irrigating cropping soils increased soil C stocks by
321 90–500% in desert climates and 11–35% in semi-arid climates, with the greatest gains in
322 environments with low initial soil carbon, low precipitation and sparse vegetation. But in
323 soils with high initial SOC content, the enhancement of microbial activity can outweigh any
324 increases in biogenic carbon inputs, resulting in the lowering of SOC content (Kochsiek et al.
325 2009; Jabro et al. 2008; Liu et al. 2008).

326 Irrigation can also affect other processes leading to GHG emissions from agricultural
327 soils. The effects of irrigation on microbial activity and soil physical properties (e.g. soil
328 moisture, temperature, aeration and oxidation status) can affect methanogenesis, methane
329 oxidation, nitrification, denitrification and other microbial processes involved in regulating
330 CH₄ and N₂O emissions (Trost et al. 2013; Kim et al. 2012; Kessavalou et al. 1998). Some
331 studies found that, especially at high availability of N, certain types of irrigation strategies
332 could enhance the rate of soil microbial processes leading to the production of N₂O emissions
333 following water application (Cayuela et al. 2017; Trost et al. 2014; Aguilera et al. 2013). An
334 abrupt increase of soil moisture in dry soil conditions caused by precipitation or irrigation

335 (often called rewetting) can also affect GHG emissions. This effect was already reported by
336 Birch (1958) and updated by other authors (Congreves et al. 2018; Kim et al. 2012). Increases
337 in CO₂ and N₂O fluxes following rewetting of dry soils have been observed in multiple
338 terrestrial ecosystems and various land-use types including crop land (Guardia et al. 2017;
339 Sánchez-Martín et al. 2012). Increased CO₂ (up to 9000%) and N₂O fluxes (up to 80,000%)
340 within 6 to 24 hours after rewetting has been well reported (Kim et al. 2012). These results
341 suggest that soil rewetting caused by irrigation can abruptly increase soil CO₂ and N₂O
342 emissions under conditions when soils are permitted to dry. However, some studies found no
343 significant effect of irrigation on N₂O emissions (Trost et al. 2016; Trost et al. 2014c). The
344 existence of only limited field data from SSA prevents general conclusions on the effect of
345 expanding rainwater harvesting and irrigation on the amount of GHG emissions (Trost et al.
346 2013).

347

348 **3.3 Increase of fertilizer use**

349 Increasing N fertilizer use can affect soil C and GHG emissions. In comparison to
350 unfertilized agricultural fields, increased use of N fertilizer can result in higher plant
351 productivity and increased organic matter input to soil through roots, exudates and crop
352 residues, resulting in enhanced soil carbon sequestration (Peng et al. 2017; Han et al. 2016;
353 Yue et al. 2016). Indeed, a global meta-analysis by Han et al. (2016) found that N fertilizer
354 application increased SOC (10 to 15.4 % or 0.9 to 1.7 C g kg⁻¹) in agricultural fields
355 compared to unfertilized agricultural fields. Increasing N fertilizer use can also increase N₂O
356 emissions. Assuming that N fertilizer use will increase from 0.9 × 10⁶ Mg in 2015 to 1.2 ×
357 10⁶ Mg in 2030 in SSA (Tenkorang and Lowenberg-DeBoer 2009) and the IPCC default N₂O
358 emission factor (EF) of 1.0 % (IPCC 2006) is applicable in SSA, 78.6 × 10⁶ Mg CO₂ eq

359 would be produced from 2015 to 2030 in SSA. Closing maize yield gaps by 75% through
360 increasing N fertilizer application in SSA will increase N₂O emissions from currently 255 to
361 1755 Gg N₂O–N year⁻¹ (increase of 589 %) (Leitner et al. 2020).

362 Initial models of the relationship between N inputs and N₂O emissions assumed that
363 N₂O emissions were a linear function of N input rate (Dobbie et al. 1999; Bouwman 1996).
364 However, in the last ten years growing evidence suggests that N₂O emissions often increases
365 as an exponential function of N input rate (Bell et al. 2016; Shcherbak et al. 2014; Kim et al.
366 2013; Hoben et al. 2011), though the relationship is not found universally (Shcherbak et al.
367 2014). In an exponential response, emissions increase more rapidly once N addition rates
368 exceed the ability of plants and microbes to immobilize it (e.g., >100 kg N ha⁻¹; Bouwman et
369 al. 2002). The resulting soil N surplus is available as a substrate for additional N₂O
370 production (Kim et al. 2013). A study from western Kenya found an exponential relationship
371 between N input and N₂O emissions, with the largest increase in N₂O emissions occurring
372 when N inputs increased from 100 to 150 kg N ha⁻¹ (Hickman et al. 2015). In addition, low or
373 non-responsive rates of crop productivity to N fertilizer inputs have been reported across
374 SSA, ranging from 11 to 69% of cases in individual farms or field trials (Roobroeck et al.
375 2020; Ichami et al. 2019; Shehu et al. 2018; Riesgo et al. 2016). In soils that exhibit low
376 fertilizer responses, increasing N fertilizer use may result in soil N surplus and additional
377 N₂O production in some regions. The results suggest that increasing N fertilizer use in SSA
378 should be carefully monitored and managed to avoid its excessive use, especially in
379 intensively cultivated cash crop farming (e.g., sugar cane or bioenergy feedstock cultivation).
380 Abruptly increasing N₂O emissions driven by increasing N fertilizer use in SSA will
381 otherwise be a great concern in managing GHG emissions in SSA in the near future.

382

383 **4 Strategies to enhance crop production and GHG mitigation in smallholder farming**
384 **systems in SSA**

385 An urgent challenge in SSA is to enhance crop production while avoiding large
386 increases in GHG emissions from cropping systems (Leitner et al. 2020; van Loon et al. 2019;
387 Tongwane and Moeletsi 2018). As potential solutions, approaches based on land, water and
388 nutrient management and a land-water-nutrient nexus (LWNN) are presented and discussed
389 below.

390

391 **4.1 Land: Improving and utilizing degraded land**

392 The ongoing expansion of agricultural land for enhancing crop production results in
393 deforestation, habitat degradation and GHG emissions (van Loon et al. 2019; Valentini et al.
394 2014; Gibbs et al. 2010). Smallholder farmers in SSA have limited potential for agricultural
395 land expansion (Jayne et al. 2014; Chamberlin et al. 2014; Deininger et al. 2011). Instead of
396 converting natural land to agricultural lands, it may be sensible to consider restoring,
397 improving and utilizing degraded lands such as abandoned and/or unfertile agricultural land
398 and marginal areas (Foley et al. 2011; Lal 2006). Available estimates suggest that there are
399 494×10^6 ha of human-induced degraded areas in SSA (Bai et al. 2008). About 40% of
400 grasslands and 12% of croplands have been affected by land degradation in SSA (Le et al.
401 2016), which may be attributed to various factors including deforestation, expanded
402 agricultural lands in environmentally sensitive areas, low nutrient additions, acidification and
403 improper soil management (CGIAR 2017, Nkonya et al. 2016; Le et al. 2014). The annual
404 costs of land degradation in 2007 were estimated to be US\$ 58 billion, which was about 7%
405 of the region's GDP (Nkonya et al. 2016). In contrast, it has been estimated that the benefits
406 of restoring degraded lands in SSA would outweigh the costs by a factor of 7 (ELD Initiative

407 2015; ELD Initiative and UNEP 2015). Land degradation is expected to increase further in
408 SSA due to expansion of agricultural lands and increase of cropping intensity (Nkonya et al.
409 2016; Gnacadja and Wiese 2016; Le et al. 2014).

410 One solution to restore, improve and utilize degraded lands in relatively mesic
411 ecosystems is to practice agroforestry (Nkonya et al. 2016). Agroforestry can be defined as
412 any practice to purposefully grow trees together with crops and/or animals for a variety of
413 benefits and services (Whitney et al. 2018; Jose et al. 2012; Nair et al. 2010). Similarly,
414 another meta-analysis of 94 studies in SSA found that agroforestry increased maize yields by
415 0.7–2.5 Mg ha⁻¹ (or 89–318%) compared to monocropping systems (Sileshi et al. 2008).
416 Another meta-analysis of SSA studies (Kuyah et al. 2019) found that agroforestry increased
417 crop yields in 77 and 68% of all trials conducted on farms and research stations, respectively.
418 In addition to the direct benefits of food production, agroforestry can provide ecosystem
419 services such as improving soil fertility, enhancing carbon sequestration and mitigating GHG
420 emissions (Muchane et al. 2020; Smith et al. 2019; Corbeels et al. 2019; Kim et al. 2016 a). A
421 recent global meta-analysis found that soil N stocks under agroforestry were 46 % higher
422 than in monocropping (Muchane et al. 2020). Similarly, a meta-analysis of SSA studies found
423 that agroforestry increased soil N by 20% (Kuyah et al. 2019). A review found that the
424 absolute rate of SOC sequestration under agroforestry was up to 14 Mg C ha⁻¹ y⁻¹ (0 – 100
425 cm; Corbeels et al. 2019). Agroforestry may sequester carbon at an equivalent of 27.2 ± 13.5
426 Mg CO₂ eq ha⁻¹ y⁻¹ during the early growth stage (up to an average age of 14 years; Kim et al.
427 2016 a). Assuming 20% of the degraded areas in SSA (494 × 10⁶ ha; Bai et al. 2008) could
428 feasibly be converted to agroforestry (Kim et al. 2016 a), estimates suggest that doing so
429 could potentially sequester carbon equivalent to 2.7 × 10⁹ Mg CO₂ eq y⁻¹, which is 7.7 times
430 larger than annual GHG emissions caused by recent agricultural expansion (0.35 × 10⁹ Mg

431 CO₂ eq yr⁻¹; Kim and Kirschbaum 2015). Although uncertainty remains in these estimates,
432 the results suggest that converting degraded land to agroforestry could contribute to
433 enhancing soil fertility and crop production and mitigating GHG emissions in SSA. In
434 addition, improving soil fertility and crop productivity of degraded lands through agroforestry
435 could reduce the need to convert additional natural land to agricultural lands, consequently
436 reducing GHG emissions associated with land-use change (van Loon et al. 2019; Branca et al.
437 2013).

438

439 **4.2 Water: Appropriate rainwater harvesting, irrigation techniques and water** 440 **management**

441 The potential for rainwater harvesting and irrigation development in SSA is
442 substantial. Further expansion of rainwater harvesting and irrigation with low cost and
443 appropriate technologies can contribute to enhancing crop production in smallholder farms
444 (Rosa et al. 2020; Leal Filho and Trinchera Gomez 2018; Nakawuka et al. 2018). Evidence
445 from semi-arid environments also suggests that application of appropriate irrigation systems
446 may have some potential to mitigate GHG emissions (Deng et al. 2018; Sanz-Cobena et al.
447 2017; Cayuela et al. 2017) following two different approaches reviewed below: I.
448 Appropriate rainwater harvesting and irrigation techniques and II. Water management in
449 paddy soils.

450

451 **4.2.1 Appropriate rainwater harvesting and irrigation techniques**

452 Different types of rainwater harvesting and irrigation technologies have been
453 developed and applied in SSA (Altchenko and Villholth 2015; Karpouzoglou and Barron

2014; Dlie et al. 2013). Results from cropping systems in other regions may be useful to understand the potential effect of these practices on GHG emissions in SSA. Research carried out under semiarid conditions in Mediterranean cropping systems suggests that drip irrigation (both surface and subsurface) can increase the potential to maintain crop yields in the context of frequent droughts and subsequent water scarcity (Deng et al. 2018; Sanz-Cobena et al. 2017; Aguilera et al. 2013). Although N₂O emission factors in drip-irrigated systems (0.51±0.26%) were higher than those from rain-fed soils (0.27±0.21%) in Mediterranean ecosystems, drip-irrigated systems have on average 44% lower N₂O emissions than sprinkler systems (Cayuela et al. 2017). Drip-irrigation combined with optimized fertilization (i.e. fertigation) also showed a reduction of up to 50% of direct N₂O emissions compared to sprinkler systems with non-optimal fertilization rates (Sanz-Cobena et al. 2017). The results suggest that the development of rainwater harvesting (Rosa et al. 2020) and low-cost drip and other irrigation technologies (Kahimba et al. 2015) may provide an opportunity for smallholders in SSA to boost crop yield with relatively small additional costs. Although N₂O emissions could increase by a factor of two or more compared to rain-fed Mediterranean systems, the overall emissions per unit area—and especially per unit production—appear likely to remain low in the context of global agriculture. Larger-scale investments in water harvesting and irrigation infrastructure will be important for increasing crop production and limiting C losses - or even facilitating C gains - in agricultural soils. To avoid large indirect GHG emissions associated with irrigation infrastructure and pumping, the location of water bodies and connection with cropping systems, soil characteristics and landscape morphology should be taken into account for development of rainwater harvesting and irrigation technologies.

Significant decreases in crop yields have been reported in semi-arid conditions when

478 irrigation is suppressed (e.g. Wriedt et al. 2009; Liu 2009). For instance, in Europe, large
479 negative impacts on crop yields are expected as water deficit increases (from 4 to 66%
480 decrease for 50 and 150 mm of water deficit, respectively). In cases of no irrigation,
481 compared to an optimum water supply, fall in crop yield could be higher than 80% (Wriedt et
482 al. 2009). In SSA, as crop yields are often damaged by rainfall scarcity and droughts
483 (Karpouzoglou and Barron 2014; Misra 2014), the effect of irrigation on crop yields is
484 expected to be substantial (Altchenko and Villholth 2015; Cassman and Grassini 2013; You et
485 al. 2011). Therefore, although certain irrigation systems could enhance GHG emissions due
486 to increased rates in GHG production processes mainly associated to rewetting events (e.g.
487 sprinkler irrigation), the expected growth in crop yields could lead to an overall decrease in
488 yield-scaled GHG emissions.

489

490 **4.2.2 Water management in paddy systems**

491 Rice is cultivated in 40 countries in SSA on nearly 10 million ha (Zenna et al. 2017).
492 Rice is also the fastest growing food staple in SSA and the second major source of human
493 calories consumption on the continent (Seck et al. 2012). Water table management in rice
494 paddies may provide great GHG mitigation potential in SSA. Studies have found that water
495 management practices such as flooding, intermittent drainage, midseason drainage and
496 alternate wetting and drying treatment were important factors for rice yield and GHG
497 emissions in paddy fields (Jiang et al. 2019; Meijide et al. 2017; Linquist et al. 2015). For
498 instance, mid-season drainage of the water table of a rice paddy in Northern Italy resulted in
499 lower water use and reduced CH₄ emissions with slightly increased N₂O fluxes (Meijide et al.
500 2017). Alternate wetting and drying treatments relative to the flooded control treatment in
501 paddies in Arkansas, USA reduced yields by <1-13%, but global warming potential (GWP of

502 CH₄ and N₂O emissions) was also reduced by 45-90% (Linguist et al. 2015). In central Japan,
503 compound treatment with a combination of flooding, midseason drainage and intermittent
504 drainage treatments produced higher rice grain yield and lower total GHG emissions
505 compared to continuous flooding or intermittent drainage treatment (Kudo et al. 2014). Other
506 studies carried out in SSA have shown that improved water management increased rice yields
507 (e.g., Materu et al. 2018; Mati et al. 2011; Balasubramanian et al. 2007). The reason of
508 observed higher yields under certain water management practices was attributed to various
509 mechanisms including altered hormonal levels in rice plants, greater root biomass in deeper
510 soil and higher root oxidation activity, an enhancement in carbon remobilization from
511 vegetative tissues to kernels, and reduction of N loss through nitrification and denitrification
512 in the early vegetative growth stages (Yang et al. 2017; Wang et al. 2016; Chu et al. 2015).
513 However, a study from rice farms in India suggested that N₂O emissions from Indian rice
514 paddies under intermittent flooding might be 30-45 times higher than under continuous
515 flooding due to increased denitrification (Kritee et al. 2018). More studies, combining both
516 GHG and yield measurements, are required, but it appears that careful optimized water
517 management might increase agricultural yields while reducing GHG emissions in SSA
518 paddies, particularly under climate change scenarios (van Oort et al. 2017).

519

520 **4.3 Nutrient: Improved soil fertility management with combined conventional-** 521 **conservation agriculture (CCCA) practices**

522 Nutrient management should consider two different aspects simultaneously. On the
523 one hand, increasing N fertilizer use is required for resolving problems of depleted soil
524 fertility, low N fertilization levels and thus low crop productivity in most smallholders of
525 SSA (van Loon et al. 2019; Ten Berge et al. 2019; Zhang et al. 2015). On the other hand,

526 abruptly increasing N₂O emissions driven by increasing N fertilizer use in SSA could create
527 new challenges for managing GHG emissions in the near future (Leitner et al. 2020;
528 Tongwane and Moeletsi 2018). Combined practices of conservation agriculture with
529 conventional agriculture (hereafter *combined conventional and conservation agriculture*;
530 *CCCA*) can provide an appropriate solution for nutrient management. Studies assessing GHG
531 mitigation potentials of CCCA (Table 1) have shown the advantage of combining the high
532 crop yield rate of conventional agriculture with the sustainable soil management of
533 conservation agriculture (Gram et al. 2020; Droppelmann et al. 2017; Wu and Ma 2015).
534 Some global meta-analyses reported GHG mitigation potentials of CCCA (Graham et al.
535 2017; Charles et al. 2017; Han et al. 2016; Sainju 2016). Nitrous oxide EF of the combined
536 application of composts and synthetic fertilizers (0.37 %) and crop residues and fertilizers
537 (0.59 %) were lower than N₂O EF of the sole application of synthetic fertilizers (1.34 %) and
538 the IPCC default N₂O EF of 1% for synthetic fertilizers (Charles et al. 2017). Inorganic
539 fertilizers with straw application and inorganic fertilizers with manure application increased
540 topsoil organic carbon by 2.0 g kg⁻¹ (19.5%) and 3.5 g kg⁻¹ (36.2%), respectively (Han et al.
541 2016). In a separate meta-analysis, GHG intensity (net global warming potential per unit crop
542 yield) was found to be 70 to 87% lower under the improved combined management that
543 included no-till, crop rotation/perennial crop and reduced N rate than under traditional
544 management such as conventional till, monocropping/annual crop and recommended N rate
545 (Sainju 2016). Studies comparing GHG emissions in conventional practices and CCCA in
546 SSA (Kurgat et al. 2018; Kimaro et al. 2016; Nyamadzawo et al. 2014 a, b) demonstrated that
547 yield-scaled N₂O emissions were 19 to 88% lower in CCCA practices compared to
548 conventional practices (Table 1). In Mali, pearl millet (*Pennisetum glaucum*) fields treated
549 with both manure and inorganic fertilizer urea emitted significantly less N₂O than plots

550 receiving only urea fertilizer (Dick et al. 2008). The lower N₂O emissions in soils amended
551 with manure were attributed to the initial slow release and immobilization of mineral N and
552 the consequently diminished pool of N available to be lost as N₂O (Nyamadzawo et al. 2014a,
553 b; Mapanda et al. 2011; Dick et al. 2008). The results suggest that CCCA has a greater
554 potential to increase soil fertility while avoiding abruptly increasing N₂O emissions driven by
555 increasing N fertilizer use. In addition, improving soil fertility through CCCA could lead to a
556 consequent increase of crop productivity and decrease of the need to convert additional land
557 to agriculture, thereby reducing associated GHG emissions (van Loon et al. 2019; Branca et
558 al. 2013).

559

560

561 **4.4 Land-Water-Nutrient Nexus (LWNN) approach**

562 To achieve the goal of enhancing crop production while avoiding abruptly increasing
563 GHG emissions in smallholder crop farming in SSA, it is strategic to implement
564 comprehensive approaches resulting in beneficial land, water and nutrient management
565 interactions (Sheahan and Barrett 2017; Thierfelder et al. 2017; Zougmore et al. 2014; Branca
566 et al. 2013). Research conducted in Kenya and Tanzania found that the combination of water
567 harvesting techniques (ex. tie-ridges) with manure or inorganic fertilizer resulted in higher
568 maize or cowpea yields than when these factors were applied separately (Githunguri and
569 Esilaba 2014; Miriti et al. 2011; Itabari et al. 2004). In semi-arid West Africa, stone bunds, zai
570 and half-moon techniques combined with the application of organic and/or mineral fertilizers
571 increased agricultural productivity and carbon sequestration (Zougmore et al. 2014).
572 Differences in the current status of land, water and nutrient depending on the climate and land
573 use history in different regions may exist. Accordingly, different schemes are needed to deal

574 with each of the land, water, and nutrient components and their nexus (Fig. 5).

575 A simplified hypothetical example of a LWNN approach would be based on applying
576 suitable agroforestry practices combined with CCCA and appropriate rainwater harvesting
577 and irrigation technologies in degraded lands. This approach can restore soil fertility, produce
578 food and enhance carbon sequestration; also improving soil quality, including soil organic
579 matter, a critical factor for increasing yield response to N input in SSA (Maman et al. 2018;
580 Kihara et al. 2016; Jayne and Rashid 2013; Tittonell and Giller 2013). Since irrigation or
581 CCCA practices can increase yields, this approach could also help to limit N₂O emissions due
582 to an increased plant demand and uptake for N, which would reduce its availability for
583 conversion to N₂O (Kim and Giltrap 2017). Therefore, through the LWNN approach, it may
584 be possible to enhance crop production and GHG mitigation.

585 In order to evaluate co-benefits and trade-offs and identify optimized LWNN
586 schemes, measures accounting for both crop production and GHG mitigation are necessary.
587 In many previous studies, agricultural yield was not well accounted for in GHG budgets and
588 mitigation strategies (Kim and Giltrap 2017; Rosenstock et al. 2013; Linquist et al. 2012). To
589 address the issue, studies use the concept of yield-scaled GHG emissions (GHG emissions
590 per unit agricultural yield) to account for both crop yields and GHG emissions in various
591 regions including SSA (Ortiz-Gonzalo et al. 2017; Kim and Giltrap 2017; Sainju 2016; Kim
592 et al. 2016 c; Kimaro et al. 2016). For instance, in maize and winter wheat (*Triticum aestivum*
593 L.) fields in Zimbabwe, yield-scaled N₂O emissions was used to compare the application of
594 inorganic fertilizer (ammonium nitrate, NH₄NO₃-N) with manure and sole application of
595 inorganic fertilizer (Nyamadzawo et al. 2014a). These studies suggest that yield-scaled GHG
596 emissions may be an alternative means to account for food security and GHG mitigation

597 (Kim and Giltrap 2017; Sainju 2016; van Kessel et al. 2013). Therefore, instead of separately
598 considering agricultural yield and GHG emissions, yield-scaled GHG emissions may identify
599 optimal LWNN schemes.

600

601 **4. 5 Barriers and their potential solutions for enhancing crop production and GHG** 602 **mitigation in smallholder farming systems in SSA**

603 Inextricably linked, technical, economic and policy barriers to adopting integrated
604 approaches (e.g. LWNN) for enhancing crop production and GHG mitigation may exist.
605 From the technical perspective, the most challenging barrier for smallholder farmers may be
606 the lack of relevant knowledge and experience in applying agroforestry (Mbow et al. 2014;
607 Rioux 2012; Place et al. 2012), rainwater harvesting, irrigation and water management (Leal
608 Filho and Trincheria Gomez 2018; Nakawuka et al. 2017) and soil fertility management
609 practices (Brown et al. 2018 b; Masso et al. 2017; Vanlauwe et al. 2015). Technology transfer
610 remains a challenge in the smallholder context. Limited institutional and human capacity or
611 infrastructure supporting extension programs generally exist in SSA (Brown et al. 2018 a;
612 Wheeler et al. 2017; Ajayi et al. 2009). From an economic perspective, initial financial and
613 labor investments can be very high, representing a critical barrier to adopting new methods
614 for smallholder farmers. Returns on investment are not immediate since trees may take years
615 to grow and bear benefits (e.g., timber, firewood, fruit, etc.). It also takes time for farmers to
616 realize that after adopting these new approaches, their lands demonstrate improved soil
617 fertility, which in turn brings significant increases to yields (Place et al. 2012; Schlecht et al.
618 2006). Investment in new technologies and capacity building are costly and need to be
619 addressed by strong policy. From a policy perspective, land tenure questions may introduce

620 an additional challenge, as there may be reduced incentives for farmers to make the necessary
621 investments in labor and finances if they cannot rely on the future returns of their investments
622 (Higgins et al. 2018; Holden et al. 2014). The intersectional nature of integrated practices for
623 enhancing crop production and GHG mitigation may introduce structural challenges to the
624 development of national policies, since intersectional planning and resource sharing are very
625 rare at the national level in SSA (Place et al. 2012). Additionally, with limited resources,
626 governments must juggle multiple priorities including health, education, and the development
627 of clean water and road infrastructure, which may create a particular challenge for
628 introducing practices whose primary purpose is GHG mitigation. Furthermore, GHG
629 mitigation strategies need to be planned by national policies in response to international
630 commitments made by the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change, like the Paris
631 Agreement (UNFCCC 2015).

632 These challenges are far from trivial, but various efforts may improve the chance of
633 smallholder farmers adopting the LWNN approach. Successful technologies will be those
634 with low barriers to entry, reliable returns on investment and appropriate and appealing
635 design and implementation. Taking advantage of locally available knowledge, experience and
636 resources to develop appropriate technologies and disseminating new information and
637 technologies through the farmer to farmer approach may improve rates of adoption and
638 technology transfer (Brown et al. 2018; Kiptot and Franzel 2015; Kiptot et al. 2006). Lessons
639 must be taken from past successes and failures to develop socioeconomic incentives for
640 adoption and maintenance of sustainable agricultural technologies (Long et al. 2016; Arslan
641 et al. 2014). Micro-financing tied to carbon trading schemes such as REDD+ can be used to
642 support investment and development among smallholders (Gizachew et al. 2017; Mbow et al.
643 2014; Minang et al. 2014). Policy for smallholder farmers to secure land tenure and

644 encourage long-term investment is urgently needed.

645

646 **5 Conclusion**

647 Smallholder farmers in SSA have commonly practiced expansion of agricultural land,
648 increase of cropping intensity, and development of water harvesting and irrigation to enhance
649 crop production. However, these practices may result in creating trade-offs between
650 enhancing crop production and GHG mitigation. To enhance crop production while avoiding
651 abruptly increasing GHG emissions, interrelated land, water, and nutrient management
652 strategies such as those offered by the LWNN approach require consideration. While
653 technical, economic and policy barriers may hinder implementing the LWNN approach on the
654 ground, these may be overcome by developing appropriate technologies, disseminating
655 information and technologies through the farmer to farmer approach, applying small spatial
656 and long-term temporal scale trials and developing specific policies for smallholder farmers.
657 Throughout this study, serious data gaps were identified in the effects of different land, water
658 and nutrient management strategies on SOC and GHG emissions. The effect of rainwater
659 harvesting and irrigation on SOC and GHG emissions has especially not been well studied
660 and deserves further investigation. The data gaps hinder further in-depth assessments of the
661 trade-offs between enhancing crop production and mitigating GHG emissions caused by
662 smallholder farmers' past and future practices. Further studies are urgently needed for
663 addressing these data gaps and developing viable options for applying the LWNN approach
664 proposed herein.

665

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677

678 **Conflict of interest**

679 The authors declared that they have no conflict of interest.

680

681

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1473 7010-3-16](https://doi.org/10.1186/2048-7010-3-16)

1474 **Figure captions**

1475 Fig. 1. Agricultural production systems in sub-Saharan Africa are largely based on
1476 smallholder farming systems. Typical example of smallholder farms with small crop fields
1477 located nearby homesteads in western Ethiopia (photo courtesy: Dong-Gill Kim).

1478

1479 Fig. 2. Changes of crop productivity in Africa, North America, Europe and China in 1961 to
1480 2009 (Data source: FAO STAT). The crop productivity in Africa is very low compared to
1481 other regions.

1482

1483 Fig. 3. Changes of nitrogen (N) fertilizer application in Africa, North America, Europe and
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1486

1487 Fig. 4. Annual growth rate from 2015 to 2020 (determined as compound annual growth rate)
1488 of synthetic fertilizer (nitrogen, phosphate and potash fertilizers) demand in different regions
1489 (Data source: FAO 2017).

1490

1491 Fig. 5. Land-Water-Nutrient Nexus (LWNN) approach to enhance crop yield and mitigate
1492 greenhouse gas (GHG) emission in smallholder crop farming systems in sub-Saharan Africa.
1493 ↑: increase and ↓: decrease (Produced by authors).

1494

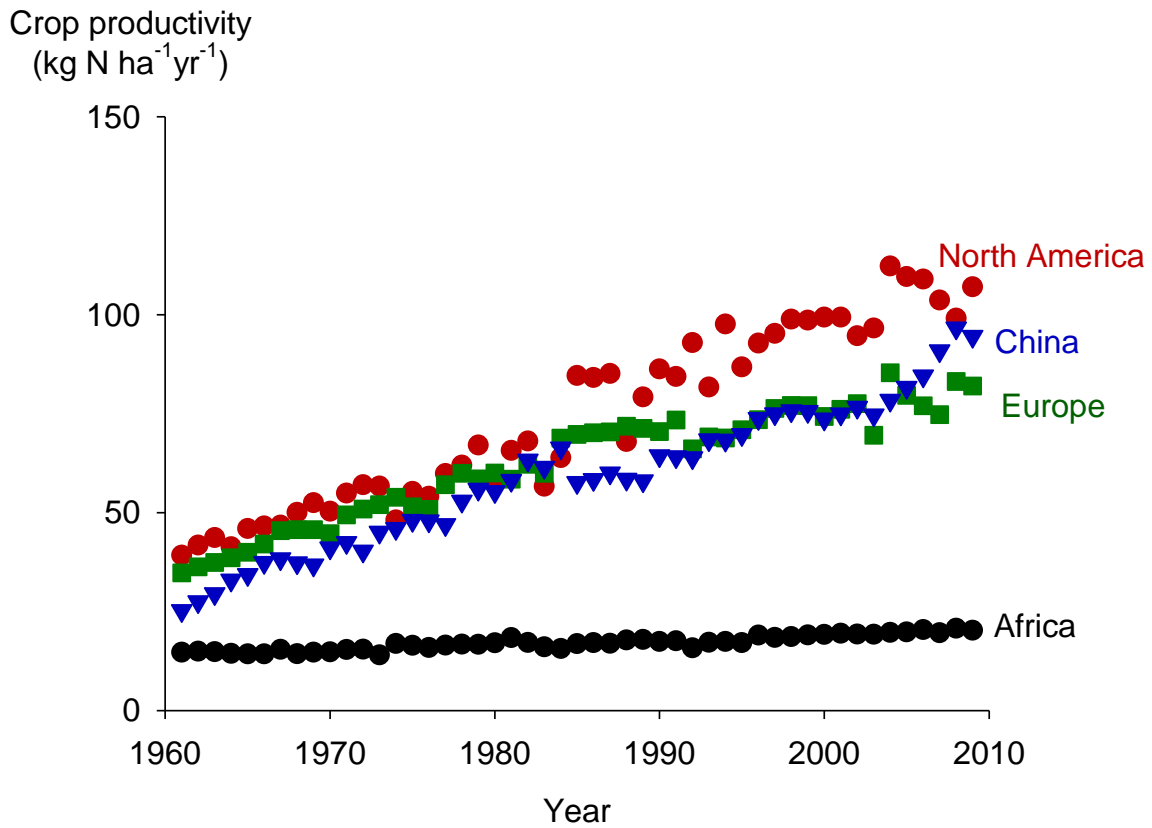


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Crop productivity (1961-2009)

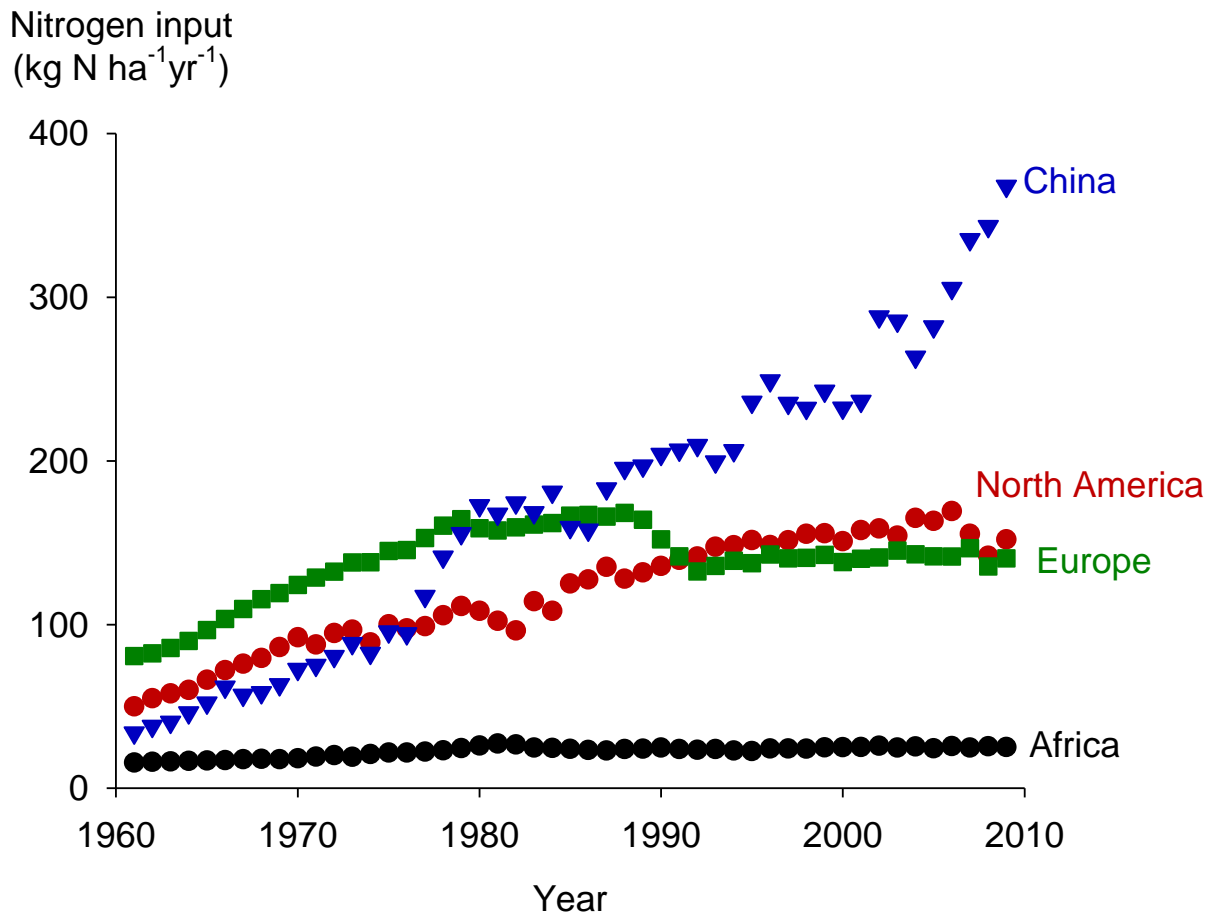


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Nitrogen fertilizer application (1961-2009)



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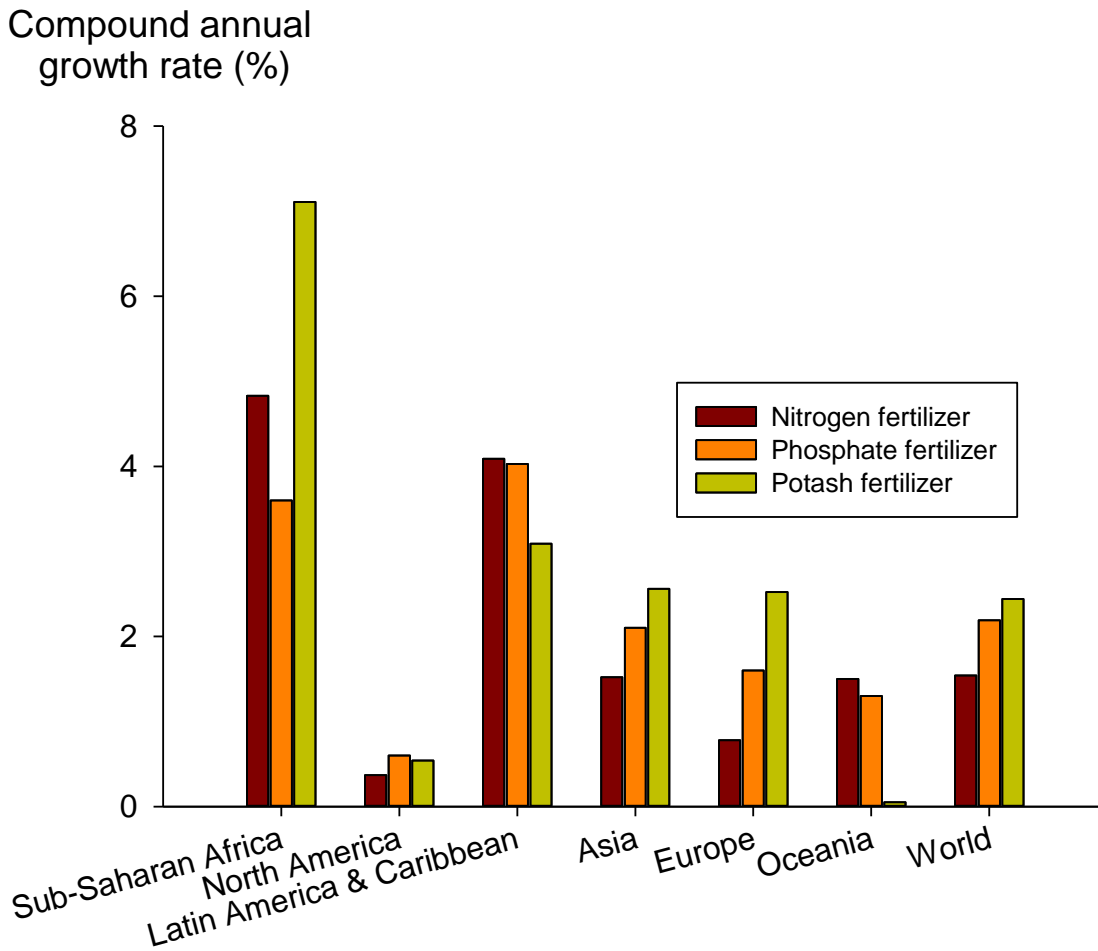
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Compound annual growth rate of fertilizer demand (2015-2020)



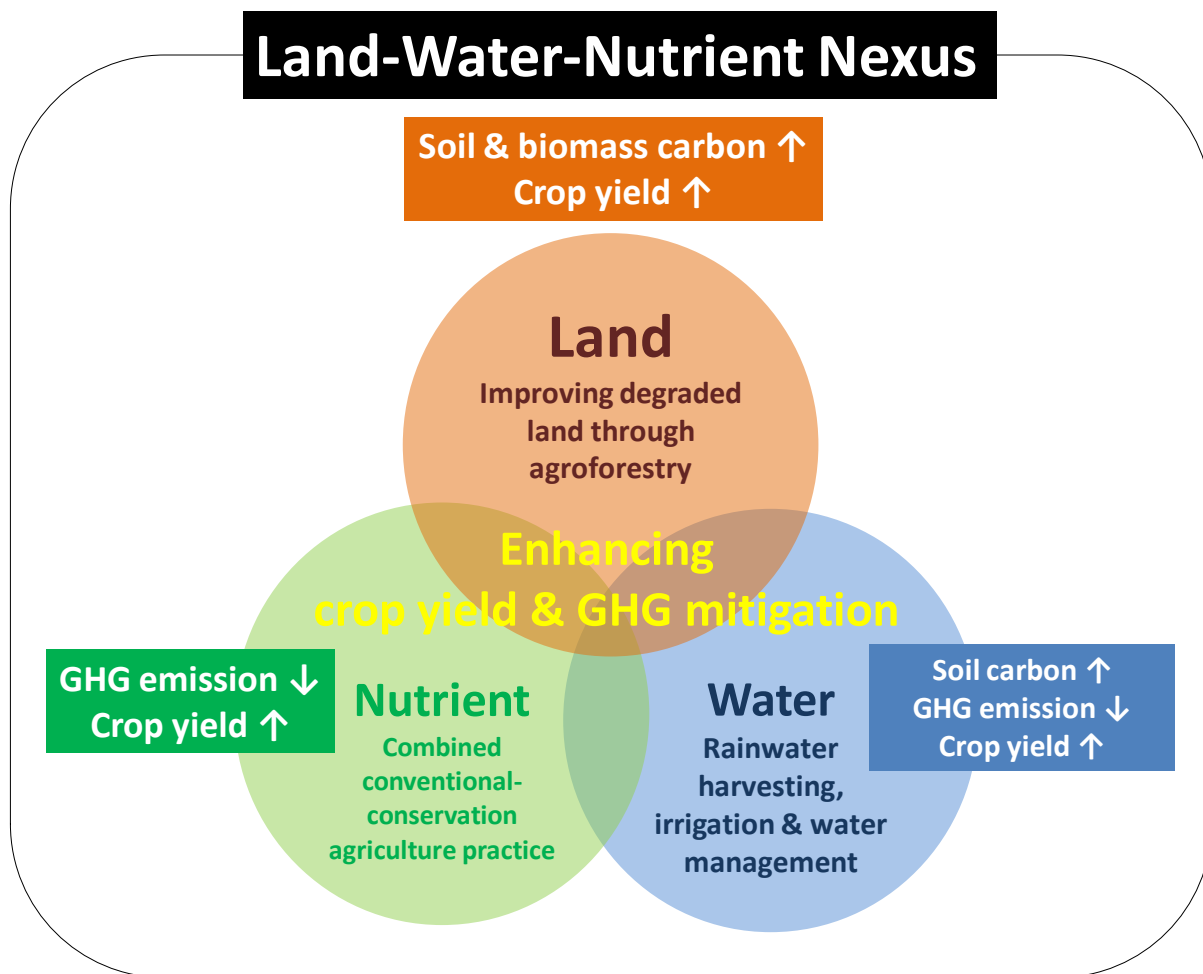
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1524

1525 Fig. 5 Land-Water-Nutrient Nexus (LWNN) approach to enhance crop yield and mitigate
 1526 greenhouse gas (GHG) emission in smallholder crop farming systems in sub-Saharan Africa.

1527 ↑: increase and ↓: decrease (Produced by authors).

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1538 **Table 1. Summary of comparing conventional agriculture practices and combined conventional-conservation agriculture (CCCA)**
 1539 **practice in sub-Saharan Africa**

No	Country	Crop type	Conventional practice	CCCA practice	Effects of CCCA	Reference
1	Zimbabwe	Maize (<i>Zea mays</i> L.)	N fertilizer (NH ₄ NO ₃ -N; 120 kg N ha ⁻¹)	N fertilizer (NH ₄ NO ₃ -N; 60 kg N ha ⁻¹) & composted manure (60 kg N ha ⁻¹)	Yield-scaled N ₂ O emission mitigation (48 %)	Mapanda et al. 2011
2	Zimbabwe	Rape (Brassica napus)	N fertilizer (NH ₄ NO ₃ -N; 120 kg N ha ⁻¹)	N fertilizer (NH ₄ NO ₃ -N; 60 kg N ha ⁻¹) & manure (65 kg N ha ⁻¹)	Yield-scaled N ₂ O emission mitigation (88 %)	Nyamadzawo et al. 2014a
3	Zimbabwe	Maize (<i>Zea mays</i> L.)	N fertilizer (NH ₄ NO ₃ -N; 120 kg N ha ⁻¹)	N fertilizer (NH ₄ NO ₃ -N; 60 kg N ha ⁻¹) & manure (60 kg N ha ⁻¹)	Yield-scaled N ₂ O emission mitigation (19 %)	Nyamadzawo et al. 2014b
4	Zimbabwe	-	N fertilizer (urea, 120 kg N ha ⁻¹)	N fertilizer (urea, 120 kg N ha ⁻¹) & crop residues (Maize, 4 Mg C ha ⁻¹)	N ₂ O mitigation (56 %)	Gentile et al. 2008
5	Zimbabwe	-	N fertilizer (urea, 120 kg N ha ⁻¹)	N fertilizer (urea, 120 kg N ha ⁻¹) & crop residues (Maize, 4 Mg C ha ⁻¹)	N ₂ O mitigation (49 %)	Gentile et al. 2008
6	Ghana	-	N fertilizer (urea, 120 kg N ha ⁻¹)	N fertilizer (urea, 120 kg N ha ⁻¹) & crop residues (Maize, 4 Mg C ha ⁻¹)	N ₂ O mitigation (103 %)	Gentile et al. 2008
7	Kenya	-	N fertilizer (urea, 120 kg N ha ⁻¹)	N fertilizer (urea, 120 kg N ha ⁻¹) & crop residues (Maize, 4 Mg C ha ⁻¹)	N ₂ O mitigation (72 %)	Gentile et al. 2008
8	Kenya	Vegetables	N fertilizer (diammonium Phosphate; 40 kg N ha ⁻¹)	N fertilizer (diammonium Phosphate; 20 kg N ha ⁻¹) & manure (15 kg N ha ⁻¹)	N ₂ O emissions intensity (N ₂ OI) mitigation (50 %) N ₂ O emissions economic intensity (N ₂ OEI) mitigation (45 %)	Kurgat et al. 2018
9	Tanzania	Maize (<i>Zea mays</i> L.)	Conventional cultivation	Reduced tillage & N fertilizer (urea, 100 kg N ha ⁻¹)	Yield-scaled global warming potential (GWP) mitigation (62 to 71 %)	Kimaro et al. 2016
10	Mali	Pearl millet (<i>Pennisetum</i>)	N fertilizer (urea, 50 kg N ha ⁻¹)	N fertilizer (urea, 50 kg N ha ⁻¹) & manure (8000 kg dry matter ha ⁻¹)	Yield-scaled N ₂ O emission mitigation (52 %)	Dick et al. 2008

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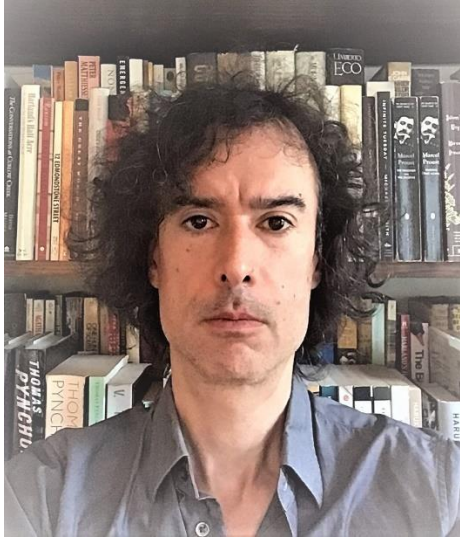
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