

1 Are scenario projections overly 2 optimistic about future yield progress?

3 **Abstract**

4 Historical increases in agricultural production were achieved predominantly by large increases in
5 agricultural productivity. Intensification of crop and livestock production also plays a key role in
6 future projections of agricultural land use. Here, we assess and discuss projections of crop yields by
7 global agricultural land-use and integrated assessment models. To evaluate these crop yield
8 projections, we compare them to empirical data on attainable yields by employing a linear and
9 plateauing continuation of observed attainable yield trends. While keeping in mind the uncertainties
10 of attainable yields projections and not considering future climate change impacts, we find that, on
11 average for all cereals on the global level, global projected yields by 2050 remain below the
12 attainable yields. This is also true for future pathways with high technological progress and mitigation
13 efforts, indicating that projected yield increases are not overly optimistic, even under systemic
14 transformations. On a regional scale, we find that for developing regions, specifically for sub-Saharan
15 Africa, projected yields stay well below attainable yields, indicating that the large yield gaps which
16 could be closed through improved crop management, may also persist in the future. In OECD
17 countries, in contrast, current yields are already close to attainable yields, and the projections
18 approach or, for some models, even exceed attainable yields by 2050. This observation parallels
19 research suggesting that future progress in attainable yields in developed regions will mainly have to
20 be achieved through new crop varieties or genetic improvements. The models included in this study
21 vary widely in their implementation of yield progress, which are often split into endogenous (crop
22 management) improvements and exogenous (technological) trends. More detail and transparency
23 are needed in these important elements of global yields and land use projections, and this paper
24 discusses possibilities of better aligning agronomic understanding of yield gaps and yield potentials
25 with modelling approaches.

26 **Keywords**

27 Shared Socio-economic Pathways (SSPs); Integrated assessment; Land use; Crop yield projections;
28 Potential yield; Attainable yield

29 **1 Introduction**

30 Historically, agricultural intensification has played a key role in the increase in agricultural production
31 (Burney et al., 2010; Foley et al., 2011; Ramankutty et al., 2018; Rudel et al., 2009). For the most
32 recent decades (1961-2007), the Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (FAO)
33 attributes 86% of historical growth in crop production to increases in yield and cropping intensities
34 (Alexandratos and Bruinsma, 2012; FAO). Further intensification of production on existing
35 agricultural land can limit future expansion of agricultural land, thereby alleviating a major driver of
36 land-use change emissions (Overmars et al., 2014; Popp et al., 2017a) and global biodiversity loss
37 (Newbold et al., 2015; Phalan et al., 2011). However, some have argued that a continuation of

38 historical trends in crop intensification is not sufficient to provide the necessary increase in food
39 demand (Ray et al., 2013), and several studies have suggested that crop yield progress, mainly in
40 developed regions, is starting to show signs of stagnation (Grassini et al., 2013; Lin and Huybers,
41 2012). A key question in describing the future of food production is therefore to what extent
42 agricultural productivity will continue to increase.

43 Scenario projections of agricultural production and land use are at the core of agricultural land-use
44 and integrated assessment models which aim to provide insights into the dynamics between socio-
45 economic developments and the environment (Popp et al., 2017a; Rosenzweig et al., 2013). These
46 models include projections of agricultural intensification with linkages to climate and other
47 environmental factors. A range of assumptions on technical change were implemented within the
48 Shared Socioeconomic Pathways (SSPs) framework (O'Neill et al., 2017; van Vuuren et al., 2017). A
49 possible issue with these model projections is that they lack biophysical foundations as to crop yields,
50 possibly leading to overoptimistic estimates of future yield increase (Schmitz et al., 2014). This is
51 specifically true for models with a strong focus on economic relations and a limited representation of
52 physical mechanisms, such as biophysical potential crop productivity or other empirical information
53 (van Dijk et al., 2017). Earlier comparisons of model results within the SSPs context did not provide
54 an evaluation of yield projections against empirical data (Hertel et al., 2016; Robinson et al., 2014).

55 In this study, we aim to address this shortcoming by comparing model results to empirical data on
56 current potential crop yields (Mueller et al., 2012; van Ittersum et al., 2016) in order to evaluate
57 whether scenario projections for agricultural productivity are overly optimistic. We compare yield
58 projections towards 2050 for cereal crops (wheat, rice, and maize and other grains) in the SSPs to
59 potential yields from three sources (Fischer et al., 2014; GYGA, 2018; Mueller et al., 2012). In this
60 comparison, we have to be cognizant of the fact that potential yields have increased in the past due
61 to improvements in cultivation techniques and crop varieties and likely will continue to do so in the
62 future (Fischer et al., 2014; Rijk et al., 2013). Because the progress of potential yields is vital for the
63 comparison with model projections, we use extrapolations of observed trends in potential yields
64 from field trials (Fischer et al., 2014). Using these historical trends, we estimated the potential yields
65 by 2050 under continuing linear trends and, alternatively, under the assumption that progress in
66 potential yield will have stagnated by 2050. While our understanding on the future developments of
67 potential yields is limited, these two approaches reflect two main notions where 1) there is no
68 evidence that observed potential yield progress is slowing down (Fischer et al., 2014; Rijk et al., 2013)
69 and 2) recognize that stagnations in yield trends have been observed due to yields reaching a plateau
70 (Grassini et al., 2013). This analysis is augmented with insights from FAO historical data and linear
71 extrapolations thereof.

72 The paper starts with an overview of the global land-use and agriculture models and mechanisms
73 behind the yield projections (section 2.1), followed by an overview of the potential yield data used
74 (2.2). The results, in which these two data sets are compared on a global and regional scale, first
75 focus on the SSP2 'Middle of the Road' scenario (Section 3.1). This is followed by an analysis of the
76 other SSPs, with varying degrees of technological progress and mitigation efforts, as well as
77 identification of hot spots for specific crops and regions (3.2). Finally, the conclusions, limitations,
78 and potential model improvements are discussed (Section 4).

79 2 Methods

80 2.1 Model projections

81 We evaluated scenario projections towards 2050 from six agricultural land-use and integrated
82 assessment models: IMAGE-MAGNET (Doelman et al., 2018; Stehfest et al., 2014), AIM (Fujimori et
83 al., 2014; Fujimori et al., 2017), GLOBIOM (Havlik et al., 2014; Havlik et al., 2012), MAGPIE (Dietrich et
84 al., 2014; Popp et al., 2011; Popp et al., 2014), GCAM (Wise et al., 2014), and IMPACT (Robinson et
85 al., 2015). The first five of these have contributed to the land-use quantification of the SSPs (Popp et
86 al., 2017b), and all of these have participated in recent studies within the AgMIP (Agricultural Model
87 Inter-comparison Project) consortium (Hasegawa et al., 2018; Meijl et al., 2018; Stehfest et al., 2019).
88 We assessed five baseline SSP scenarios (See Table 1), as well as three climate change mitigation
89 scenarios in line with RCP2.6 and the 2°C target (Meijl et al., 2018). The scenario data used in this
90 study is based on recent work from the AgMIP consortium (Hasegawa et al., 2018; Stehfest et al.,
91 2019). All scenarios presented here are without climate change impacts (future CO₂-fertilization,
92 temperature and precipitation changes are excluded). Likewise, also projections of attainable yields
93 do not account for impacts of climate change.

94 In the context of the AgMIP collaboration, the modelling teams have put effort into harmonizing
95 their outputs both in terms of regional aggregation (13 regions) and crop categories. In this study, we
96 apply an aggregation to 6 regions (see SI Supplementary Table 1), while the crop categories are
97 retained: wheat, rice, and maize plus other cereal grains (denoted as ‘coarse grains’). Besides these
98 crops, we also report weighted average yields (based on harvested areas) of all cereals. The
99 alignment between these crop categories and the models’ crop categories are reported in
100 Supplementary Table 2).

101 **Table 1 Overview of the SSP scenarios and their characteristics of land productivity. All scenarios exclude climate change**
102 **impacts.**

Scenario name	Scenario label	Implementation of land productivity (Popp et al., 2017a)
Sustainability	SSP1	High improvements in agricultural productivity; rapid diffusion of best practices
	SSP1_m	SSP1 plus mitigation measures for 2°C stabilization
Middle of the road	SSP2	Medium pace of technological change
	SSP2_m	SSP2 plus mitigation measures for 2°C stabilization
Regional rivalry	SSP3	Low technology development
	SSP3_m	SSP3 plus mitigation measures for 2°C stabilization
Inequality	SSP4	Productivity high for large scale industrial farming, low for small-scale farming
Fossil-fuelled development	SSP5	Highly managed, resource intensive; rapid increase in productivity

103
104 Scenario projections by the models included in this study represent the agricultural economy either
105 via partial equilibrium (PE) or computable general equilibrium (CGE) approaches (Table 2). These
106 models generally address future yield developments as a combination of long-term technological
107 change-driven improvements (continuous genetic crop improvement and new technologies), and
108 based on changes in management (management, fertilizers, labour, capital) in response to price and
109 market dynamics (Schmitz et al., 2014, Robinson et al., 2014). The definition and implementation of
110 exogenous and endogenous is different for each model (Table 2), and exogenous yield trends are
111 calibrated based on various sources. The models used in this study were part of an earlier AgMIP
112 effort to compare and harmonize models, and in that context used one harmonized exogenous yield

113 trend. Differences in model set-up and definitions (Table 2) suggest, however, that these exogenous
 114 trends should not necessarily be based on one single source, and yield trend assumptions for the
 115 different models have since diverged to varying degrees. For developing the SSPs, modelling teams
 116 translated the rather general scenario storylines into their specific methodologies and parameters.

117 Additional changes in average projected yields are the result of developments in the allocation of
 118 crop production (both within and between regions). The allocation of crop production is determined
 119 by regional economic differences, as well as local variation in environmental factors on yields (e.g.,
 120 temperature, water, soil). Some teams also use global gridded crop models (GGCMs) to derive
 121 spatially explicit yield distribution. Although the environmental factors can vary over time, these crop
 122 models do not incorporate the technological progress (i.e., breeding varieties) or agro-economic
 123 management options that are included to various degrees in the full agricultural model frameworks.
 124 The extent of irrigation and changes in cropping intensity (either from multiple harvests or changes in
 125 fallow land) are also important factors related to intensification. However, these elements are not
 126 consistently part of the drivers in the models, as for example cropping intensity is often kept
 127 constant (Table 2). Changes in the extent of irrigation, which influence the average yield due to the
 128 higher yields associated with irrigated crops, are addressed in different ways in each of the models
 129 and are not explicitly addressed in this study.

130 **Table 2 Overview of agricultural land-use and integrated assessment models and their approaches to agricultural**
 131 **intensification.**

Model	Type*	Exogenous yield trends	Endogenous yield trends	Irrigation	Cropping intensity	Yield constraints/ ceiling/plateau	Crop model
IMAGE-MAGNET	CGE	Autonomous technological changes as exogenous assumption.	Price-driven intensifications (MAGNET) and grid-based allocation within regions between grid cells of different productivity (IMAGE).	Expansion of total irrigated area as exogenous driver.	Crop intensity is fixed at base-year level.	No. Exogenous yield trends based on FAO scenario show diminishing yield growth. Endogenous part depends on scarcity of land.	LPJmL (coupled with IMAGE gridded land use allocation module)
GLOBIO M	PE	Crop yields shifter based on econometric estimates of relationship between yields and GDP per capita (Herrero et al., 2014).	Shift between management (low and high input, rainfed and irrigated), and relocation within regions between grid cells of different productivity.	Expansion into irrigation possible depending on water resource availability. (Palazzo et al., 2019)	Crop intensity is consistently one for the global model version.	Not explicitly in exogenous trends yet diminishing rates of growth as the underlying GDP growth tends also to level off over time.	EPIC gridded data on yields by management system and climate scenarios available for each model gridcell.
AIM	CGE	Autonomous technological changes as exogenous assumption.	Market-based intensifications.	Irrigation expansion was considered exogenously in yield shifter so incorporated into the yield progress	Crop intensity is fixed at base-year level.	Diminishing yield growth based on historical observations ((Fujimori et al., 2017)	CYGMA: Crop Yield Growth Model with Assumptions on climate and socioeconomics.
GCAM	PE	Yield shifter as exogenous assumption.	Inter-regional shifting in production.	Price driven expansion.	Crop intensity is fixed at base-year level.	None considered.	None by default; can use outputs from any GGCM.
MAgPIE	PE	None (fully endogenous).	Fully endogenous via	Market-based decisions to	Crop intensity	Not explicitly but endogenous	LPJmL: used as an input

			R&D module based on production costs and the effectiveness of R&D investments.	deploy additional irrigated.	part of endogenous changes.	results are subject to diminishing rates of return from investments in technology.	for crop yields, water flows, carbon content.
IMPACT	PE	Technological progress and productivity growth based on historical trends and expert opinion.	Market-based intensifications and share-based allocation according to land availability, crop prices, water constraints, and crop yields.	Price driven expansion of irrigated croplands.	Crop intensity varies across geographies and adjusts endogenously, at the margin, to crop prices.	Yield trends calibrated to biological yield limits, along with diminishing returns on investments in R&D and productivity.	DSSAT for climate impacts on yields & suite of hydrology models for impact of water availability on yields.

132 * CGE: Computable General Equilibrium model, PE: Partial Equilibrium model.

133 2.2 Reference yield data and potential yield progress

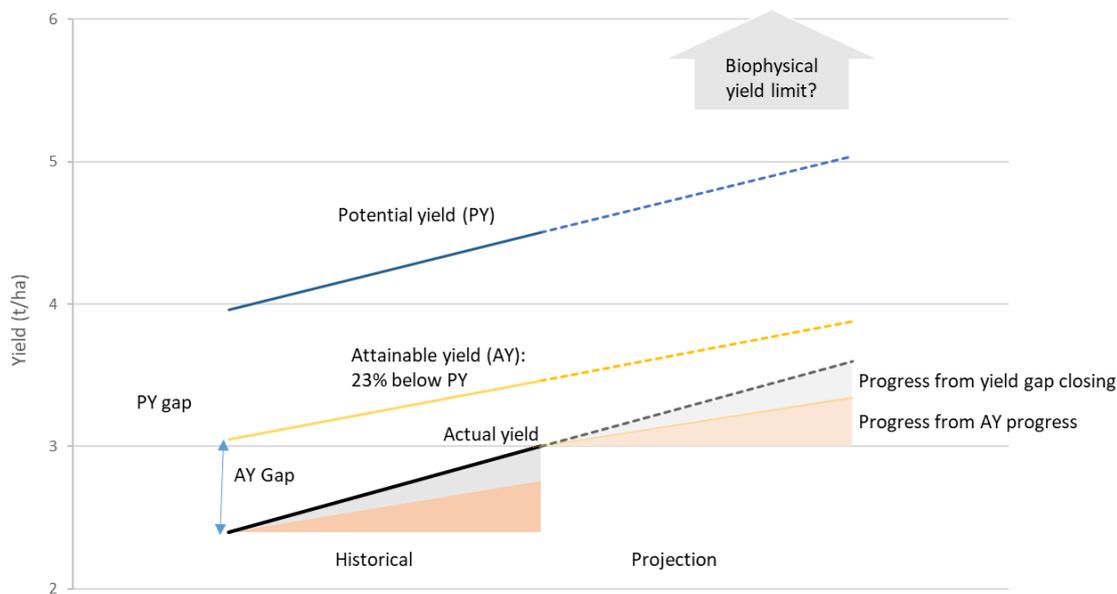
134 We compare the model estimates with two widely used metrics of maximum yield expected in
135 different regions: potential yields and attainable yields.

136 Potential yields (PY) can be used to assess the opportunities for the future increase in food
137 production through increased productivity (Mueller et al., 2012; van Ittersum et al., 2016). The PY is
138 defined as the crop yield expected with the best crop variety, under optimal (i.e., yield-maximizing)
139 management conditions and without manageable abiotic and biotic stresses (Fischer, 2015; Lobell et
140 al., 2009). It is an indicator of how much yield improvement is still possible by yield-maximizing crop
141 management practices (e.g., improved sowing dates, fertilizer application, pest control) while using
142 the latest available crop varieties. The data sources for potential yields used in this study are: 1) the
143 global yield gap atlas (GYGA, 2018), which represents a collection of results from crop growth
144 simulation models with detailed local information (van Ittersum et al. 2013, van Bussel et al 2015);
145 2) a systematic review and aggregation of many case studies on potential yields based on field trials,
146 including trends from 1990 to 2010 (Fischer et al., 2014); and 3) the yield data from Mueller et al.
147 2012, which applies a frontier analysis on maximum observed yields for similar climate and soil
148 conditions and thus refers to attainable yields rather than potential yields.

149 Attainable yields (AY) are yields that can be attained by farmers when economically optimal practices
150 and levels of inputs have been adopted (FAO, 2016). They are, by definition, lower than the potential
151 yields and imply that a minimum yield gap always exists as higher yields are not economically viable.
152 The attainable yield gap (i.e. the gap between actual yields and attainable yields, AY gap, see Figure
153 1), is also often referred to as the economically exploitable yield gap (van Ittersum et al., 2013). In
154 this study, we translate the PY datasets (Fischer et al. and GYGA) to attainable yields to make all
155 values comparable. Maximum attainable yields are suggested to be 23% below PY (Fischer et al.,
156 2014) and this value is applied in this study to convert all potential yields to attainable yields. It
157 should be noted that this conversion factor is difficult to determine, as well as highly heterogenous
158 across regions and crops, and other estimates of the attainable yield range from 15 to 25% below PY
159 (van Ittersum et al., 2013). Furthermore, although in the current analysis we keep this factor
160 constant at a global level, it can conceivably be influenced in the future by various scenario drivers.

161 Figure 1 depicts conceptually how the historical and future yield progress can be broken down into
 162 contributions from progress in potential yields (improved cultivars) and yield gap closing via
 163 improvements in soil and crop management. The PY progress can be conceptually linked to the
 164 exogenous trends as used in the model scenarios, while yield gap closing can be linked to changes of
 165 endogenous intensification in the models. The split between these two sources of yield progress
 166 differs across models, see also Table 2, and cannot be disentangled in a consistent way. The
 167 connection of technological progress of potential yields to the exogenous drivers of the model
 168 projections is thus not an exact definition but is a generalized link between the concepts.

169



170

171 **Figure 1 Conceptual depiction of historic and future yield progress. The increase in yield can be decomposed into**
 172 **progress in attainable and potential yield and yield gap closing.**

173 The data sources used for our comparison of the scenario results with potential yields and attainable
 174 yields are reported in Table 3. To extrapolate the PYs to give a useful comparison with model results
 175 in 2050, we use the potential yield progress (1990-2010) from Fischer et al. We apply this trend to
 176 the average of the AY data points across the 1990-2010 period. This trend is then extended into the
 177 future in two ways: 1) linear extrapolation, where potential (and thus attainable) yield increases will
 178 be able to continue linearly and 2) plateauing trends, where potential yield increases are levelling off
 179 towards 2050, indicating an impending stagnation of yield progress (Grassini et al., 2013). Thus, for a
 180 plateau trend, we implement a linear decrease of the growth rate of the AY from 1990-2010 until the
 181 slope reaches zero in the 2040-2050 period. These two approaches, which we will denote as the
 182 “linear” and “plateau” AY trend, will serve as a useful range to check the projected yields against. In
 183 all cases, the yields presented here represent a weighted average irrigated and rainfed yields.
 184 Although some of the potential yield data sources make the distinction between rainfed and irrigated
 185 yields, it was not possible to make this comparison as not all models report this level of detail in their
 186 crop yield projections. The model projections contain changes in irrigated areas, whereas the
 187 attainable yield trends implicitly assume a static share of irrigated and rainfed crop areas based on
 188 the share in the reference year for the data source (Table 3).

189 Additionally, the scenario results were compared to historical yield trends to check whether trends
 190 deviate unrealistically far from recent observations. Historical yield data from the FAO was extended
 191 to 2050 as a linear projection based on a linear regression per crop and region of 1990-2010 data.

192 **Table 3 Overview of yield data and projections used in the evaluation.**

Yield data	Description of sources
Yield projections, by model and scenario	Yield projections from agricultural land-use and integrated assessment scenarios for the SSP scenarios referring to modelled farm yield levels. These projections (2010 – 2050) were based on recent versions of scenario results within the AgMIP project (Hasegawa et al., 2018).
FAO Historical yields	FAO historical farm yield (FAO), for 1970 – 2010 using a 5-year moving average
FAO 20 year linear yield trends	Linear extrapolation of FAO historical farm yield data towards 2050, based on the trend of 1990-2010.
Attainable yield GYGA, Fischer et al., and Mueller et al.	GYGA. Potential yields based on crop growth simulation models with detailed local information (GYGA, 2018, van Ittersum 2013, van Bussel 2015). Reported PY scaled to AY (see text). The year on which data is based varies by country, and 2005 was assigned as a common base year. Data spans 46 countries. Cereal crops covered are wheat, rice, maize, barley, sorghum, and millet. Irrigated and rainfed yield gaps are reported separately and a weighted average of these points was applied.
	Fischer et al. Potential yield and trends thereof from aggregated field trial data, based on time periods of 1990-2010. (Fischer et al., 2014). Reported PY scaled to AY (see text). Data is reported based on representative crop mega environments, which were assigned to the regions as used in this paper (see supporting information for more detail). Cereal crops covered are wheat, rice, maize and, in although in less detail, barley, sorghum and millet. Data are reported for representative crop ‘Mega Environments’ which represent typical rainfed or irrigated systems. The weighted average of the reported areas was applied.
	Mueller et al. Attainable yields from Mueller et al., 2012. Attainable yields based on a frontier analysis (maximum observed yield approach). Base year is 2000. Coverage is global and the reporting on country level was used. Cereal crops covered are wheat, rice, maize, barley, rye, sorghum, and millet. The attainable yield data is reported as a combination of rainfed and irrigated yields.
Average linear and plateau AY trends	Average of the three data sources for attainable yield, with the PY trend as reported by Fischer et al. applied in linear and plateau fashion (see text). Denoted as linear AY and plateau AY . The attainable yields are extrapolated towards 2050, in which the share of rainfed and irrigated crops is kept constant.

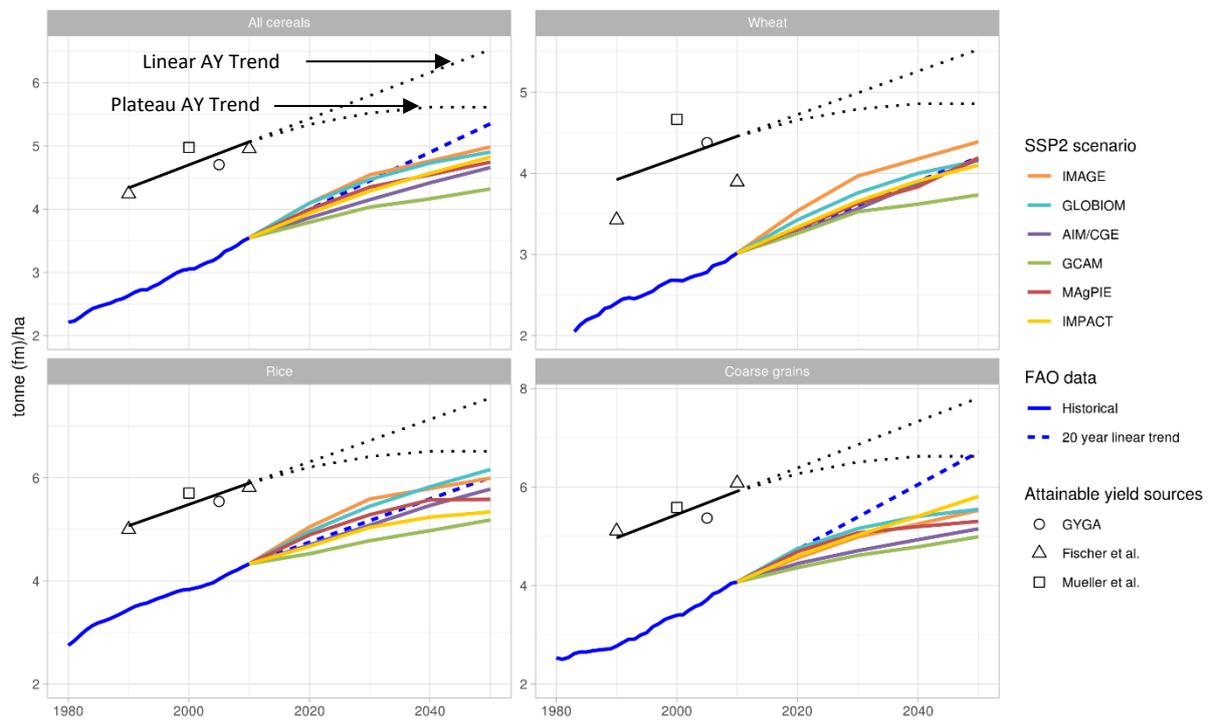
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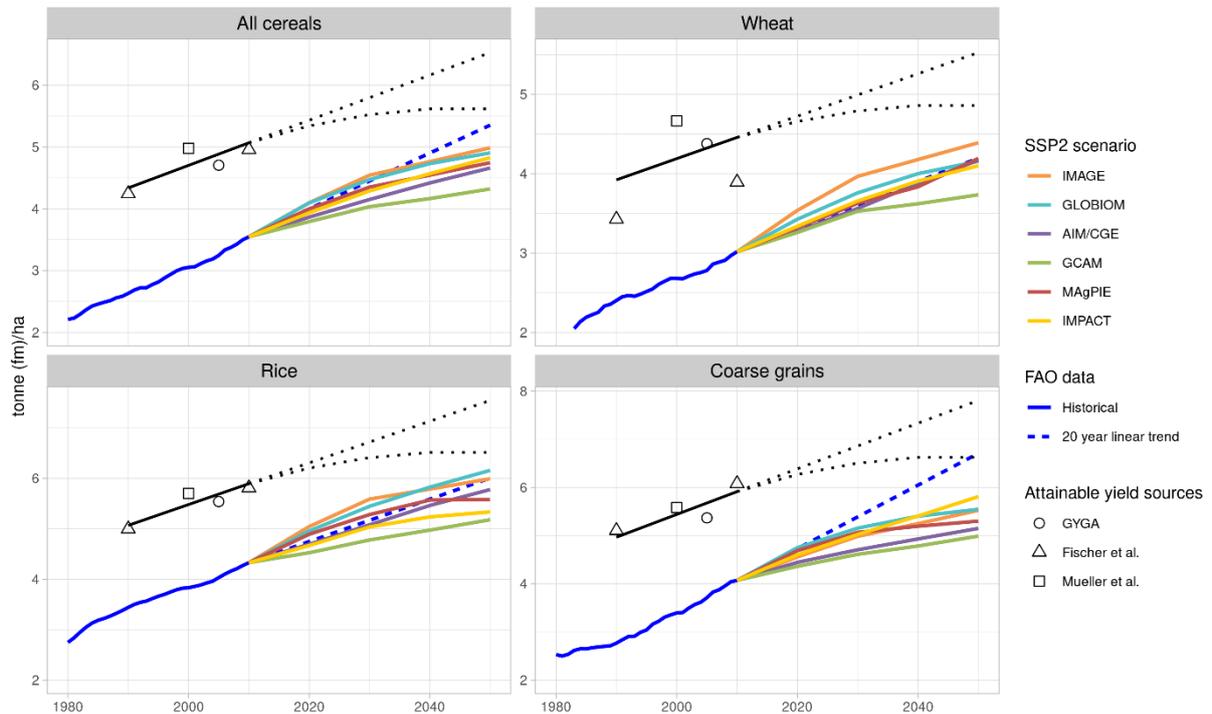
194 Attainable and potential yield data are not available for all crops and regions. The gaps in the data
 195 are filled by applying values from similar regions (see the Supporting Information for more detail per
 196 data source). The datasets cover various years, and also differences in crop definitions exist. Thus, in
 197 order to make data comparable, the relative yield gaps (i.e. the difference between potential and
 198 currently realized yield) as reported in the datasets were applied to the FAO yield of the relevant
 199 year. In the same manner, the model yield projections were scaled to the 2010 FAO farm yield so
 200 that we effectively compare the relative yield trends (i.e. harmonize the starting point). This scaling is
 201 required to make the data comparable as some models report yields in dry matter instead of fresh
 202 matter or include cropping intensities (see the supporting information for details). Results presented
 203 in the next section therefore depict yield trends rather than absolute yields for most data sources.

204 **3 Results**

205 Figure 2 shows the global yield projections for the SSP2 scenario as implemented by agricultural land-
 206 use and integrated assessment models. The yields of all cereals combined increase on average across
 207 models from 2010 to 2050 by +34% (from +22% for GCAM to +41% for IMAGE-MAGNET). Wheat
 208 yield is projected to increase the most (by +37% on average) and coarse grains the least (+31% on

209 average). On average across models, the share of coarse grains crop area comprises 43% of all
 210 cereals and increases to almost half of all cereals which has a minor impact on the average yield for
 211 all cereals. For all cereal types, GCAM consistently shows the lowest yield projections across models,
 212 while in contrast GLOBIOM and IMAGE-MAGNET consistently show higher yields. Across all models
 213 and crop categories, the rate of yield growth (in absolute as well as percentage terms) decreases
 214 from the period 2010-2030 to 2030-2050 (see Supplementary Table 4), with the second period on
 215 average displaying around half of the relative yield progress of the first. This general model
 216 behaviour is partially rooted in the aforementioned harmonization within AgMIP, but is also an
 217 expected result of economic process, where declining economic and population growth reduce
 218 demand and thus endogenous intensification processes.





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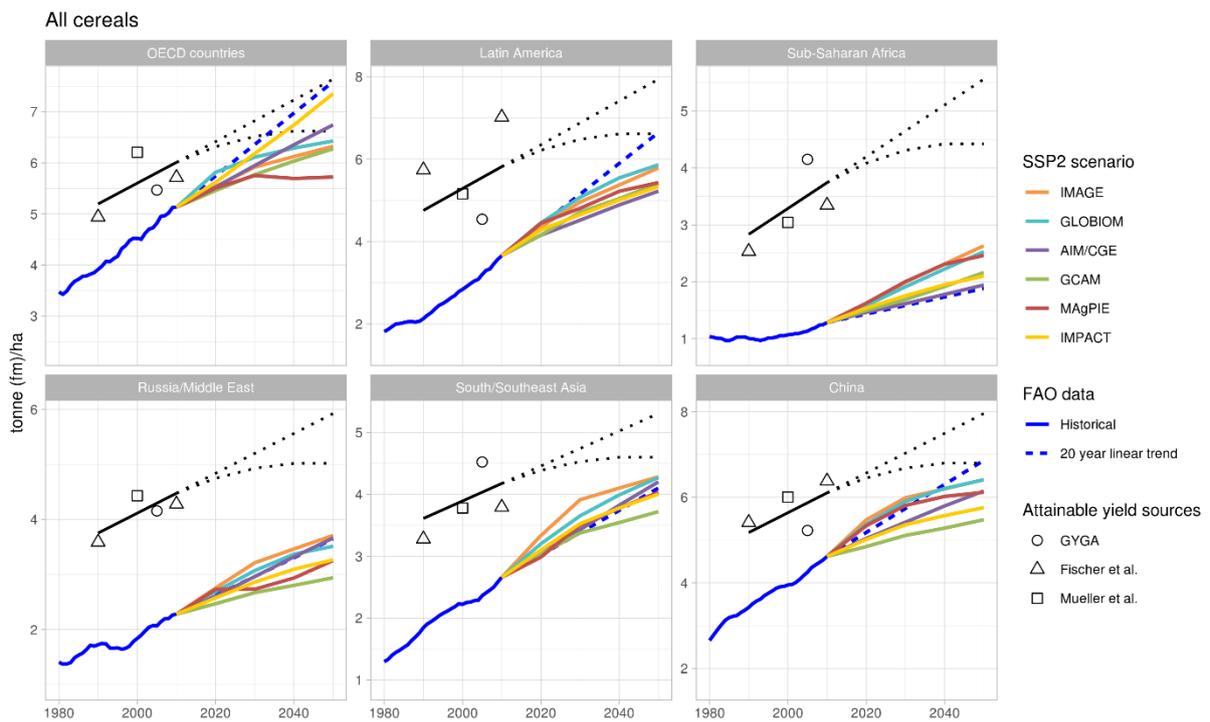
221 **Figure 2 Global yields for SSP2 for various crops, compared to historical FAO trends and FAO-based projections, and**
 222 **attainable yields (three sources, average is black line) extended with a linear (upper dotted line) and plateau (lower**
 223 **dotted line) trend. All scenario and potential yield data were scaled so that the yields in 2010 match the 2010 FAO yields.**

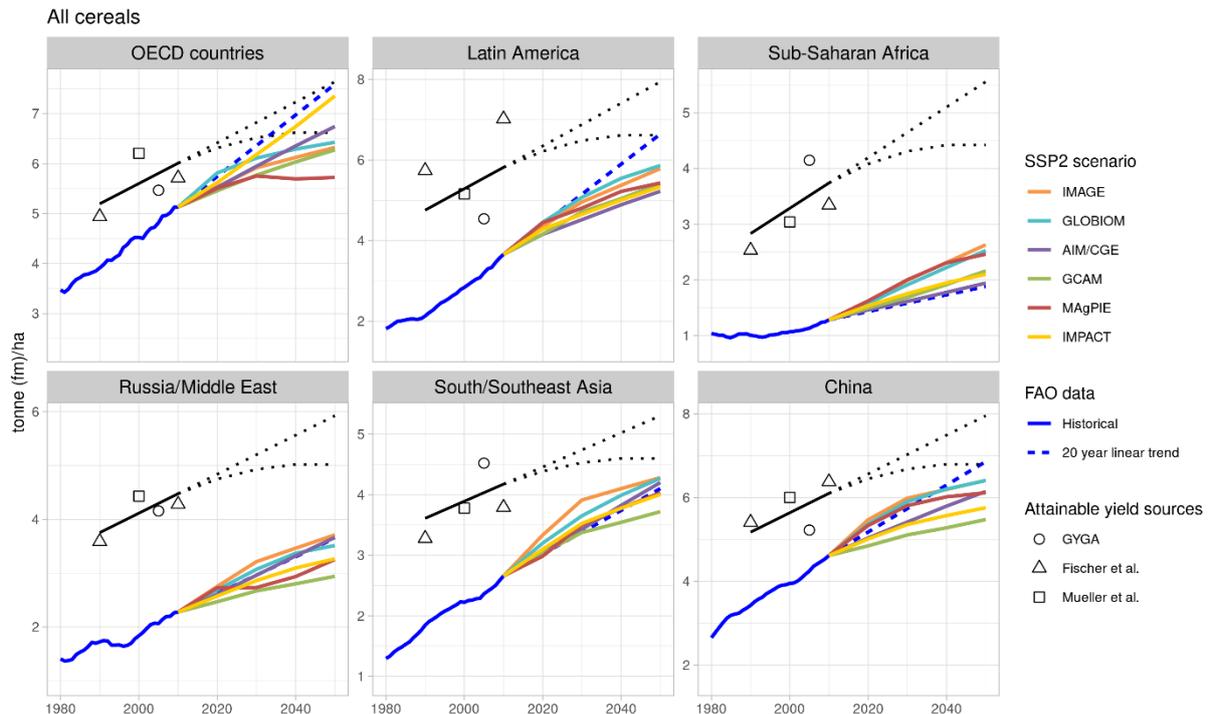
224 Comparing the model yield projections to the historical FAO trends shows that coarse grains is
 225 consistently projected with a smaller yield progress than the FAO linear trend. In contrast, we
 226 observe that for wheat and rice, the yield progress from GLOBIOM and IMAGE-MAGNET exceeds the
 227 linear trends of FAO in 2010 to 2030. However, the growth rate decreases again in 2030-2050 and
 228 the projected yields are closer to the linear extrapolation for 2050.

229 Figure 2 also shows the attainable yield data points (converted from the potential yield by a fixed
 230 factor, see methods). The three AY sources are in good agreement with each other on the global
 231 aggregate level. The largest range of AY data points is found for wheat, which is likely due to the
 232 definition of winter versus spring wheat, as it is not always clear which is used as a reference for
 233 potential yield (see also SI). The historical trends in the increase of potential yields were 0.7% per
 234 year for all cereals (relative to 2010, not compounded). Of the cereals, wheat shows the lowest rate
 235 of increase at 0.6% and coarse grains the highest at 0.8%. Observed actual cereal yields (FAO data)
 236 increased by slightly more than 1% per year, i.e. at a higher rate, which means that globally the yields
 237 have been slowly moving towards the attainable yields. In other words, the yield gap, i.e. the
 238 distance between actual yields and attainable yields, has been decreasing.

239 In comparing the model SSP2 projected yields with the attainable yields, we observe that in 2050 the
 240 scenario projections remain below the average attainable yields in both AY yield trends (linear and
 241 plateau) on a global aggregation level. The global yield gap in 2050 is largest for coarse grains, where
 242 a relatively low yield progress in the model projections is contrasted with a relatively high attainable
 243 yield growth. Furthermore, despite the faster than historical yield progress observed for some
 244 models for wheat and rice, model projections stay below the plateau AY trends in 2050.

245 Figure 3 shows the results for six regions for all cereals aggregated. While global data indicated that
 246 the cereal yield projections in 2050 are lower than the AY trends, zooming in on the regional data
 247 reveals regions where yield projections closely approach levels of attainable yields. Especially in the
 248 OECD countries, yield gaps are already relatively small in 2010 and for two models the cereal yields
 249 exceed the plateau AY trend in 2050. In China and South/Southeast Asia, in a number of instances for
 250 particular crops the plateau AY trend is surpassed by some models (see SI Figure 1). In the other
 251 regions, none of the models exceed the plateau AY trend in 2050. In sub-Saharan Africa, the biggest
 252 yield gaps are observed, and there is much potential for increasing yields towards 2050, even without
 253 considering the trend of the attainable yields. The same is true, to a somewhat lesser extent, of the
 254 high yield gaps in Russia/Middle East.





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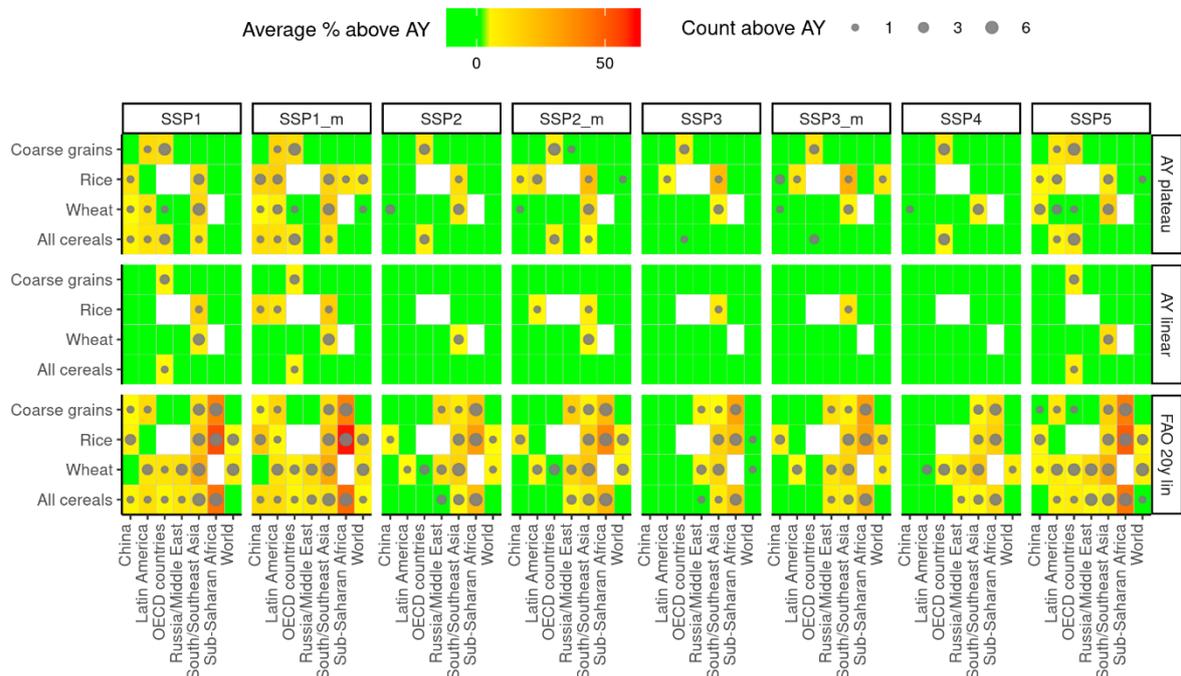
257 **Figure 3 Regional yields for all cereals for SSP2, compared to historical FAO trends and FAO-based projections, and the**
 258 **attainable yields (three sources, average is black line) extended with a linear (upper dotted line) and plateau (lower**
 259 **dotted line) trend. All scenario and attainable yield data were scaled so that the yields in 2010 match the 2010 FAO**
 260 **yields.**

261 We now expand the analysis to a larger set of scenarios (SSP1 through 5 and climate mitigation
 262 scenarios for SSP1 through 3), to cover a wider range of yield projections, including those with more
 263 optimistic assumptions about technological progress. The global average cereal yield across all
 264 models and scenarios increases from 2010 to 2050 by +36% on average (ranging from +25% for SSP3
 265 to +45% for SSP5 and SSP1 with mitigation). To present this larger dataset (6 models, 8 scenarios, 6
 266 regions, and 3 crop types) as concise as possible, in this section we compare only the yields projected
 267 in 2050 with the attainable yields in 2050. We can then count how often the projected yields surpass
 268 the linear or plateau AY trend. An overview of outcomes for all individual combinations is shown in
 269 the supporting figures. In summary, 141 (18%) of the 768 combinations possible in this set exceed
 270 the plateau AY trend in 2050. For the linear AY trend only 33 (4%) instances exceed this AY in 2050.

271 Figure 4 shows how often the projected yield exceed the plateau or linear AY in 2050 for all 8
 272 scenarios, summarized over the 6 models. Additionally, the average level of exceeding the AY trends
 273 are shown as a colour gradient, whereas green indicates that all models stayed below the AY in 2050
 274 for that particular combination. For all scenarios there are instances of projected yield exceeding the
 275 plateau AY trend. As is to be expected, the values are lower for the linear AY trend, where SSP4 is the
 276 only scenario staying below the AY linear trend in all cases. For both AY trends, wheat yield trends
 277 exceed the AY in slightly more cases than the other crops. Within the range of SSPs, SSP1 and SSP5
 278 show the most instances of exceeding attainable yields in 2050, whereas SSP3 and SSP4 exceed the
 279 AY the least number of times. This is in line with the assumptions of high technological progress in
 280 the underlying storylines (high technological progress in SSP1 and SSP5, low progress in SSP3).
 281 Furthermore, yields in mitigation scenarios are higher than in the scenarios without mitigation. The

282 effect of mitigation measures on yields is most apparent in the projections for rice. For rice in the
 283 SSP1 scenarios, the average level of exceeding the AY is higher than any other crop.

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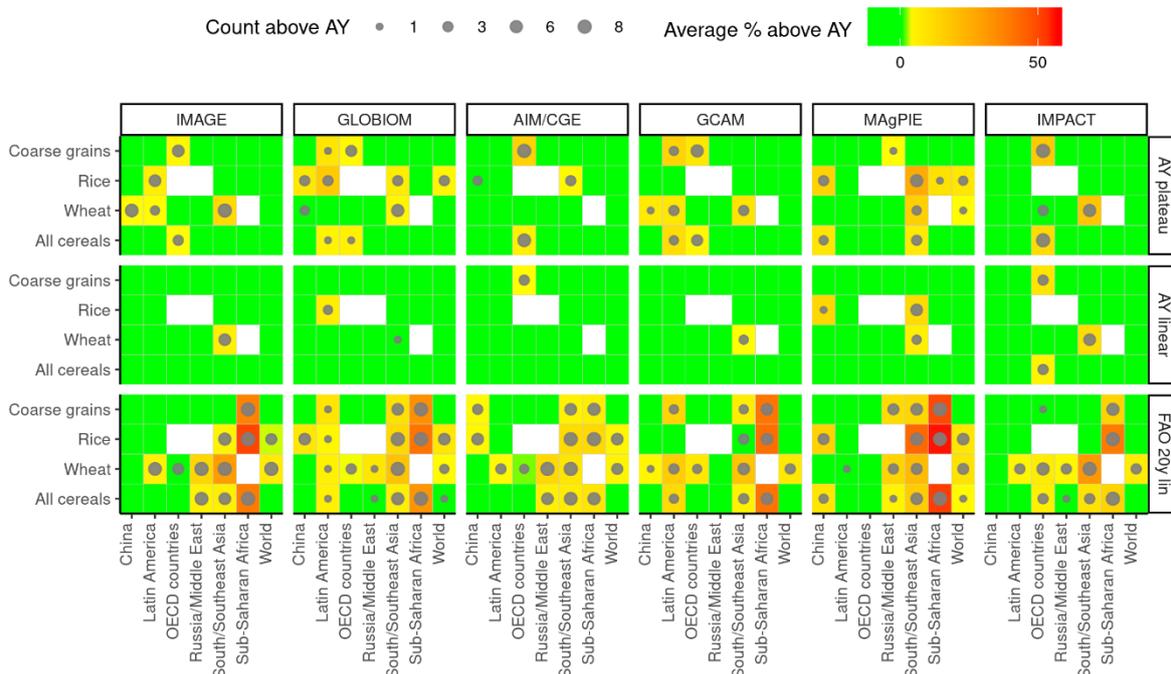
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286 **Figure 4** Number of modelled yield projections in 2050 (from a total of 6 models) that surpass the FAO linear trend
 287 (bottom), AY linear trend (middle) and AY plateau trend (top), by scenario, crop and regions. The colour scheme indicates
 288 the average difference of projected yields with the AY, for the instances where the yields exceeds the AY in 2050.

289 Figure 5 shows how often the individual models, for all scenarios and regions, exceed the AY trends.
 290 In comparing the models overall, MAGPIE most often exceeds the plateau AY trend, and AIM/CGE the
 291 least. The amount of times the linear AY trend is exceeded is relatively limited, yet still two models
 292 exceed the linear AY trend for the aggregated regions in the SSP1 scenarios in some regions (IMPACT
 293 due to coarse grains in OECD countries and MAGPIE due to rice in South/Southeast Asia). The highest
 294 relative yields, i.e. the projected compared to AY trends are observed for rice in South/Southeast
 295 Asia. When comparing the projected yields to the linear FAO trend, there are many instances where
 296 models exceed this trend. This is not unexpected as, especially for the 'business as usual' SSP2, the
 297 scenario can be expected to reflect recent trends. However, the yields in sub-Saharan Africa are
 298 significantly higher than the FAO linear trend, and this effect is most pronounced in MAGPIE and least
 299 in AIM/CGE.

300 On the regional level, yields of coarse grains (which includes Sorghum & Millet) in sub-Saharan Africa
 301 never exceed the plateau AY trend as the yield gaps there are very high. Also, for the Russia/Middle
 302 East region, the yield projections stay below the plateau AY trend in almost all cases. Hotspots can be
 303 identified mainly for Coarse grains in OECD countries, where yield gaps are generally low, and rice in
 304 China & South/Southeast Asia. Except for MAGPIE, coarse grains in OECD countries exceeds the
 305 plateau AY in all models in at least one of the scenarios (either SSP1, SSP5 or more). Wheat in China
 306 (and to a lesser extent in South/Southeast Asia) is characterized by a particularly low yield gap, while
 307 some models (particularly IMAGE-MAGNET & GLOBIOM) project very strong increases in yield for

308 these regions. Rice yields exceed the both linear and plateau AY trends mainly in China in the case of
 309 AIM/CGE and South/Southeast Asia in MAgPIE, and both Latin America and China for GLOBIOM.
 310



311
 312 **Figure 5** Number of modelled yield projections in 2050 (from a total of 8 scenarios) that surpass the FAO linear trend
 313 (bottom), AY linear trend (middle) and AY plateau trend (top), by model, crop and regions. The colour scheme indicates
 314 the average difference of projected yields with the AY, for the instances where the yields exceeds the AY in 2050.

315 4 Discussion and Conclusions

316 In this study, we compared cereal yield projections of SSP scenario results from six agricultural land-
 317 use and integrated assessment models with empirical data on attainable yields. Based on this
 318 comparison, we observe that the projected global averages of cereal yields in 2050 do not exceed
 319 projected attainable yields. Models show yield growth rates gradually decreasing in many regions
 320 (except for sub-Saharan Africa), most notably in OECD countries, which is consistent with literature
 321 describing limited yield growths in developed regions. In sub-Saharan Africa, on the contrary, yield
 322 gaps are large, and models project continuously high growth rates and remain below attainable yield
 323 levels. For individual crops and regions, the scenario yield projections more often overestimate
 324 future potentials. This is true for the three crop categories and six regions presented here, and likely
 325 true for even finer resolutions. There are, however, severe challenges to yield gap closure, as shown
 326 by slow progress in recent FAO trends of observed yields. Overall, despite the large differences
 327 between the model's structures, the results seem rather robust across models and mostly stay below
 328 the AY trends.

329 The models included in this study vary widely in their implementation of yield progress and how they
 330 differ between scenarios. Some first improvements in representing yield trends were certainly made
 331 due to the earlier AgMIP activities (Nelson et al., 2014b; von Lampe et al., 2014), though the specific
 332 yield trends used for harmonization there are no longer used in the models. Most models distinguish
 333 between exogenous yield trends and endogenous improvements (e.g. management improvements),

334 simply reflecting that some progress comes from outside the model (exogenous), and some yield
335 change occurs due to model-endogenous dynamics (e.g. substitution between labour and land).
336 While it may seem most logical to associate an increase in potential yields with the exogenous factor,
337 and management progress as endogenous, the models differ in which elements of yield progress
338 they cover endogenously (Table 2). However, some technological improvements (e.g. new fertilizers)
339 are difficult to assign, and probably are exogenous to the models, but do not affect potential yields.
340 This model-specific distinction between exogenous and endogenous processes can be observed in
341 Sub-Saharan Africa, for example, where the fast increase in projected yields is also caused by a strong
342 exogenous intensification, and agronomic processes e.g. in IMAGE-MAGNET seem to have a smaller
343 contribution than could be expected from the large yield gaps. A recent analysis of drivers for global
344 land-use projections, which stresses the role of agricultural productivity in future land use, also finds
345 that the underlying driver of crop yield increase is mostly the exogenous agricultural productivity
346 driver on the global scale (Stehfest et al., 2019). Therefore, we need to conclude that the
347 “exogenous” intensification used as model input is – at least for most participating models – much
348 larger and broader than the progress in yields due to novel technologies and breeding. It covers
349 essentially all yield progress, region- and scenario-specific – that the model currently is not
350 representing endogenously (Table 2). Given the differences in what models define as exogenous and
351 what is included endogenously, harmonization of the exogenous yield trend across models should
352 not even be aimed for, as also discussed below. In that context, MAgPIE is a very specific type of
353 model, which handles all yield progress endogenously as technological improvement based on
354 investments in Research and Development.

355 An important question is whether the models implement a form of a yield limit. While the levelling-
356 off of yield growth in several models might suggest a limit to yields that is approached, none of the
357 models actually has such a limit implemented. Establishing a reasonable yield limit, however, is no
358 straightforward task, and theoretically much higher productivity levels than in the SSP projections are
359 possible (Franck et al., 2011). To increase transparency and reliability of global-scale scenarios of
360 future land use, the various components of yield progress need to be more closely scrutinized and
361 their future developments should be explicitly addressed in the implementation of the productivity
362 growth changes as described in scenario storylines.

363 Finally, it needs to be acknowledged that the data sources used to construct the attainable yield
364 trends show substantial uncertainties and differences in methodologies, with varying definitions of
365 potential yield or attainable yields. For the trend extrapolation for the attainable yield only a single
366 data source was available (Fischer et al., 2014). The quality of the comparison would greatly improve
367 if more such trends would become available in the future.

368 **4.1 Limitations**

369 In this analysis, we compiled model-based yield projections and best available data on current and
370 future attainable and potential yields. With respect to methodology and data, some limitations
371 remain. The comparisons presented in this paper have not explicitly addressed cropping intensities.
372 Models have various ways of addressing cropping intensity, ranging from being explicitly kept
373 constant, to price induced changes as part of the endogenous intensifications. Because of this, as
374 well as due to limitations to how cropping intensity was reported on the crop level, an in-depth
375 comparison including cropping intensities was not feasible in this study. However, ‘cropping intensity
376 gaps’ (or ‘harvest gaps’), similar to yield gaps exist where transition from single to multiple cropping

377 systems is possible and can increase crop production substantially (Ray and Foley, 2013; Wu et al.,
378 2018). Because crop yield is based on harvested area, cropping intensity does not influence
379 harvested yield directly. The effect on total production, however, can be substantial, and the
380 cropping intensity has increased historically through more multiple cropping or less fallow periods.
381 Potential increases of crop production via the optimization of cropping intensity are estimated to be
382 as high as 36% (Mauser et al., 2015), while in the FAO BAU scenario, cropping intensity for cereals is
383 projected to increase by 8% between 2012 and 2050 (FAO, 2018).

384 Another source of intensification is an increase in irrigated areas, the impact of which is addressed in
385 various ways by the models (Table 2). Yields from irrigated crops are substantially higher than those
386 of rainfed crops, and historically much of the net increase in global arable land is related to an
387 increase in the area equipped for irrigation (Alexandratos and Bruinsma, 2012). Additionally, yield
388 gaps can differ between irrigated and rainfed systems, which could impact the analysis presented
389 here if more detail were available. Irrigation is thus an important option for increasing crop
390 production. The attainable yields used in this analysis were, just as the FAO yields, a combination of
391 rainfed and irrigated yields, and their future trends as used in this study implicitly assume that the
392 underlying composition remains constant, whereas the reported yields in the scenarios included
393 changes in irrigation for all models. Expanding irrigated areas, however, would mean possible
394 increase in average rain-fed and irrigated attainable yield faster than shown here. To better
395 disentangle the processes in irrigated and rainfed production, separate reporting on all levels would
396 be necessary. However, changes of irrigated area have not been addressed in detail in earlier model
397 comparisons, and global projections are scarce. Not all the models report irrigated area, or not on
398 the crop-level as needed for this analysis. Therefore, it was not possible to treat this explicitly in the
399 current study.

400 There are vivid discussions about the intensification of agriculture and its side-effects. Impacts of
401 intensification on climate and biodiversity strongly depend on how agricultural land is intensified in
402 the future (Beckmann et al., 2019; Silva, 2017; Tilman et al., 2011). Increased production on the same
403 amount of land will also bear risks of environmental pollution, with both nutrients and agro-
404 chemicals. Some of the models are equipped to address some of the effects, by explicitly including
405 e.g. nitrogen balances (Bodirsky et al., 2014; Seitzinger et al., 2010).

406 Structural changes in location and crop composition were not explicitly considered here, as they are
407 part of the regionally aggregated projected yield by the models and in most models an endogenous
408 result. Yield changes can originate from a combination of production mix and trade changes (Popp et
409 al., 2017a), but also from gridded land-use allocation. Recent work (Mauser et al., 2015) estimate a
410 significant increase of production of 30% can potentially be achieved via a spatial reallocation of
411 crops to their profit-maximizing locations. However, these opportunities will usually be constrained
412 by local economic conditions. While these structural changes are usually endogenous parts of the
413 models covered here, not all models include this process. Furthermore, the selected crops analysed
414 in this study may not be representative of other crops, and future analysis should be extended to
415 other crop groups.

416 The effects of climate change were not considered in this study, following the experimental design of
417 the SSP scenarios (Riahi et al., 2017). The SSP scenarios do not include climate change impacts, in
418 order to provide a meaningful starting point for the impact analysis based on these scenarios (O'Neill

419 et al., 2017; van Vuuren et al., 2017). Furthermore, the trends of attainable yields were based on an
420 extrapolation of the 1990-2010 period, and thus excluded future change in potential yields due to
421 climate change impacts as well. Nevertheless, it is crucial that further research must expand this
422 analysis with climate change impacts, including the effects on crop productivity. While temperature
423 and precipitation changes are considered in most crop models and are expected to impact yields
424 negatively in many regions and crops (Nelson et al., 2014a; Ruane et al., 2018; Wiebe et al., 2015),
425 increased CO₂ fertilisation effects are expected to bring yield benefits, which for a number of regions
426 bring uncertainty on the direction of the net effects. n (IPCC, 2013). Furthermore, many parameters
427 that affect yield are not explicitly addressed in many gridded crop models, examples being land
428 degradation (historic and future) and pest control.

429 To evaluate model projections of yields, we tried to compile information on potential and attainable
430 yields from both empirical and modelling approaches. Gridded crop models (GGCMs) in principle can
431 contribute valuable information for estimating current potential yields, but their strength lies in
432 evaluating the impact of environmental conditions, rather than producing realistic future potential
433 yields related to breeding. The current range and uncertainty in model results and their deviation
434 from reported yields (Müller et al., 2018) did not allow to include these in the comparison.

435 **4.2 Improvement options for models**

436 This study concludes that scenario yield projections do not overestimate future potentials on a global
437 scale. Still, many underlying mechanisms behind technology-induced progress and other factors (e.g.
438 increased fertilizer inputs, labour productivity) that influence yields should be made more
439 transparent to allow for better comparison between models, and – more importantly – between
440 models and knowledge from other scientific disciplines. Thus, first steps for improvements would be
441 to transparently include more drivers with a more direct link to storylines and assumptions as well as
442 improving the interaction between agro-economic and biophysical components in global land
443 models.

444 An implication of the results presented here is that the models' projections should more explicitly
445 explore the heterogeneity of yield developments between regions and crop types. In implementing a
446 more detailed split-up of the components of yield progress, focus should lie on improving
447 descriptions of genetic improvements in yield varieties in developed regions, while in developing
448 regions, the use of inputs (e.g. fertilizer) and more efficient management should be explicitly linked
449 to yield levels. There is a wide range of interpretations and implementations of what constitutes the
450 exogenous yield trends and a closer coordination between models could be beneficial. Due to the
451 structural differences between the models, the exogenous trends as such will necessarily differ
452 across models, and a complete harmonization of yield trends is neither practical nor desired for all
453 aspects, so that differences in model behaviour are useful and can still be further explored (Popp et
454 al., 2017b). However, a calibration of a suite of model inputs to arrive at a comparable long-term
455 overall yield progress is conceivable. Additionally, harmonized climate change impacts have also
456 been used as exogenous impacts on crop yields (Meijl et al., 2018), and the impact of both climate
457 change and CO₂ fertilization on crop yields should be part of such an exercise.

458 Finally, yield gap analyses, which were used in this study, are an important source of information on
459 the potential to increase yields through crop management. As increasingly more information,
460 covering more crops and regions, is becoming available (e.g. (GYGA, 2018), this should be used to

461 explicitly represent current potential (or attainable) yield levels in land-use models. However, yield
462 gap analysis reflects the current situation (Mueller et al., 2012; Neumann et al., 2010; van Ittersum et
463 al., 2013) and needs to be complemented by estimates on future yield potentials. Representing the
464 entities and processes known from the plant sciences and agronomy (potential and attainable yield,
465 progress in potential yields, and yield gap closure through improved management) explicitly in
466 agricultural land-models will improve yield projections, allow to scrutinize them, and create more
467 credibility and transparency in this central element in food and agricultural scenarios.

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