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Valuing damages and benefits of the altered global nitrogen cycle; lessons for national to global policy support

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3 1 *Manuscript for special Issue from the 22nd N workshop (Aarhus, 2024) for journal Environmental Research*
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5
6 3 **Valuing damages and benefits of the altered global nitrogen cycle; lessons for national to global**
7 4 **policy support**

8
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33 25 **Keywords** nitrogen cascade, nitrate, ammonia, air pollution, eutrophication, fertilizer, externalities

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Abstract

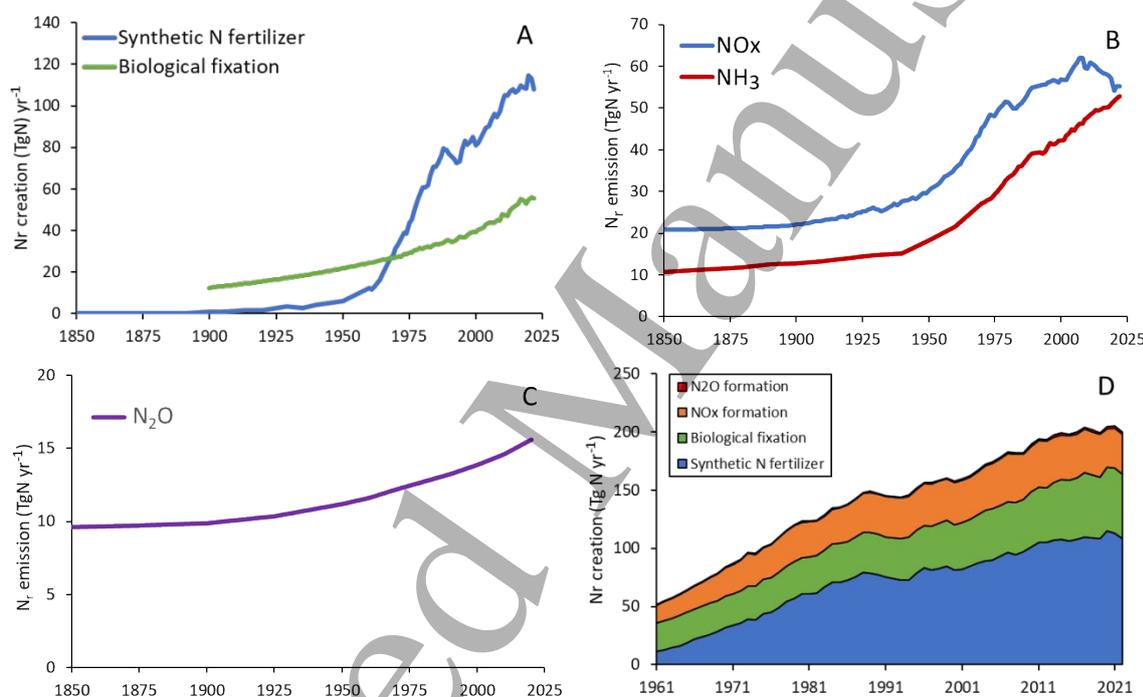
Cost-benefit analysis (CBA) is increasingly used to inform environmental policy decisions by identifying interventions with the highest net societal benefits. Here we focus on CBAs for nitrogen (NCBA), explaining its history, presenting results of a recent first global NCBA and discussing opportunities and limitations. NCBAs have been conducted since the late 1990s for various geographic regions in Europe, the US, and China, primarily to support air quality and eutrophication policies. A first valuation of damages and benefits of the full nitrogen (N) cycle was conducted for the European Nitrogen Assessment in 2011, followed by NCBAs for the USA, the Netherlands and Germany. Here we present a first comprehensive global NCBA. Total global damage cost of N pollution in 2010 was estimated at US\$1.1 trillion, primarily from increases in premature mortality by N derived PM_{2.5} (35%), terrestrial biodiversity loss by N deposition (33%), and marine eutrophication by N river loads (21%). Global benefits of N in 2010 were estimated at US\$ 2.2 trillion with >95% from increased crop yields. By 2050, global N-related costs will rise faster than N benefits because underlying models project that economic growth (GDP) increases willingness-to-pay to prevent N pollution more than crop prices. The geographical distribution of N-related costs will also shift, with China and India surpassing Europe and North America as regions contributing most to global N-related costs. The estimated N cost range for 2010 was US\$ 0.6-2.2 trillion with uncertainty largely in dose-impact and damage cost relations. Given the large uncertainties, when using valuation and NCBA to select a N mitigation option, the net benefits should be substantially higher than the costs and markedly better than for a rejected alternative option. Use of NCBA is discouraged to compare international policy options that involve regions with very different levels of GDP, cultures and political systems.

49 MAIN

50 Introduction

51 Altered global N cycle

52 The global environmental impacts of losses of reactive nitrogen (N_r) losses are high and increasing in
 53 many parts of the world (Einarsson, 2024; Galloway et al., 2003; Sutton et al., 2019; Sutton, 2025;
 54 Sutton et al., 2013; Sutton et al., 2011). N_r refers to all N compounds other than unreactive
 55 dinitrogen (N_2), which constitutes 78% of the mass of our atmosphere. The most important reactive
 56 N compounds are nitrogen dioxide (NO_2), ammonia (NH_3), nitrate (NO_3^-) and nitrous oxide (N_2O),
 57 which are characterized by high mobility in air, water and soil, causing multiple impacts on
 58 biodiversity, human health and the greenhouse gas balance. Since the industrial revolution, the
 59 global anthropogenic generation of N_r increased to over 200 Tg/yr of N (Figure 1) in 2020, and was
 60 close to three times higher than the intensity of the pre-1850 natural terrestrial N cycle (Fowler et
 61 al., 2013). The three major anthropogenic sources of reactive N are synthetic fertilizer, cultivation of
 62 legumes (especially soybean) and formation of nitrogen oxides (NO_x) at combustion of fossil fuels.



64 **Figure 1.** Evolution of global anthropogenic terrestrial formation of reactive nitrogen (N_r).

65 Data sources: (A) Use of synthetic fertilizer after 1960 from FAOstat and before 1960 from Smil
 66 (2004); biological nitrogen fixation in agriculture from the IMAGE-GNM model from Beusen et al.
 67 (2022). (B) Nitrogen oxides (NO_x) and ammonia (NH_3) emissions between 1970 and 2022 from
 68 EDGAR (https://edgar.jrc.ec.europa.eu/dataset_ap81) and the CEDS database (Hoesly et al., 2018),
 69 Emissions between 1850 and 1970 are from Aardenne et al. (2001). Emissions include natural
 70 emissions from biomass fires. (C) Nitrous oxide (N_2O) is total emission based on Aziz et al. (2024)
 71 where the 1850 value is mostly natural. (D) Emission of N_r in N_2O only includes the minor fraction of
 72 newly formed N_r as derived from Tian et al. (2020).

74 N use and enrichment cause both benefits and damages to society (Jones et al. (2014); Sutton et al.
 75 (2019)). The underlying hypothesis for this paper and use of NBCA in general, is that these costs
 76 often come from excess or inefficient use of N, so it should be possible to substantially reduce the
 77 costs with relatively little impact on the benefits. These benefits are most evident for intentional N

78 addition to agricultural land. Shibata et al. (2025) identified almost fifty ways in which N impacts the
79 environment. The most important ones are listed in Table 1.

80 **Table 1.** Overview of negative and positive effects of increased nitrogen (N) input or environmental
81 load

Costs (Damages)	
1.	Human disease and premature death by N-induced PM _{2.5} in ambient air pollution
2.	Human disease and premature death by NO ₂ in ambient air pollution
3.	Human disease and premature death by N-induced ambient ozone (O ₃)
4.	Global warming by long-lived GHGs (N ₂ O, CO ₂ , CH ₄) enhanced by N enrichment
5.	Loss of terrestrial biodiversity by N deposition
6.	Loss of ecosystem services due to marine eutrophication by N enrichment
7.	Human disease by N ₂ O-driven depletion of stratospheric O ₃
8.	Human disease by nitrate and nitrite in drinking water
9.	Loss of ecosystem services due to fresh surface water eutrophication by N enrichment
Benefits	
1.	Increased crop production through intentional addition of N to agricultural soils (in the form of synthetic N fertilizer and residues of N fixing crops or livestock manure)
2.	Increased crop production through unintentional atmospheric N deposition
3.	Increased C-sequestration by N enrichment and other processes influenced by N and contributing to global cooling
4.	Increased production of woody biomass by unintentional atmospheric N deposition for use in construction, industry and as biofuel
5.	Use of industrially produced ammonia as an energy carrier for renewable energy and as low emission shipping fuel

82

83 Economic valuation of N pollution for policy decisions

84 The rationale of economic valuation of damages and benefits for the N cycle derives from the
85 concept of externalities or external costs by Pigou (1917), which prescribes a tax to be included in
86 market transactions to maximize welfare in the case of pollution. The tax is equivalent to the
87 marginal damage that is being done by one additional unit of pollution. In this approach, a marginal
88 change of a (nitrogen) state or pressure is thus valued. As there is no market of supply and demand
89 for setting a price on externalities, shadow prices are used that can for example be derived from
90 surveys measuring preferences, for example, by willingness-to-pay (WTP) for prevention or
91 resolution of environmental impacts. As surveys into preferences typically are local, large-scale
92 application of valuation requires translation of prices to other contexts, e.g. by scaling using
93 differences in GDP, population or area. This procedure is also referred to as Benefit Transfer and is
94 an essential component for global valuation of disturbance of the nitrogen cycle (Daly & Farley,
95 2011).

96 Monetization of environmental pollution and Cost-Benefit Analysis (CBA) can be used to guide (1)
97 policy decisions, (2) signal and raise public awareness, (3) support the process of environmental
98 liability (thereby applying the “polluter pays” principle), (4) sustainable financing and (5) implement
99 true pricing. The “polluter pays” principle was first introduced by the OECD in 1972 and enshrined in
100 the EU Treaty since 1987. The principle is considered to be at the heart of EU environmental policy
101 even though its practical application is lagging behind (European-Court-of-Auditors, 2021).

102 Ultimately, internalization of externalities should change behavior and practices of producers and
103 consumers, in other words, CBA turns environmental protection and sustainability into a financial
104 case. This ambition is often explained by that “money speaks louder than words”. Daily et al. (2000)
105 distinguishes three steps in decision-making using CBA: (1) identification of possible mitigation or
106 policy alternatives (2) identification of all relevant effects, both classical economic (labor, capital,
107 natural resources) and externalities, and (3) valuation of the consequence of not taking actions

1
2
3 108 versus the policy alternatives. The first case of effective use of CBA for a policy decision by the
4 109 European Commission related to nitrogen pollution was for the revision of the NO₂ air pollution
5 110 standards in the Air Quality directive. Olsthoorn et al. (1999) found that the societal benefit for the
6 111 EU of reduced disease and premature mortality by lowering the NO₂ standard, amounting to 0.41 to
7 112 5.9 billion euro/year. This was so much higher than the implementation cost of 0.08 billion
8 113 euro/year that it convinced the European Commission, in spite of strong protests from the car
9 114 manufacturing industry. This shows that comparison of benefits and costs of mitigation can be
10 115 effective to select the most beneficial policy options. However, there are alternative approaches to
11 116 aggregate and weigh changes of nitrogen impacts (Supplementary material SM1.)

117 Examples of previous regional and national nitrogen pollution cost valuations and NCBAs

118 The European N Assessment (Sutton et al., 2011; Van Grinsven et al., 2013) concluded that the total
119 119 N pollution cost in 2008 for the EU27 amounted to €75-485 billion per year, equivalent to 1%-4% of
120 120 the GDP of the EU27. Half of this cost was due to N pollution from agricultural sources, with major
121 121 and comparable contributions by NH₃ emission and N runoff, whereas the cost of mortality and
122 122 disease by nitrate pollution in drinking water was small. Using a similar approach as for the European
123 123 N Assessment, Sobota et al. (2015) quantified the total N pollution cost for the US in the early 2000s,
124 124 Oehlmann et al. (2021) for Germany in 2015 and Gu et al. (2012) for China in 2008 (for more details
125 125 see Supplementary material SM 2).

126 The European N Assessment (Van Grinsven et al., 2013) estimated the direct farm benefits of
127 127 increased N input for crop production for the EU27 at €20-80 billion per year, which value is 2-3
128 128 times lower than N pollution cost of €35-230 per year. This suggests that the economic optimum N
129 129 rate, where the marginal farm cost of fertilizer application equals the marginal benefit is not optimal
130 130 for society as a whole. This was also concluded by Rodríguez et al. (2024) for global cereal
131 131 cultivation.

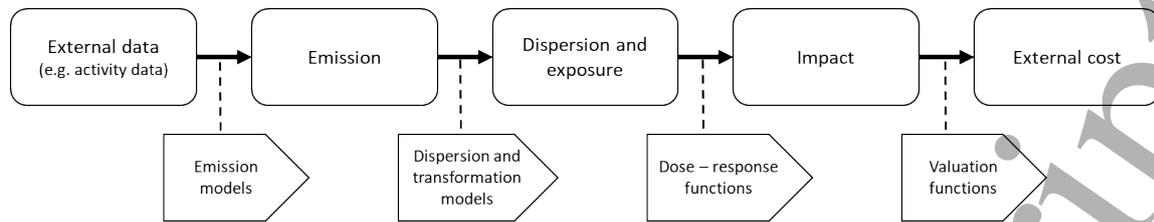
132 An NCBA for the Netherlands in the formal evaluation of the Dutch implementation of Nitrates
133 133 Directive in the Fertilizer and Manure Act found that the benefits of the N policies for agriculture
134 134 were up 7 times higher than the implementation costs (Van Grinsven & Bleeker, 2017). In an NCBA
135 135 for Denmark, Jacobsen et al. (2024) found that the national health benefits of reduced colorectal
136 136 cancers by complying to a stricter nitrate standard overwhelmed the additional mitigation cost.
137 137 Gu et al. (2021) estimated that the ratio of global Benefits over Costs (BCR) of halving ammonia
138 138 emissions would range between 2.6 and 4.5, depending on including fertilizer savings, as compared
139 139 to a BCR of 0.4 for a 50% reduction of NO_x emissions alone. They concluded that national and
140 140 international air pollution policies therefore should prioritize controlling NH₃ emissions. Liu et al.
141 141 (2019), Zhang et al. (2020) and Guo et al. (2020) came to similar conclusions for China (for more details
142 142 Supplementary material SM 3).

143 Here we present a first comprehensive global NCBA which is part of the International Nitrogen
144 144 Management System project (<https://www.inms.international/>) and published in 2025 (Sutton,
145 145 2025). Results are compared to a global NCBA which was part of a full CBA for the global agri-food
146 146 system (FAO, 2023). Uncertainties of damage cost are quantified and implications for policy use are
147 147 discussed.

148 **Method**

149 The method to quantify environmental damages and convert these to monetary units is referred to
150 150 as the "Impact-Pathway-Approach (IPA)" (Bickel & Friedrich, 2005). IPA has been most widely
151 151 applied to evaluate air pollution impacts of energy generation. Models are used to translate
152 152 emissions to changes in concentration levels (the air quality state) and next to impacts on humans
153 153 and ecosystems, In the last step these impacts are converted a monetary value (Figure 2; (Brink et

1
2
3 al., 2011; Rabl et al., 2014); Silveira et al. (2016)), which can either be a cost (e.g. loss of recreational
4 value) or a benefit (e.g. increased forest growth by nitrogen deposition or increased crop production
5 by N fertilizer input).
6



157

158 **Figure 2.** Schematic representation of Impact-Pathway-Approach (IPA) for the nitrogen cascade

159 Application of IPA to the disturbance of the global N cycle (Sutton et al., 2013; Van Grinsven et al.,
160 2013) is demanding as the N cascade involves multiple environmental media, transport and
161 exposure pathways and impacts. An overview of the used emission-dispersion-impact models is
162 given in de Vries et al. (2020) and a summary of application and valuation procedures for five major
163 impacts in Supplementary Table 1. Global costs for N damage items as listed in Table 1 were not
164 included when these were small or very hard to quantify. Cost of human disease and premature
165 death by NO₂ in ambient air pollution were excluded following (Van Dingenen et al., 2018) and in
166 view of complex interactions with effect of NO₂-induced formation of PM_{2.5} and O₃ (Wang et al.,
167 2025) and risk of double counting (Castro et al., 2023). Cost of human disease caused by N₂O driven
168 depletion of stratospheric O₃, nitrate and nitrite in drinking water and damages by freshwater
169 eutrophication by N enrichment were also excluded. One reason for these exclusions was the
170 unavailability of required data and models to quantify impacts on global scale. Further, impacts of N
171 on drinking water and on freshwater ecosystems depend on spatially highly variable pressures and
172 practices. Practices determining impacts of nitrate in drinking water depend on highly variable
173 quality of local resources and consumer choices for using untreated, public or bottled water for
174 cooking and drinking. Previous work (Van Grinsven et al. (2013)) indicated that global costs for
175 excluded items were small.

176 Damage costs can be estimated in multiple ways, e.g. prevention costs, restoration costs, revealed
177 or stated preferences (de Vries et al., 2024). WTP is a concept that is most closely related to welfare
178 economics: it captures the preferences of individuals directly through e.g. surveys using choice
179 experiments (Perman et al., 2011). Regarding cost of eutrophication, the Baltic sea is one longest
180 running studies (Markowska and Żylicz (1999); Ahtiainen and Öhman (2014)). Preferences to
181 mitigate eutrophication tend to, implicitly or explicitly, also address upstream impacts on freshwater
182 and groundwater feeding into the Baltic Sea. People living in the Baltic region do not only recreate
183 on the coast but also swim and fish in the many lakes and rivers (Vesterinen et al., 2010) and are
184 informed that sources and solutions for eutrophication of fresh and marine waters are
185 interconnected. Therefore, surveys reveal that their WTP for improvements remains high regardless
186 of how far they lived from the Baltic sea (Hyytiäinen et al., 2013). Damage (or Dose) response
187 functions often are nonlinear due to changing responses with increasing exposure (Shibata et al.
188 (2025), see Supplementary material SM 4). Valuation (or Monetization) functions depend on GDP,
189 using an income elasticity (ϵ), population and other scalars to allow benefit transfers to other
190 regions or into the future (Daly and Farley (2011), see Supplementary material SM 4). Table 2
191 summarizes and characterizes the effects of N use and losses as used for the global NCBA (for details
192 see Supplementary Table 2).

193

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195

196

Table 2. Overview of impacts of N use or N loss, including the driving global N flow and the mean global unit damage cost. Codes 2nd column denote D=Damage, B=Benefit, X=Damage eXcluded in global NCBA. Characterization as Damage or Benefit is for increase of N flow. Only N in NO_x emission, synthetic fertilizer production and biological N fixation are new formation of N_r, all other impacting N flows are recycled or secondary. (*derived for the EU).

	Impact	N drivers	Global driving N flow 2010 (TgN)	Average global marginal cost (unit)	
1	D	Increased mortality by ambient PM pollution	NO _x emission to air	35	3.6 (US\$/kg NO _x -N)
2	D	Increased mortality by ambient PM pollution	NH ₃ emission to air (recycled N)	49	3.6 (US\$/kg NH ₃ -N)
3	D	Increased mortality by ambient O ₃ pollution	NO _x emission to air	35	0.5 (US\$/kg NO _x -N)
4	D	Crop loss by ambient O ₃ pollution	NO _x emission to air	35	0.4 (US\$/kg NO _x -N)
5	D	Terrestrial biodiversity loss (MSA) by N deposition	Atmospheric N deposition	32	12.8 (US\$/kg Ndep)
6	B	Increased wood production	Atmospheric N deposition	32	0.8 (US\$/kg Ndep)
7	B	Increased C sequestration forests for climate cooling	Atmospheric N deposition	32	8.2 (US\$/kg Ndep)
8	D	Marine impacts (recreation, eutrophication)	N surplus agricultural soil	102	
		N surplus natural soil	91		
		Net river N load to marine from:	40	8.4 (US\$/kg N load)	
		Groundwater	18		
		Surface runoff	8		
		N-point sources+other	13		
9	X	Freshwater eutrophication	N leaching and point sources	pm	pm (US\$/kg N load)
10	X	Increased mortality and disease by nitrate drinking water	N leaching to drinking water sources	18	0.9* (US\$/kg NO ₃ -N)
11	D	Climate damage	N ₂ O emission to air	4	29.7 (US\$/kg N ₂ O-N)
12	X	Skin cancers and eye cataract	N ₂ O emission to air	4	0.8 (US\$/kg N ₂ O-N)
13	B	Crop production (cereals)	N synthetic fertilizer input	101	15.3 (US\$/kg N input)
			N biological fixation	44	
			N manure input (recycled N)	97	

202

Costs and benefits of nitrogen pollution in 2050 were explored for three contrasting scenarios from the Shared Socioeconomic Pathways (SSPs) scenario group (Van Vuuren et al., 2021). These scenarios consider different futures regarding climate forcing using the Representative Concentration Pathways (RCPs) under different assumptions on future socio-economic developments and climate policies. On these SSPs different future N storylines (Kanter et al., 2020) were superimposed. Due to lack of data, mitigation costs were not included. We used three combinations of SSPs, RCPs and N-policy ambitions: SSP1-RCP_{2,6}H representing high -policy ambitions for mitigating climate warming and N pollution, SSP2-RCP_{4,5}M representing medium policy ambitions, and SSP5 RCP_{8,5}L representing overall low environmental policy ambitions (Rodríguez et al., 2024).

213

214 Results

215 Nitrogen impacts and costs in 2010

216 The total global N pollution damage cost around 2010 was estimated at almost US\$ 1.1 trillion (Table
217 3, Figure 2). China (30%) and Europe (22%, incl. FSU - Former Soviet Union) were the largest
218 contributors to the global N pollution cost. Major costs resulted from premature mortality by N-
219 induced formation of ambient particulate matter (35%), loss of terrestrial biodiversity by increased N
220 deposition (33%) and marine eutrophication by increased river N loads (21%). The average global
221 loss of life expectancy by N-driven air pollution in 2010 was 4 months, ranging between one month
222 in Africa (incl. Middle East) and eight months in China. Average global loss of terrestrial biodiversity
223 by increased N deposition was close to 7% (measured in MSA – Mean Species Abundance; Schipper
224 et al. (2020)), with highest loss of 9% in China and a lowest value 5% in Oceania including South-East

225 Asia (van Grinsven et al., 2025). Net N-induced warming via long-lived greenhouse gases contributed
 226 8% to the global N damage cost. Although the gross cost of N-induced warming of US\$ 414 billion
 227 was the largest cost (38% and equivalent to 3.5 Pg CO₂eq and mainly caused by emission of N₂O),
 228 this cost was largely compensated by N-induced climate cooling representing a global benefit of US\$
 229 326 billion (30%, equivalent to 3 Pg CO_{2e} and mainly by N-induced C-sequestration; (Du and de Vries
 230 (2018); Schulte-Uebbing and de Vries (2018); de Vries et al. (2025)).

231 **Table 3.** Societal cost of nitrogen pollution for N flows in 2010 in global regions. Costs are expressed
 232 in USD_{ppp2015} and expressed as % of GDP and USD_{ppp2015} per capita (ME is Middle East, FSU is Former
 233 Soviet Union, ANZ is Australia and New Zealand, L is Latin and N is North)¹

2010	Population (billion)	GDP _{ppp} (trillion USD ₂₀₀₅)	Mortality ambient PM _{Nr}	Mortality ambient NO _x	Crop yield loss by O ₃	Terrestrial biodiversity loss	Marine pollution	Net Nr land warming	Net Nr aquatic warming	Net Nr warming	Total N cost
billion USD ₂₀₁₅											
World	6.98	69.1	421.4	23.9	14.6	406.5	258.5	88.6	1.5	90.1	1215
Africa+ME	1.33	6.1	34.7	0.8	1.2	42.4	4.5	11.6	0.3	11.8	95
China	1.41	11.6	110.1	12.6	4.6	99.8	82.6	18.3	0.3	18.6	328
Europe+FSU	0.81	17.4	141.7	3.0	1.0	77.2	78.3	-5.4	0.2	-5.2	296
India	1.23	3.7	28.0	2.5	1.9	50.7	6.4	15.6	0.3	15.8	105
L America	0.59	6.2	20.3	0.6	0.5	30.1	11.1	21.5	0.1	21.6	84
N America	0.34	13.6	39.2	5.3	4.1	40.3	54.4	10.4	0.1	10.4	154
R Asia+ANZ	1.27	10.5	42.4	1.8	1.2	66.1	21.3	16.7	0.3	17.0	150
% of GDP											
World			0.62%	0.05%	0.03%	0.59%	0.37%	0.13%	0.00%	0.13%	1.78%
Africa+ME			0.59%	0.02%	0.03%	0.70%	0.07%	0.19%	0.00%	0.20%	1.62%
China			0.92%	0.11%	0.10%	0.86%	0.71%	0.16%	0.00%	0.16%	2.86%
Europe+FSU			0.87%	0.03%	0.01%	0.44%	0.45%	-0.03%	0.00%	-0.03%	1.77%
India			0.79%	0.10%	0.16%	1.38%	0.17%	0.42%	0.01%	0.43%	3.03%
L America			0.31%	0.01%	0.02%	0.49%	0.18%	0.35%	0.00%	0.35%	1.35%
N America			0.29%	0.05%	0.03%	0.30%	0.40%	0.08%	0.00%	0.08%	1.15%
R Asia+ANZ			0.40%	0.02%	0.01%	0.63%	0.20%	0.16%	0.00%	0.16%	1.43%
GDP _{ppp} (USD ₂₀₀₅ /cap) USD ₂₀₁₅ /cap											
World		9895	60.3	3.4	2.1	58.2	37.0	12.7	0.2	12.9	174
Africa+ME		4557	74.7	15.1	0.7	77.5	116.5	52.8	19.4	72.1	357
China		8270	65.9	44.7	2.0	91.2	84.5	43.2	16.3	59.4	348
Europe+FSU		21367	186.7	51.6	4.8	97.1	139.9	138.7	31.5	170.3	650
India		2976	26.2	0.6	0.9	31.9	3.4	8.7	0.2	8.9	72
L America		10461	6.4	1.6	0.2	30.9	19.6	45.4	19.4	64.7	123
N America		39761	6.9	2.9	0.5	38.3	13.1	37.5	16.3	53.8	115
R Asia+ANZ		8310	24.0	5.1	0.7	40.4	22.3	115.6	31.5	147.1	240

234

235 Given the large differences in GDP and population, the total societal cost of N pollution is not very
 236 informative for comparing the severity of N pollution damage in global regions. Expressing N
 237 pollution costs relative to GDP provides a better proxy for this (Table 3). This relative global N cost in
 238 2010 was 1.8% with highest values close to 3% for China and India and lowest values in the
 239 Americas. High relative N cost in China and India reflect both higher N pollution levels and lower GDP
 240 in these regions. N pollution cost per capita is another informative metric to compare regions and
 241 shows more contrast than N cost relative to GDP. Global average N pollution cost was 157 US\$,
 242 ranging between 61 US\$ in India and 650 US\$ in Europe. N pollution cost per capita could be used as
 243 an indication of a maximum budget per capita for mitigation of N-related pollution.

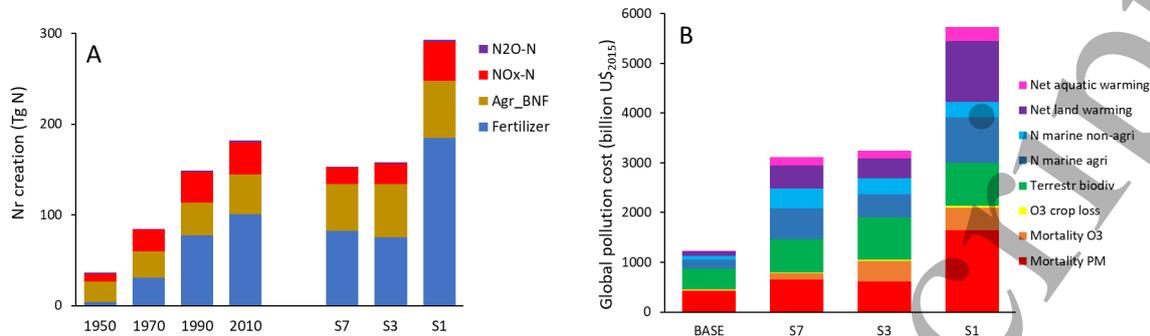
244 Nitrogen costs and benefits in 2050

245 The projected anthropogenic formation of reactive N in 2050 under S7 and S3 is somewhat lower
 246 than in 2010 and close to the 1990 level, while under S7 it is 1.6 times higher than in 2010 (Figure
 247 3). The consolidation of Nr formation under S7 and S3 is the effect of policy, while the sharp

¹ ppp: purchase power parity units, so corrected for regional difference in purchase power, here for year 2005

248 increase under S7 is mainly caused by a massive increase of synthetic N fertilizer use, especially in
 249 Asia.

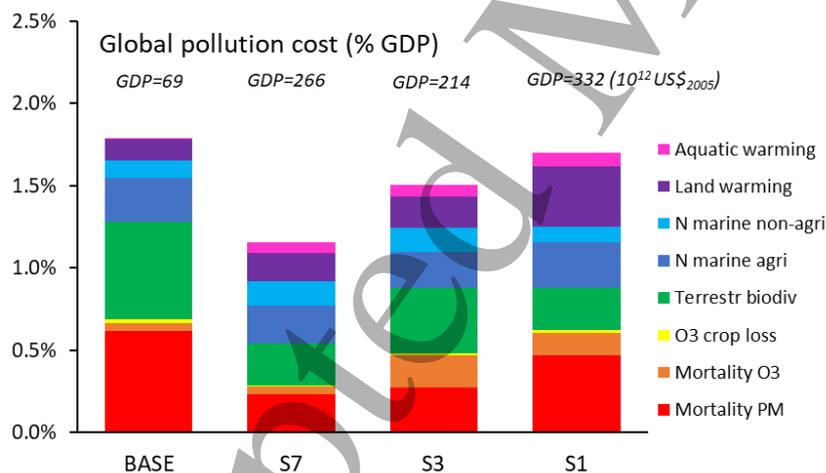
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251

252 **Figure 3.** History of global anthropogenic terrestrial formation of reactive N (A) and monetized
 253 impacts of related N pollution in base year 2010 (B) and projected changes in 2050 under three INMS
 254 scenarios (S7, S3 and S1) which combine SSP1, SSP2 and SSP5 with RCP 2.6, 4.5 and 8.5 and with
 255 high, medium and low N policy ambitions.

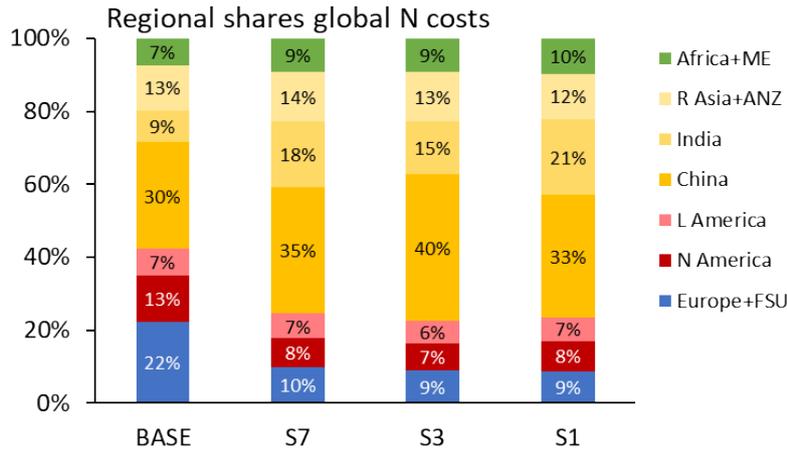
256 The projected costs of N pollution in 2050 are 2 times higher than in the base year under S7, 2.5
 257 times higher under S3, and 4 times higher under S7 (Figure 3B). The increases under S7 and S3 are
 258 primarily caused by increasing unit damage costs (Figure 6) with increasing GDP due to the effect of
 259 income elasticities. Global GDP_{ppp2005} is projected to increase by a factor three (S3) to five (S7)
 260 between 2010 and 2050 (Figure 4). Under S7, N pressures and impacts also increase. The projected
 261 total costs of N pollution in 2050 expressed as a percentage of GDP are fairly stable (Figure 4), with
 262 the lowest share in 2050 under the high ambition N policy scenario (S7).



263

264 **Figure 4.** Monetized impacts of global N pollution expressed as share of GDP for the base year (2010)
 265 and for 2050 under three contrasting scenarios. Total GDPs are given in italic.

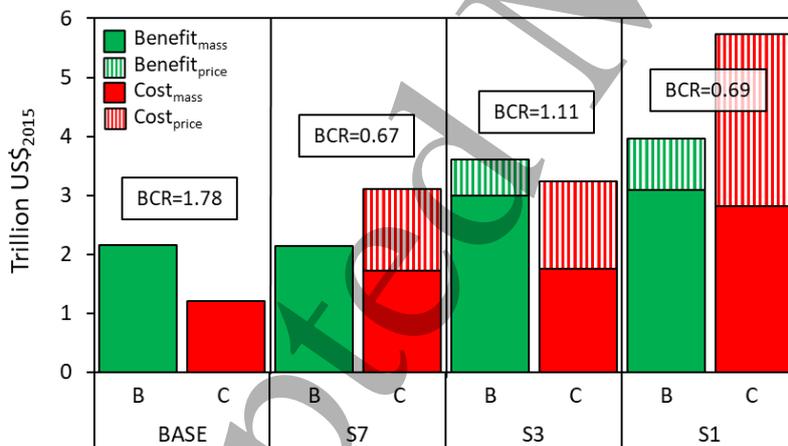
266 China accounted for 30% of the global N pollution cost in 2010. This share is projected to increase to
 267 33-40% in 2050, reflecting that the decreasing effect of future N policies on N cost is smaller than
 268 that of economic growth (Figure 5). The share of Europe and North America in total global N
 269 pollution decreases from 35% in 2010 to 16-18% in 2050, mainly due to an increase in total global N
 270 cost. The largest relative increase of N pollution costs is projected for India, where the share in total
 271 global cost increases from 9% in 2010 to 15-21% in 2050.



272 **Figure 5.** Projected regional shares in global N pollution costs in 2050 under contrasting scenarios
 273

274 Direct nitrogen benefits

275 Global benefits of increased N use exceed global costs for the year 2010, but not in 2050 under
 276 scenario S7 and S7 (Figure 6). More than 95% of global benefits of increased N use are provided by
 277 increased crop production by increased use of N fertilizer. Benefit contributions of increased crop
 278 production by N deposition (2%-3%) and of wood production by N deposition (0.2%-0.4%) are minor.
 279 Cereals contribute about half to global crop production (Rodríguez et al., 2024). Projected total
 280 global cereal grain production increased from 2.8 Gton in 2010 to 3.4, 3.8 and 4.1 Gton in 2050 for
 281 S7, S3 and S7, respectively. N benefits for all crops increase from 2 trillion US\$₂₀₁₀ in 2010 and 2050
 282 under S7, to about 4 trillion US\$₂₀₁₀ under S3 and S7. The change of monetized crop benefits in
 283 2050 reflects the combined effect of increases in global crop yields and projected region dependent
 284 crop prices (Rodríguez et al., 2024).



285 **Figure 6.** Total costs (C) and benefits (B) of global N use in the base year of 2010 and projected for
 286 2050 under contrasting scenarios in real US\$ for 2015 price levels, distinguishing effects of increase in
 287 flow and unit price. Also shown are the ratios of Benefits over Costs (BCR).
 288

289 Applying IPA also allows to establish the contribution of N to the total impacts (N-share hereafter),
 290 and thereby to the total cost or benefit. The global mean N-share around the year 2010 for increase
 291 of harvested cereal yields by synthetic N fertilizer was estimated at 45%, for premature mortality by
 292 air pollution by PM_{2.5} at 30% and for biodiversity loss in terrestrial ecosystems at 7% (for details see
 293 Supplementary material SM 5).

294 N damage costs in the context of total externalities of the global agri-food system

295 FAO (2023) estimated the total external (or hidden) cost of the global agri-food system in 2020 at
 296 US\$_{ppp2020} 12.7 (CI₉₀ 10.8-16.0) trillion (Table 4), equivalent to almost 10% of the global GDP and close
 297 to the market value of the global food system. By far, the largest contribution (73%) to the global
 298 external cost was for disease and mortality caused by unhealthy dietary patterns. The external cost
 299 caused by N pollution was estimated at US\$_{ppp2020} 1.5 trillion (CI₉₀ 0.5-4.3), inferring a N-share of 12%
 300 in the total external cost of the global food system. The FAO study identified N pollution as the major
 301 environmental cost, contributing almost half. The included impacts and approaches (Lord et al.,
 302 2023) were similar to this study (Table 1). A large part of the almost 50% higher estimate of total
 303 global N cost by (Lord, 2023) for 2020 as compared to our study for 2010 (Table 3) can be explained
 304 by the increase of the global GDP by more than 30% and its effect on unit damage cost through the
 305 GDP elasticity.

307 **Table 4.** Environmental, social and health hidden costs for the global agrifood system in 2020
 308 (adapted from Table A2.1 in FAO (2023), CC BY 4.0).

	Environment					Social		Health	N-share	
	TOTAL	Climate	Water	Land	Nitrogen	Agrifood worker poverty	Under- nourish- ment	Dietary patterns	total	environ- ment
	billion US\$ _{ppp2020}									
World	12749	855	105	392	1516	520	51	9310	12%	53%
Africa	953	154	4	43	57	285	19	392	6%	22%
America	2978	220	11	149	368	12	5	2212	12%	49%
<i>S-America</i>	894	130	4	17	229	6	3	505	26%	60%
<i>N-America</i>	1711	68	6	128	73	0	0	1435	4%	27%
Asia	5857	356	84	59	815	222	27	4294	14%	62%
<i>China</i>	2555	104	9	6	382	3	0	2052	15%	76%
<i>India</i>	1123	77	36	24	144	157	15	669	13%	51%
Europe	2862	113	5	139	261	1	0	2343	9%	50%
Oceania	99	13	0	2	14	0	0	70	14%	47%

309

310 **Uncertainties**

311 Given the large uncertainties in dose-response relations and unit damage costs based on WTP, it is
 312 no surprise that uncertainties in the estimates of nitrogen damage costs for countries or regions are
 313 very substantial. FAO (2023), based on Lord (2023), reported a 90% CI of US\$_{ppp2020} 0.5-4.3 for global
 314 N pollution cost in 2020 (Table 4); corresponding to a range of 33%-285% around the mean.
 315 Rodríguez et al. (2025) quantified the uncertainty for the total N costs for global cereal systems using
 316 the same response and monetization functions as used for global N costs in Table 3, applying a
 317 Monte Carlo approach. The 90% CI for global N damage costs in 2010 for cereal cultivation was
 318 US\$_{ppp} 0.090-0.172 trillion corresponding to a range of 71%-137% around the mean. This lower
 319 uncertainty compared to Lord (2023) could be caused by the assumption of no correlation between
 320 uncertainties of individual impacts. Relative uncertainties in global Unit Damage Costs (UDCs) per
 321 individual N impacts could center around 50% of the mean UDC (see e.g. de Vries et al. (2024) and
 322 Rodríguez et al. (2025), see also Supplementary Tables 3 and 4). Assuming that uncertainties in these
 323 UDC values for individual impacts are fully correlated, this would imply a maximum uncertainty
 324 range for the total global N cost (Table 3) of also 50%, implying a global cost range of 0.6-2.2 trillion
 325 US\$_{ppp} in 2010. Assuming no correlation and uniform distributions of UDCs this range would be 0.9-

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3 326 1.8 trillion US\$_{ppp}. The uncertainties in UDCs partly derive from uncertainties in underlying surveys
4 327 into preferences or WTP to prevent or resolve N damages. Voltaire et al. (2013) and Braun et al.
5 328 (2016) included respondent's uncertainty in surveys into WTP to protect nature, respectively, into
6 329 perceptions about solar radiation management, finding uncertainties again close to 50%. Another
7 330 source of uncertainty in the UDCs used in our global NCBA is that WTPs for individual impacts are
8 331 derived from separate surveys. Ideally, preferences to prevent or resolve the multiple impacts of N
9 332 should be surveyed in one combined survey adding context allowing respondents to make an
10 333 informed prioritization of the various impacts.

13 334 An uncertainty range for the mean total global N damage cost of $\pm 50\%$ could still be an
14 335 underestimate because, we did not relate our calculated damages and costs to planetary
15 336 boundaries, ecological tipping points or the possibility of irreversibility of some impacts, like
16 337 biodiversity loss or soil degradation which carry the risk of disruption of the global food system.

19 338 **Discussion**

21 339 IPA and CBA for the global N cycle are potentially important tools to deal with the involved multiple
22 340 N-sources, N-forms, dispersion and exposure paths and impacts. The first comprehensive global
23 341 NCBA presented here provides new insights about the relative importance of impacts in global
24 342 regions. Its relevance could be complemented with scenarios that include mitigation costs. Zhang et
25 343 al. (2020) and Gu et al. (2021), for example, implemented Marginal Abatement Cost Curves in their
26 344 NCBA and convincingly showed that air pollution policies should prioritize reducing NH₃ over NO_x
27 345 emissions. Nevertheless, policy makers could still be reluctant to use NCBA in important decisions
28 346 about N policies. One reason is the presence of large uncertainties in monetized N damages
29 347 amounting to a factor of two for the global and regional scale. Valuation and ultimately
30 348 monetization, is a way of organizing information to help guide decisions and targeting main goals,
31 349 but it does not provide a ready solution (Daily et al., 2000). Another reason for policy reluctance
32 350 could be the interdisciplinary nature of NCBA, demanding understanding and integration of social,
33 351 natural and life sciences, which is challenging for reaching academic and political consensus. Putting
34 352 monetary weights on the very diverse effects of N use may be conceived by politicians as a limitation
35 353 of their political mandate to set priorities. While the aforementioned problems were not a barrier to
36 354 use of NCBA to set new NO_x standards in the EU around 2000 (Olsthoorn et al. (1999)), they are
37 355 increasingly posing barriers to take decisions today. An example is the Netherlands and current
38 356 policies to reduce ammonia emission to bring 74% of the N-sensitive nature areas in 2035 below the
39 357 critical N load to comply with the EU Habitat Directive (Boezeman et al., 2023). The acting Dutch
40 358 cabinet values the economic risks for farmers and the farming sector higher than the risks of
41 359 biodiversity loss and challenges both the natural science and life science underlying the IPA linking
42 360 ammonia emissions of farms to the critical status of Dutch nature.

48 361 Further, the academic and ethical justifiability to add up and compare monetized values for impacts
49 362 across very different impacts domains and global regions is contested. We give three examples. First,
50 363 our NCBA finds similar monetary values for global premature mortality by N-derived ambient air
51 364 pollution and for loss of terrestrial biodiversity by increased N deposition. The former relies on
52 365 stated WTP for longer healthy life expectancy, while the latter reflects WTP for prevention or
53 366 restoration of biodiversity. However, critics may argue that disease and premature death by ambient
54 367 air pollution are less existential to society than loss of biodiversity. These deaths are derived from
55 368 epidemiological studies that result in statistical values based on modelled attribution of total
56 369 premature mortality to a suite of causes (see e.g. Stanaway et al. (2018)). Most of these premature
57 370 deaths cannot be attributed directly to air pollution, as air pollution acts as a comorbidity. When
58 371 someone dies prematurely, very rarely ambient air pollution can be identified as the primary cause

372 of death. Loss of terrestrial biodiversity, however, is increasingly viewed as an existential threat for
373 humanity (Richardson et al., 2023). The consequences of degradation of ecosystem services like
374 pollination and natural pest control for agriculture and food security can hardly be overstated.
375 Second, another arbitrary element of global NCBA is the choice to make the value of human life and
376 biodiversity dependent on GDP. Therefore, in IPAs and NCBA the value of human life in a low-
377 income country is lower than in a high-income country. Particularly, this can become problematic
378 when NCBA is used to justify moving N polluting activities to low GDP countries. While not based on
379 NCBA per se, the latter has been a common practice in the past decades, based on classical
380 economic arguments of lower wages and need for economic development in low GDP countries.
381 Thirdly, pricing can be viewed as problematic as it conceives human well-being only in terms of
382 utility or satisfaction of preferences (Wegner & Pascual, 2011). In a typical NCBA, some people will
383 be worse off, while others will be better off. Summing these individual effects into an aggregate
384 implies the Kaldor-Hicks Compensation Principle. This principle assumes that the marginal utility of
385 money is the same for all individuals in society, so that the people worse off can in theory be
386 compensated for their loss of welfare. This certainly is not the case in an unequal world lacking
387 democratic institutions. For example, Manero et al. (2024) concluded that values of Indigenous
388 people are very different and systematically under-represented. Munasinghe and Lutz (1992)
389 concluded that estimates of values of externalities (non-use values) in the developing world were
390 virtually non-existent. Therefore, the use of NCBA to set N policy priorities or to select the best N
391 mitigation options in international arenas, including both high- and low- income countries with
392 diverse cultures and political systems, is problematic as it ignores underlying differences in value
393 structures. If access to sufficient food, water, housing, energy, medical care etcetera is not secured
394 and the majority of people and the political representatives are not familiar with the western
395 concepts of welfare, justification of policy decisions based on IPA and NCBA is not accepted.

396 However, NCBA generally indicate when welfare gains for society can be expected by further
397 reducing nitrogen loads. This would be a step forward, as political decisions are often based on
398 lobbies or prevalent public opinions rather than on maximizing welfare for the society as a whole
399 (Wegner & Pascual, 2011). In this process, public participation, deliberative procedures and
400 transparency of decision-making could enhance the results of the NCBA. And we should not forget
401 that there are alternatives for assigning societal N weights to different impacts or mitigation options,
402 for example, by direct use of polls into public concerns or their consolidation in distance to policy
403 targets. In a good government, these concerns should be reflected in the allocation of national
404 budgets. Van Grinsven (2016) indeed found a correlation between willingness-to-pay to prevent N
405 pollution and proxies for budget allocation for Europe.

406 **Conclusion**

407 Valuation of N impacts and NCBA has the potential to become a useful tool for guiding policy on
408 prioritizing strategies for joined-up mitigation of diverse N pollution impacts. Valuation helps to
409 assess the relative importance (or “societal weight”) of these diverse N impacts, which is important
410 to increase societal acceptance of N political action. For now, the potential of NCBA is highest in
411 politically, socio-economically and culturally homogenous regions and therefore best established in
412 western, educated, industrialized, fairly rich and democratic countries (so-called WEIRD countries,
413 Henrich et al. (2010)). In such countries, money tends to “speak louder than words”, which
414 demonstrates that nitrogen mitigation is welfare-enhancing and can be effective in driving ambitious
415 environmental policies. Valuation and NCBA can justify shifting policy away from traditional N
416 concerns, like local nitrate pollution of drinking water resources, toward more alarming global issues
417 like biodiversity loss. Even when policymakers are reluctant to use the monetized N damages

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3 418 directly, NCBA also allows for the aggregation of a broad set of N impacts, offering insights into their
4 419 variation over time and geography. However, there are also concerns. While the underlying IPA is
5 420 well established, it relies on complex dispersion- and impact- models. Moreover, assigning monetary
6 421 values to environmental goods remains contentious, particularly when comparing the “hypothetical”
7 422 non-market benefits of improved environmental quality with “real” financial gains from increased
8 423 agricultural production or the “real” costs of N mitigation. A key takeaway from this first global NCBA
9 424 is that three N-related impacts dominate: premature mortality from N derived PM_{2.5}, terrestrial
10 425 biodiversity loss from N deposition and marine eutrophication from N river loads. Another robust
11 426 message is that N damage costs in 2010 were around 2% of global GDP and that this percentage will
12 427 not change very much in 2050 under any SSP scenario. Uncertainties of valuation results from
13 428 application of IPA are large. Therefore, when using valuation and NCBA to select a N mitigation
14 429 option, the net benefits for the preferred option should be substantially higher than for the rejected
15 430 options.

16 431

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