

Insights from the international workshop on “Adapting Agriculture to Climate Change and Air Pollution”

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44 **Abstract**

45 An international workshop on “Adapting Agriculture to Climate Change and Air Pollution” took place
46 at Nanjing University of Information Science and Technology, Nanjing, China, during 23-27 October,
47 2023. Experts working in various multi-disciplinary areas of agroecosystem and environmental
48 research gathered for academic communication and discussions. Two discussion groups focused on
49 “agriculture under air pollution and climate change: Current challenges and priorities for the future”
50 and “adapting agriculture to air pollution and climate change: current status and next steps”. Insights
51 derived from the discussions are summarized in this article and include opinions about current issues,
52 knowledge gaps identification, and potential priorities and actions that could be taken. The first
53 discussion mainly addresses ozone impact estimates; ozone metrics for impact and risk assessments;
54 ozone monitoring; air pollution impacts and policy; and pivotal role of agriculture and consumer
55 choices. The second group covers adaptation and mitigation; greenhouse gases and energy efficiency;
56 concerns about the link between adaptation and mitigation; local food, planetary-health diets and
57 carbon footprint; irrigation and climate change adaptation; scientific evidence and policy-making; air
58 pollution and crop adaptation; machine learning and crop modeling; and challenges faced by
59 smallholder farmers and large-scale enterprises. Hence, this report could be useful for research,
60 educational, and policy purposes, collating opinions of experts working in diverse research areas.

61

62 **Keywords:** air pollution; agriculture adaptation; agroecosystem health; climate change; crop
63 production; impact mitigation

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66 **1 Introduction**

67 Climate change presents a global issue of profound societal significance due to its widespread
68 impacts on the biosphere (Wang et al., 2023). Agroecosystems face a wide range of climate
69 change-related impacts, including agricultural nitrogen losses (Bowles et al., 2018), elevation of
70 pathogen outbreak risk and expansion of plant disease spread (Singh et al., 2023), loss of pollinators
71 (Millard et al., 2023), loss of nutritional quality (Myers et al., 2014), and suppression of crop yields
72 (Rezaei et al., 2023). Concurrently, air pollution poses an additional threat to agroecosystems,
73 particularly an increase in ground-level ozone, which is currently the most widespread and damaging

74 air pollutant for vegetation (Wang et al., 2023). Air pollution effects on agroecosystems are also diverse,
75 spanning from lowered crop yields (Feng et al., 2022; Gupta et al., 2022; Kobayashi, 2023) to impaired
76 carbon and nitrogen cycling (Gu et al., 2022) as well as disrupted interactions between plants and
77 microorganisms or insects (Agathokleous et al., 2020; Blande, 2021; Masui et al., 2023). In addition to
78 the negative effects of air pollution on agroecosystem services and the threat to food security, air
79 pollution is associated with profound economic losses, hampering the achievement of sustainable
80 development goals at multiple levels (Feng et al., 2022; Pandey et al., 2023; Tai et al., 2014). Hence,
81 strategies should be devised to address concurrent climate change and air pollution and their impacts on
82 agroecosystems (Agathokleous et al., 2023; Clark et al., 2023; Pandey et al., 2023; Rezaei et al., 2023;
83 Smith et al., 2023; Wang et al., 2023).

84 Quantifications of the impacts of climate change and air pollution on agriculture emphasize the
85 severity of the problem (Hong et al., 2020; Sharps et al., 2024). For instance, assessment of the joint
86 impacts of ozone and climate on perennial crops historical and future yields in California revealed a
87 significant ozone-induced decrease, ranging from 2% for strawberries to 22% for table grapes,
88 translated to approximately US\$1 billion losses per year; and warming effects are non-significant for
89 several perennial crops (Hong et al., 2020). Elevated ozone pollution during non-winter seasons is also
90 estimated to decrease the agricultural total productivity in China by 18% over 2002–2015 (Chen et al.,
91 2024). Moreover, analysis of data from 146 countries worldwide during 2010–2019 suggest that an 1%
92 increase in ozone and fine particulate matter (PM_{2.5}) could decrease agricultural total productivity by
93 0.207% and 0.104%, respectively (Dong and Wang, 2023). Importantly, the detrimental impact of
94 PM_{2.5} pollution is stronger in cooler climates, indicating the potential of aggravated air pollution
95 impacts by climatic changes (Dong and Wang, 2023). Despite that the inconsistencies in impact
96 assessments due to different metric choices (Blanco-Ward et al., 2023; Emberson et al., 2000; Mao et
97 al., 2024; Paoletti et al., 2022, 2007; Pleijel et al., 2004), research findings also indicate the promise of
98 potential policies to mediate these impacts (Liu et al., 2024; Liu and Lu, 2023; Pandey et al., 2023). For
99 example, if reduction of ozone concentrations is achieved in accordance with the WHO air quality
100 standards, agricultural total productivity in China could increase by 60%, counteracting productivity
101 losses that are expected based on a 2°C warming scenario (Chen et al., 2024). Moreover, if the air
102 quality targets for ozone and PM_{2.5} are met, China's maize, rice and wheat yields could increase by 7.8,
103 4.1, and 3.4%, respectively (Liu et al., 2024). However, research and development are also crucial for

104 air pollution-tolerance traits, while adaptation to air pollution and climate change can be facilitated by
105 effective insurance enrollment rates and crop prices (Liu and Lu, 2023; Pandey et al., 2023).

106 An international workshop on “Adapting Agriculture to Climate Change and Air Pollution” was
107 held at Nanjing University of Information Science and Technology (NUIST), Nanjing, China, from 23
108 to 27 October 2023 (organizers: Evgenios Agathokleous, Yansen Xu, Zhaozhong Feng). The aim of the
109 workshop was to bring together experts from multiple disciplines working in these research areas,
110 serving as a platform to share knowledge, exchange views and insights, and promote cooperation. A
111 total of 54 participants from 18 institutions and 6 countries attended the workshop, which included 26
112 oral presentations and two discussion groups focused on overarching themes. The interactive
113 discussions led to some important insights, which the main participants of the discussion groups wished
114 to share with the broader scientific community, as they reflect expert opinions about current issues,
115 identification of knowledge gaps, potential priorities for the research community, and possible actions
116 that are needed.

117 **2 Insights from Discussion Group A**

118 Summary from the first discussion group A on “Agriculture under air pollution and climate change:
119 Current challenges and priorities for the future”

120 Chairperson: Prof. Lisa Emberson, University of York, UK

121 Rapporteur: Prof. Evgenios Agathokleous, NUIST, China

122 The discussion session addressed a variety of aspects related to agriculture under air pollution and
123 climate change, although the main factor discussed was ozone, the major air pollutant threatening
124 vegetation (Emberson, 2020; Lin et al., 2020; Unger et al., 2020). The group discussed ozone
125 impact estimates, ozone metrics used for the assessment of impact and risk, ozone monitoring, and
126 the intersections between air pollution impacts and policy. The pivotal role of agriculture was also
127 highlighted, and diet interventions were further discussed. Key points include:

128 • **Ozone impact estimates:**

- 129 • The need for new dose-response relationships for a range of crops and cultivars
130 to assess the magnitude of real-world ozone impacts was highlighted.
- 131 • There is also a need to incorporate differences in agro-ecological zones (AEZs;
132 zones defined based on combinations of climatic, landform, and soil
133 characteristics) and agricultural management practices in ozone impact
134 assessment. For example, experiments should be conducted under a range of
135 conditions such as different AEZs, irrigated versus rainfed, different levels of
136 fertilizer application and soil fertility, and use of region-specific cultivars, so that

137 experimental results can be used to reliably inform impacts occurring under a
138 range of conditions and management practice regimes.

- 139 • The use of standardized experimental protocols could support experimental
140 assessment of the influence of AEZ and management on ozone impacts. For
141 example, in the 1990s there was a coordinated open-top chamber (OTC) effort in
142 Europe, which helped to develop robust ozone metrics and associated
143 dose-response relationships for the whole of Europe for a range of crops and
144 cultivars. This was an excellent example of coordination, and a similar effort
145 could be established within and across Asian countries.
- 146 • More focus on multiple stresses is needed, especially air pollution together with
147 climate change. A better understanding of the mechanisms by which air pollution
148 and climate variables combine to cause stress to crops would improve impact
149 assessments under future environmental conditions.
- 150 • A key climate variable that interacts with ozone stress is drought. Drought is
151 thought to exacerbate ozone impacts but will also reduce ozone uptake. More
152 experiments are needed to improve our understanding of the interactive
153 mechanisms and effects of drought and ozone damage.
- 154 • **Ozone metrics for impact and risk assessments:**
 - 155 • A large number of ozone metrics (e.g. M7/M12, W126, AOT40, PODy) have
156 been developed to assess ozone impacts, but there is currently no scientific
157 consensus on which of these metrics should be recommended for use in ozone
158 impact assessment in Asia. This may be confusing for policymakers and is a
159 question that should be addressed by the research community in the coming years.
160 The next step for the research community would be to examine whether a
161 consensus can be reached, providing an initial set of guidelines for which metrics
162 to use for particular conditions. AOT40 (Accumulated Ozone exposure over a
163 Threshold of 40 ppb) and PODy (Phytotoxic Ozone Dose above a flux threshold
164 Y) are two of the most widely used metrics. The former is a concentration-based
165 metric and the latter is a flux-based metric. The PODy metric is arguably the best
166 metric to apply when environmental conditions (e.g. soil water or atmospheric
167 water deficits) are likely to limit ozone uptake. In the presence of such stressors,
168 PODy is biologically more relevant and would be recommended for use.
 - 169 • However, the PODy metric requires substantial data to be applied with
170 confidence (i.e. hourly ozone concentration data and meteorological data as well
171 as crop physiology data to develop the stomatal conductance model (gsto) to
172 allow reliable estimates of stomatal ozone flux (PODy) to be calculated). There
173 are only a limited number of sites in Asia that have all the data needed for the
174 calibration of gsto models. Extending data collection to sites in a range of AEZs
175 would be needed to ensure PODy can be reliably applied across regions.

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- There may be opportunities to work with other research communities (e.g. the agronomy community) who have data-driven knowledge of crop physiology and the influence of environmental conditions (e.g. irrigation and soil fertility) on crop growth and yield, and the environmental defense society. Cross-disciplinary collaboration with such data-rich communities would help to address data gaps and improve our understanding of combined stresses and the influence of crop management on abiotic stresses.
 - **Ozone monitoring**
 - The lack of ozone data in Southeast Asian countries was noted. Moreover, in some cases, air pollution data are recorded but are not widely accessible to the public. This means there is often a lack of data to perform robust regional ozone impact assessments.
 - The type of air pollution monitoring stations is also an important factor affecting ozone impact estimates. Urban stations are widely used but sub-urban and remotely-sited stations are uncommon. Considering the difference in air pollution exposures (particularly for ozone) between urban and non-urban areas (Diaz et al., 2020; Malashock et al., 2022; McHugh et al., 2023), here is a need to expand air pollution monitoring to sub-urban and remote station locations, especially since low-cost sensors are also available nowadays (Carrari et al., 2021; De Marco et al., 2022; Frederickson et al., 2023; Saitanis et al., 2020). While remote-sensing, satellite data could contribute to this, their resolution is not as high as ground-measured data.
 - A major concern was expressed that modelled ozone concentration data (using atmospheric chemistry transport models) often differs from observational data. Further research is required to improve the diurnal and seasonal prediction of pollutant concentrations by chemical transport models (CTMs) and for pollutant concentration and pollutant impact communities to work more closely together to focus efforts on reducing the greatest uncertainties in impact assessment modelling.
 - **Air pollution impacts and policy:**
 - The impact research community needs to think and better understand what information might be most useful to provide to policymakers. Previously, efforts have focused on developing air quality guidelines (AQGs) and yield loss estimates. The former can help to set targets for emission reductions whilst the latter can be used to monitor trends over time and therefore the success of policy interventions.
 - It may be that yield losses of 3-6% occurring in certain areas may be perceived as a relatively small impact on crop yield and may not be enough to attract the attention of policymakers. However, were such yield losses to be set within the

215 context of food security, the implications of air pollution impacts could be more
216 clearly understood.

217 • It would therefore be useful to quantify air pollution impacts on yield and
218 nutrition in terms of changes in price and hence cost to different stakeholders. It
219 would also be useful to perform cost-benefit assessments to understand how the
220 costs of air pollution mitigation compare with the costs of the existing air
221 pollution burden.

222 • A need was highlighted to create more connections and networks beyond the
223 scientific community to better understand the consequences of air pollution
224 impacts on different stakeholders.

225 • The scientific consensus on the risk assessment methods to use to estimate ozone
226 impacts on agriculture (e.g. reliable experiments, ozone metrics and
227 dose-response relationships) along with suggested AQGs and an assessment of
228 the current status and trends in how air pollution is affecting crop yields is likely
229 to be extremely valuable to policymakers.

230 • We should also consider aspects other than yield loss, such as biodiversity loss
231 and nutrient and vitamin composition of grains, since these may also be
232 important to consider in the development of policy. Such aspects gain high public
233 and political attention, and may influence the public perception of the problem.

234 • The importance of biodiversity loss and particularly effects on ecosystem service
235 providers such as pest natural enemies and pollinators were highlighted.
236 However, there remains a significant knowledge gap concerning the effects of
237 ozone pollution on ecological interactions, especially at field or landscape scales.

238 • **Pivotal role of agriculture and consumer choices:**

239 • Increased availability and access to food is needed; however, intensive
240 agriculture is also part of the problem since it produces both air pollution and
241 greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions. Consideration should be given to mitigation
242 and adaptation measures for agriculture that might reduce emissions and improve
243 yields and livelihoods.

244 • The role of diet in air pollution emissions and consequent impacts was
245 considered and specifically whether a diet transition could be achieved (i.e.
246 reduced consumption of meat). Focusing on the human health benefits of such a
247 diet transition could be a better way to encourage people to take action than a
248 focus on the impacts of air pollution on food. For example, the North Karelia
249 project in Finland has been a success story of diet intervention. Such examples
250 provide promising evidence that the perception of the public to threats can result
251 in action.

252 • Facts may not be able to change people's minds, but prices can, especially in
253 countries with lower standards. Taxes might be one way of changing consumer

254 behavior, but they should be deployed with complementary efforts in education.
255 A combination of multiple strategies may be needed to support air pollution
256 mitigation efforts.

257 **3 Insights from Discussion Group B**

258 Summary of the second discussion group B on “Adapting agriculture to air pollution and climate
259 change: Current status and next steps”

260 Chairperson : Emer. Prof. Kazuhiko Kobayashi, The University of Tokyo, Tokyo, Japan

261 Rapporteur : Dr. Jie Pei, Sun Yat-sen University, China.

262 The session revolved around the impacts of climate change on agriculture, food security, and ways
263 to mitigate and adapt to these changes. The participants discussed various topics such as soil
264 quality, greenhouse gases, energy efficiency, irrigation, and air pollution, as well as the need for
265 scientific evidence and predictions to inform policy-making. The key points include:

266 • **Adaptation and Mitigation:**

267 • The significance of adapting agricultural practices to address climate change was
268 underscored in the discussion (e.g., diversification, climate change resilient crops,
269 water management, altering crop rotation and planting dates, integrated pest
270 management), highlighting the necessity for integrative adaptation and mitigation
271 strategies that not only focus on immediate responses but also on long-term
272 sustainability. This includes enhancing soil quality through innovative agronomic
273 practices and increasing resilience against environmental stressors. Such
274 measures are essential for ensuring the continued productivity and sustainability
275 of agricultural systems in the face of changing climate patterns and escalating air
276 pollution challenges. Additionally, the integration of advanced technologies and
277 research into climate-smart agriculture was identified as a critical step toward
278 effectively managing and reducing the impacts of these environmental changes.

279 • The discussion highlighted various adaptation strategies, such as modifications in
280 tillage methods (e.g., no-tillage, direct sowing) and other agronomic practices
281 (e.g., fertilizer and pesticide application). It was noted that these adaptation
282 measures tend to offer greater flexibility and practicality compared to mitigation
283 efforts. Furthermore, the array of stakeholders involved in implementing
284 adaptation strategies is often more varied and extensive than those engaged in
285 mitigation. This diversity in participation not only broadens the scope of
286 knowledge and experience but also enhances the potential for innovative and
287 context-specific solutions tailored to different agricultural environments and
288 challenges.

289 • **GHGs and Energy Efficiency:**

290 • The transition from conventional tillage practices to no-till farming was

291 extensively discussed as a proactive measure in mitigating climate change. This
292 shift is particularly significant due to its potential to reduce greenhouse gas
293 (GHG) emissions, a major contributing factor to global warming. No-till farming
294 not only minimizes the disturbance of soil and hence the release of stored carbon,
295 but it also promotes increased soil organic matter and carbon sequestration.
296 Additionally, this approach can lead to improved soil health, increased water
297 retention, and enhanced biodiversity. However, the adoption of no-till practices
298 also requires consideration of various factors, including soil type, crop selection,
299 and regional climatic conditions. The discussion also highlighted the need for
300 supporting policies, educational initiatives, and incentives to encourage farmers
301 to adopt these environmentally friendly practices more widely.

- 302 • Energy efficiency improvements, such as the adoption of solar panels (e.g.
303 agrivoltaics or agrophotovoltaics) and vertical planting, were highlighted for
304 their potential to revolutionize agricultural practices. Solar panels help to reduce
305 reliance on fossil fuels, thereby lowering GHG emissions and cutting costs.
306 Vertical planting, on the other hand, optimizes space, particularly in urban areas,
307 and can lead to more efficient resource use, including water and nutrients, while
308 also reducing transportation needs while reducing air pollution. Together, these
309 strategies represent significant steps toward more sustainable and
310 energy-efficient agricultural practices.

- 311 • **Concerns about the link between adaptation and mitigation:**

- 312 • The discussion around the potential negative impacts of solar panels on plant
313 productivity acknowledged that while solar energy offers significant
314 environmental benefits, it can also have unintended consequences for agricultural
315 lands. One primary concern is the shading effect (and reduced rainfall beneath
316 them) caused by solar panels, which can reduce the amount of sunlight (and
317 water) available to crops, potentially impacting their growth and productivity.
318 This effect could be particularly significant in agrivoltaic systems, where solar
319 panels and agriculture coexist on the same land. However, this research area is
320 still in its infancy, and the need for balanced measures and further research was
321 emphasized to understand and mitigate these impacts fully. This includes
322 exploring optimal configurations of solar panels to minimize shading, studying
323 the effects of varying light intensities on different crops, and developing
324 innovative agrivoltaic designs that can harmonize energy production with
325 agricultural productivity. The goal is to ensure that the integration of solar energy
326 into farming landscapes is done in a way that supports both sustainable energy
327 goals and agricultural productivity.

- 328 • A larger scale concern was also mentioned about the link of agriculture with the
329 energy sector via the production of energy crops. When the food energy

330 production is compared with the total primary energy production at the global
331 scale, the latter is one to two orders of magnitude larger than the former. The link
332 of agriculture with the energy sector could therefore result in large fluctuations of
333 food production driven by slight perturbations to the primary energy production.
334 The nexus of food-energy-water-land has also attracted heated discussion and
335 increased attention, and it is suggested that the issues can be more scientific and
336 objective for the comprehensive development of the region; however, the current
337 research methods and regional specificity are still being explored.

338 • **Local Food, Planetary-Health Diets and Carbon Footprint:**

339 • Eating locally-produced food is often advocated as a strategy to reduce carbon
340 footprints by minimizing the distance food travels from farm to consumer. This
341 approach, known as reducing 'food miles', can significantly lower the emissions
342 associated with transportation and agricultural activities. However, the discussion
343 emphasized the need to consider the energy efficiency of various modes of
344 transport in the food-mileage concept. Ship transport, for example, is much more
345 energy-efficient than land transport particularly by tracks and trailers. Educating
346 consumers about the environmental benefits of local diets not only supports
347 lower emissions but also bolsters local economies and agricultural diversity. This
348 approach, however, must consider that some means of international food
349 transport are by far more efficient in energy consumption than local transport.
350 For instance, shipping goods in bulk via sea or rail can be less energy-intensive
351 per unit of food than transporting smaller quantities by road or air over shorter
352 distances. Therefore, when evaluating the environmental impact of food
353 transportation, it is crucial to assess the overall resource efficiency of the entire
354 supply chain, rather than just the distance travelled. This nuanced understanding
355 can help in formulating more effective strategies for reducing the carbon
356 footprint of our food systems.

357 • Another approach to reduce the carbon footprints of the food systems is dietary
358 changes, especially the promotion of “eating lower on the food chain” to
359 minimize energy loss during the transfer of energy up the trophic levels, as well
360 as a shift toward a more plant-based diet and reduced consumption of high
361 carbon-footprint foods such as red meat (especially meat from methane-emitting
362 ruminants, e.g., beef and lamb). Such approaches can be encapsulated by the
363 concept of “planetary health diet”, which is aimed to enhance the health of both
364 people and the planet. However, it was noted that any promotion of dietary
365 changes has to be culturally sensitive and locally relevant, recognizing different
366 populations across the world might have divergent nutritional requirements and
367 tolerances toward different foods. A “one diet fits all” approach should be
368 avoided.

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- **Irrigation and Climate Change Adaptation:**
 - The role of irrigation in climate change adaptation was discussed, particularly in Northern China. Irrigation does increase the adaptation capability to climate change at field to local scale, but it may increase vulnerability of agriculture to a large-scale change in climate. An example mentioned was the devastating impacts of the basin-scale drop of rainfall on rice production in Southeastern Australia for some continuous years.
 - The potential cooling effect of irrigation could reduce ozone uptake, although evidence is still being gathered. However, irrigation directly promotes stomatal opening and therefore increases ozone uptake. Hence, the effect of irrigation on ozone uptake is multi-dimensional and depends on the patterns of irrigation (amount, frequency, duration) and the genotype-specific hydrophilicity or hydrophobicity.
- **Scientific Evidence and Policy-making:**
 - The need for scientific evidence and predictions of crop yield impacts to inform policy-making and help people adapt to changes was highlighted.
 - The role of policy-making may somewhat differ between mitigation and adaptation to climate change. In mitigation, policymaking exerts direct impacts on the regulation of greenhouse gas emissions, whereas, in adaptation, policy-making needs to facilitate the transition of the plant and livestock production sector to a better-adapted means of production.
- **Air Pollution and Crop Adaptation:**
 - Adaptation to air pollution was a key topic, highlighting the necessity for developing crop varieties that are tolerant to such conditions. Alongside traditional breeding methods, emerging phenotyping technologies, e.g., LIFT (Light-Induced Fluorescence Transient) are gaining attention. Such innovative approaches include the active and passive retrieval of the chlorophyll fluorescence signal to identify plant stress. They allow for the rapid and non-destructive assessment of plant photosynthetic performance and health, which can be crucial in identifying varieties that are more resilient to air pollution and climate change. By providing detailed insights into plant responses under stress conditions phenotyping offers a powerful tool for developing crops that can better withstand the challenges posed by increasing air pollution levels.
 - Ethylenediurea (EDU; $C_4H_{10}N_4O_2$) is recommended for assessing the impacts of ozone on crops and potentially increasing yields. However, its specific mode of action against ozone phytotoxicity is unclear. and there is a lack of toxicological studies and food and chemical safety evaluations. EDU is known for its protective effects against ozone damage in plants. When applied, it can help to identify how ozone stress affects crop health and productivity, allowing

408 researchers to better understand the specific impacts of ozone exposure under
409 real field conditions. This information is crucial for developing strategies to
410 mitigate ozone damage and improve crop yields in environments with high ozone
411 levels.

- 412 • **Machine Learning and Crop Modeling:**

- 413 • The discussion highlighted the promising role of machine learning in deciphering
414 complex patterns and facilitating predictive analyses in agricultural contexts. The
415 capacity of machine learning to process and analyze large datasets can uncover
416 valuable insights into crop behavior under various environmental conditions.
417 However, it was also noted that there are inherent uncertainties in machine
418 learning predictions on crop responses to climate change and air pollution,
419 particularly due to the variability in environmental factors and the limitations of
420 available data.

- 421 • To enhance the reliability of these machine learning insights, the integration of
422 crop modeling was suggested. By combining the predictive power of machine
423 learning with the detailed, process-based understanding provided by crop models,
424 researchers can cross-verify findings and predictions. This synergy allows for a
425 more comprehensive validation of results, ensuring they are not only data-driven
426 but also grounded in agronomic principles. Such a combined approach could
427 significantly improve the accuracy of forecasts and deepen our understanding of
428 crop responses to environmental stresses.

- 429 • **Smallholder Farmers vs. Large Enterprises:**

- 430 • The discussion touched upon the distinct challenges faced by smallholder farmers
431 and large-scale enterprises in China in adapting to the stresses caused by climate
432 change and air pollution, illuminating the ongoing transformation within the
433 agricultural system. It was noted that large-scale enterprises often have more
434 resources and access to advanced technologies, making it easier for them to
435 implement adaptive measures and mitigate the impacts of environmental changes.
436 In contrast, smallholder farmers, who may lack such resources and technology,
437 often find it more challenging to respond effectively to these stresses. This disparity
438 underscores the need for tailored strategies that address the specific needs and
439 capabilities of different types of agricultural producers in the face of climate change
440 and pollution.

441 **4 Conclusion**

442 The participants of the international workshop discussed diverse aspects related to climate change
443 and air pollution impacts on agroecosystems and potential adaptation options, and the
444 multi-disciplinary insights that are shared here will be useful to the broader research community.

445 Understanding damage and trends could also play an important role in establishing AQGs for policy
446 formulation, such as emission reduction policy. Most of the participants focused on air pollution
447 impacts (alone or in combination with climate factors), and thus the discussions mainly concerned air
448 pollution, and primarily ozone pollution. Regarding impacts, much progress has been noted, but
449 considerable uncertainties about air pollution impacts remain, consensus about key practices is lacking,
450 and transfer of research outcomes to policy applications remains poor. Adaptation remains less studied
451 and understood and, despite being promising, much needs to be done to achieve adaptation. Finally,
452 although participants came from 6 countries, there was no participation from Africa, America, and
453 Australia/Oceania, as well as from the southeast Asia. This limitation should be overcome in the near
454 future for a more inclusive workshop and more representative geographic coverage, but incentives are
455 warranted to facilitate participation from economically disadvantaged areas.

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457 **Data availability statement:** No data are analyzed or generated, because this article is a report
458 from discussions during an international workshop and does not report any results analyzed or
459 generated.

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614 **Authors contributions**

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630 The authors declare no competing interests.

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