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# Bioenergy Sustainability at the Regional Scale

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34 **ABSTRACT**

35  
36 The establishment of bioenergy crops will affect ecological processes and their  
37 interactions and thus have an influence on ecosystem services provided by the lands on  
38 which these crops are grown. The regional-scale effects of bioenergy choices on  
39 ecosystem services need special attention because they often have been neglected yet can  
40 affect the ecological, social and economic aspects of sustainability. A regional-scale  
41 perspective provides the opportunity to take maximize ecosystem services, particularly  
42 with regard to water quality and quantity issues, and also about other aspects of  
43 ecological, social and economic sustainability. We give special attention to cellulosic  
44 feedstocks because of the opportunities they provide.

45  
46 Keywords: bioenergy crops, ecosystem services, landscape, management

47  
48 **INTRODUCTION**

49 The expansion of biomass production to provide feedstocks for biofuel refineries will  
50 induce complex interactions among a large number of ecological processes that are  
51 important but, as yet, poorly understood. Currently most liquid biofuels use sugar, grain  
52 and vegetable oils as feedstocks. However there is great potential to expand feedstocks  
53 to herbaceous and woody lignocellulosic crops and agricultural and forest wastes, in  
54 particular (NRC 2009). Bioenergy crop expansion will influence local and regional  
55 sustainability via impacts to socioeconomic systems and will also change the delivery of  
56 ecosystem services provided by current landscapes (Robertson et al. 2008). Many of  
57 these alterations could be positive if managed appropriately (Kline et al. 2009). They  
58 include effects on water quality and quantity, soil conditions, greenhouse gas emissions,  
59 air quality, and biodiversity.

60  
61 The shift from a preexisting crop or from a relatively unmanaged ecosystem to a  
62 bioenergy crop will be accompanied by changes in land management that will include  
63 altered fertilization, irrigation, cultivation, and harvesting regimes. These changes will  
64 affect a number of ecosystem components and the magnitude and efficiency of the  
65 ecological services they provide. Changes in soil composition and structure, for example,  
66 will affect nutrient cycling, runoff characteristics, soil erosion, downstream surface  
67 waters and aquifers, and greenhouse-gas emissions. Where the transition is to a perennial  
68 cellulosic crop, biogeochemical changes are likely to be positive as carbon is sequestered  
69 belowground, greenhouse gas emissions are abated, and less nitrate and phosphorus is  
70 delivered to surface and ground waters (Robertson et al. 2011). Hydrologic changes are  
71 also likely as altered water demands influence the availability of water for other potential  
72 uses, and biodiversity changes will affect the delivery of ecosystem services such as pest  
73 suppression in surrounding ecosystems (Landis et al. 2008, Gardiner et al. 2010). Of  
74 course, changes due to bioenergy need to be compared to the environmental effects of using  
75 other energy sources such as petroleum, including exploration, drilling, production,  
76 transport, and use, but many of these effects are poorly documented (Ramseur 2010).

77  
78 These aspects of ecological systems are complex, and how they interact can vary widely  
79 from one ecosystem to another. Different components, individually or in combination,

80 provide a suite of ecological services such as water and air purification, the provision of  
81 wildlife habitat, biodiversity maintenance, waste decomposition, pollination of crops and  
82 other plants, seed dispersal, groundwater recharge, greenhouse gas and climate  
83 regulation, food, fiber, and fuel production, and aesthetics and cultural amenities  
84 (Millennium Assessment 2005, Swinton et al. 2007). Many effects of traditional  
85 agriculture on ecosystem services are known (e.g., Dale and Polasky 2007, NRC 2010),  
86 yet only recently have researchers begun to explore how bioenergy crops, and  
87 specifically cellulosic feedstocks, will affect these services (Hecht et al. 2009). The  
88 assessment of where bioenergy crops can best be grown and how they can influence  
89 ecosystem services on a regional scale requires integrated consideration of both typical  
90 agriculture and land not traditionally used for crops.

91  
92 An example of a process that interacts with several others and that can be considered at  
93 many scales is the fate and transport of carbon and nitrogen during biomass production.  
94 The carbon and nitrogen cycles are driven by factors such as precipitation, temperature,  
95 topography, soil characteristics, the presence and activities of soil microbes and  
96 invertebrates, and land management. Changes to any of these factors can have significant  
97 effects on biofuel crop growth and on local carbon and nitrogen cycles. These local  
98 changes, when implemented across millions of hectares, will either mitigate or exacerbate  
99 atmospheric greenhouse gas concentrations, for example; or abate or accelerate nitrate  
100 contributions to eutrophication of inland waters and the extent of coastal dead zones; or  
101 increase or lessen sediment loads to streams and reservoirs. A corollary is that carbon  
102 and nitrogen cycles also vary depending on the type of feedstock planted and  
103 management practices.

104  
105 Our perspective of bioenergy sustainability at a regional scale is built upon the concept  
106 that lands should be used for their most appropriate purpose and management decisions  
107 made in hierarchical fashion (Dale et al. 2011). This premise derives from Forman's  
108 (1995) suggestion that, under ideal circumstances, land decisions occur hierarchically:  
109 first addressing water and biodiversity concerns; second - food cultivation, grazing, and  
110 wood products; third - sewage and other wastes; and fourth - homes and industry. In this  
111 paradigm, decisions about energy use and other natural resources extractions would likely  
112 fall into a secondary tier under the second category. That is, after decisions are made  
113 about the locations for natural resource protection and about food and fiber, then  
114 decisions are made about fuel. As such, energy crops might be placed best on lands of  
115 marginal use for other purposes (including land less appropriate for growing food).

116  
117 Landscape-level decision making is relatively rare, but access to science-based scenario  
118 forecasting can provide regional stakeholders and policy makers an opportunity to  
119 envision the long-term outcomes of contemporary land-use decisions (e.g. Baker et al.  
120 2004), and thereby an opportunity to shape policy to enhance the delivery of ecosystem  
121 services in future landscapes. Of course, for science to influence decision making  
122 processes, it needs to be clear who makes decisions and how permanent and far reaching  
123 those decisions are (a topic that is beyond the focus of this paper, but one that needs to be  
124 addressed for bioenergy sustainability to be achieved).

126 Growing crops for bioenergy offers an opportunity to rethink, from a regional  
127 perspective, how and where feedstocks can sustainably be produced. The debated  
128 concepts on indirect land-use effects (Mathews and Tan 2009) cause us to consider how  
129 even unmanaged ecosystems are influenced by human activity. The concept of  
130 “emerging ecosystems” recognizes that the majority of the Earth is affected by human  
131 activities with broad-scale effects poorly understood (Hobbs et al. 2006, Hobbs et al.  
132 2009). The properties of these novel systems may not be the same as the characteristics of  
133 natural ecosystems that ecologists have long studied. While there is a rich literature on  
134 old field succession, recovering wetlands, and some other managed systems, growing  
135 bioenergy feedstocks will involve lignocellulosic crops and management practices for  
136 which there is relatively little information or experience. Furthermore the focus on  
137 sustainability provides an opportunity to decide how biofuels might be “done right”  
138 (Kline et al. 2009) and thus to provide a positive example for other cropping systems.  
139 The principles and processes of these human-managed, emerging ecosystems need to be  
140 better understood, especially in view of the regional landscape, which may contain a mix  
141 of agriculture, forest, urban, and other land uses. This lack of insight makes it difficult to  
142 develop land-management goals for such ecosystems. Production of bioenergy crops and  
143 even use of residues of traditional crops for biofuels may produce many such emerging  
144 ecosystems, and research on the regional implications of those emerging ecosystems will  
145 be required to extend current ecological knowledge to these new situations.

146

#### 147 **INFORMATION NEEDS FOR REGIONAL PERSPECTIVE**

148 In a regional context, it is important to consider ecological, societal, and economic issues  
149 and to address the tradeoffs among those issues, including the potential unintended  
150 consequences. For example the 19% increase in corn acreage in the US from 2006 to  
151 2007 reduced crop diversity and appears to have reduced biological pest control services  
152 by as much as 24% with an estimated cost of \$58 million  $y^{-1}$  in reduced yield and  
153 increased pesticide use for Iowa, Michigan, Minnesota, and Wisconsin (Landis et al.  
154 2008). By contrast, if more perennial grasses are grown in a region, it is not now clear  
155 how such a change in landscape diversity might affect insect populations. Science must  
156 provide information about such consequences before inappropriate conclusions are drawn  
157 and policies set.

158

159 Research also needs to address both short- and long-term perspectives. For example,  
160 longer-term goals need to be considered in order to grow crops in an ecological as well as  
161 socio-economic context. Over time, the knowledge base about these bioenergy crops will  
162 grow, and management practices can adjust to improve ecological, social, and economic  
163 well-being. To build this knowledge, planting and management regimes can be treated as  
164 experiments under which data can be collected to build or refute our current  
165 understanding of how ecosystem services are affected by certain practices. In other  
166 words, treating bioenergy cropping systems under an adaptive management approach  
167 (Gunderson 2000) fosters learning about appropriate ways to manage these systems at the  
168 same time that bioenergy cropping is expanding. In particular, it is important to  
169 document ways in which these bioenergy cropping systems can be resilient in the face of  
170 changes in climate, biodiversity and management practices and still provide key  
171 ecosystem services (Folke et al. 2004).

172

173 **SCIENCE NEEDED FOR BIOFUEL SYSTEMS TO FACILITATE DECISION**  
174 **MAKING AT DIFFERENT SCALES**

175 To influence biofuel management practices, science needs to be integrated into decision-  
176 making processes before decisions are formed and implemented. To influence decisions  
177 about bioenergy crops and their management, models need to be constructed and tested  
178 so that they reflect the fact that all potential biofuel crops have costs and benefits with  
179 respect to socioeconomic systems as well as ecosystem services. The regional-ecology  
180 approach should take into consideration possible competition with current social and  
181 economic activities, organizations, methods of production, and infrastructures that serve  
182 the population of the region and that help provide livelihoods. For example, such an  
183 approach should consider not only land-management activities and how they might affect  
184 ecological systems but also how farmers might be able to use the equipment, seeds,  
185 processing plants, and labor pool they already have.

186

187 A series of independent regional studies will help foster development of understanding  
188 about general ecological, societal, and economic principles and processes, particularly  
189 how, when, and where they operate across regions. Because these ecological, societal,  
190 and economic processes will differ across regions, the details of implementing biofuel  
191 production and the tradeoffs that will need to be made will also vary from region to  
192 region. In many cases, science will be able to provide information to identify tradeoffs  
193 and to guide decisions. There will be some places where biofuel crops can be grown  
194 sustainably and some where they cannot. In many cases, such judgments about crop  
195 sustainability will need to be made not for entire regions but for fractions of the  
196 landscape. These areas and the percentages of suitable land for biofuel-feedstock  
197 production will differ by region and will be determined by landscape quality, current and  
198 past land use, and socioeconomic capacities of the region.

199

200 Opportunities for research exist at this regional scale, which is less understood than either  
201 smaller or larger scales. The components of the regional-scale ecosystem (water,  
202 nutrients, vegetation, air, biodiversity, landforms, and soil) as well as their interactions  
203 are important to study and model. This research will provide several benefits. It will help  
204 to prioritize the individual components and develop ways to investigate their actions. It  
205 will lead to new ways to measure the components' salient characteristics. It will also  
206 allow scientists to study the interactions among the components so that the entire system  
207 can be understood. The research process should lead to ways to determine when  
208 sufficient understanding of the ecosystem exists to allow confidence in a resulting  
209 model's ability to predict the reaction of a region to changes that exceed the conditions  
210 for which data have already been collected. Finally, the scientific investigations should  
211 identify several disparate regional-sized units in which comparisons can help formulate a  
212 fundamental understanding of landscape processes and conditions.

213

214 **A CASE STUDY: REGIONAL WATER ISSUES**

215 An example of the research opportunities existing in the regional ecology of biofuel  
216 production is offered by a consideration of the more limited component of water quality,  
217 demand, and supply for biofuel production in the US. Assessing how an expansion of

218 biomass and biofuel production will affect water quality, demand, and supply in a  
219 specific area depends on a wide range of issues that will vary considerably by region.  
220 These issues include existing pressures on water supply, biomass feedstock type and  
221 management, the types of lands devoted to biomass production, precipitation patterns and  
222 climate change, and technical methods used to convert biomass to biofuels. The  
223 overarching consideration that integrates all these issues is what type of ecosystems will  
224 be displaced by biomass production systems and whether the water quality and quantity  
225 effects of these conversions be negative, positive or some combination of both. Increased  
226 areas of crops that are unable to retain soil and nutrients and that require irrigation or high  
227 fertilizer applications could threaten water quality and supply. The synchrony between  
228 plant available nitrogen and crop demand is a critical part of the plant-soil environment  
229 (e.g. Cassman et al. 2002).

230

231 Biofuels based on cellulosic feedstocks such as woody vegetation (e.g., intensive, short-  
232 rotation forestry) or perennial grasses (e.g., switchgrass) have the potential to reduce  
233 storm runoff, soil erosion by water runoff, and nutrient and pesticide exports to surface  
234 and ground waters in agricultural areas. Yet most studies of cellulosic feedstocks have  
235 limited their focus to optimizing growth conditions and output, and relatively few have  
236 examined the impacts of biomass production on water quality and availability. This lack  
237 of data limits our ability to make reliable assessments about future water impacts for  
238 different cellulosic feedstocks suited to the different growing conditions around the  
239 country.

240

#### 241 **Land management and water quality**

242 Application of fertilizers, pesticides, and other agrochemicals has become a standard  
243 practice for the production of both annual and perennial crops, but the needed amount of  
244 these inputs varies greatly by crop type and location. Nutrient runoff from fertilized crops  
245 within river basins has been one of the factors contributing to oxygen-deprived “dead  
246 zones” that threaten marine life (e.g., in the Gulf of Mexico) (Diaz and Rosenberg 2008).  
247 Studies conducted only at fine scales of plots or fields are not able to capture how  
248 sedimentation and nitrogen and phosphorus concentration at multiple scales are  
249 influenced by various cropping practices (Robertson et al. 2007). Yet at the scale of large  
250 watersheds (e.g., the Mississippi River watershed), farm practices have environmental  
251 effects – such as on the size and extent of the Gulf of Mexico hypoxia zone (Donner and  
252 Kucharik 2008, Dale et al. 2010). The pattern, type, and management of bioenergy crops  
253 can affect coastal eutrophication, either negatively (if crops that require large amounts of  
254 fertilizer are expanded) or positively (if bioenergy crops that need little fertilizer are  
255 planted in large areas or as stream buffers) (Dale et al. 2010). Modeling and field  
256 experiments at intermediate and large scales are needed to characterize the landscape  
257 design for planting and management that would reduce hypoxia conditions and benefit  
258 other ecosystems services. This is a scale-dependent issue because the amount of nutrient  
259 and sediment transported to the Gulf is not simply a direct function of what is coming off  
260 the field but must also include what’s lost along the way as water moves through the  
261 drainage network (Alexander et al. 2000).

262

263 Soil erosion that moves sediments and sediment-bound nutrients and pesticides into  
264 waterways is another factor influencing water quality. About half of the sediment  
265 deposited in U.S. surface waters is estimated to come from cropland erosion (Terrell and  
266 Perfetti 1993). Management practices used on croplands largely determine the extent of  
267 erosion. For example, more intensive agricultural practices, such as tillage of row crops,  
268 over-harvesting of corn stover and other cellulosic residues, or annual crop production on  
269 erodible marginal lands, can cause erosion and sediment deposition in waterways.  
270 Conservation practices with cover crops, vegetative filter strips, and riparian buffers can  
271 substantially reduce nutrient and sediment export in agricultural catchments (Dillaha et  
272 al. 1989, Rasse et al. 2000, Kaspar et al. 2007), and changes to local catchments in which  
273 the management occurs can accumulate into changes for entire watershed (even for areas  
274 as large as the 48% of the U.S. that drains into the Gulf of Mexico).

275  
276 Several studies have used the SWAT (Soil and Water Assessment Tool) watershed-scale  
277 model to predict water quality changes resulting from conversion of corn or other annual  
278 crops to switchgrass in the U.S. Midwest (e.g., Vadas et al. 2008, Nelson et al. 2006).  
279 The SWAT model relies on input from an economic model to identify specific  
280 agricultural lands for conversion to switchgrass on the basis of growth conditions and an  
281 assumed crop price. Modeling studies for Iowa, Kansas and the upper Mississippi River  
282 valley suggest that 17 to 43% of current cropland could potentially be converted to  
283 switchgrass, resulting in erosion rate reductions from 20% to more than 90% and  
284 nitrogen- and phosphorus-export reductions of up to 60% if fertilizers are not used.  
285 However, nitrogen and phosphorus export from switchgrass fields is highly dependent on  
286 how fertilizer is applied. Future research should focus on land-use designs, site  
287 preparation, use of cover crops, and fertilizer and pesticide management approaches that  
288 minimize surface runoff, erosion, and the export of sediments, nutrients, and pesticides  
289 from biofuel feedstock crops. To reduce or eliminate the need for fertilizer inputs in  
290 bioenergy crops, future research should also include understanding molecular  
291 mechanisms underlying plant-root, fungal, and microbial-community symbioses that  
292 enhance plant-nutrient availability. Finally, there are very few watershed-scale field  
293 studies that provide real-world data that can be used to validate the model results showing  
294 water quality benefits of conversion to cellulosic bioenergy crops, and such studies are  
295 urgently needed.

296  
297 Despite a long history of forestry research, few studies have examined the water-quality  
298 impacts of intensive, short-rotation silviculture for bioenergy production. Conversion of  
299 unmanaged forests to biomass production for biofuels could produce negative effects,  
300 depending on where those lands are located and how they are managed. An East Texas  
301 study of intensive-forestry impacts indicated significant increases in storm runoff,  
302 erosion, and nutrient loss relative to reference sites, but the impacts were highly variable  
303 over time because of the influences of the harvest cycle and weather and varied with  
304 management practices such as site preparation, burning, fertilization, and harvesting  
305 (McBroom et al. 2008a, McBroom et al. 2008b).

306  
307 **Water demand and supply**

308 In the US, agriculture is the second largest consumer of water from aquifers and surface  
309 supplies (blue water) and is the major industry using water stored in soil and transpired  
310 by plants (green water) (Falkenmark and Rockstrom 2006). The future biofuel  
311 production industry will create new demands on the quantity of water used by agriculture  
312 and production forestry. Globally, commercial bioenergy production is projected to  
313 consume 18 to 46% of the current agricultural use of water by the year 2050 (Berndes  
314 2002). New tools are needed to account for these demands and to guide management  
315 strategies as the nation implements sustainable biofuel production. Water requirements  
316 for processing biomass into biofuel are also important, but the quantity of water  
317 consumed by processing facilities is considerably less than that consumed by crop  
318 cultivation, and the efficiency of water use in biorefineries continues to increase (Wu et  
319 al. 2009, Robertson et al. 2007).

320

321 In many parts of the US, the agricultural sector already faces water shortages. In the arid  
322 west, agricultural withdrawals account for 65 to 85% of total water withdrawals (Hutson  
323 et al. 2004, data analyzed by ERS). In the east, supplies are under pressure from  
324 competing uses, especially in periods of drought. Although overall water use in the US  
325 decreased in 1985 and has remained steady since then (Hutson et al. 2004), efficiency  
326 improvements are still possible in irrigation and other use sectors.

327

328 The amount of both green and blue water needed for a biofuel-based energy supply is  
329 greater than that used historically by the fossil-fuel-based economy. For instance, the  
330 consumptive water use in corn based bioethanol is about 4 gallons of water per gallon of  
331 ethanol compared to consumptive water use of about 1.5 gallons/gallon for typical  
332 petroleum refining (Pate et al. 2007). Other biorefinery technologies have various  
333 consumptive uses (volume water /volume fuel) of water. Current estimates for cellulosic  
334 conversion to ethanol and for thermochemical conversion range from 2 to 6  
335 gallons/gallon (Pate et al. 2007). These figures do not include either green or blue water  
336 used for feedstock production or blue water used for petroleum extraction. Blue water  
337 use can range from zero for feedstocks grown without irrigation to very high values such  
338 as the estimate of 780 L/L for irrigated corn grown in Nebraska (NAS 2008).

339

340 The data needed to assess future impacts of cellulosic feedstock production on the water  
341 supply will require investigation of mixed agricultural systems that vary by location and  
342 could be difficult to monitor. Although some water inputs from rainfall or irrigation are  
343 incorporated into crop biomass, most are lost through evapotranspiration (ET, soil  
344 evaporation and plant transpiration), runoff to surface waters, or infiltration of ground  
345 water. ET rates vary by crop, and perennial bioenergy crops (both woody and  
346 herbaceous) have shown higher ET and less infiltration than have annual crops or natural  
347 ecosystems (Rowe et al. 2009, Robertson et al. 2011). One concern is a reduction in  
348 stream baseflows with conversion of agricultural lands (particularly pasture and other  
349 low-intensity agriculture) to perennial bioenergy crops. However, modeling for ET and  
350 water use of different crops, which has largely been limited to the field scale, has shown  
351 that expansion of perennial crops did not decrease water flow to streams, rivers, lakes,  
352 and groundwater. A SWAT modeling study in Minnesota (Folle and Mulla 2009) showed  
353 only a 0.35% decrease in streamflow when 27% of the watershed was converted to



354 switchgrass instead of conventional crops. Methods for linking data from the field scale  
355 to the watershed level are needed to validate these modeled results.

356  
357 Analysis of benefits and costs of future bioenergy feedstock production will better  
358 represent water-resource tradeoffs when carried out on a watershed basis. Combining  
359 life-cycle analyses and environmental-cost accounting with watershed hydrologic and  
360 water-quality modeling will provide appropriate tools for the analysis of the water  
361 requirements of biofuel conversion plants and their needed feedstock supplies.

362  
363 Research is under way at the watershed-scale level to develop the methods needed  
364 (Steiner et al. 2008) to understand the implications of future biofuel production on  
365 systems and make science-based decisions that will lead to greater sustainability. Also,  
366 results of forest conversion experiments from long-term monitoring catchments (e.g.,  
367 gauged catchments on experimental forest within the U.S. Forest Service) are providing  
368 historical data that can be used for improved models. Research is needed to expand  
369 methods and information systems to extend evapotranspiration, runoff, and infiltration  
370 models from watershed scales to greater regional scales across the entire country.  
371 Furthermore, the combination of life cycle analysis and environmental cost accounting  
372 with watershed hydrological and water-quality modeling will provide improved tools for  
373 analyzing the water requirements of feedstock supplies as well as biofuel conversion  
374 plants. A critical research need is to examine how the expansion of biofuels and more  
375 intensive agriculture will affect the water cycle and future precipitation patterns,  
376 especially within the context of the uncertainty in future climate change.

### 377 378 **RESEARCH OPPORTUNITIES**

379 Within this regional framework of scientific inquiry, four pressing research needs can be  
380 identified.

381

382 (1) Understanding the data and knowledge requirements for quantitative modeling is  
383 necessary to improve projections of different land management practices on the delivery  
384 of ecosystem services. This effort will require adaptation or development of models that  
385 reflect the effects of converting agricultural crops, forests, and other land uses to  
386 bioenergy feedstock production under a variety of management conditions. The model  
387 projections must be validated with data obtained from watershed-scale field studies.  
388 Developing such an understanding will also enable determining the influence of future  
389 climate change scenarios on hydrology and bioenergy production and the potential  
390 impact of landscape alteration due to fuel crop conversion on local precipitation and other  
391 weather variables.

392

393 (2) Understanding the impact of biofuel production on the many aspects of sustainability  
394 will improve via adaptive management. It will require field trials that generate near real-  
395 time data for identifying the impact of bioenergy crop production on environmental  
396 parameters and expansion of models to include these new data. Furthermore, linking  
397 watershed-scale field research and modeling of water quantity and quality with

398 information on soil processes, crop growth, and biodiversity fosters more accurate  
399 projections of the effects of biomass management options.

400

401 (3) Improvements are needed in approaches to bioenergy feedstock management at a  
402 regional scale. New approaches need to be developed for agricultural and silvicultural  
403 land-use design and management practices that reduce runoff of sediments, nutrients,  
404 pesticides, or other inputs; that minimize the greenhouse gas emissions from current and  
405 future cropping systems; and that enhance the delivery of biodiversity services such as  
406 pollination and biological pest control. Integrated decision-making tools at farm,  
407 regional, watershed, state, and national levels can be developed by integrating data from  
408 appropriate spatial and temporal scales of water use, supply, and quality. Strategies for  
409 site preparation, management, and harvesting for bioenergy crops and forestlands can be  
410 developed to protect and improve water quality; to mitigate greenhouse gas  
411 concentrations in the atmosphere; and to enhance other services provided by agricultural  
412 landscapes.

413

414 (4) Landscape ecology approaches at regional scales need to be applied in order to  
415 develop an understanding of relationships among diverse processes. Analytical  
416 frameworks can be designed for regional-scale ecological models. These models can  
417 then be linked with biophysical and economic models to understand how key aspects of  
418 bioenergy production affect the multifunctional roles of agricultural and forest  
419 landscapes. Finally, regional models can also enable the evaluation of management  
420 options for climate change scenarios.

421

422 Conducting broad-scale research requires both a plan and a focus on regional effects of  
423 bioenergy decisions. Critical thinking should be carried out for all the other components  
424 of the regional-scale ecology of biofuel production and consider sustainability from  
425 cradle to grave of the fuel cycle as compared to effects of using other sources of energy.  
426 Biofuel-production research directions and agendas should be developed for those other  
427 components, as is discussed here for U.S. water quality, demand, and supply. It is only  
428 with the full system perspective at appropriate scales for considering effects and decision  
429 making that sustainability of the bioenergy system can be addressed.

430

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