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Corresponding Author: Dr. Domenico Ronga, Ph.D.

Corresponding Author's Institution:

First Author: Domenico Ronga, Ph.D.

Order of Authors: Domenico Ronga, Ph.D.; Tommaso Gallingani; Massimo Zaccardelli; Domenico Perrone; Enrico Francia; Justyna Milc; Nicola Pecchioni

Abstract: Sustainable agriculture aims to reduce its environmental impact. The adoption of organic farming is becoming increasingly widespread for field and horticultural crops as one of the leading sustainable farming systems. In this research, a Life Cycle Assessment (LCA) analysis was applied to investigate the actual environmental impact of processing tomato production, in the organic (OS) vs the conventional cropping systems (CS), in a specialized Mediterranean area in Southern Italy for three consecutive years. The study compared the global warming potential (GWP; in term of kg CO₂-eq) and primary energy demand (PED; in term of MJ) of processing tomato produced in the two systems. Our results indicate that GWP recorded in OS was on average -40% compared to CS when 1 hectare was adopted as a functional unit (FU). On the other hand, GWP was on average +22% in the OS than in CS if using 1 ton of marketable fruits as FU. A similar impact, highly depending on the choice of the FU, was registered for PED as average of three years. OS showed -38% vs +28% PED than CS, using 1 ha vs. 1 t of marketable fruit. Pesticide and fungicide applications, and soil tillage had the highest impacts among management inputs on GWP and PED, in both farming systems. Hence, the environmental efficiency of these practices should be largely improved in the production of processing tomato if aiming to sustainable farming. In conclusion, the differences of sustainability observed between the two farming systems were mainly due to the far lower marketable yield recorded in the OS vs the CS. Therefore, the priority future challenge of organic tomato farming should be the reduction of the yield gap between the OS and the CS, through the development of both new genotypes and of innovative management methods, designed to reduce the gap, but not increasing the environmental impacts on the agro-ecosystem.

Suggested Reviewers: Konstadinos Abeliotis
kabeli@hua.gr

Benyamin Khoshnevisan
b_khoshnevisan@ut.ac.ir

Julia Martínez-Blanco
julia.martinez@uab.cat

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5
6
7

8 **Author names and affiliations**

9 Domenico Ronga^{a*}, Tommaso Gallingani^{a,b*}, Massimo Zaccardelli^c, Domenico Perrone^d, Enrico Francia^a,
10 Justyna Milc^a, Nicola Pecchioni^{a,e}.
11
12
13

14
15 ^aDipartimento di Scienze della Vita, Università degli studi di Modena e Reggio Emilia, Via Amendola n. 2,
16 42122 Reggio Emilia (RE), Italy.

17 e-mail: domenico.ronga@unimore.it

18 e-mail: enrico.francia@unimore.it

19 e-mail: justynaanna.milc@unimore.it

20
21 ^bpresent address: Dipartimento di Ingegneria Industriale, Università degli studi di Bologna, Viale del
22 Risorgimento 2, 40136 Bologna (BO), Italy.

23 e-mail: tommaso.gallingani@unibo.it

24
25 ^cCREA-OF, Consiglio per la ricerca in agricoltura e l'analisi dell'economia agraria, Centro di ricerca
26 orticoltura e florovivaismo, Via Dei Cavalleggeri, n. 25, 84098 Pontecagnano (SA), Italy.

27 e-mail: massimo.zaccardelli@crea.gov.it

28
29 ^dCREA-DC, Consiglio per la ricerca in agricoltura e l'analisi dell'economia agraria, Centro di ricerca difesa
30 e certificazione, sede di Battipaglia, SS 18 km 77,700, 84091 Battipaglia (SA), Italy.

31 e-mail: domenico.perrone@crea.gov.it

32
33 ^eCREA-CI Consiglio per la ricerca in agricoltura e l'analisi dell'economia agraria, Centro di ricerca
34 cerealicoltura e colture industriali, S.S. 673 km 25,200 - 71122 Foggia, Italy

35 e-mail: nicola.pecchioni@crea.gov.it
36
37

38 *These authors contributed equally to this work
39

40 **Corresponding author**

41 Domenico Ronga

42 Department of Life Sciences, University of Modena and Reggio Emilia, Via Amendola, n. 2, 42122 Reggio
43 Emilia (RE), Italy.

44 e-mail: domenico.ronga@unimore.it
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Abstract

Sustainable agriculture aims to reduce its environmental impact. In this research, a Life Cycle Assessment (LCA) analysis was applied to investigate the actual environmental impact of processing tomato production, in the organic (OS) *vs* the conventional cropping systems (CS), in a specialized Mediterranean area in Southern Italy for three consecutive years. The study compared the global warming potential (GWP; in term of kg CO₂-eq) and primary energy demand (PED; in term of MJ) of processing tomato produced in the two systems. Our results indicate that GWP recorded in OS was on average -40% compared to CS when 1 hectare was adopted as a functional unit (FU). On the other hand, GWP was on average +22% in the OS than in CS if using 1 ton of marketable fruits as FU. A similar impact, highly depending on the choice of the FU, was registered for PED as average of three years. OS showed -38% *vs* +28% PED than CS, using 1 ha *vs*. 1 t of marketable fruit. Pesticide and fungicide applications, and soil tillage had the highest impacts among management inputs on GWP and PED, in both farming systems. Hence, the environmental efficiency of these practices should be largely improved in the production of processing tomato if aiming to sustainable farming. In conclusion, the differences of sustainability observed between the two farming systems were mainly due to the far lower marketable yield recorded in the OS *vs* the CS. Therefore, the priority future challenge of organic tomato farming should be the reduction of the yield gap between the OS and the CS, through the development of both new genotypes and of innovative management methods, designed to reduce the gap, but not increasing the environmental impacts on the agro-ecosystem.

Keywords: LCA, organic cropping system, conventional cropping system, processing tomato, global warming potential, primary energy demand

Abbreviations: OS = organic cropping system; CS = conventional cropping system

1. Introduction

1 The search for food security, after the growing concerns about the increase of world population and its
2 impact on climate change, in most cases is not considering the problem of greenhouse gases (GHGs)
3 emissions. In fact, one of the most impelling challenges for agriculture is how to improve the food yield
4 without increasing the GHGs. Agriculture is one of the economic sectors contributing to the production of
5 GHGs emissions (IPCC, 2014): hence, one of the priorities in the international agricultural policy agenda is
6 to guarantee the growth of crop yield while limiting its carbon footprint (Alexandratos and Bruinsma, 2012).
7 Since chemical products are not allowed in the organic cropping system (OS), this could be an alternative
8 and more sustainable method for the production of the crops (Bender and van der Heijden, 2015),
9 contributing to the reduction of GHGs (Scialabba and Hattam, 2002).

10 In the last years, the request of organic foods increased around the world (Dias et al., 2015). The consumers
11 are attracted by its promise of healthier as of more sustainable foods. An interesting study based on a meta-
12 analysis of 343 peer-reviewed publications showed that the organic crops, compared to the non-organic ones
13 have on average higher concentrations of antioxidant compounds, lower concentrations of cadmium and
14 lower incidence of pesticide residues in their edible organs (Barański et al., 2014).

15 Nevertheless, consumers may not have access to credible information about the real environmental impacts
16 of the organic as of other cropping systems (Meisterling et al., 2009 and Nilsson et al., 2004), and large
17 studies for the different crops are required to verify if that promise of higher sustainability and lower GHGs
18 impacts are really met or not. A possible way to investigate the environmental impact of agricultural
19 processes is Life Cycle Assessment (LCA). The LCA methodology is worldwide accepted and appreciated
20 because it allows an objective measurement of environmental performances of products and processes
21 (Badino and Baldo, 1998; Guinée, 2002). In fact, according to the ISO 14040 standards (ISO, 2006), LCA is
22 defined as an objective technique to assess the potential environmental impacts.

23 In the last years, many studies compared the OS and the CS, showing a wide variation for their
24 environmental impacts (Tuomisto et al., 2012a; Tuomisto et al., 2012b; Williams et al., 2010). In general,
25 across crops, OS minimizes the pollution effects on the agro-environment, it maintains healthier and fertile
26 soils (Mehdizadeh et al., 2013), where it increases the soil carbon stocks (Jastrow et al., 2007; Tuomisto et
27 al. 2012a). Moreover, the OS was shown to improve other soil characteristics through the higher organic
28 matter contents, such as soil biodiversity (Mader et al., 2002); OS also helps to reduce erosion and nutrient
29 leaching (Hansen et al., 2001). On the other hand, OS generally showed lower yields due to lesser use of
30 external inputs, with a higher presence of pests and weeds (Köpke et al., 2008). An interesting meta-analysis
31 study that compared the environmental impacts of the OS and the CS in Europe, showed that OS reduces
32 environmental impact *per* unit of area but, due to lower yield, more land use is required; moreover,
33 contrasting results were shown *per* product unit (Tuomisto et al. 2012a).

34 Some studies performed in the CS, compared the agronomical (Elherradi et al., 2005; Hargreaves et al.,
35 2008; Odlare et al., 2008; Poudel et al., 2001) and the environmental (Blengini, 2008; Hansen et al., 2006;
36 Lundie and Peters, 2005; Martínez-Blanco et al., 2009; Ruggieri et al., 2009; Tidåker et al., 2007)

performances of organic and mineral fertilizers. Other studies compared the OS and the CS (Dalgaard et al., 2001; Haas et al., 2001; Meisterling et al., 2009; Refsgaard et al., 1998), studying the related environmental impacts in different crops.

As regards wheat, Tuomisto et al. (2012b) reported that the CS had the higher PED and GWP, both *per* unit of area and *per* product unit, than the OS; nevertheless, combining the best practices from the OS and the CS, the authors conclude being possible to maintain a satisfactory yield level reducing the environmental impacts.

Unfortunately, the comparison studies between the two farming systems (OS vs CS) that could quantify their difference in environmental impacts rarely dealt with tomato for fresh market and industry, and in particular not with processing tomato cropped in the same area, using the same soil type, the same weather conditions and genotypes.

However, if analyzing the importance of horticultural crops, tomato is the second crop in term of economic value and the first processed vegetable in the World (Gould, 2013), thus playing a key role in the human diet (Brandt et al., 2006). In addition, Southern Europe is the second producer of processing tomato worldwide (Milteneburg, 2015) and Italy is the main producer in Europe with almost 4.5 million tons per year (Bacenetti et al., 2015).

Therefore, we aimed to study the LCA of processing tomato cropped in the OS vs the CS in very similar soil type and climatic conditions. The study was performed in a highly specialized Mediterranean environment, through three years of field trials, to identify the steps that might reduce the energy use and GHGs emissions for improving sustainability of processing tomato management in Southern Europe.

2. Materials and methods

The LCA analysis was used, considering the entire life cycle “at farm gate”, providing a method to evaluate yield obtained with two different cropping systems (OS vs CS), without considering the following steps of the supply chain of the different tomato-based foods (concentrated, peeled, dried, etc.). LCA calculates the environmental impact at each stage in the life cycle taking into account upstream environmental flows.

2.1 Functional unit and system boundary

One hectare (1 ha) of the crop was used as a functional unit (FU) to study the potential environmental impacts of processing tomato production. Furthermore, we also report the results of the environmental impact of the organic and the conventional processing tomato based on 1 ton (1 t) of marketable fruit, in term of fresh weight. In the present study, both FUs were used as a reference for input and output flows normalization (ISO, 2006). The use of both functional units could improve the assessment of environmental results (Abeliotis et al., 2013; Khoshnevisan et al., 2014). Figure 1 shows the stages considered for LCA in the two investigated cropping systems. The broad system object of study required a detailed data collection recorded for each operation done on both cropping systems. Most of these data were obtained experimentally in the open field. When experimental and local information was not available, bibliographical sources were used to complete the life cycle inventory.

2.2 Categories of impact and LCA methodology

A life cycle analysis approach at the farm gate was performed. Global warming potential (GWP) was adopted as the impact category for this study. Functional units expressed in kg CO₂-equivalents (CO₂-eq), were obtained using Tier 2 methodologies recommended by the IPPC (2006). Moreover, the primary energy demand (PED), expressed in MJ, was investigated *per* functional unit as well.

2.3 Life cycle inventory

In our study, real experimental data, collected in open field during three years (2010-2012) in Southern Europe, were used.

The present study took into account all the supply-chain stages of processing tomato production, both in the OS and in the CS. The study considered the process from the soil tillage of transplanting bed preparation to the harvest of the fruits at 85% of maturity and all the inputs related to each agricultural operation.

The amounts of fuel as well as the types of farm equipments (such as the power of the agricultural machinery) used during the cultivation, were recorded in both cropping systems and then used for the analysis.

Most data related to energy consumption were recorded during the crop growth cycles, in addition, data from available, published studies were used, in particular those regarding electrical energy (EPA, 2014; Pehnt, 2006), gasoline and lubricant (Furuholt, 1995; Cuevas, 2005), and fertilizer production (Skowrońska and Filipek, 2013; Hesq and Jenssen 2010). For the assessment of electrical Italian energy, data published by IEA (2012) were considered for the 3-year period (2010-2012). Finally, emissions from diesel combustion were referred to EEA (2013) emission guidebook for off-road machineries.

2.3.1 Data of mineral fertilizers production and transport

Inputs in terms of the unit of fertilizers (N–P–K) were based on soil analysis (Ronga et al. 2017) and crop nutrient requirements. The present study compared the OS *vs* the CS; therefore, the doses of fertilizers were calculated by taking into account the real crop request, considering the nutrient concentration already present in the soils and the nitrogen content in the water well administrated, reaching the same quantity of total nitrogen (150 N kg ha⁻¹) in both cropping systems. In the OS, potassium and other micronutrient content in the soil were sufficient for the crop development; thus, no other doses were applied. Organic and mineral nitrogen fertilizers were used in the OS and the CS, respectively. For all transports, the distances were considered twice to take into account the return trip, except for the case of mineral fertilizers transport due to the efficiency of international transport platforms.

2.3.2 Data of the agricultural practices

Data on agricultural management were recorded in two experimental fields located in the Sele Valley, in Battipaglia (Salerno District, Italy), one of the major areas for the production of processing tomato and its transformation in the Country.

The production was done following the best available techniques for the organic and the conventional management. Six modern cultivars of processing tomato commonly used in Southern Italy were cultivated during Spring and Summer 2010-2012 in the OS (40°36' N; 14°56' E) and in the CS (40°35' N; 14° 58' E).

1 Both cropping systems had very similar soil types, classified as Typic Haplox-erepts (Staff, 1996). Each
2 replicate was 4.0 x 5.0 m and contained 60 plants. Planting was done using seedlings at the fourth true leaf
3 stage at a plant density of 3 plants m⁻² using a randomized complete block design with three replicates in
4 both cropping systems.
5

6 The agronomical management was the same reported by Ronga et al. (2015). In addition, the amount of
7 water supply for irrigation was based on crop evapotranspiration for both environments. A total of 370, 400
8 and 400 mm of irrigation water was applied in 2010, 2011 and 2012 respectively, by drip irrigation. Weeds
9 and pests were controlled according to the production rules of Campania Region, Italy. Weather parameters
10 (minimum and maximum temperature and rainfall) were recorded at both locations and were very similar
11 during the crop cycle (T min 16.1 °C, T max 29.3 °C, rainfall 6.4 mm, in the OS; T min 17.6 °C, T max, 28.5
12 °C, rainfall 6.5 mm, in the CS).
13

14 The parameters recorded in each cropping system were analyzed by ANOVA using GenStat 17th edition
15 software. The analysis of variance reports the average genotypic values recorded. Differences between the
16 means were analyzed using the Duncan test at P < 0.05.
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23 **2.3.3 Irrigation and Fertigation**

24 Water, fertilizers and phytosanitary agrochemicals were supplied using a standard infrastructure in each
25 cropping system. Tanks, centrifugal pumps and pipes for dissolving fertilizers and channeling the water and
26 nutrients, electro-valves for controlling dosage and a network of integrated drip pipes constituted the
27 fertigation system.
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29 The electricity required by pump of 2.7 kW, to pump water and nutrient in the fertigation system, was
30 considered in the analysis. For irrigation scheduling in quantity and times, evapotranspiration of the crop
31 (ETc) was calculated as $ETc = ETo \times Kc$, where ETo (reference evapotranspiration) was considered
32 according to Hargreaves and Samani (1985), and Kc was the crop coefficient of tomato, as reported by Allen
33 et al. (1998), adjusted for the environmental conditions. In each plot, 100% of ETc was restored when 40%
34 of total available water was depleted, according to the evapotranspiration method of Doorenbos and Pruitt
35 (1977).
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43 **2.3.4 Phytosanitary treatments**

44 The type and the amount of agrochemicals were applied following the European and Regional regulations for
45 the organic and the conventional crop managements, respectively. Each cropping system required foliar spry
46 applications for the control of biotic stresses. As regards the pathogen and pest control, only fungicides
47 (sulphur and copper oxy-chloride) and pesticides (azadirachtin A, spinosad and pyrethrins) admitted in
48 organic agriculture were used in the OS, while common and additional fungicides (sulphur, copper
49 oxychloride, difenoconazole and aluminum-fosetil) and pesticides (azadirachtin A, imidacloprid, spinosad,
50 abamectin and emamectin benzoate), admitted in conventional agriculture, were used in the CS. The main
51 pests and pathogens observed in both cropping systems were: aphids, tomato leaf miner, common red spider,
52 tomato leaf spot fungus and tomato early blight.
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60 **2.3.5 Post-application emissions**

1 Direct emissions from fertilizer administration and soil management were calculated according to the method
2 described in the 2006 Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change Guidelines for National Greenhouse Gas
3 Inventories applying Tier 1 method (IPCC, 2006). An emission of 0.01 kg of N₂O for each kg of N applied to
4 the field was considered. Using this approach, 0.85 kg of direct emission of N₂O ha⁻¹ for the organic
5 cultivation (85 kg N ha⁻¹ in the OS) and 1.5 kg of direct emission of N₂O ha⁻¹ for the conventional cropping
6 systems (150 kg N ha⁻¹ in the CS) for each year were considered.
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9 In this research, crop residues emissions were considered according to equation 11.6 (IPCC, 2006). Data on
10 crop residues were reported in Table 1. The indirect N₂O emissions were considered according to the Tier 1
11 method (IPPC, 2006) taking into account also the atmospheric deposition of N volatilized from soil
12 management, soil leaching and runoff.
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15 **2.3.6 Management of waste generated in the production stage**

16 As previously mentioned, only the waste generated by production, such as non-yield biomass (leaves, stems
17 and roots) and non-commercial tomatoes (unripe fruits), were considered in the inventory.
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20 **2.3.7 Omitted process**

21 Our goal, as said before, was to uncover differences between the OS and the CS. In the OS and the CS some
22 agricultural operations were the same for both cropping systems. Therefore, omitting them did not affect the
23 GWP and PED differences between the two cropping systems, as reported by Meisterling et al. (2009).
24 Impact of seed, seedling and pipeline production on the production of processing tomato, was similar in both
25 cropping systems and was omitted from this analysis. In addition, in the present study, the contributions of
26 the manufacture and maintenance of farm equipment, the production of pesticides and fertigation systems,
27 their transport and their waste management were not considered. Moreover, as both the OS and the CS
28 produced tomatoes are putatively allocated to the same local transformation industry and market,
29 commercialization and processing of tomato were excluded from the analysis.
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40 **3. Results and Discussion**

41 Agriculture adopts huge amount of energy for agricultural operations contributing to global warming with
42 the emission of carbon dioxide, methane and nitrous oxide. Hence, it is necessary to identify key strategies to
43 mitigate the production of GHGs (Ntinis et al., 2016). Nowadays, in agriculture, the most important
44 challenge is to increase the crop yield to supply food to a growing population, while reducing the carbon
45 footprint. Organic agriculture is often represented as an environmentally sustainable agricultural system; it
46 was therefore our aim to investigate how much it can really decrease, or *vice versa* increase, the carbon
47 footprint of an important horticultural crop for the Mediterranean diet, such as processing tomato, in a suited
48 area of production. Other authors showed the capability of the OS to reduce the carbon footprint of the
49 agroecosystem (Dalgaard et al., 2001; Haas et al. 2001; Meisterling et al, 2009; Refsgaard et al., 1998;
50 Tuomisto et al., 2012a; Tuomisto et al., 2012b), however, our study is the first performed on processing
51 tomato collecting real data in the open field, through three years of field experiment, in two farms located in
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1 the same geographic area, with similar soil characteristics, weather conditions and cropping the same
2 cultivars.

3 The agronomical data and impact of each stage of production were analyzed, to compare the total
4 environmental impact observed in the OS vs the CS, averaged through three years of field trials. Hence, inputs
5 and their variability were discussed to give useful information to farmers, consumers and policymakers
6 following the concept of GWP and PED.
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10 11 **3.1 Yield**

12 Differences for both marketable and total yield were observed in the two cropping systems (Table 1): the OS
13 recorded lower value than the CS (on average across years and cultivars -54% and -55%, respectively). The
14 yields obtained under the organic management, in the present study, were in accordance to the average yields
15 recorded in the similar area (Farneselli et al., 2013 and Ronga et al., 2015). The same observation can be
16 made for the conventional production; similar values were reported, also in other environments, by Martínez-
17 Blanco et al. (2011), Muñoz et al. (2008) and Elia and Conversa (2012).

18 The lower total and leaf biomass (on average -23% and -29%, respectively; Table 1) reached by tomato
19 plants could be among the most important drivers for the reduced yields in the OS. Considering that the total
20 soil nitrogen (expressed as sum of soil content and external input) and volume of water irrigation were the
21 same for both cropping systems in each year, the lower leaf and plant biomass showed by the OS could have
22 been due to the higher incidence of biotic and abiotic stresses such as a lower availability of (organic)
23 nitrogen, higher presence of weeds and diseases (data not shown), as reported by Clark et al. (1999), de Ponti
24 et al. (2012) and Ronga et al. (2017). In addition, current organic farming uses cultivars developed for high
25 input cropping systems, (Lammerts et al, 2011), that could have a different physiological behavior, nutrient
26 use efficiency and yield performance when cultivated in the OS and not in the CS (Ronga et al., 2017). The
27 use of processing tomato cultivars specifically bred for higher adaptation to low input cropping systems
28 could hopefully result in higher yields, and consequently also the GWP and PED might be improved. From
29 an economic point of view, the higher price that is paid by Italian industry for processing tomato cultivated
30 in the OS (on average 135 euro ton⁻¹; +56% in comparison with the conventional product) is helping to
31 reduce the distances; however it is considered not enough to balance the revenue between the two cropping
32 systems (C. Piazza, personal communication).
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48 Finally, the yield gap between the OS vs the CS exists, and it will be shown how this influences the overall
49 environmental sustainability of organic processing tomato, at least in the environment object of this study.
50 Therefore, one of the first challenges for organic processing tomato production is the identification of both
51 appropriate crop rotation and innovative organic fertilizers that timely satisfy the plant nutrient need and take
52 to increase uptakes. A second important goal for the expansion of organic horticulture is the breeding of
53 cultivars specifically suited for the organic systems, *i.e.* more resilient to pests, diseases and weed
54 competition (Dorais and Alsaniuns, 2015).
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3.2 Environmental impact assessment and its interpretation

The influence of each stage of the production on the total impact of the cropping systems (OS vs CS), were assessed. The different stages of agricultural production included all management operations, from soil tillage for preparing the transplanting bed, to the harvest of fruits at 85% of maturity.

The results of GWP of this agricultural process based both on 1 ha and on 1 t of marketable fruit, are reported in Figure 2, while Figure 3 shows the percentage contribution of each stage. Table 2 reports the differences (named delta) of the LCA parameters between the two systems expressed as the percent difference between the OS and the CS. A significant difference between the two cropping systems was observed. However, it has been fundamentally shown that such a difference in environmental impact largely depends on the functional unit considered.

Regards the GWP using 1 ha as FU (Figure 2a and Table 2), the OS showed a far lower impact, on average -40% than the CS (3154.03 kg CO₂-eq ha⁻¹ in the OS vs 5290.74 kg CO₂-eq ha⁻¹ in the CS). On the other hand, taking into account 1 t of marketable fruit as FU (Figure 2b and Table 2), the OS displayed, on average, 67.49 kg CO₂-eq t⁻¹ vs 55.16 kg CO₂-eq t⁻¹ in the CS; thus, the cultivation of 1 t of processing tomato in the OS recorded higher emissions than the CS (on average +22%). As far as the contribution of single stages of the management process, in term of kg CO₂-eq ha⁻¹, the application of fungicides and pesticides, which accounted for approximately 28% of the total, reported the highest impact in the OS. This stage was followed by soil tillage, field emission, irrigation and diesel production, set at 24%, 18%, 13% and 7%, respectively; finally, fertilizer production showed the lowest impact (6%; Figure 3). In the CS, a similar partition was observed. However, in the conventional farming soil tillage had the highest impact (31%), followed by pesticide and fungicide applications with 27%, field emission that contributed, on average, 19%, irrigation with an impact of 8%, diesel production 8% and fertilizer application that reported the lowest impact (3%).

Agriculture is facing challenges of sustainability both in the OS that in the CS, such as improving soil quality, recycling nutrients, enhancing biodiversity and crop yields. Farmers and policy makers should understand where GHGs emissions come from and how to reduce them with the final aim of improving the sustainability of the whole agro-ecosystem (Gunady et al., 2012). Thus, as already reported by Tuomisto et al., (2012b), an improvement in sustainability of soil tillage (such as minimum or strip tillage), fertilization (such as different rotation, use of compost, nitrogen-fixing crops, green manure, etc.) and irrigation management (such as different technique, e.g. partial or deficit irrigation) should be considered with the final objective of decreasing the environmental impacts of processing tomato cultivated in both systems. Moreover, efforts should focus on improving organic yield to reduce the carbon footprint of processing tomato cultivated in the OS (Köpke et al., 2008).

Results regarding primary energy demand based both on 1 hectare and on 1 ton of marketable fruit, the contributions of each stage and the delta results were reported (Figure 4, 5 and Table 2, respectively).

Using 1 ha as FU, the OS reported a far lower impact than the CS, on average -38% (Figure 4a). On the other hand, the average total PED was ca. 793.27 MJ t⁻¹ of marketable fruit obtained in the OS and 617.91 MJ t⁻¹ of

1 marketable fruit obtained in the CS (Figure 4b and Table 2). Analyzing the percentage contributions in term
2 of MJ ha⁻¹ (Figure 5), in the OS the application of fungicides and pesticides stage had the biggest impact on
3 primary energy demand and represented ca. 30% of the total impact. This stage was followed by: soil tillage
4 (27%), irrigation (20%), fertilizer production that contributed, on average, *per* 12%; fertilizer application,
5 whit impact of 8% and diesel production (3%).
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8 In the CS, a similar behavior was observed, although with some notable differences in PED partitioning. Soil
9 tillage was the operation with the biggest impact, responsible for 35% of the total, followed by pesticide and
10 fungicide applications that contributed to 31%, fertilizer production was higher than irrigation, the two
11 accounts for approximately 14% and 12%, respectively. As in the OS, fertilizer application and diesel
12 production were minor contributors, respectively, with 4% and 3% of the total PED impact.
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15 In addition, as reported in Table 2, the OS performed better in term of reduction of the GWP (kg CO₂-eq ha⁻¹,
16 -40%) compared to the reduction of the PED (MJ ha⁻¹, -38%) than the CS. Moreover, pesticide and fungicide
17 applications had the highest impact both on GWP and PED in the OS and the same was for soil tillage in the
18 CS.
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23 Results reported by Brodt et al. (2013) indicate that California-produced conventional and organic tomato
24 paste, and canned diced tomatoes are almost equivalent in term of energy use and GHGs emissions,
25 recording yield of 90 t ha⁻¹ and 85 t ha⁻¹ in the CS and OS, respectively. These yields were obtained using
26 197 and 224 units of N in the CS and in the OS, respectively. Moreover, as far as input of irrigation water ca.
27 800 mm was used. The main difference respects the results reported in the present work was due to the
28 different yield recorded in the OS, -41% in our study compared to the Californian yield obtained in the OS,
29 considering that in the present study 150 units of N and 400 mm of irrigation water *per* hectare were used.
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34 On the other hand, our results regarding total agriculture carbon footprint obtained both in the OS and in the
35 CS are quite in agreement with those reported by Ntinis et al. (2016), even if slight differences as regards
36 pesticides and field N₂O emissions, higher and lower respectively, in our work. These differences were
37 probably due to the different number of foliar spry applications and different management of nitrogen,
38 moreover, both influenced by the different environments investigated (Greece *vs* Italy). Furthermore, the
39 results of the present study of the contribution of each stage regarding the GWP obtained in the CS are in
40 agreement with Martínez-Blanco et al. (2011), apart from mineral fertilizer stage that contributed less in our
41 study. In fact, in our work, less than one third of nitrogen applied in the field was used to reach similar
42 marketable yield.
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50 Focusing the attention on another important crop such as wheat, Tuomisto et al. (2012b) reported lower
51 GWP and PED in the OS both *per* hectare and *per* grain yield and the stage that recorded the highest
52 contribution was field emission. Similar results were highlighted by Meisterling et al. (2009) as regards
53 GWP of 1 kg of bread loaf. The main difference in field emission between processing tomato and wheat was
54 probably due to the different methods of application of the fertilizers. In fact, on processing tomato at top
55 dressing applications the fertilizers are incorporated into the soil or distributed by fertirrigation, reducing the
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1 nitrogen volatilization and hence the field emission, while these two practices are not used in wheat
2 production at top dressing fertilization.

3 The present work offers an important observation on each stage of production, which might help farmers in
4 taking decisions on how to reduce the carbon footprint of processing tomato. In general, pesticide and
5 fungicide applications, soil tillage and field emission were three stages with the highest impact in the
6 contribution of the GWP in both the OS and the CS. Similar behavior was reported also for the impact on
7 PED, except for field emission that was replaced by irrigation. An interesting point emerging from this study
8 relates to the pesticide and fungicide applications that had the highest impact in the OS due to the few
9 fungicides (as foliar sprays) allowed in the OS. In fact, such pathogens as *Septoria lycopersici* Speg. and
10 *Alternariwere alternata* f. sp. *lycopersici* (recorded in the present study), were both difficult to control
11 without the use of systemic products, hence more foliar spry applications were required using only copper.
12 The second interesting point was that CS might reduce the impact of soil tillage, using alternative tillage to
13 plow such as disc harrow.

14 As regards field emission the OS performed almost as well as the CS (18% vs 19%). In fact, the same units
15 of total N were considered for the production in both the cropping systems investigated. The irrigation was
16 another stage with high influence on PED, (Figure 4). Thus, these stages that had a high impact could be
17 improved in future researches.

18 Other interesting issues are represented by the percentage contributions of fertilizer application and irrigation
19 stages that impacted more in the OS than in the CS both in term of GWP and PED due to the fertilizers
20 allowed in the OS that have a lower content of nutrient compared to the fertilizer allowed in the CS (eg.
21 manure vs urea) requiring more quantitative and hence more time to spread the same unit *per* hectare. In
22 addition, as regards irrigation, in the present work some pesticides, allowed in the OS, were injected by
23 fertirrigation increasing the impact. The use of innovative fertility building crop might be a possible strategy
24 to reduce the percentage of impact of both stages, increasing the soil organic carbon and water holding
25 capacity.

26 The production of the processing tomato in the OS showed more sustainable agricultural practices than the
27 CS *per* ha, at least in Southern Italy. However, nowadays is not sustainable to cultivate new areas, even
28 though the production of the processing tomato shows a reduction of the carbon footprint *per* hectare
29 cultivated. Hence the breeding of cultivars suitable for the OS, should be a fundamental point to be
30 persuaded to obtain more rustic genotype, which might tolerate the different biotic and abiotic stresses
31 allowing a reduction of external inputs and an increase of yield minimizing the environmental impact due to
32 the production.

33 As regards the best practices, the intensive use of fertility building crops (Thorup-Kristensen et al., 2012),
34 the application of natural biostimulants such as compost tea (Pane et al., 2012), or plant growth promoting
35 bacteria (Zaccardelli et al., 2010) could be able to improve the nutrient management increasing the plant
36 tolerance to abiotic and biotic stresses in the OS.

Moreover, the use of systems of precision agriculture and decision support could help to improve the crop yield in the OS, investigating the spatial and temporal variability and helping farmers and consultants to apply the best available techniques (Basso et al. 2011; Basso et al., 2013).

The information reported in the present study is notable because it was obtained within the same territory for both cropping systems, enabling the evaluation of variables that have a fundamental role for the production such as weather conditions, soil type and biological resources. Our results could be useful to evaluate the impact of different strategies used in the OS and might be exported to other Mediterranean areas with similar conditions. In addition, these results could help stakeholders to understand better the suitability of LCA tool to develop cropping system strategies, addressing the norms and incentives for farmers that adopt sustainable practices (Tuomisto et al., 2012a). However, as reported by Martínez-Blanco et al. (2011), other indicators such as soil erosion or economic value or quality aspect, should be taken into account in further researches.

Finally, CO₂ labeling is recognizable by the consumers and might represent an important instrument to influence consumer choices, even if consumers alone are not able to drive choices towards products with a low carbon footprint (Theurl et al., 2014). Hence, future researches should improve the carbon footprint of the crops, spreading more and more of these studies, to be able to give scientific support to these labels.

4. Conclusions

In the present study, a comparative LCA of processing tomato cropped in the OS vs the CS in Southern Italy was performed evaluating the differences both in term of GWP (kg CO₂-eq) and PED (MJ). Our results showed that GWP and PED were lower in the OS than the CS when 1 ha of production was used as FU. On the other hand, using 1 ton of marketable fruit as FU, the results changed drastically reporting higher carbon footprint in the OS than in the CS. These differences were due to the fact that the hectare yields obtained in organic system were on average nearly the half of the conventional one, especially for cash crops that were produced in a short crop rotation and in a country where the weather conditions allow the growth of biotic stress throughout the year. Moreover, our results indicate that pesticide and fungicide applications in the OS and soil tillage in the CS are the stages with the major impact, due to the high level of diseases in the former and a high number of soil operation in the latter. Therefore, efforts to improve the environmental impact of processing tomato cropped in the OS should focus primarily on the reduction of the yield gap, by adopting innovative management strategies and new specifically suitable cultivars. Then, efforts should be made to increase the use of precision agriculture and the development of product allowed in the OS, such as the use of biofertilizers and biostimulants in order to alleviate the biotic and abiotic stresses and improving the carbon footprint.

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		Fresh Weight / Dry Weight (t ha⁻¹)	OS	CS
MY		FW	46.44	101.90*
TY		FW	49.90	110.10
	Total	DM	3.16	4.10*
	Leaf	DM	1.79	2.53*
Crop biomass	Unripe fruit	DM	0.16	0.40*
	Stem	DM	0.94	0.91
	Root	DM	0.27	0.26

Table 1. Primary data for the evaluation of emission from crop residues.

(OS = organic cropping system, CS = conventional cropping system, MY = marketable yield (fresh weight), TY = total yield (fresh weight). FW = fresh weight. DM = dry weight. Mean values between column followed by asterisk (*) indicate significant differences at P<0.05 according to Duncan's multiple range test.

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Index	Units	OS	CS
Delta-MY		-54%	
Delta-TY		-55%	
GWP	kg CO ₂ eq ha ⁻¹	3154.03	5290.74
Delta-GWP		-40%	
GWP	kg CO ₂ eq t ⁻¹	67.49	55.16
Delta-GWP		+22%	
PED	MJ ha ⁻¹	37092.22	59364.83
Delta-PED		-38%	
PED	MJ t ⁻¹	793.27	617.91
Delta-PED		+28%	

Table 2. Differential (= Delta) fruit yield and LCA results of processing tomato cultivations in two different cropping systems (OS = organic cropping system, CS = conventional cropping system, MY = marketable yield, TY = total yield).

The authors mutually agree that manuscript **LCA analysis of processing tomato in the organic vs the conventional cropping systems in Southern Italy** should be submitted to Journal of Cleaner Production.

'Declarations of interest: none'

Dear Editor,

please consider the enclosed manuscript **LCA analysis of processing tomato in the organic vs the conventional cropping systems in Southern Italy** for publication in Journal of Cleaner Production.

The present manuscript investigates the Life Cycle Assessment analysis of processing tomato production, in the organic vs the conventional cropping systems, in a specialized Mediterranean area in Southern Italy for three consecutive years. The work was performed in the same territory, hence the two cropping systems had similar soils and weather conditions. Moreover, the same genotypes were cultivated in both the cropping systems. The study compared the global warming potential and primary energy demand in the two cropping systems, focusing the attention on the stages that more affected the production and suggesting solutions to increase the processing tomato sustainability.

This is significant because tomato plays a significant role in the World production and commerce. In addition, nowadays farmers are called to increase the agricultural sustainability and few published papers reported the Life Cycle Assessment comparing processing tomato cropped in the Mediterranean basin using the same genotypes and similar soils and weather conditions. We believe that this manuscript is appropriate for publication by Journal of Cleaner Production because it might contribute to the improvement of processing tomato sustainability and productivity.

This manuscript is an unpublished work.

Authors: Domenico Ronga^{a*}, Tommaso Gallingani^{a,b*}, Massimo Zaccardelli^c, Domenico Perrone^d, Enrico Francia^a, Justyna Milc^a, Nicola Pecchioni^{a,e}.

^aDipartimento di Scienze della Vita, Università degli studi di Modena e Reggio Emilia, Via Amendola n. 2, 42122 Reggio Emilia (RE), Italy.

^bpresent address: Dipartimento di Ingegneria Industriale, Università degli studi di Bologna, Viale del Risorgimento 2, 40136 Bologna (BO), Italy.

^cCREA-OF, Consiglio per la ricerca in agricoltura e l'analisi dell'economia agraria, Centro di ricerca orticoltura e florovivaismo, Via Dei Cavalleggeri, n. 25, 84098 Pontecagnano (SA), Italy.

^dCREA-DC, Consiglio per la ricerca in agricoltura e l'analisi dell'economia agraria, Centro di ricerca difesa e certificazione, sede di Battipaglia, SS 18 km 77,700, 84091 Battipaglia (SA), Italy.

^eCREA-CI Consiglio per la ricerca in agricoltura e l'analisi dell'economia agraria, Centro di ricerca cerealicoltura e colture industriali, S.S. 673 km 25,200 - 71122 Foggia, Italy

Corresponding author for this article is Dr Domenico Ronga at Dipartimento di Scienze della Vita, Università degli studi di Modena e Reggio Emilia, Via Amendola 2 - Padiglione Besta, 42122 Reggio Emilia, Italy, Tel.: +390522522064, fax: +390522522027, e-mail address: domenico.ronga@unimore.it

The authors mutually agree that it should be submitted to Journal of Cleaner Production.

It is the original work of the authors.

The manuscript was not previously submitted to Journal of Cleaner Production and is not under consideration for publication in any other journal.

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Thank you for your consideration of this manuscript.

Yours Sincerely

Domenico Ronga

- Highlights:**
- Pesticide and fungicide applications have the highest impact in the OS
 - Soil tillage has the highest impact in the CS
 - One ha of processing tomato has less impact in the OS than CS
 - More hectares are needed to reach the same food production in the OCS respect the CS
 - One ton of marketable tomato fruit has still a lower carbon footprint in the CS than OS

Figure
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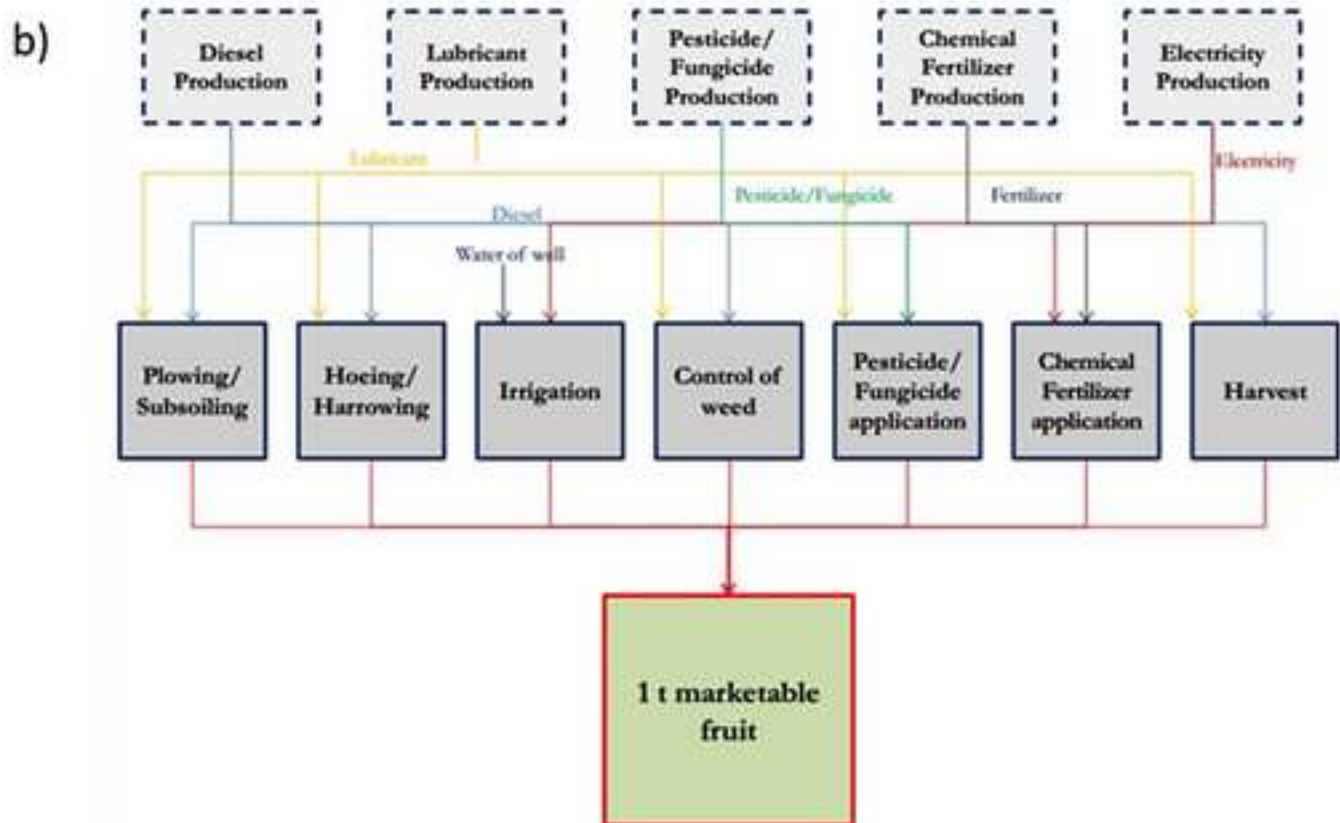
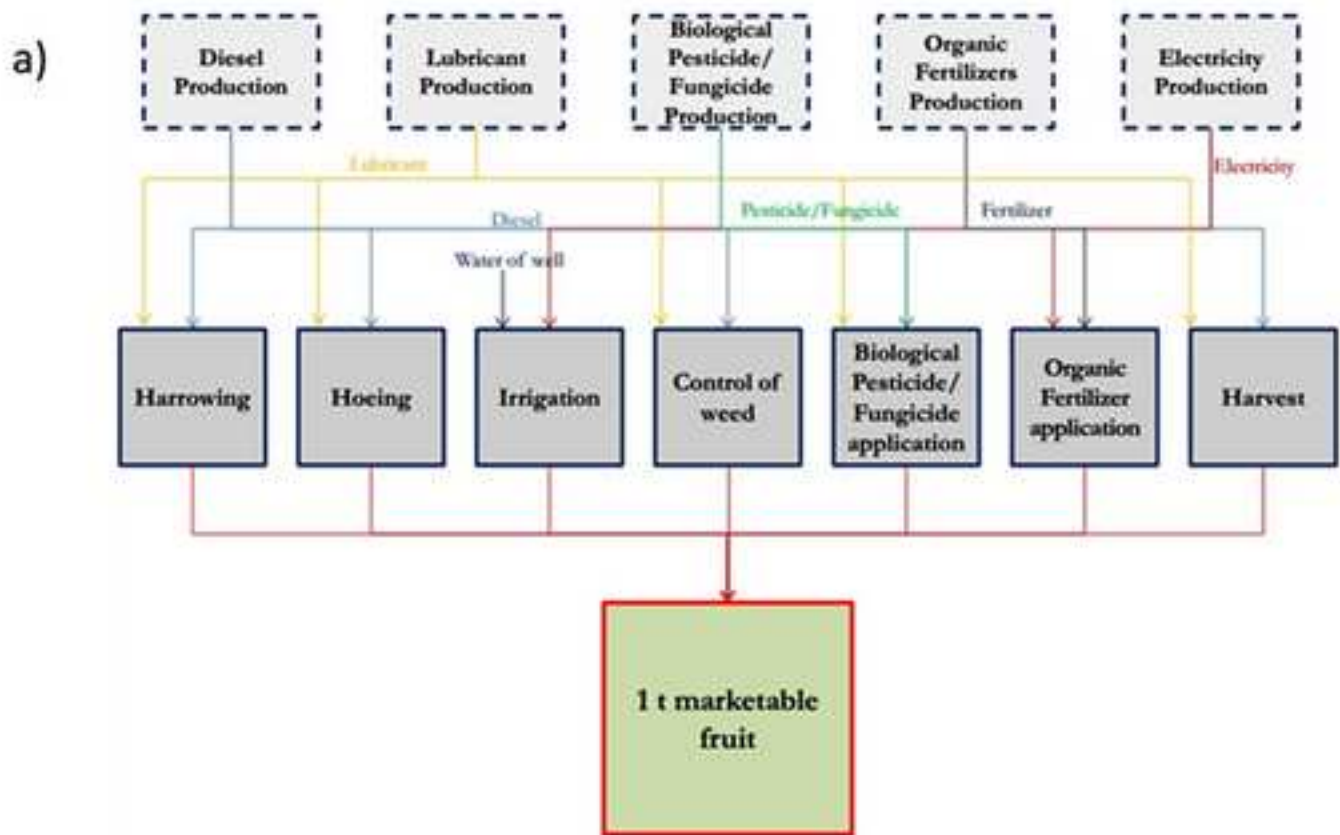


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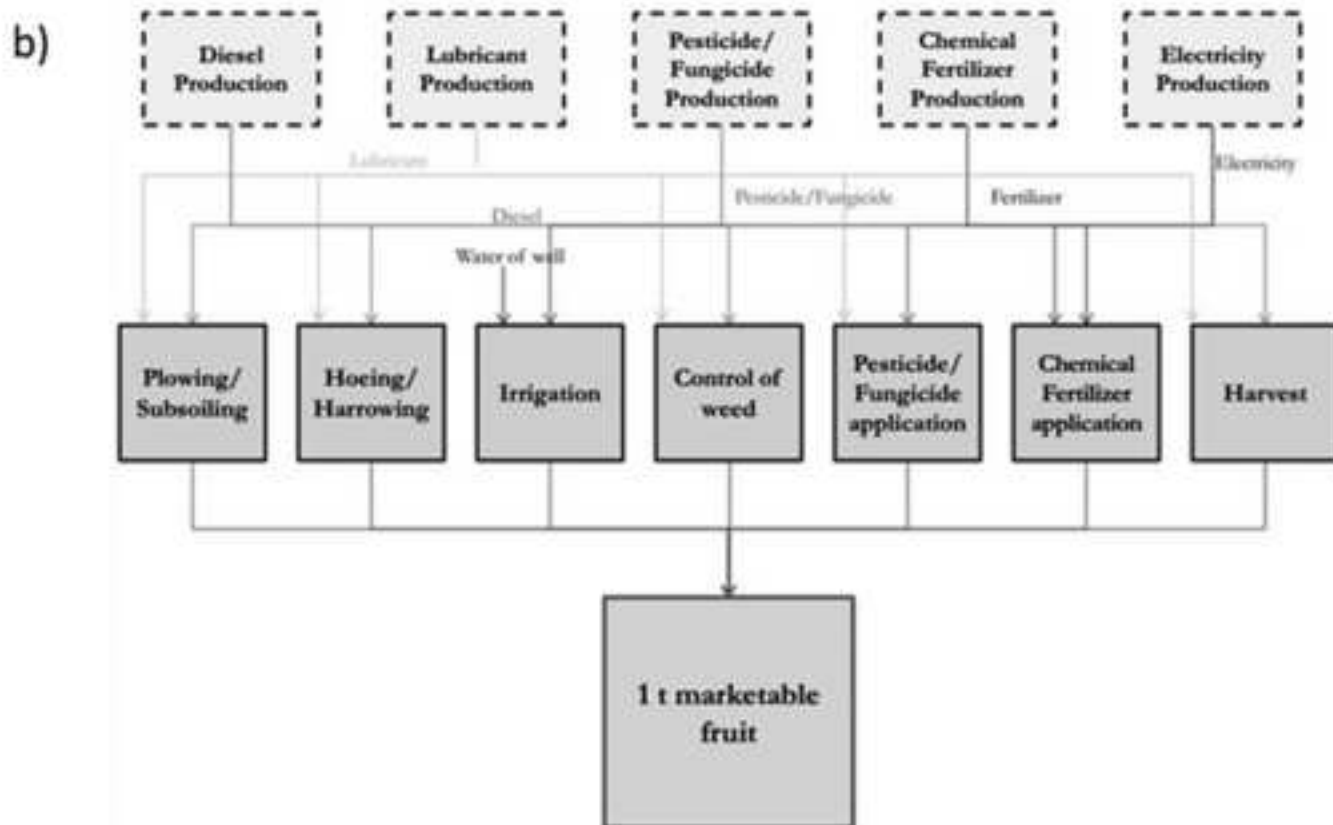
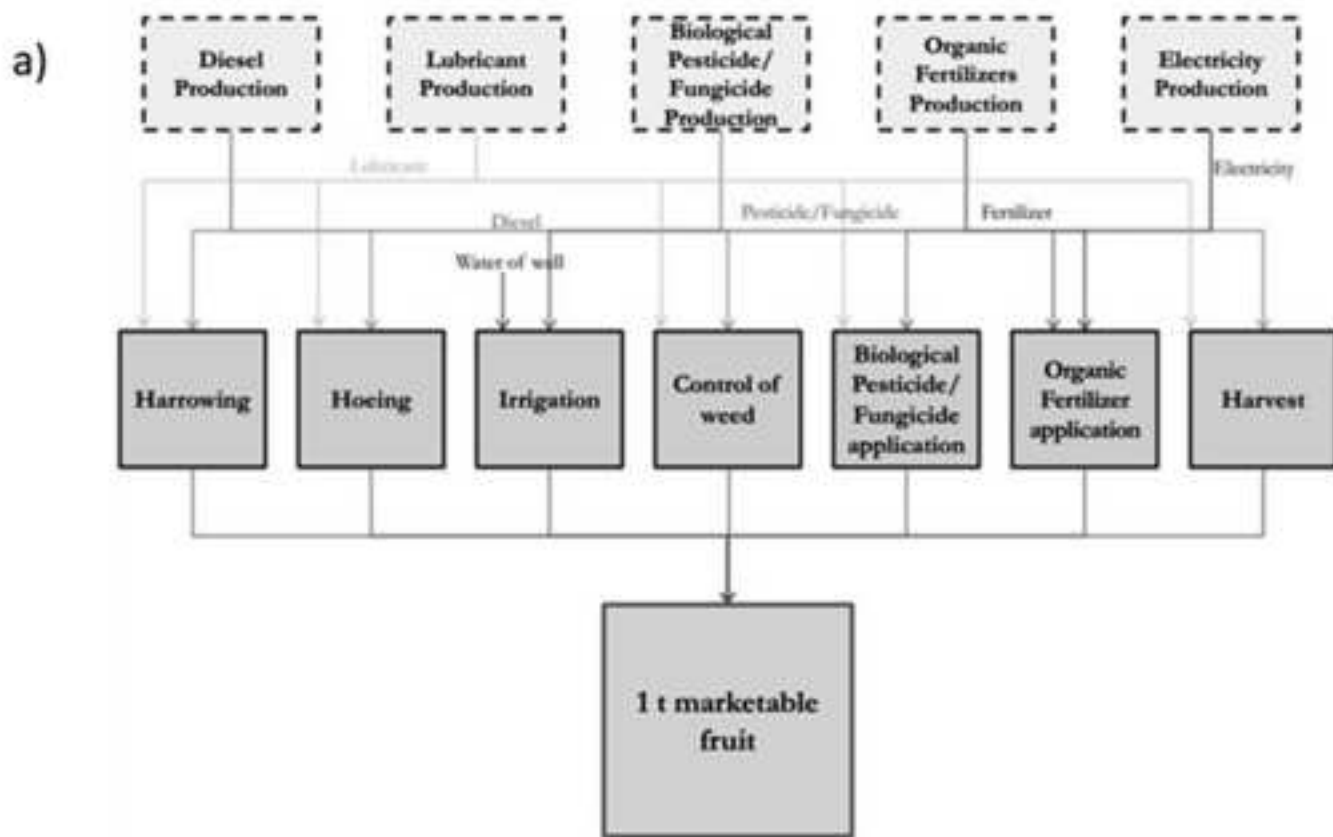
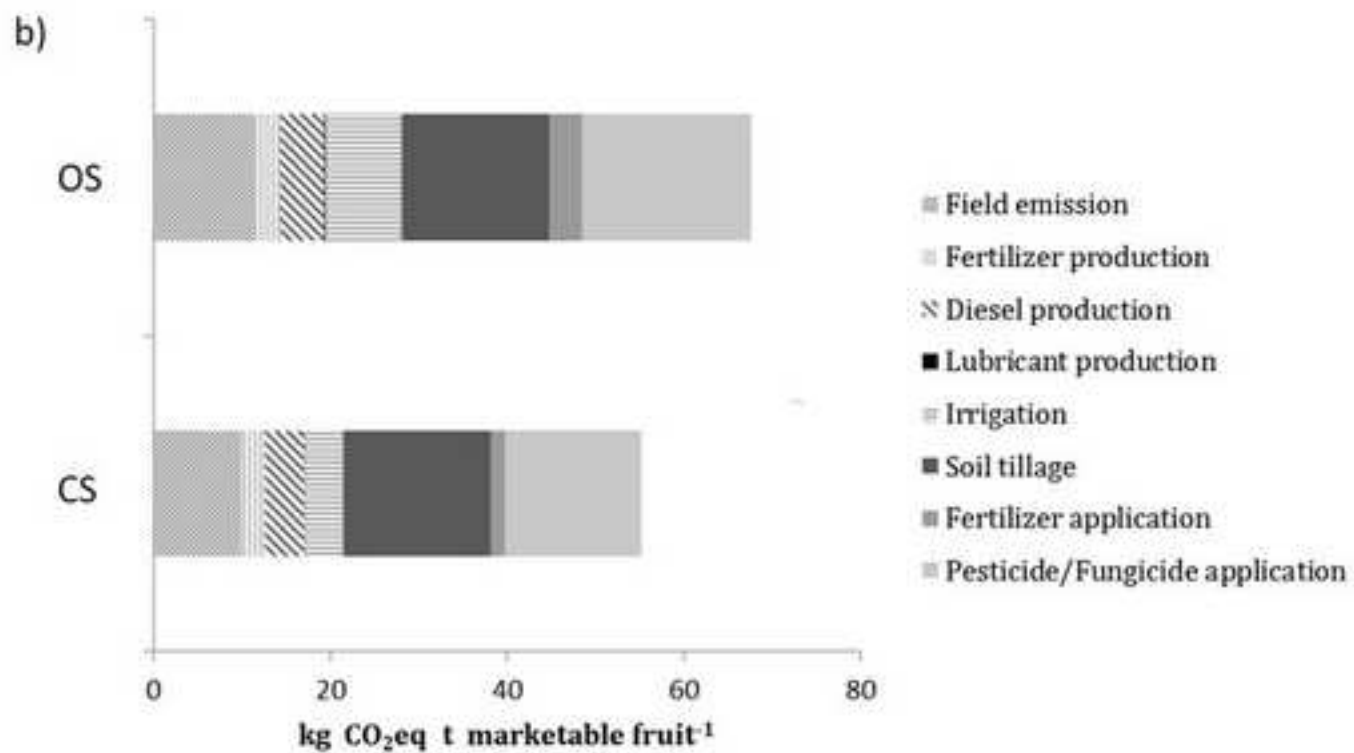
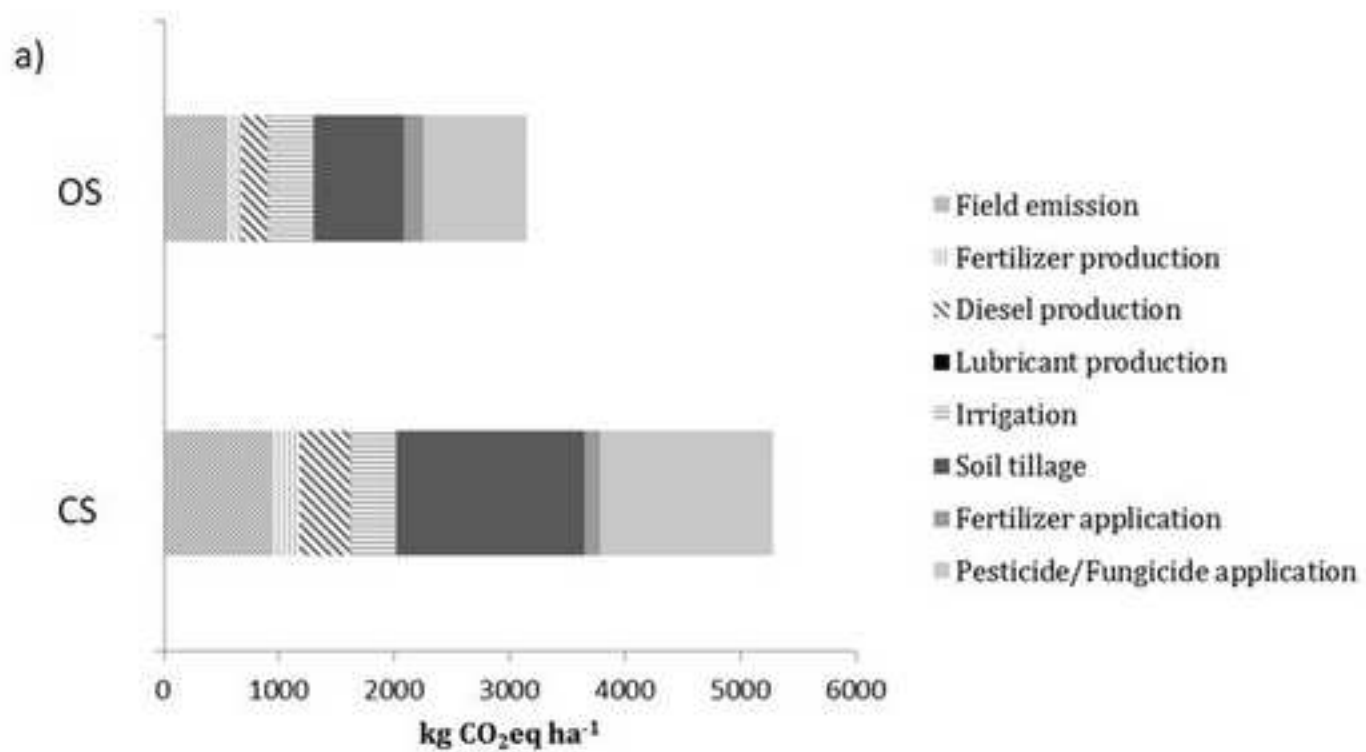
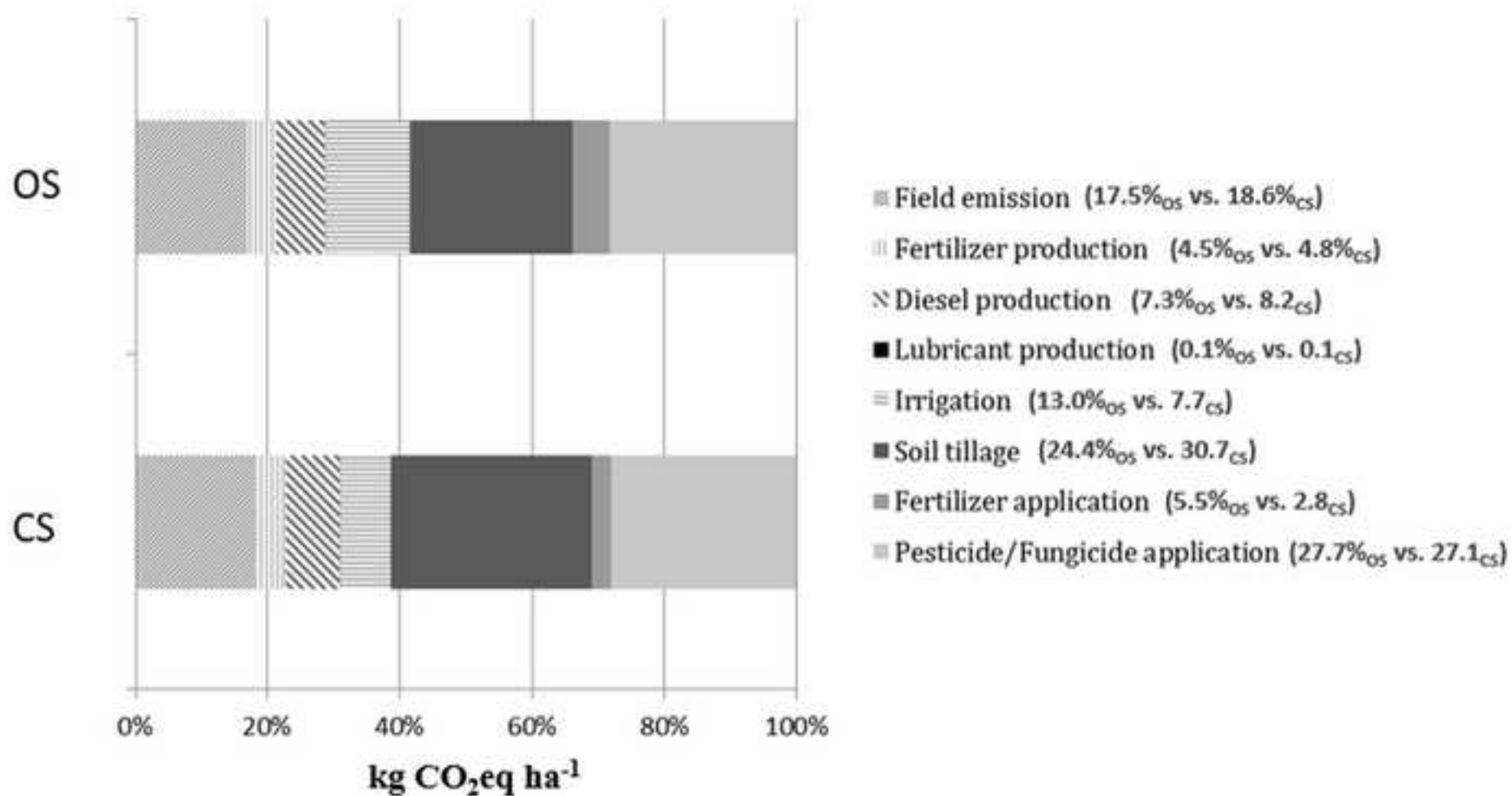


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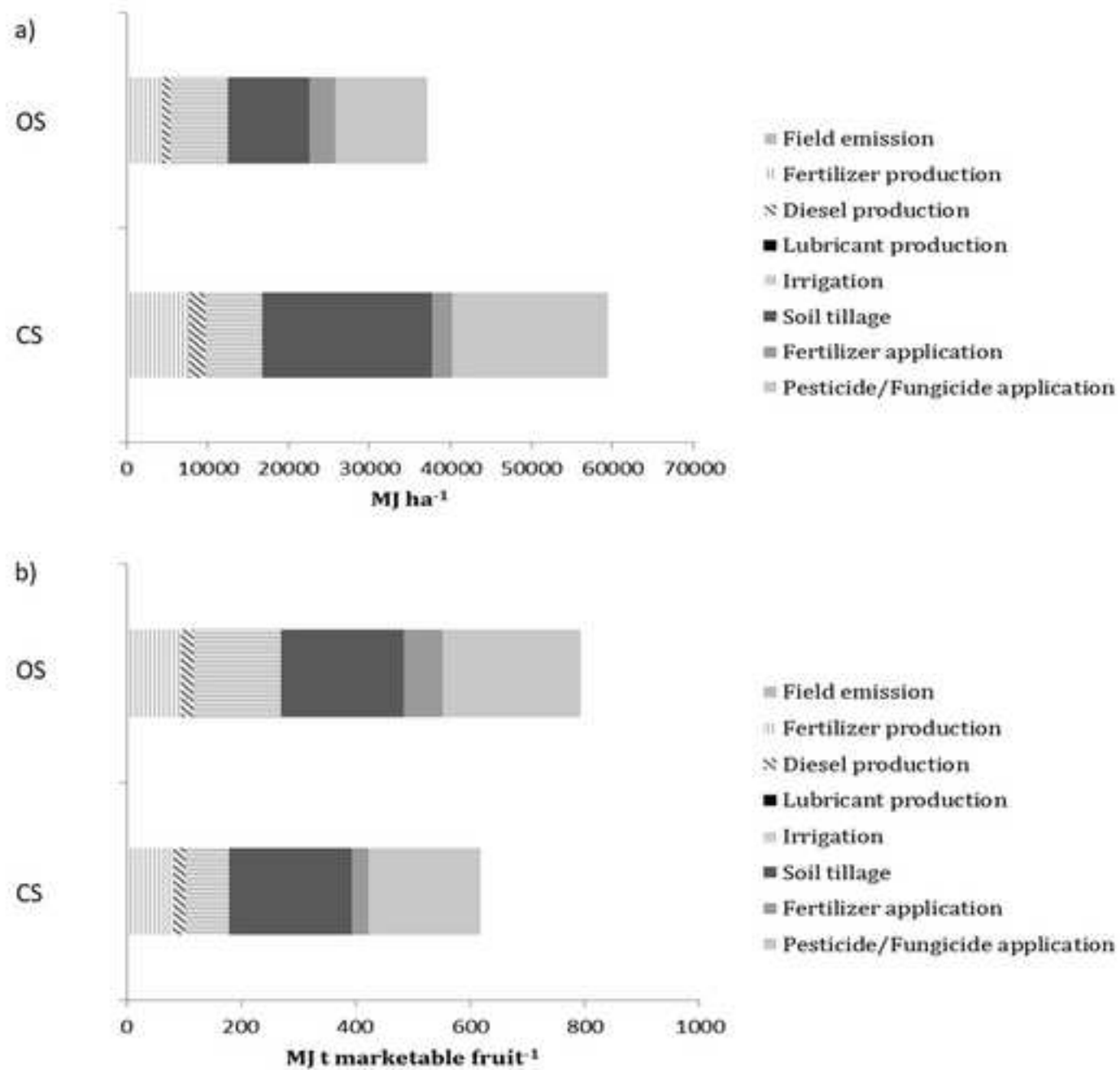
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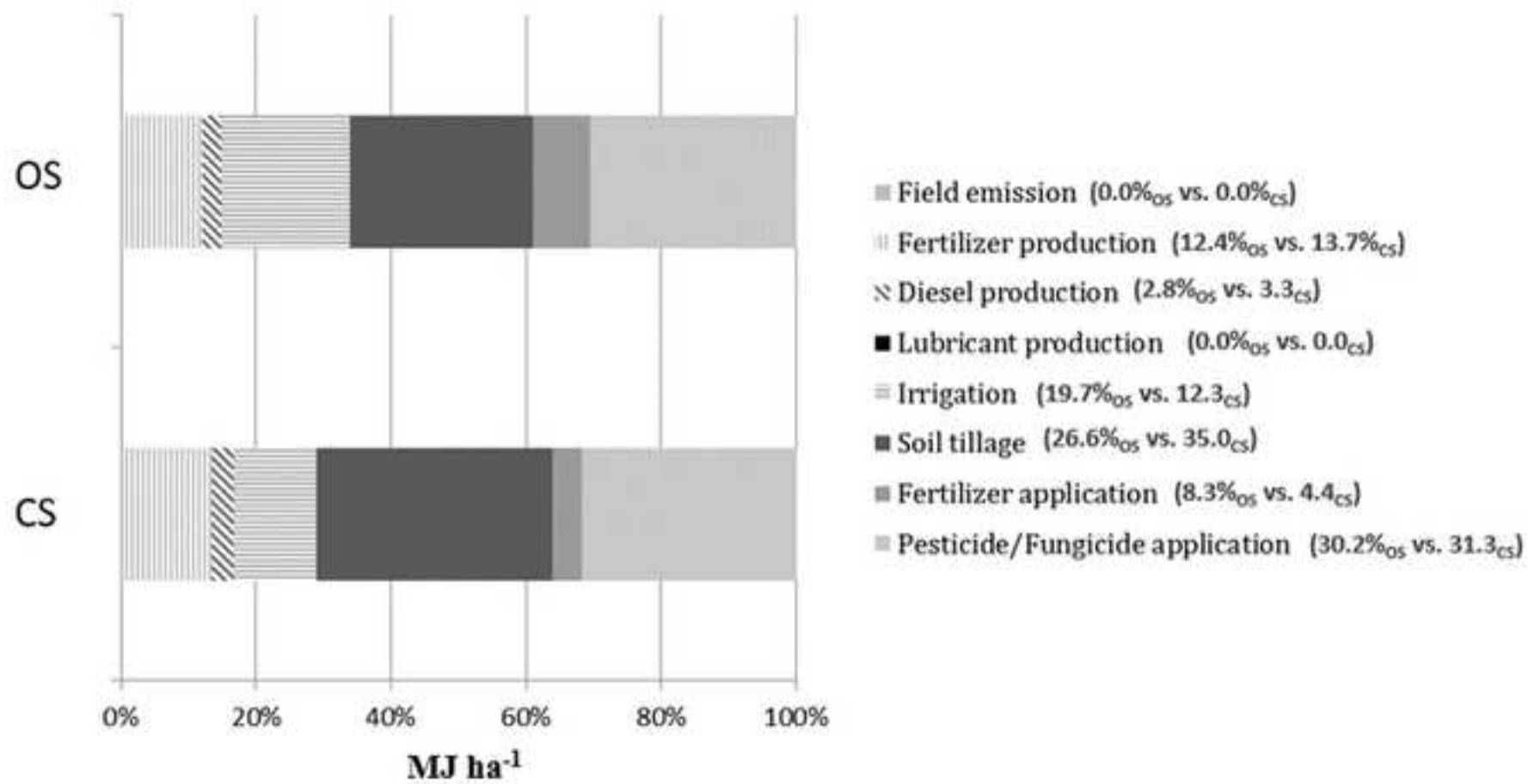
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		Fresh Weight / Dry Weight (t ha⁻¹)	OS	CS
MY		FW	46.44	101.90*
TY		FW	49.90	110.10
	Total	DM	3.16	4.10*
	Leaf	DM	1.79	2.53*
Crop biomass	Unripe fruit	DM	0.16	0.40*
	Stem	DM	0.94	0.91
	Root	DM	0.27	0.26

Table 1. Primary data for the evaluation of emission from crop residues.

(OS = organic cropping system, CS = conventional cropping system, MY = marketable yield (fresh weight), TY = total yield (fresh weight). FW = fresh weight. DM = dry weight. Mean values between column followed by asterisk (*) indicate significant differences at $P < 0.05$ according to Duncan's multiple range test.

Index	Units	OS	CS
Delta-MY		-54%	
Delta-TY		-55%	
GWP	kg CO ₂ eq ha ⁻¹	3154.03	5290.74
Delta-GWP		-40%	
GWP	kg CO ₂ eq t ⁻¹	67.49	55.16
Delta-GWP		+22%	
PED	MJ ha ⁻¹	37092.22	59364.83
Delta-PED		-38%	
PED	MJ t ⁻¹	793.27	617.91
Delta-PED		+28%	

Table 2. Differential (= Delta) fruit yield and LCA results of processing tomato cultivations in two different cropping systems (OS = organic cropping system, CS = conventional cropping system, MY = marketable yield, TY = total yield).

Figure 1. a) Boundaries of the cultivation of processing tomato in the organic cropping system (OS). b) Boundaries of the cultivation of processing tomato in the conventional cropping system (CS).

Figure 2. a) Life cycle GHG emission *per* hectare. b) Life cycle GHG emissions per 1 t of marketable fruit OS = organic cropping system. CS = conventional cropping system.

Figure 3. Contribution to total GWP impacts of the stages for the two cropping systems. OS = organic cropping system. CS = conventional cropping system.

Figure 4. a) Life cycle energy consumption per hectare. b) Life cycle energy consumption per 1 t of marketable fruit. OS = organic cropping system. CS = conventional cropping system.

Figure 5. Contribution to total PED impacts of the stages for the two cropping systems. OS = organic cropping system. CS = conventional cropping system.