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Abstract: To optimise trade-offs provided by future changes in grassland management, spatially and temporally explicit estimates of grassland productivity are required at the systems level. Here, we benchmark the potential national availability of grassland biomass, identify optimal strategies for its management, and investigate the relative importance of intensification over reversion (prioritising productivity versus environmental ecosystem services). Process-conservative meta-models for different grasslands were used to calculate the baseline dry matter yields (DMY) at 1 km² resolution for the whole UK. The effects of climate change, rising atmospheric [CO₂] and technological progress on baseline DMYS were used to estimate future grassland productivities (up to 2050) for low and medium CO₂ emission scenarios of UKCP09. UK baseline productivities (1970-1980) of 10.5, 7.9 and 2.6 t/ha were extrapolated to benchmark productivities (2010) of 12.5, 8.7 and 2.8 t/ha on temporary, permanent and rough-grazing grassland, respectively. By 2050, grassland productivities under medium emission scenario is predicted to increase to 15.5 and 9.8 t/ha on temporary and permanent grassland, respectively, but not on rough grassland. Based on surveyed grasslands areas for Great Britain in 2010 the GIS-modelled distributions of grassland productivity and total availability of biomass were shown at 1 km² grid. Assuming that optimal N application could close existing productivity gaps of ca. 40% there are a range of management options available that could deliver additional biomass availability or spare some grasslands for provision of other ecosystem services.

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Science of the Total Environment

23 November 2017

Submission of Original Research Article

Modelling productivity and resource use efficiency for grassland ecosystems in the UK

Dear Professor Ludwig

On behalf of all authors I would like to submit our article to Science of the Total Environment because we think it fits perfectly its scope in more than one aspect, first quantifying the extent of different grassland ecosystems and, second describing benchmark productivity and how this might change with regard to different land use scenarios. The results can be helpful in terms of environmental management and policy

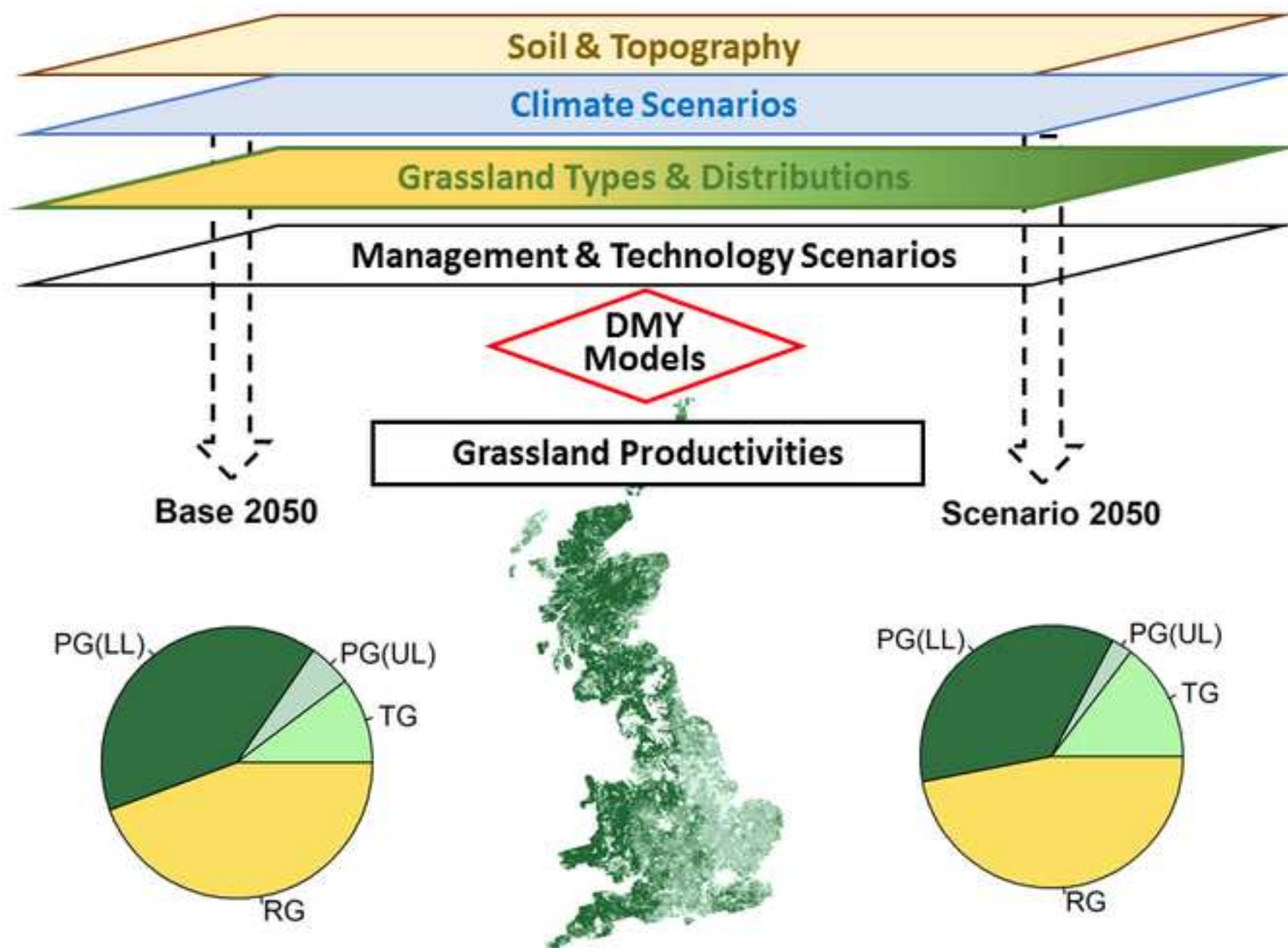
This paper is a companion paper to an earlier one describing model development and scenario simulations for different grassland ecosystems. Here, we exemplify opportunities for grassland management and documents in great detail statistical and spatial inputs at the whole country level. This paper lays the foundations for a bioenergy/biomass whole systems analysis that includes all production vectors, food, feed and fuel.

Yours faithfully,



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Qi et al (2017b)-Highlights

Highlights

Benchmark productivity (2010) ranges from 8.7 to 12.5 t/ha on improved grasslands

Future productivity increase comes from technological progress and CO₂ stimulation

Biomass from productivity gaps of 40% can provide other ecosystem services

Increased lowland intensification can outweigh reversion of upland areas to rough grazing

Grassland futures in Great Britain – productivity assessment and scenarios for land use change opportunities

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Section	final
Abstract	232
Introduction	881
Material & Methods	1996
Results	1217
Discussion	1848
Conclusions	215
TOTAL without Abstract	6157
References	69
Tables	4
Figures	7
Supplemental Material	6 Tables, 2 Figures

1 Abstract

2 To optimise trade-offs provided by future changes in grassland management, spatially and
3 temporally explicit estimates of grassland productivity are required at the systems level. Here, we
4 benchmark the potential national availability of grassland biomass, identify optimal strategies for its
5 management, and investigate the relative importance of intensification over reversion (prioritising
6 productivity versus environmental ecosystem services). Process-conservative meta-models for
7 different grasslands were used to calculate the baseline dry matter yields (DMY) at 1 km² resolution
8 for the whole UK. The effects of climate change, rising atmospheric [CO₂] and technological progress
9 on baseline DMYS were used to estimate future grassland productivities (up to 2050) for low and
10 medium CO₂ emission scenarios of UKCP09. UK baseline productivities (1970-1980) of 10.5, 7.9 and
11 2.6 t/ha were extrapolated to benchmark productivities (2010) of 12.5, 8.7 and 2.8 t/ha on
12 temporary, permanent and rough-grazing grassland, respectively. By 2050, grassland productivities
13 under medium emission scenario is predicted to increase to 15.5 and 9.8 t/ha on temporary and
14 permanent grassland, respectively, but not on rough grassland. Based on surveyed grasslands areas
15 for Great Britain in 2010 the GIS-modelled distributions of grassland productivity and total
16 availability of biomass were shown at 1 km² grid. Assuming that optimal N application could close
17 existing productivity gaps of ca. 40% there are a range of management options available that could
18 deliver additional biomass availability or spare some grasslands for provision of other ecosystem
19 services.

20

21 **Key words:**

22 Grassland systems, climate change, ecosystem service, land use change, technology progress, yield
23 gap

24

25 1 Introduction

26 Globally, grasslands are the dominant form of agriculture by land area, primarily utilised for the
27 provision of feed for ruminants (Prochnow *et al.*, 2009; Gerssen-Gondelach *et al.*, 2017). In the
28 United Kingdom (UK), grasslands represent over two thirds of agricultural land area, broadly
29 grouped into temporary (1.2 million ha), permanent (6.1 million ha) and rough-grazing (5.0 million
30 ha) types (Defra, 2016a). In 2015, UK grasslands supported 9.9 and 33.3 million heads of cattle and
31 sheep, respectively. This provided 15.2 million tonnes of cow's milk, 0.9 and 0.3 million tonnes of
32 beef and sheep meat for human consumption respectively (Defra, 2016a), representing a significant
33 land resource for food. Grasslands also play an important role in supporting biodiversity (Fargione *et*
34 *al.*, 2009) and in the delivery of other benefits to society including carbon sequestration, biomass for
35 bioenergy, and recreational opportunities (Hopkins and Wilkins, 2006; O'Mara, 2012, McEniry *et al.*,
36 2013).

37 Following the 2016 referendum, in which the UK voted to leave the European Union, options
38 for the future of farming are being explored. At least in part, this debate seeks to balance the views
39 of those favouring intensification of production alongside those who argue for the incorporation of
40 wider sustainability criteria into the land use planning (Hill, 2017). For grassland systems, these
41 competing viewpoints were exemplified in upland regions of the country, which play a central role in
42 the provision of regulating ecosystem services, often for beneficiaries in distant urban areas
43 (O'Rourke *et al.*, 2016). However, farmers in upland regions face substantial challenges to their
44 income associated with a traditional low-input, low-output business model that supports the
45 continued provision of these benefits to society (Reed *et al.*, 2009). The continued decline of N-
46 fertiliser input and stocking rates (Defra, 2016b) are strong indicators for this.

47 Against this background a key requirement to inform development of farming policy is
48 spatially explicit knowledge of current and future grassland productivity. Benchmarking and
49 understanding the levels of dry matter yield (DMY) and quality are important to optimize

50 productivity for sustainable intensification within grassland systems (O'Donovan *et al.*, 2015).
51 Making use of the productivity gap between or closing the yield gaps within grassland types could
52 increase biomass production for various services and value chains, food, feed or bioenergy (Grau *et*
53 *al.*, 2013; Lusiana *et al.*, 2012; Prochnow *et al.*, 2009). This would provide opportunities to those areas
54 of the country that might be considered preferential for change, given social, environmental and
55 economic factors. At the same time, such knowledge allows policy makers to explore options for
56 targeting agri-environment schemes to protect biodiversity (Eigenbrod *et al.*, 2011; Phalan *et al.*,
57 2014; Werling *et al.*, 2014) and important regulating services such as those associated with carbon
58 stocks or water resources (Reed *et al.*, 2014; Smith, 2014) in other regions where less significant
59 productivity gains could be achieved with changes in grassland management practice.

60 The net primary productivity of grasslands can be measured from its annual dry matter
61 production per hectare. An earlier presented process-based grass model increased our
62 understanding of past experimental DMVs of temporary, permanent and rough-grazing grasslands
63 (Qi. *et al.*, 2017). Key biophysical driving variables were up-scaled, building meta models to estimate
64 productivities for each grassland type to assess future productivities. However, these estimates need
65 to account for climate change, increased CO₂ concentration and technological progress, e.g. better
66 genetics and management (Ewert *et al.* 2005). The impact of past climate change on DMVs of
67 grasslands was found to be rather small (Coleman *et al.*, 1987; Chang *et al.*, 2015) or undetectable in
68 the long-term Park Grass Experiment (Jenkinson *et al.*, 1994). However, future climate change is
69 likely to improve productivity and quality of grasslands (Hopkins and Del Prado, 2007; Izaurrealde *et*
70 *al.*, 2011), although scenarios a 2 °C temperature increase found little change in DMVs for Scotland
71 (Cooper and McGechan, 1996).

72 Nevertheless, the growth of typical pasture crops was stimulated by CO₂ enrichment
73 (Soussana and Luscher, 2007), similar to that observed for cereals (Jaggard *et al.*, 2010). Plant
74 breeding and improved agronomy are likely to continue increasing grassland productivity (Hopkins

75 and Wilkins, 2006). A potential annual increase of DMY in the range of 0.25 to 0.76 percent seems
76 possible (e.g. Wilkins and Humphreys, 2003; Harmer *et al.*, 2016). Annual on-farm grassland yield
77 gains varied between countries and grassland types (Smit *et al.*, 2008), they are low on permanent
78 grassland (0.35% annually) due to less frequent reseeding (Chang *et al.*, 2015). Semi-natural
79 grasslands used for rough-grazing, dry matter productivity cannot be genetically improved but
80 productivity can be influenced by changing growing conditions, e.g. influencing the hydrology or
81 adjusting stocking density (Sozanska -Stanton *et al.*, 2016; Worrall and Clay, 2012).

82 The objectives of this study were (i) to estimate DMYs for all grassland types across the UK for
83 current and future climates considering CO₂ enrichment and technological progress. (ii) to assess
84 and map the availability of total dry matter production constrained by grassland areas surveyed in
85 2010 across Great Britain. (iii) to determine the current benchmark DMYs for each grassland type
86 and identify productivity gaps, particularly with respect to the current decline in below optimal N
87 application rates, and (iv) to perform spatial analyses of the impact of conversion between grassland
88 types and to investigate changes in total grassland biomass production in Great Britain under varying
89 management options.

90

91 2 Materials and Methods

92 2.1 General approach

93 The meta-models used here were derived from outputs of a process-based model calibrated
94 using a comprehensive set of experimental DMY data measured in the 1970s and 1980s (Qi. *et al.*,
95 2017). These meta-models accounted for effects of weather, soil available water capacity (SAWC)
96 and N input on DMY. When meta-models were used to calculate DMYs with baseline weather (1961-
97 1990), they were referred to as baseline dry matter yields (BL-DMY). However, since then climate
98 has changed, atmospheric CO₂ concentration increased, and pasture crops with higher growth
99 potential and improved agronomy have been adopted, particularly in temporary and permanent

100 grasslands. The approach of Ewert *et al.* (2005) was followed to calculate the grassland DMYs from
101 2010s to 2050s, which accounts for the effects of these three yield determining factors: change in
102 climate (CC; f_{CC}), carbon fertilisation effect (CFE; f_{CFE}) due to rising atmospheric [CO₂] and
103 technological progress (TP; f_{TP}).

104 The DMY in 2010 was calculated using Eqn. 1:

$$105 \quad Y_{10s} = Y_{base} + Y_{base} * (f_{10s, CFE} + f_{10s, TP}) \quad (1)$$

106 where Y_{10s} is the annual dry matter yield in 2010s, Y_{base} the meta-model calculated baseline dry
107 matter yield (i.e., BL-DMY), $f_{10s, CFE}$ is the percentage increase of DMY due to CO₂ fertilisation effect
108 while $f_{10s, TP}$ is the percentage of DMY increase due to technological progress from 1980s to 2010s.
109 Instead of projected CC, baseline actual weather data were used.

110 DMYs in 2020 to 2050 were calculated with Eqn. 2:

$$111 \quad Y_{t1...4} = Y_{base} + Y_{base} * (f_{t1...4, CC} + f_{t1...4, CFE} + f_{t1...4, TP}) \quad (2)$$

112 where $Y_{t1...4}$ is the annual DMY from 2020s to 2050s, $f_{t1...4, CC} + f_{t1...4, CFE} + f_{t1...4, TP}$ represent the
113 percentage of DMY changes due to predicted weather under CC, CFE and TP from 1980s to 2020s,
114 2030s, 2040s and 2050s, respectively. The percentage of DMY change due to changed climate was
115 calculated as the difference between the weather-governed DMY with the baseline climate and the
116 weather-governed DMY with changed climate divided by the former.

117 2.1.1 CO₂ fertilisation effect (CFE)

118 Most experimental evidence indicates that the growth of perennial ryegrass (*Lolium*
119 *perenne*) was stimulated by CO₂ enrichment and consequently the DMY was increased by an average
120 0.06%/ppm [CO₂] (range from 0.03 to 0.09%/ppm; **Table S1a**). The percent increase was multiplied
121 with the incremental increase of CO₂ concentration from the baseline (1980s) to the respective later
122 decade.

123 Atmospheric [CO₂] has increased from 334 ppm in the 1970/80s to the present 400ppm in
124 2015 at a rate of approximately 2 ppm per year due to anthropogenic forcing (IPCC 2013; Myhre *et*
125 *al.*, 2013). The predicted CO₂ concentrations in the atmosphere from 2020s to 2050s were taken
126 from the projections of the BERN model under low and medium CO₂ emission scenarios (**Table S1b**).
127 The atmospheric [CO₂] of past years were taken from the annual mean records of [CO₂] at Mauna
128 Loa, Hawaii by Earth Systems Research Laboratory (www.esrl.noaa.gov/gmd/ccgg/trends). The
129 cumulative fertilisation effects of increased [CO₂] for various decades were calculated and applied
130 accordingly (**Table S2**).

131 2.1.2 Contribution of technological progress to grassland productivity

132 Innovations in technology to improve grassland productivity include breeding varieties with
133 higher potential yield and improved management to better protect and fully reap the genetic
134 potentials. Based on the results of multiple variety trials for perennial ryegrass (Aldrich, 1987;
135 Camlin, 1997; Woodfield, 1999; Easton *et al.*, 2002; Wilkins and Humphreys, 2003; Humphreys,
136 2005; Smit *et al.*, 2008; Chaves *et al.*, 2009; Lee *et al.*, 2012; Chang *et al.*, 2015; Harmer *et al.*, 2016;
137 McDonagh *et al.*, 2016) the annual mean genetic, potential DMY gain was set to the overall mean of
138 0.5% (**Table S3a**). This agrees with the average annual on-farm yield increase suggested for
139 temporary grassland (Smit *et al.*, 2008) while for permanent grassland an annual yield gain of 0.35%
140 can be assumed (Smit *et al.*, 2008; Chang *et al.*, 2015; **Table S3a**). For rough grazing grassland, which
141 is semi-natural with little agronomic inputs, no technological improvements in dry matter
142 productivity were applied.

143 For temporary grassland, the DMY was augmented with a technology factor of 0.5% increase
144 per annum above the BL-DMY for both the potential and the on-farm DMY from 1980s to 2050s
145 assuming a full translation of potential DMY increase into on-farm DMY. For permanent grassland,
146 the DMY was augmented with a technology factor of 0.35% increase per annum for the on-farm

147 DMY from 1980s to 2050s. Thus, the accumulated percentage increases above the BL-DMY were
148 calculated and applied on each of the three types of grassland from 1980s to 2050s (**Table S3b**).

149 2.1.3 Impact of future weather changes

150 The meta-models encapsulate the effects of weather variables on DMYs using inputs of
151 changed bioclimatic variables which reflect the weather-governed DMYs for any given future
152 decade. These variable changes fed directly into the meta-models, developed from scenario outputs
153 generated by validated process-based growth model (Qi. *et al.*, 2017), to calculate future grassland
154 productivities. Inputs were soil available water capacity and bioclimatic variables of monthly
155 temperature, precipitation, and global radiation under baseline and future climate change scenarios.
156 The impact of climate change on grassland productivities was the percentage of DMY change which
157 was calculated as the difference between the weather-governed DMY with the baseline climate and
158 the weather-governed DMY with changed climate divided by the former.

159 2.2 Climate and soil data

160 The necessary inputs of monthly climatic variables for the baseline (1961-1990) and for
161 decades from 2020s to 2050s were obtained from the most recent UK climate projections (UKCP09,
162 2009). The monthly maximum and minimum temperature, precipitation and global radiation were
163 initially available at 25km x 25km grid and they were then harmonised into 1 km x 1km grid for the
164 whole UK (Murshed *et al.*, 2012). Relative to the baseline climate (1961-1990), seasonal precipitation
165 and global radiation differed little between the low and medium emission scenario during the 2020s
166 to 2050s across the UK (**Table S4**). The global radiation increased most (1.6 and 3.9%) in spring, less
167 so during summer and autumn. Overall, summer was likely to be drier while winters would be wetter
168 in the future. Under both CO₂ emission scenarios, the UK will be warmer in all seasons. Although
169 absolute temperatures increase most in summer (e.g. 1.2 to 2.2°C until 2050s under medium
170 scenario), the relative increase was greatest in winter and spring (**Table S4**).

171 These climatic data were used in combination with the spatially distributed soil available
172 water content in the root zone obtained from the European Soil Database at 1 km x 1 km grid, as
173 inputs for the meta-models to calculate the DMYs on temporary, permanent and rough-grazing
174 grassland.

175 2.3 Nitrogen (N) fertiliser application and DMY response to N inputs

176 The annual survey of the overall average N applied per hectare to temporary and permanent
177 grassland was conducted by Defra starting from 1960s. The average N applied increased steadily
178 until mid-1990s (Rath and Peel, 2005) but declined from the late 1990s onwards on both, temporary
179 and permanent grassland until 2008 (**Figure S1**; Defra, 2016b) and remained unchanged since. The
180 overall average N use during the recent decade came to 99 and 52 kg/ha on temporary and
181 permanent grassland, respectively.

182 Annual DMYs were measured in N fertiliser response experiments carried out at 21 different
183 sites (Morrison *et al.*, 1980) with N fertiliser used up to 750 kg N/ha; DMY reached their maximum
184 plateau mostly at an N application rate of 600 kg N/ha. The DMYs were normalised using the
185 maximum DMY and expressed as its fraction in percentage (DMY%; see **Figure 1**). The four-
186 parameter rational equation proposed by Morrison *et al.* (1980) was applied to describe the DMY in
187 response to N application (Eq. 3):

$$188 \quad DMY\% = \frac{a+bN}{1+cN+dN^2} \quad (3)$$

189 The estimated coefficients were: a=22.1696, b=0.2373, c=-0.0001944, d=0.000002117 and the
190 variance accounted for (i.e. R²) was 93.8% (n=126). This equation was used to calculate the yield gap
191 because of reduced N fertiliser usage.

192 2.4 Total GB grassland yields under contrasting management options

193 Grassland area was surveyed by Defra in 2010, and is available at a 2km x 2km grid resolution
194 (<https://access.edina.ac.uk/agcensus/>). For Great Britain (GB), UK without Northern Ireland (NI),

195 grassland covered 9.9896 million ha in total, of which 1.0246, 4.5333 and 4.4317 million ha were
196 temporary, permanent and rough-grazing, respectively. This leaves about 2.5 million hectares of
197 grassland unaccounted for in this scenario analysis, as NI was not included in the Agricultural Census.
198 Analysis explored five land use transition scenarios for GB covering the period 2010 – 2050 (**Table 4**),
199 conducted at a 2km × 2km grid resolution for compatibility with grassland survey data. The focus of
200 the analysis was on changes in management practices, therefore we considered that transitions
201 occur between grassland types without increasing or decreasing overall area of grassland.

202 The likelihood that farmers will change management practices (i.e. shift from a business model
203 focused on production towards environment-focused management) is determined by complex social
204 and economic drivers arising from past and current experiences that serve to limit farm
205 development pathways (Di Falco *et al.*, 2005; Ingram *et al.*, 2013). To this end our analytic approach
206 does not assume that transitions between grassland management practices will occur in a spatially
207 optimal manner determined by factors such as monetary returns, yields, or carbon stocks. Instead
208 the target area for conversion in hectares (ha) for GB was calculated, and a stochastic algorithm
209 implemented in R (R Core Team, 2017) that randomly assigned conversion of grassland areas for
210 each 2km × 2km grid cell until the target area for conversion was met. For each scenario 1000
211 permutations were conducted and changes in average yield per 2km × 2km grid cell and for GB total
212 dry biomass production were calculated.

213 Although the analysis considered conversion of different grassland types, plausible limits to this
214 conversion were identified based on a subset of constraints defined in part by Lovett *et al.* (2009) for
215 energy crops. The constraints are altitude ($\geq 250\text{m}$ to define upland), slope ($\geq 15\%$ representing a
216 technical limit for farm machinery), and distribution of nitrate vulnerable zones (NVZ) across GB
217 (**Table S6**). In determining the location of land use transitions the stochastic algorithm preferentially
218 chose to convert grassland in areas that were consistent with the logic of the scenario based on
219 these constraints. For example, for conversion of rough-grazing to permanent grassland, which

220 implies greater agricultural inputs, initially focused on areas outside NVZ and where the slope was
221 $\leq 15\%$ to allow access for farm machinery. Where the target area for conversion specified within the
222 scenario exceeded area available due to the constraints, the stochastic algorithm initially converted
223 grassland outside the constrained areas before converting grassland within excluded $2\text{km} \times 2\text{km}$ grid
224 cells.

225 The first four scenarios explored possible permutations of the transition between differing grassland
226 types that could be achieved through changes in management practice. In the first two instances, a
227 reduction in intensity of management was explored (i.e. Scenario A, Permanent to rough-grazing;
228 Scenario B, Temporary to permanent) and in the second an increase in intensity of production (i.e.
229 Scenario C, Permanent to Temporary; Scenario D Rough-grazing to Permanent). For each scenario,
230 the stochastic algorithm considered transitions of between 0 – 100% of 2010 area in 10% increment
231 intervals. This defines a parameter space over which possible changes to the management regime
232 could occur, allowing examination of the implications for total GB grassland DM production.

233 The final scenario examined a more complex set of management options informed by recent
234 discussions focused on upland regions. In contrast to the other four scenarios, this fifth scenario
235 (Scenario E) did not explore change in grassland yield associated with changing management
236 practices, rather the aim was to maintain GB grassland DM production. In areas defined as upland
237 (average altitude $\geq 250\text{m}$) permanent grassland was converted to rough-grazing and the loss of total
238 grassland DM production calculated. Conversion of permanent to temporary grassland in lowland
239 areas was then carried out to compensate for the lost total dry biomass production. As with
240 scenarios A - D, scenario E examined transition of between 0 – 100% of the specific grassland area in
241 10% increment intervals using the same stochastic approach as the other four scenarios.

242 3 Results

243 3.1 Weather-governed, CO₂-and technology-adjusted DMY

244 The DMY was calculated with the meta-model at 1 km² resolution across the UK assuming a
245 single grassland type for all land with SAWC information (i.e. a blanket approach). The UK average
246 blanket DMYs for the baseline and future weather (**Table 1**) indicate little difference between the
247 low and medium emission scenario in the effect of future climate change (weather only) on DMYs
248 within each grassland type. The weather-governed productivity is unlikely to be affected in the
249 future and remained about 10.5 t/ha on temporary grassland. However, productivity of both
250 permanent and rough-grazing, will be reduced by about 0.3 t/ha by climate change in the future.
251 Relatively, the reduction of productivity on rough-grazing grassland could be more than 10% by
252 2050.

253 The spatially explicit technology- and [CO₂]- adjusted DMY maps are exemplified in **Figure 2**
254 for the 2010s under the medium emission scenario. The average national blanket DMYs in the UK
255 from 2010s to 2050s show very small differences between the low and medium emission scenarios
256 for each grassland type (**Figure 3**). For rough-grazing grassland the DMYs increase due to rising [CO₂]
257 cannot compensate the negative impact from changed weather variables (i.e. both reduced
258 precipitation and increased temperature in summer) in the future, and the overall productivity of
259 rough-grazing grassland is unlikely to change by 2050. For temporary and permanent grassland, the
260 productivity is predicted to increase steadily at a rate determined by the additive response of
261 technological progress and the increased atmospheric [CO₂] per decade.

262 3.2 Benchmark DMY constrained by actual grassland areas in GB

263 Assuming no changes in management regime, the average DMYs based on the actual area of
264 each grassland type can be calculated from 2010s to 2050s (**Table 2**). These average DMYs can be
265 referred to as the benchmark productivities, which were similar for blanket approach and census
266 areas. Taking DMYs in 2010 as representative of current grassland productivities (**Figure 4**), the

267 present benchmark productivity should be 12.5, 8.7 and 2.8 t/ha on temporary, permanent and
268 rough-grazing grassland in GB, respectively.

269 After overlaying the NUTS 1 regions over the grassland area and the availability of dry matter
270 production per km² grid (**Figure 4**), the total grassland area (**Figure 5a**) and availability of total dry
271 matter production (**Figure 5b**) per region in Great Britain were calculated. Within Great Britain, the
272 total grassland area in 2010 was partitioned 45.7, 13.4 and 40.9% into Scotland, Wales and England,
273 respectively. In terms of grassland type, Scotland contained 41.2, 21.0 and 72.0% while England
274 shared 48.7, 56.6 and 23.0% of temporary, permanent and rough-grazing grassland, respectively. In
275 terms of total DM production, the share was partitioned into 40.3, 45.3 and 14.4% for Scotland,
276 England and Wales, respectively. Within England, the largest grassland area and availability of total
277 DM production were in South West, followed by North West and West Midland.

278 Defra reported areas of respective grassland types in 2010 for the whole UK (Defra, 2015) and
279 the Agricultural Census in 2010 specified these areas for GB (**Table S5**). The total DM availability on
280 each grassland type can be calculated by multiplying the respective grassland area and its
281 corresponding mean dry matter yield (**Table S5**). The UK national total potential availability of dry
282 biomass can reach 82 million tonnes. Permanent grassland provided the largest proportion of this
283 national total (63%) while temporary and rough-grazing grassland contributed equally to the
284 remaining 37%. Without NI the annual biomass resource shrinks to 64.5 million tonnes.

285 3.3 Grassland yield gap analysis

286 The above calculated grassland productivity after considering the effect of climate change,
287 increasing atmospheric [CO₂] and technological progress from 2010s to 2050s reflects DMYS
288 measured in the experiments and is the attainable DMY (i.e. water limited potential yield) (van
289 Ittersum *et al.*, 2013). The on-farm, actual DMY is usually smaller than the attainable yield due to
290 other limitations (Lobell *et al.*, 2009; Sadras *et al.*, 2015).

291 The DM productivity used to model temporary and permanent grassland was measured with
292 annually applied 300 kg N/ha and 150 kg N/ha, respectively (Defra, 2010). The annual N usage on
293 grassland had dropped in recent decade (2006 to 2015) to ca. 99 and 52 kg N/ha on the temporary
294 and permanent grassland, respectively, much below the recommended economic optimum N:150
295 for permanent and 300 kg N/ha for temporary grassland (Morrison *et al.*, 1980; Hopkins *et al.*, 1990).
296 To estimate the productivity gaps on temporary and permanent grassland, the relative DMVs were
297 calculated using these lower values and estimating the difference from the relative DMVs at the
298 recommended N (Eqn. 3; see **Figure 1**). The current N shortage resulted in calculated on-farm DMVs
299 about 45 and 39% yield gap (YG) below the attainable DMVs on temporary and permanent grassland,
300 respectively, which correspond to a total actual unused productivity of about 21 million tonnes DM
301 (**Table 3**).

302 3.4 Changes in GB total grassland DM production under evolving management 303 scenarios

304 Out of the four scenarios describing conversion between grassland management options only
305 Scenario A, characterising changes in yield resulting from conversion of permanent grassland to
306 rough-grazing (Abandonment), resulted in a decrease in total DM production in GB by 2050
307 compared to the baseline 2010 value. Even in this scenario, conversion of up to 20% of total area
308 could be implemented while maintaining a comparable level to total DM production in 2010 (**Figure**
309 **6**). Total GB grassland DM production in Scenario B (i.e. temporary to permanent), which represents
310 the other reversion scenario exploring reduced management intensity, showed increases out to
311 2050 compared to the 2010 baseline value even under the transition representing 100% area
312 conversion.

313 Scenarios C and D represent lowland and upland intensification of existing grassland management
314 and describe a substantial increase from the 2010 baseline in total GB grassland DM production out
315 to 2050. For example, unconstrained conversion of rough-grazing to permanent grassland (Scenario

316 D) would increase total GB grassland DM production from 63 million tonnes in 2010 to 107 million in
317 2050. Taking into account simple constraints (e.g. NVZ, slope) to restrict the area over which
318 increases in management intensity might practically be achieved results in 50% conversion of
319 management intensity for Scenario C and 30% conversion for Scenario D, both yielding an additional
320 18 million tonnes above the 2010 baseline.

321 Scenario E explored an alternative future where overall GB DM production was maintained at
322 current levels. In this scenario, there was a reduction in the management in intensity of permanent
323 grassland in upland areas to the west and north of GB, accompanied by conversion of permanent to
324 temporary grassland in lowland regions to maintain total GB grassland yield (**Figure 7**). Given the
325 restriction imposed by the presence of NVZs in England, in our stochastic analyses production of
326 grassland was focused in the north and west of GB representing a shift in management intensity
327 from upland to lowland areas. In terms of land conversion, at the extreme cessation of management
328 of permanent grassland in upland regions would require an increase from 1 million to 1.9 million
329 hectares of temporary grassland to compensate for lost yield. At more realistic conversion levels of
330 20 – 40 per cent there are options for substantial reductions in management inputs of uplands
331 regions of GB that would require intensification of 200 – 300 thousand hectares of lowland
332 permanent grassland to temporary grassland to make up for lost yield.

333 4 Discussion

334 Considering the global importance of grasslands not only as a source of feed and food, but carbon
335 sink, ecological buffer and source or haven of biodiversity, our spatially explicit grassland yield model
336 can provide a valuable evidence-base for policy making. The analysis considered most recent
337 evidence about climatic and physiological control factors and assumed technological developments
338 to be a continuation of past progress, a rather conservative assumption. The most striking features
339 of this analysis are the opportunities that arise from the yield gap and the evaluation of possible
340 futures for changes in grassland management practices across GB.

341 4.1 Impact of climate change and increased atmospheric [CO₂]

342 The impact of climate change (reduced seasonal precipitation, increased global radiation and
343 mean temperature) on weather-governed DMVs is very small (**Table 3**) though slightly positive on
344 temporary grasslands (<1%) and marginally negative on rough-grazing grasslands. The largest impact
345 of climate change is likely to be seen on permanent grasslands, with DMV declining by about 2.5 to
346 5% from 2020s to 2050s. This largely agrees with past findings that the impacts of past climate
347 change on grassland DMVs was found to be small or undetectable (Coleman *et al.*, 1987; Jenkinson
348 *et al.*, 1994). However, Cooper and McGechan (1996) emphasised that site differences in weather
349 patterns will have greater effects on grass conservation and productivity than other predicted
350 effects of climate change.

351 The effect of rising atmospheric [CO₂] on stimulating growth for C₃-plant species such as
352 perennial ryegrass (http://www.co2science.org/data/plant_growth/dry/l/loliump.php) was assumed
353 to be more conservative than in these larger sets of experiments (0.06% vs 0.11% per ppm [CO₂]
354 increase; **Table S1a**). For temporary and permanent grasslands, the effect of rising [CO₂] are
355 intricately linked to technological progress, and the net effects (**Table 2**) are likely to be smaller than
356 the additive gross effects (**Table S2 and S3b**). Only for rough-grazing grasslands one can see that
357 rising [CO₂] just about compensates the negative effects of weather (**Table 2**). The relative DMV
358 increase is likely to be slightly higher under medium compared to the low emission scenario (+1.6%)
359 due to the difference in atmospheric [CO₂] which is marginally lower than the difference (2.4%
360 between grassland types, **Table S2**) but much smaller than the additive effect of [CO₂] and
361 technology progress. In reality, actual percent DMV increases due to increased [CO₂] depend on
362 other interacting factors such as N fertility in the soil (Daepf *et al.*, 2001), changes in water
363 productivity, evapotranspiration and soil water stress (Deryng *et al.*, 2016).

364 4.2 How fast is technological progress to improve grassland productivity?

365 As seen in the results (**Table 2**) the additive increase of grassland DMVs is 24% and 14% between
366 2010s and 2050s for temporary and permanent grassland, respectively under medium emission
367 scenario, which is somehow smaller than the theoretical progress. This is because of that the percent
368 increase of DMV due to joint CFE and TP effects was 28.0 and 22.0% between 2010s and 2050s for
369 temporary and permanent grassland, respectively under medium emission scenario (**Tables S2 and**
370 **S3**). Therefore, the efficiency of permanent grassland to exploit the joint CFE and TP effects is lower
371 than under temporary grassland (ca. 63 vs ca. 86 %). This was partly due to the larger negative
372 impact of climate change on grassland productivity on permanent grassland. As permanent
373 grasslands were kept under the same grass species longer (>5 years) than temporary grasslands (<5
374 years) the introduction of new, more productive cultivars/practices is slower. Compared with the
375 potential yield improving rate in arable crops (Jaggard *et al.*, 2010; Fischer and Edmeades, 2010) the
376 rate of potential yield improvement was slower in pasture grass (Hatfield and Walthall, 2015).
377 Longer breeding cycles (15-20 years), inability to exploit heterosis in commercial pasture crop
378 cultivars and selection in the absence of competing neighbour plants, cause a poor correlation with
379 pasture sward performance.

380 Agronomists will continue to improve practices that provide overall gains in grassland
381 productivity (Stewart and Hayes, 2011; Barrett *et al.*, 2004). The applications of genomics, marker-
382 assisted selection (MAS) and use of genetically modified grass types are likely to accelerate genetic
383 gains of future grassland productivity. Overall, the UK is well-positioned geographically and the rate
384 of genetic gain achieved was among the top range 4-5% per decade (Wilkins and Humphreys, 2003).
385 These can include higher potential DMV, better quality and more resilience to biotic and abiotic
386 stresses (Williams *et al.*, 2007; Barrett *et al.*, 2015). The current scenarios ignored the exploitation of
387 other high-yielding grassland species, like Italian Ryegrass (*L. multiflorum*), for temporary grassland
388 which will also allow a step change in productivity (Humphrey, 2005).

389 4.3 Benchmarking grassland productivity and feedstock availability

390 As in this paper, crop growth models can be used to benchmark on-farm crop production (Lobell *et*
391 *al.*, 2009; Sadras *et al.*, 2015), quantifying the obtainable yields (i.e. G x E x M yield) for a given
392 variety grown under defined climatic conditions and agronomic management. Thus, benchmark
393 yields are site- and soil type specific, vary from year to year and evolve with time due to difference in
394 weather and technological progress. We calculated the national benchmark DMY in Great Britain by
395 constraining the blanket grassland productivity to the surveyed grassland areas of each grassland
396 type in 2010 (**Table 2**). In addition, the benchmark DMY will increase until 2050 under both, low and
397 medium CO₂ emission scenarios due to rising atmospheric [CO₂] and technological progress.

398 The UK total potential availability of biomass for the meat and dairy sectors was the sum of
399 the product of respective benchmark DMYs and grassland areas for the main grassland types (Defra,
400 2015). Based on the consumption of 10 kg DM per day per adult cattle (Allen *et al.*, 2011), the total
401 potential availability of DM could support 4.2 and 14.1 million heads of cattle in 2010 on temporary
402 and permanent grassland, respectively. Based on the consumption of 2.5 kg dry matter per day per
403 sheep (Allen *et al.*, 2011), the total availability of dry biomass could support 16.3 million sheep in
404 2010 on rough-grazing grassland. If 30% of total DM on the permanent grassland was used by sheep,
405 the potential total herds of sheep and cattle could be 33.2 and 14.1 million, respectively. The
406 statistics in 2010 by Defra reported 10.1 million herds of cattle and calves and 31.1 million herds of
407 sheep and lambs (Defra, 2015). As calves and lambs consume less than adult cattle and sheep, and
408 considering that a significant amount of processed animal compound feed is used in the UK farming
409 systems (Guo *et al.*, 2016), it is apparent that either there was a yield gap between the benchmark
410 and the on-farm actual DMY or the availability of dry biomass was underutilised by the livestock
411 supported by grassland systems.

412 4.4 Productivity gap on temporary and permanent grassland

413 The on-farm actual DMY in either of the two improved grassland systems follows the law of
414 minimum with yield-limiting factors being management, biological and abiotic factors. Here we
415 examined the likelihood that productivity gaps are caused by insufficient amounts of N fertiliser
416 applied to temporary and permanent grassland in recent years. The current respective yield gaps of
417 about 45 and 39% estimated, may be overstated, especially for permanent grassland because a
418 substantial proportion of the grassland will be grazed and wastes from the livestock would add
419 between 60 and 80 kg N/ha to the grassland systems depending on whether the grassland is
420 intensively or moderately intensively managed (Defra, 2010). However, these gaps represented
421 average relative yield reduction due to suboptimal applications of N-fertiliser (**Figure 1**). However,
422 the yield gaps could vary across grasslands of different natural productivities (i.e. DMY on fields at 0
423 N fertiliser, see **Figure 1**) due to difference in N supplied from soil mineralisation).

424 The data compiled from the annual statistics indicated that the total grassland area gradually
425 declined for about 15 years from 1984, but remained steady until 2015 (**Figure S2**). The decline in
426 total grassland area between 1996 (12.73 M ha) and 2015 (12.38 M ha) was minimal. However, the
427 herd size declined between 1996 and 2015 by 17.6% (12.0 versus 9.9 M heads) and 20.8% (42.1
428 versus 33.3 M heads) for cattle (including calves) and total sheep and lambs, respectively. The
429 decline in animal number supported by the same grassland area shows that temporary and
430 permanent grasslands were an under-exploited resource. This indicates that some grasslands that
431 are not used for livestock or do not perform to their full production potential. As underperformance
432 of improved grassland has been attributed to infrequent re-seeding and inadequate soil pH (Hopkins
433 *et al.*, 1994), we believe that grassland management offers considerable opportunities for
434 improvement. Closing the yield gaps between the attainable and the on-farm actual DMY is impeded
435 by little empirical information about on-farm DMYs associated with different grassland groups
436 (Oenema *et al.*, 2014). They reported that the on-farm DMY in intensively managed dairy systems
437 ranged from 50 to 80% of the attainable DMY in Chile and from 60 to 80% in the Netherlands.

438 4.5 Prospects for future grassland production in GB

439 The analyses presented in Scenarios A – D (**Figure 6**) demonstrates the influence of changing
440 management patterns on GB grassland DM production and illustrates the breadth of options that
441 are available for the development of land use policy in relation to grassland systems. Scenarios A – D
442 provide understanding of changes in total GB grassland yield as management practices are altered
443 over increasing area. By illustrating where constraints to conversion are likely to become an issue we
444 provide a realistic view of changes that could be realised. For example, as demonstrated in Scenario
445 A, a reduction in the intensity of management of 20% of permanent grasslands would have limited
446 impact on total GB grassland DM production in 2050 compared to the 2010 baseline. This is achieved
447 through the adoption of best practice fertiliser application, and based on technological progress and
448 changes in climate to 2050 that are in line with the modelling assumption used in this study.

449 Alternatively, as demonstrated in Scenarios C and D (**Figure 6**), increasing management intensity of
450 areas of grassland that are likely not constrained by biophysical limits or existing policy drivers could
451 make an additional ca. 18 million tonnes per annum of biomass resource available. This resources
452 could be put to multiple uses depending on national priorities. For example, increasing the national
453 herd to support food independence and increased exports, or alternatively the biomass could be
454 used as a resource for energy production through routes such as anaerobic digestion (Prochnow *et*
455 *al.*, 2009; McEniry *et al.*, 2013).

456 Scenario E present a simple scenario of changes in grassland management practice across GB that
457 considers how policy might be designed to reflect differing regional priorities. The scenario of
458 improved grassland reversion in upland regions considers a policy focused on mechanisms to
459 support farmers for the delivery and protection of other ecosystem services within systems that may
460 be particularly challenging from a production perspective. These include protection of water quality
461 and carbon stocks, and in certain regions maintenance of landscape characteristics. In scenario E,
462 grassland production would shift to more intensively managed lowland regions to maintain total GB
463 grassland production.

464 5 Conclusions

465 DMVs were calculated using meta-models at 1 km² grid resolution for different grassland systems in
466 the UK and then projected to the future (2010s to 2050s) accounting for climate change, rising
467 atmospheric [CO₂] and technological progress under low and medium emission scenarios. National
468 baseline productivities (1970s to 1980s) of 10.5, 7.8 and 2.6 t/ha adjusted to benchmark
469 productivities (2010) of 12.5, 8.7 and 2.8 t/ha on temporary, permanent and rough-grazing
470 grassland, respectively. Future yield increase will mainly come from technological innovation and
471 rising atmospheric [CO₂] and yield increments are likely to be larger on temporary than on
472 permanent grassland, with little change on rough-grazing. Projected grassland DMV could reach 15.5
473 and 9.8 t/ha on temporary and permanent grassland by 2050 under medium CO₂ emission scenario,
474 respectively. Maps display the regional concentration of grassland productivity and total biomass
475 availability at 1 km² grid for GB based on the 2010 survey. Recent decline of N application to sub-
476 optimal N rates has likely resulted in productivity gaps of ca. 40% on improved grassland. Closing
477 some of these productivity gaps can either lead to additional biomass availability or spare some of
478 these grasslands for other uses. Scenarios show that intensification of lowland grasslands can
479 outweigh the reversion of upland grassland areas to rough grazing or low intensity permanent
480 pastures.

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488 yields using the Park Grass Long-term Experiments National Capability (LTE-NCG), which is
489 supported by the BBSRC and the Lawes Agricultural Trust.

490 Supplemental Material

491 Tables

492 **Table S1a:** The range and mean percentage of dry matter yield (DMY) increase due to CO₂
493 fertilisation effect in selected reports found on perennial ryegrass (*Lolium perenne*).

494 **Table S1b:** The measured decadal mean atmospheric [CO₂] (part per million by volume:
495 ppm) and projected atmospheric [CO₂] by the BERN carbon cycle model under low and
496 medium CO₂ emission scenarios ending in decades from 1970s to 2050s.

497 **Table S2:** The applied percentage increase (f_{CFE}) above the baseline DMY due to fertilisation
498 effect of increased [CO₂] in the atmosphere on all grasslands in 1990s to 2050s in the UK.

499 **Table S3a:** Estimated annual percent increases in various reports in potential and the on-
500 farm DMY in grasslands of perennial ryegrass attributed to technological progress.

501 **Table S3b:** The applied percentage increase above the baseline DMY due to technological
502 progress on all grasslands from the 1990s to 2050s in the UK, that is, f_{TP} in Equations 1 and
503 2.

504 **Table S4:** Percent change in the future decades under low and medium CO₂ emission
505 scenarios relative to the baseline climate scenario (1961-1990) in seasonal precipitation (P),
506 global radiation (R_g) and mean seasonal air temperatures (T_{air}).

507 **Table S5:** Total availability of dry biomass in million tonnes (M t) in the UK based on the
508 areas reported for temporary (TG), permanent (PG) and rough-grazing (RG) grasslands in
509 2010 (Defra, 2015) and using the benchmark DMY calculated for the 2010s (**Table 2**).

510 **Table S6:** Distribution of nitrate vulnerable zones in Great Britain (GB) used in the scenario
511 analysis of grassland intensification in cases of changing PG into TG and RG into PG
512 Figures
513 **Figure S1:** National average annual N applied amount (N kg/ha) on temporary and
514 permanent grassland from 1992 to 2015 in Great Britain (Defra, 2016b).
515 **Figure S2:** Annual trends in total grassland area, total number of cattle and calves and of
516 sheep and lamb in the UK ([https://www.gov.uk/government/statistical-data-](https://www.gov.uk/government/statistical-data-sets/agriculture-in-the-united-kingdom)
517 [sets/agriculture-in-the-united-kingdom](https://www.gov.uk/government/statistical-data-sets/agriculture-in-the-united-kingdom)). Data on total number of sheep and lamb were not
518 available before 1996.
519

520 Figure captions

521 **Figure 1:** Yield gap (YG) exemplified for temporary grassland (TG) derived from the response curve of
522 relative dry matter yield (DMY%) to variable N application. The vertical arrows show the reduction of
523 the recommended (300 kg/ha) to the actual N application rate for TG (ca. 100 kg/ha). Response
524 curve was derived from experimental data (Morrison *et al.*, 1980); respective N-fertiliser data were
525 extracted from Fertiliser Manual (Defra 2010) and National Statistics (Defra 2016).

526 **Figure 2:** Spatially explicit technology- and CO₂- adjusted dry matter yields (DMYs) on different
527 grasslands at 1 km² grid resolution in 2010 in the UK.

528 **Figure 3:** The technology- and CO₂-adjusted mean national dry matter (DM) yield for temporary (TG),
529 permanent (PG) and rough-grazing (RG) grassland in the UK on the assumption that all available land
530 had been used as single grassland type (i.e. a “blanket” approach) in 2010-2050s under medium (a)
531 and low (b) emission scenarios.

532 **Figure 4:** Spatially explicit availability of dry biomass (t/km²) for rough-grazing, permanent and
533 temporary grassland based on the respective grassland areas surveyed in 2010 in Great Britain and
534 the technology- and CO₂-adjusted DMYs in 2010s (i.e. from **Figure 2**).

535 **Figure 5:** Regional areas (a) and availability of total dry matter (b) at the NUTS (Nomenclature of
536 Territorial Units for Statistics) level 1 based on the digitised areas for temporary (TG), permanent
537 (PG) and rough-grazing (RG) grasslands surveyed in 2010 in Great Britain.

538 **Figure 6** Changes in total dry matter (TDM) production on grassland in Great Britain (tonnes per
539 year) from 2010 to 2050 under a low CO₂ emission scenario. Scenarios explore: (a) conversion of PG
540 to RG (Abandonment); (b) conversion of TG to PG (Reversion); (c) conversion of PG to TG (Lowland
541 Intensification); (d) conversion of RG to PG (Upland Intensification). Benchmark TDM production in
542 Great Britain for the 2010s (●) would change with increasing conversion rates of grassland inside (x)
543 and outside (+) of environmental constraints.

544 **Figure 7:** Changes in total areas in GB of temporary (TG), permanent (PG) and rough-grazing (RG)
545 grasslands with increased percentage of conversion of permanent grassland to rough grazing
546 (Abandonment) in upland regions (PG(UL) maintaining total GB grassland dry matter production (*ca.*
547 71,000,000 tonnes per annum) through intensification of PG to TG in lowland areas (PG(LL)).
548 Productivity in 2050s under low CO₂ emission scenario.

549

550 Tables

551 **Table 1:** The weather-governed mean national DMY (t/ha) across the UK as if all available
552 land had been used as a single grassland type (i.e. blanket approach) under baseline and
553 future climates.

CO ₂ emission scenario	Grassland	Baseline	2020s	2030s	2040s	2050s
Low	Temporary	10.5	10.5	10.6	10.6	10.6
	Permanent	7.8	7.6	7.5	7.4	7.5
	Rough-grazing	2.6	2.5	2.5	2.4	2.4
Medium	Temporary	10.5	10.5	10.6	10.6	10.6
	Permanent	7.8	7.6	7.5	7.4	7.4
	Rough-grazing	2.6	2.5	2.4	2.4	2.3

554

555

556 **Table 2:** The technology- and CO₂-adjusted national benchmark mean DMY (t/ha) across the
557 UK in accordance with surveyed grassland areas for each grassland type in 2010 overlaid
558 with the meta-model calculated DMY from 2010-2050s.

CO ₂ emission scenario	Grassland	2010s	2020s	2030s	2040s	2050s
Low	Temporary	12.5	13.1	13.8	14.5	15.3
	Permanent	8.7	8.9	9.3	9.5	9.8
	Rough-grazing	2.8	2.7	2.7	2.7	2.7
Medium	Temporary	12.5	13.2	13.9	14.7	15.5
	Permanent	8.7	8.9	9.3	9.6	9.9
	Rough-grazing	2.8	2.7	2.7	2.7	2.7

559

560 **Table 3:** The current national on-farm DMY as a proportion of the attainable DMY with
561 recommended economically optimal N application rates (kg N/ha) as calculated by the
562 response curve of relative dry matter yield (DMY%) to N application rate (kg N/ha) (**Figure 1**)
563 and the consequential yield gap on TG and PG in GB (based on total production; **Table S5**).

Grassland	Recommended N rate	Actual N rate	DMY% at recommended N rate	DMY% at actual N rate	Fraction of attainable yield	Yield gap 10^6 t yr^{-1}
Temporary	300	99.1	82.46	45.62	55.3	5.71
Permanent	150	51.6	56.72	34.57	61.0	15.40

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568

569 **Table 4:** Scenarios and constraints explored in analyses of the implication of changes in grassland
 570 management for total grassland dry matter production in Great Britain.

<p>Scenario A: Conversion of PG to RG – this represents reduction of production intensity (Abandonment Scenario). Land use change is not constrained by any factors.</p>
<p>Scenario B: Conversion of TG to PG – again this represents a reduction of production intensity (Reversion Scenario). Land use change is not constrained by any factors.</p>
<p>Scenario C: Conversion of PG to TG – mainly a Lowland Intensification Scenario. Constraints on conversion are imposed where sufficient land is available to meet conversion targets such that preference is given to areas where the average slope is <15% (limit for machinery) and for areas outside NVZs (given that intensification calls for additional fertiliser input).</p>
<p>Scenario D: Conversion of RG to PG – mainly an Upland Intensification Scenario. Constraints on conversion are imposed where sufficient land is available to meet conversion targets such that preference is given to areas with an average height below 250m, where the average slope is <15% (limit for machinery) and for areas outside NVZs (given that intensification calls for additional N fertiliser input).</p>
<p>Scenario E: Abandonment of the uplands – this represent both a reduction of productivity in upland areas (defined as those above 250m) with conversion of improved grassland (PG) to semi-natural grassland (RG), and an intensification of lowland areas with conversion of PG to TG. Here, the scenario was designed to hold grassland production (tonnes per year) stationary through changes in land use. Constraints were altitude, slope (average of less than 15%) and in lowland areas avoidance of areas considered to be in NVZs. The latter constraint was applied as conversion from PG to TG would entail increased N fertiliser inputs.</p>

571

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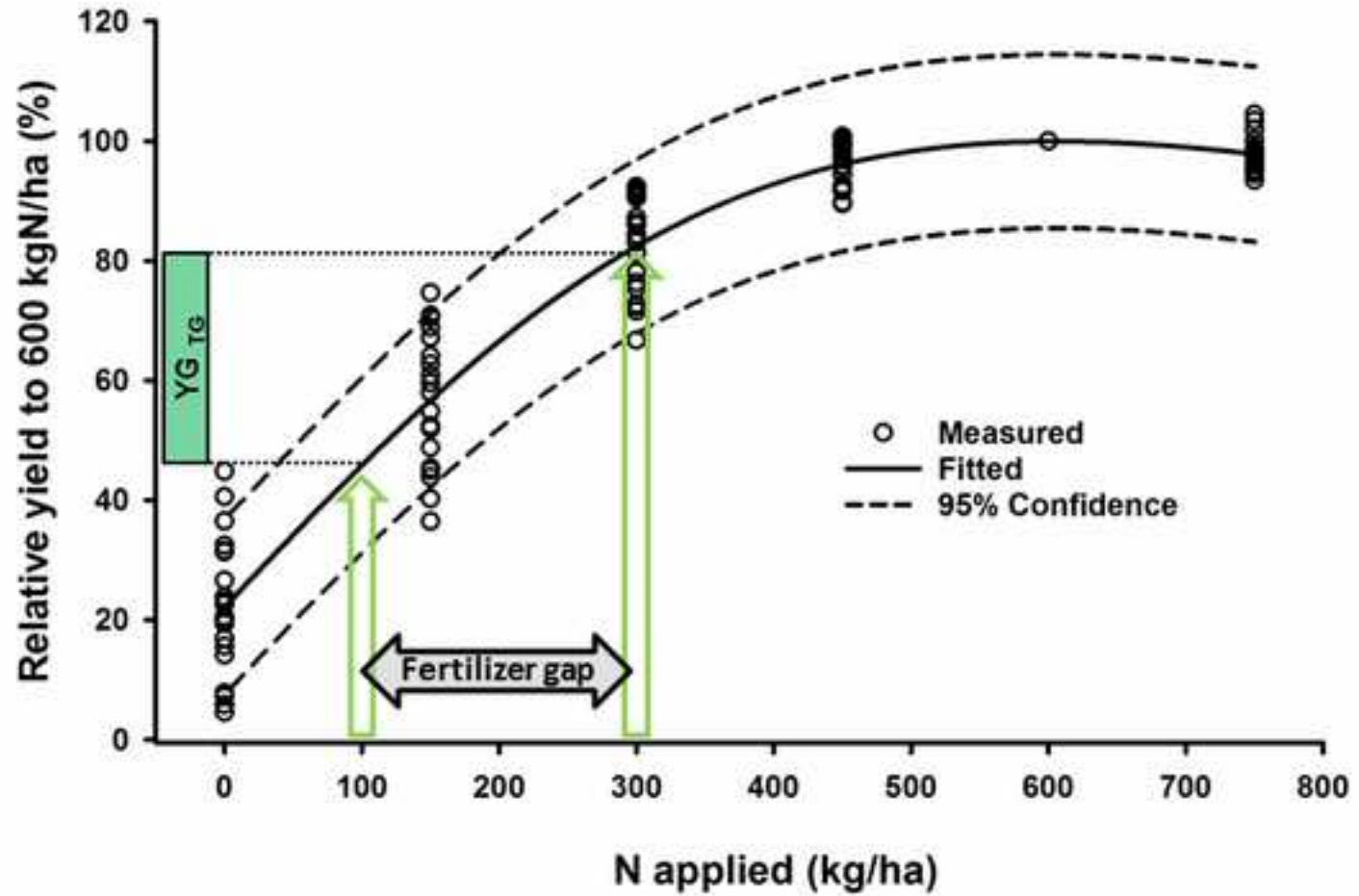


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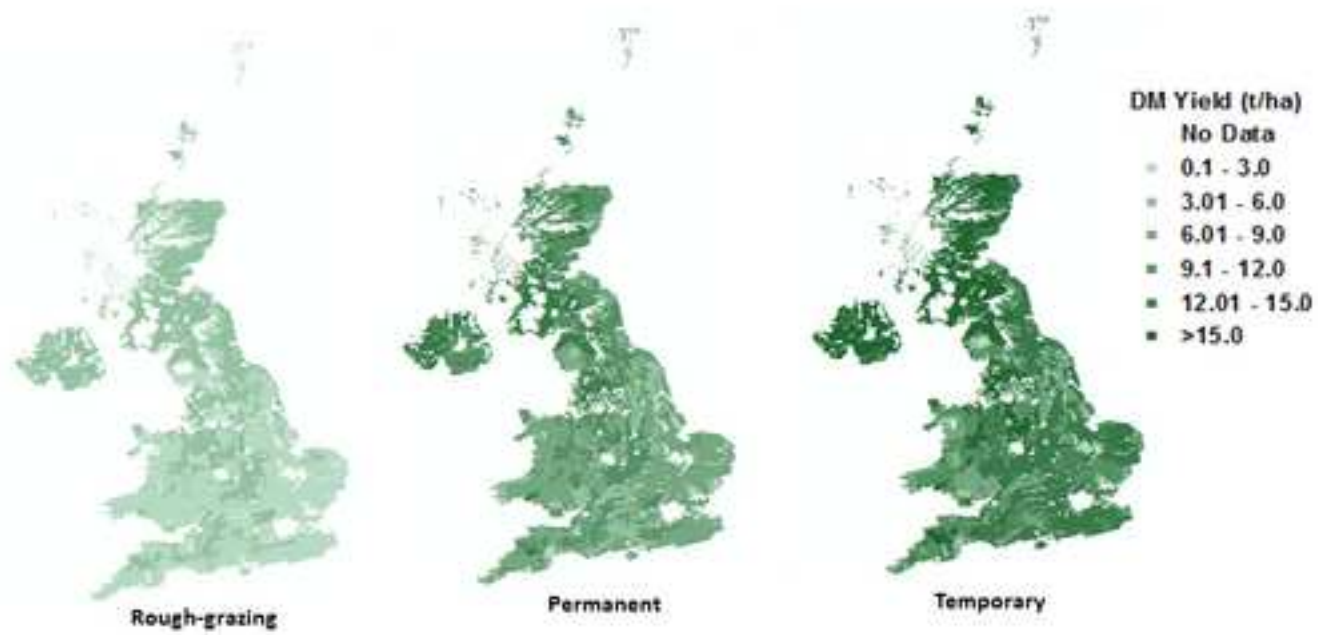


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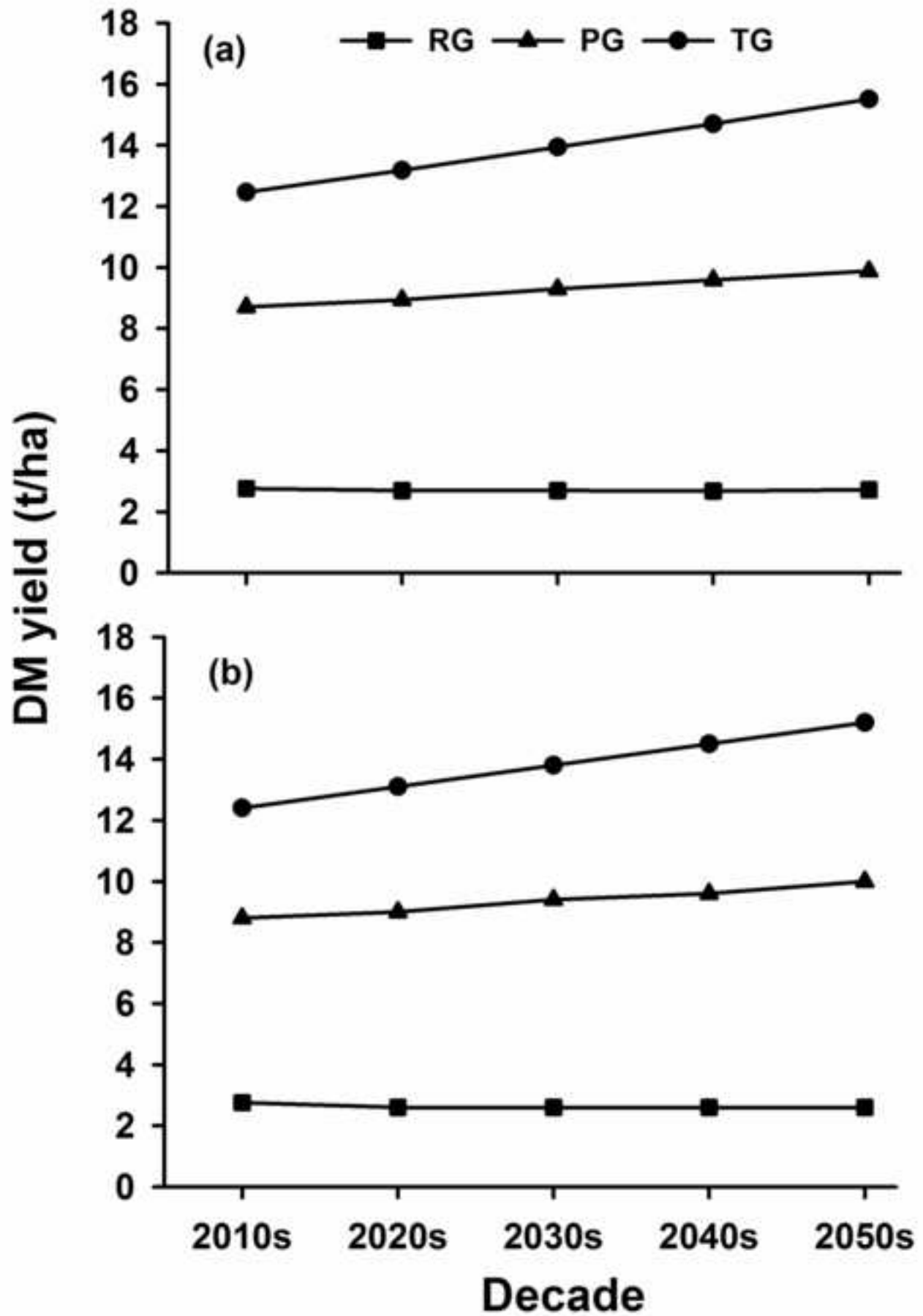


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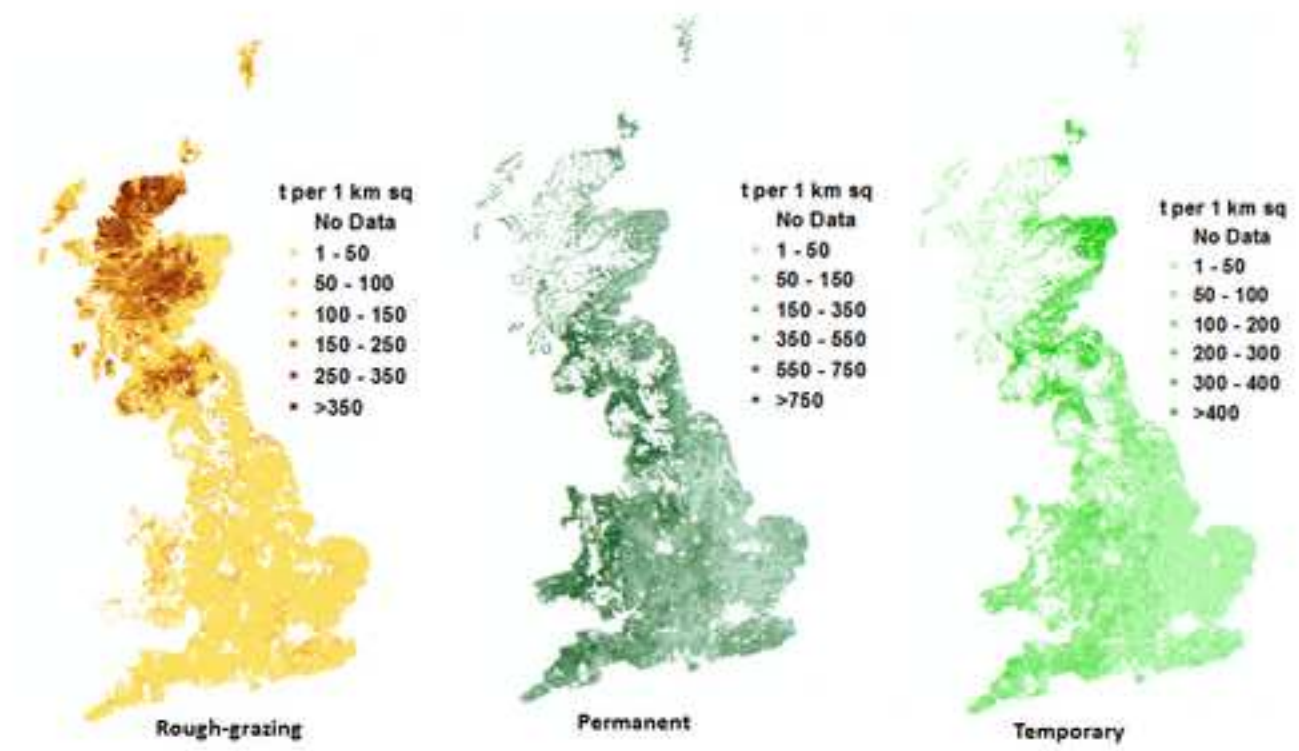


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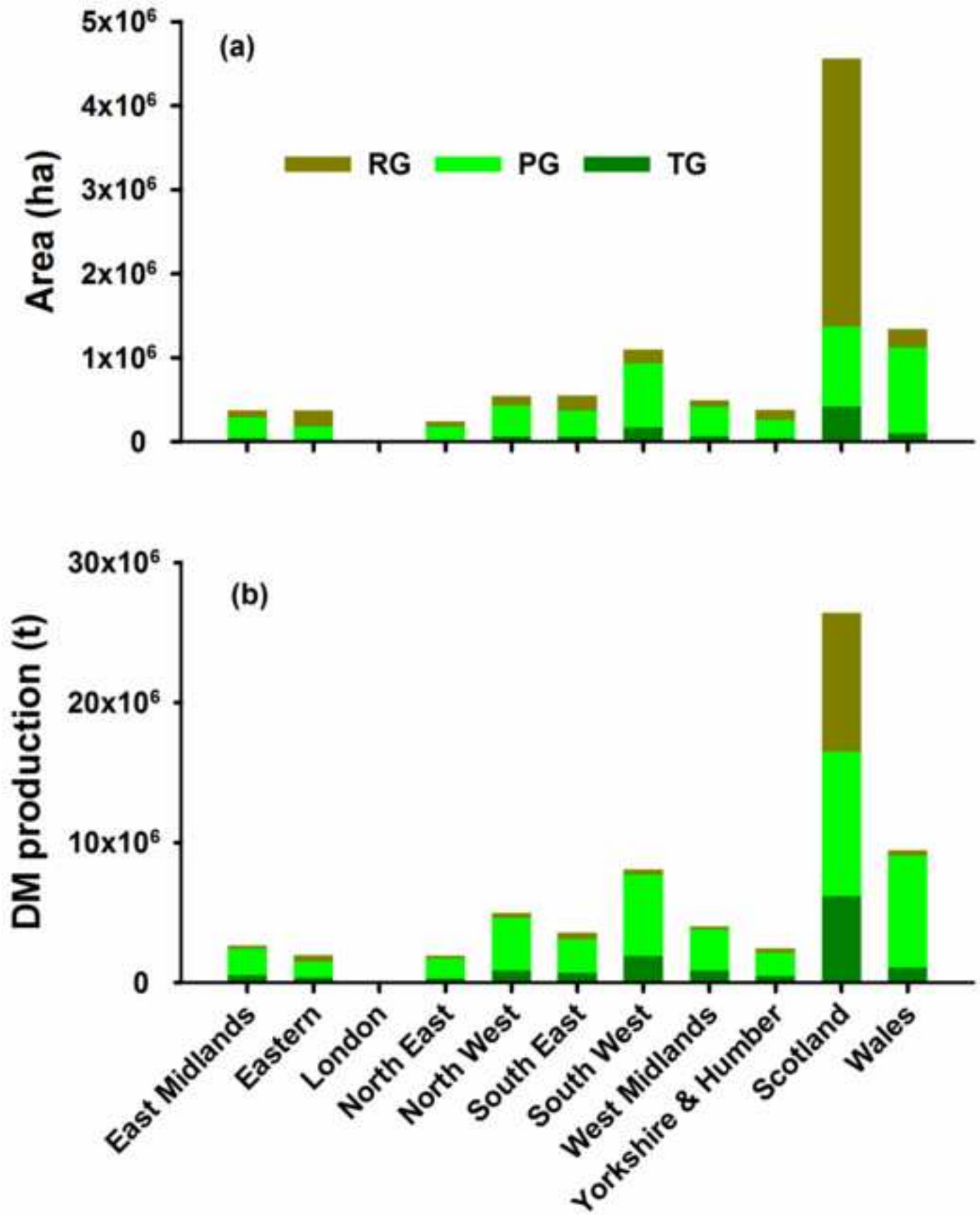
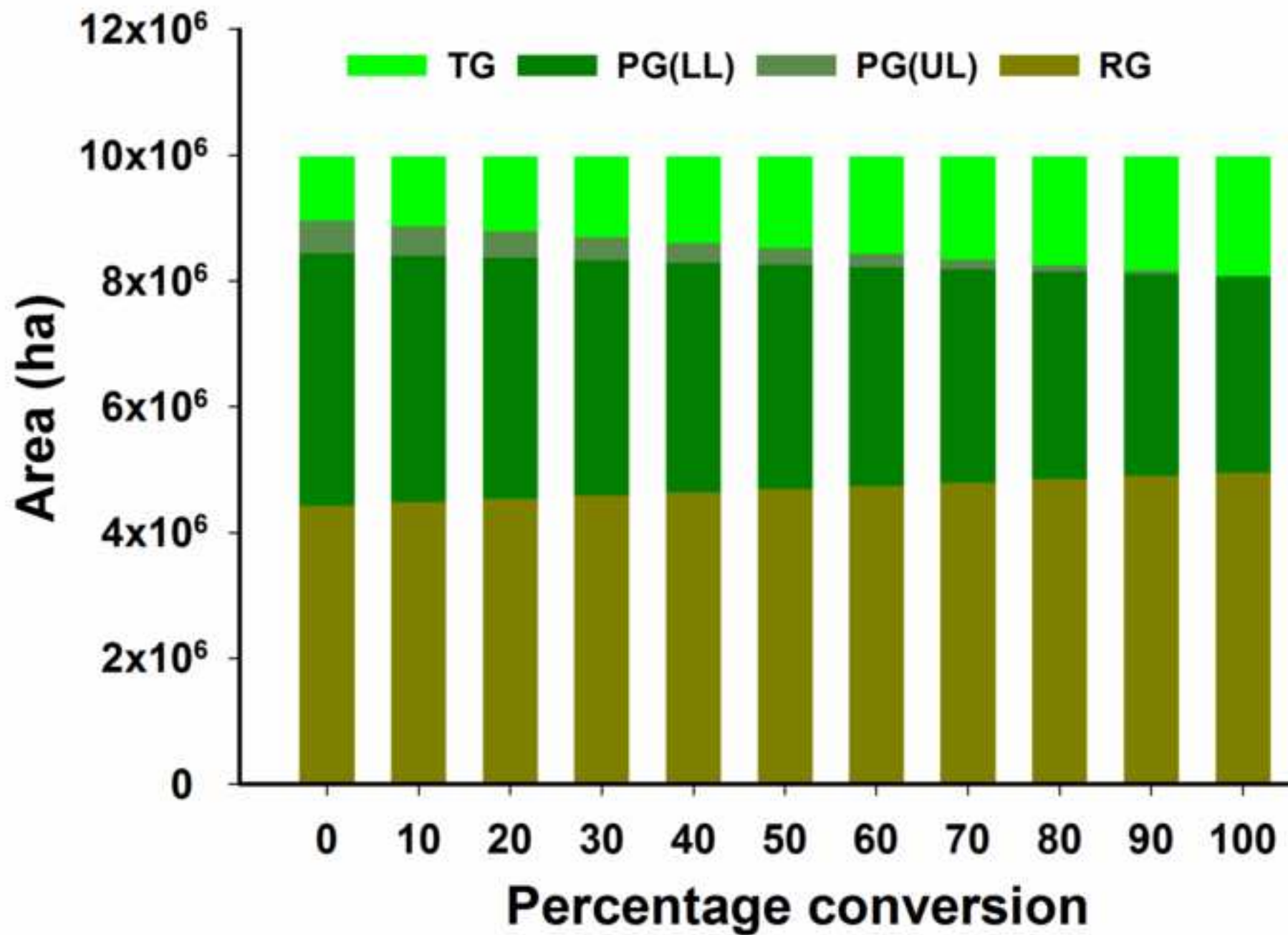


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