

Scotland's Rural College

## Key challenges and priorities for modelling European grasslands under climate change

Kipling, RP; Virkajarvi, P; Breitsameter, L; Curnel, Y; De Swaef, T; Gustavsson, A-M; Hennart, S; Hoglind, M; Jarvenranta, K; Minet, J; Nendel, C; Persson, T; Picon-Cochard, C; Rolinski, S; Sandars, DL; Scollan, ND; Sebek, L; Seddaiu, G; Topp, CFE; Twardy, S; Van Middelkoop, J; Wu, L; Bellocchi, G

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1 **Title:** Key challenges and priorities for modelling European grasslands under climate change

2 **Authors:** Kipling, Richard P.<sup>a\*</sup>, Virkajärvi, Perttu<sup>b</sup>, Breitsameter, Laura<sup>c</sup>, Curnel, Yannick<sup>d</sup>, De Swaef,  
3 Tom<sup>e</sup>, Gustavsson, Anne-Maj<sup>f</sup>, Hennart, Sylvain<sup>d</sup>, Höglind, Mats<sup>g</sup>, Järvenranta, Kirsi<sup>b</sup>, Minet, Julien<sup>h</sup>,  
4 Nendel, Claas<sup>i</sup>, Persson, Tomas<sup>g</sup>, Picon-Cochard, Catherine<sup>j</sup>, Rolinski, Susanne<sup>k</sup>, Sandars, Daniel L.<sup>l</sup>,  
5 Scollan, Nigel D.<sup>a</sup>, Sebek, Leon<sup>m</sup>, Seddaiu, Giovanna<sup>n</sup>, Topp, Cairistiona F.E.<sup>o</sup>, Twardy, Stanislaw<sup>p</sup>, Van  
6 Middelkoop, Jantine<sup>m</sup>, Wu, Lianhai<sup>q</sup> and Bellocchi, Gianni<sup>j</sup>

7 \*Corresponding author

8 <sup>a</sup> IBERS, Aberystwyth University, 1st Floor, Stapledon Building, Plas Gogerddan, Aberystwyth, Ceredigion, UK, SY23 3EE.  
9 Email: rpk@aber.ac.uk Tel: +441970 823160

10 <sup>b</sup> Green Technology, Natural Resources Institute Finland (Luke), Halolantie 31 A, 71750 Maaninka, Finland. Email:  
11 perttu.virkajarvi@luke.fi

12 <sup>c</sup> Leibniz Universität Hannover, Institut für Gartenbauliche Produktionssysteme, Systemmodellierung Gemüsebau,  
13 Herrenhäuser Straße 2, 30419 Hannover, Germany. Email: breitsameter@gem.uni-hannover.de

14 <sup>d</sup> Farming systems, territories and information technologies unit, Walloon agricultural research centre (CRA-W), 9 rue de  
15 Liroux, B-5030 Gembloux, Belgium. Email: y.curnel@cra.wallonie.be

16 <sup>e</sup> ILVO, Plant Sciences Unit, Caritasstraat 39, 9090 Melle, Belgium. Email: tom.deswaef@ilvo.vlaanderen.be

17 <sup>f</sup> Swedish University of Agricultural Sciences (SLU), Department of Agricultural Research for Northern Sweden, SE-901 83  
18 Umeå, Sweden. Email: Anne-Maj.Gustavsson@slu.se

19 <sup>g</sup> Norwegian Institute of Bioeconomy Research (NIBIO) Po. Box 115, NO-1431 Ås. Email: Tomas.Persson@nibio.no

20 <sup>h</sup> Arlon Campus Environnement, University of Liège, Avenue de Longwy 185, 6700 Arlon, Belgium. Email:  
21 julien.minet@ulg.ac.be

22 <sup>i</sup> Institute of Landscape Systems Analysis, Leibniz Centre for Agricultural Landscape Research (ZALF), Eberswalder Straße 84,  
23 15374 Müncheberg, Germany. Email: nendel@zalf.de

24 <sup>j</sup> UREP, INRA, 63000 Clermont-Ferrand, France. Email: gianni.bellocchi@clermont.inra.fr

25 <sup>k</sup> Potsdam Institute for Climate Impact Research, Telegraphenberg A31, 14473 Potsdam, Germany. Email: rolinski@pik-  
26 potsdam.de

27 <sup>l</sup> Cranfield University, School of Energy, Environment, and Agri-food, College Road, Cranfield, Bedfordshire, MK43 0AL.

28 <sup>m</sup> Wageningen UR Livestock Research, P.O. Box 338, 6700 AH Wageningen, The Netherlands. Email:  
29 jantine.vanmiddelkoop@wur.nl

30 <sup>n</sup> NRD, Desertification Research Centre; Dept. of Agriculture, University of Sassari, Viale Italia 39, 07100 - Sassari, Italy.  
31 Email: gseddaiu@uniss.it

32 <sup>o</sup> SRUC, West Mains Road, Edinburgh, UK, EH9 3JG. Email: Kairsty.Topp@sruc.ac.uk

33 <sup>p</sup> Institute of Technology and Life Sciences at Falenty, Malopolska Research Centre in Krakow, 31-450 Krakow, ul. Ulanow  
34 21B, Poland. Email: itepkrak@itep.edu.pl

35 <sup>q</sup> Rothamsted Research, North Wyke, Okehampton, UK, EX20 2SB. Lianhai.Wu@rothamsted.ac.uk

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40 **Abstract**

41 Grassland-based ruminant production systems are integral to sustainable food production in Europe,  
42 converting plant materials indigestible to humans into nutritious food, while providing a range of  
43 environmental and cultural benefits. Climate change poses significant challenges for such systems,  
44 their productivity and the wider benefits they supply. In this context, grassland models have an  
45 important role in predicting and understanding the impacts of climate change on grassland systems,  
46 and assessing the efficacy of potential adaptation and mitigation strategies. In order to identify the  
47 key challenges for European grassland modelling under climate change, modellers and researchers  
48 from across Europe were consulted via workshop and questionnaire. Participants identified fifteen  
49 challenges and considered the current state of modelling and priorities for future research in  
50 relation to each. A review of literature was undertaken to corroborate and enrich the information  
51 provided during the horizon scanning activities. Challenges were in four categories relating to: 1) the  
52 direct and indirect effects of climate change on the sward 2) climate change effects on grassland  
53 systems outputs 3) mediation of climate change impacts by site, system and management and 4)  
54 cross-cutting methodological issues. While research priorities differed between challenges, an  
55 underlying theme was the need for accessible, shared inventories of models, approaches and data,  
56 as a resource for stakeholders and to stimulate new research. Developing grassland models to  
57 effectively support efforts to tackle climate change impacts, while increasing productivity and  
58 enhancing ecosystem services, will require engagement with stakeholders and policy-makers, as well  
59 as modellers and experimental researchers across many disciplines. The challenges and priorities  
60 identified are intended to be a resource 1) for grassland modellers and experimental researchers, to  
61 stimulate the development of new research directions and collaborative opportunities, and 2) for  
62 policy-makers involved in shaping the research agenda for European grassland modelling under  
63 climate change.

64

65 **Keywords**

66 Climate change; grasslands; horizon scanning; livestock production; models; research agenda

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## 71        **1. Introduction**

72        The agricultural sector is facing unprecedented challenges as it attempts to maintain food security in  
73        the context of climate and socio-economic change (Soussana, 2014; Thornton, 2010). The forecasted  
74        increase of world population, dietary changes towards increasing meat consumption and the  
75        demand for bioenergy suggest a global requirement for agricultural products by 2050 roughly twice  
76        that of today (Foley et al., 2011). At the same time as increasing production, the livestock sector will  
77        need to improve efficiency (Thornton, 2010) to avoid increasing the 26% of global land area  
78        currently used for livestock production, and to reduce its estimated 15% share of total  
79        anthropogenic greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions (Ripple et al., 2014). Havlik et al. (2014) suggest that  
80        transitions from grass-based to more intensive livestock production systems may represent a cost-  
81        effective approach to mitigating GHG emissions from livestock agriculture. However, while grass-  
82        based ruminant production systems may be less efficient in terms of GHG emissions and land use  
83        than more intensive systems, they provide a range of other benefits; European grasslands store an  
84        estimated 5.5 Gt of carbon in the top 30 cm of their soils (Lugato et al., 2014). Covering around 30%  
85        of agricultural land in Europe (Huyghe et al., 2014), grasslands also play an important role in the  
86        maintenance of biodiversity and the sustenance of rural communities and cultures (Soussana and  
87        Lemaire, 2014). Intensification or conversion of grasslands to crop production can lead to the  
88        reduction or loss of such benefits (Dusseux et al., 2015). At the same time, ruminants valorise  
89        marginal production areas, converting plant materials indigestible to humans into meat and dairy  
90        products with high efficiency in terms of the consumption of human-edible food per unit of product  
91        (Wheeler and Reynolds, 2013; Wilkinson, 2011). In Europe, around 25% of livestock protein intake  
92        comes from grasslands (Leip et al., 2011). Despite these benefits, grasslands have declined in  
93        Europe, with an estimated loss of seven million hectares between 1967 and 2007 (Huyghe et al.,  
94        2014). Recent predictions suggest that this decline may continue in a climate change future (Leclère  
95        et al., 2013). In this context, a better understanding is required of the impacts of climate change on  
96        European grassland systems, the efficacy of adaptation strategies to increase their resilience and  
97        productivity, and the pathways available to maintain and enhance the essential ecosystem services  
98        they provide (Scollan et al., 2010; Smith et al., 2013).

99        In light of the challenges described, modelling can offer valuable support to farm and policy level  
100        decision-makers, by providing tools to explore the performance of biophysical, management and  
101        policy systems in the context of future climatic and socio-economic scenarios (Graux et al., 2013;  
102        Kipling et al., 2014). A number of high-level strategic assessments of agricultural research priorities  
103        (ATF, 2013; 2014; FACCE-JPI, 2012; Soussana, 2014) present a range of challenges to the agricultural

104 modelling community (Kipling et al., Accepted). The aim of this paper is to lay out in detail the  
105 specific challenges and research priorities that grassland modelling must address, if it is to fulfil its  
106 potential role in helping to tackle the global problems faced by the livestock production sector. The  
107 focus of the paper is on European grasslands, and covers both permanent grasslands and leys  
108 (grasslands established for less than five years). Three broad types of model applied to European  
109 grasslands have previously been identified (Bellocchi et al., 2013); specialised grassland models, crop  
110 models with grassland options, and vegetation models that can characterise a range of plant  
111 communities including grasslands. This paper incorporates challenges relevant for all of these model  
112 types, and explores links to other modelling disciplines and approaches.

113

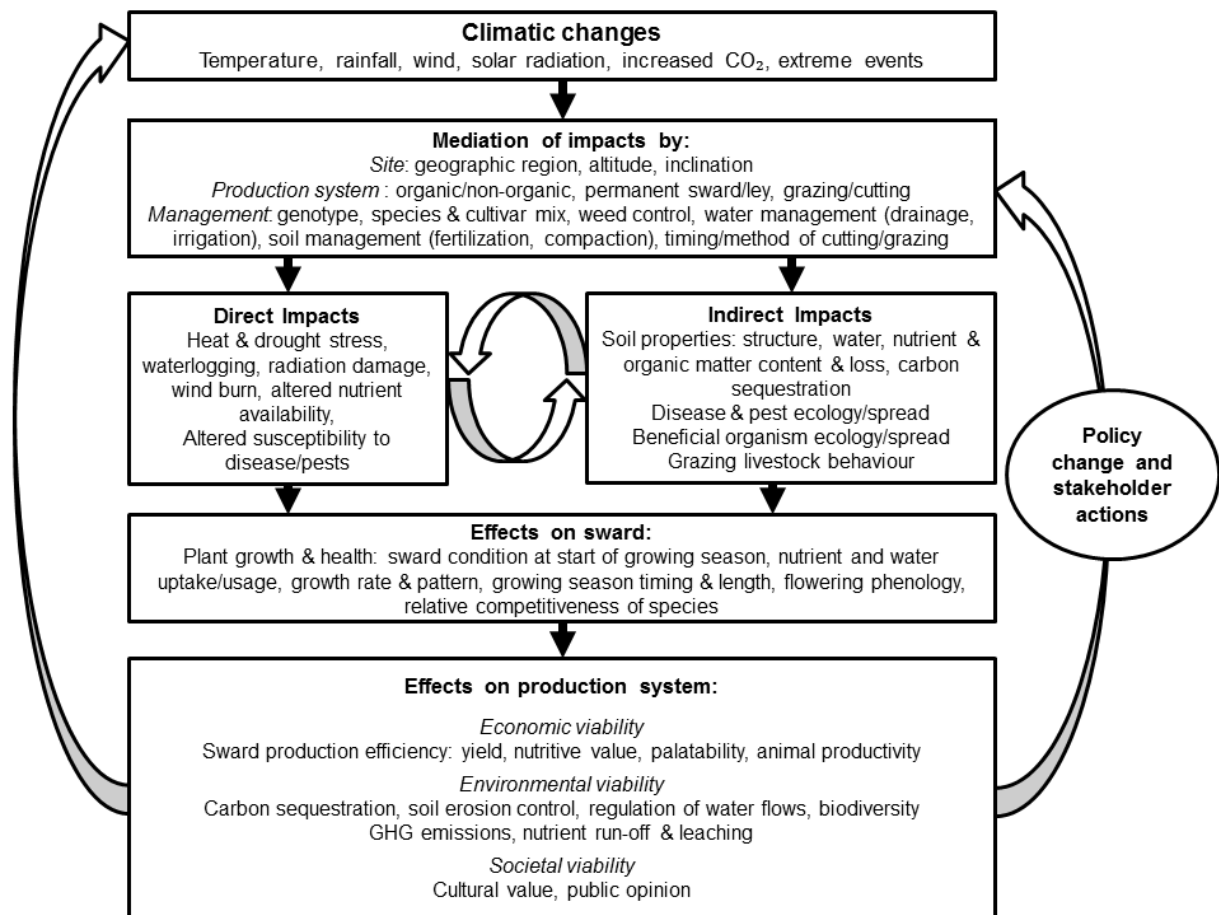
## 114 **2. Methods**

115 In order to understand the challenges and research priorities for grassland modelling, a ‘horizon  
116 scanning’ approach based on that of Pretty et al. (2010) was used to gain the views of grassland  
117 modellers and researchers from 18 institutes across 10 countries. The experts were drawn from, or  
118 known to, partners contributing to a large European modelling network, the Agriculture, Food  
119 Security and Climate Change Joint Programming Initiative (FACCE JPI) knowledge hub Modelling  
120 European Agriculture with Climate Change for Food Security (MACSUR) (<http://www.macsur.eu>).  
121 Views were gathered using a workshop and questionnaire and corroborated through the literature,  
122 with the scope of discussions determined through a pre-workshop mapping process.

### 123 **2.1. Mapping Process**

124 Grassland models can cover a range of systems and processes, and a scoping exercise was necessary  
125 to define the boundaries for discussions and questionnaire responses. Workshop facilitators and task  
126 leaders involved in relevant activities within the MACSUR project created a single page diagram  
127 intended to capture the components, processes and interactions associated with grassland  
128 modelling. Participants were then asked to comment on and amend the map in an iterative process,  
129 until a consensus was reached. The final map (Fig. 1) was used as a reference in workshop  
130 discussions and distributed along with the questionnaire to guide responses.

131



132

133 **Figure 1:** Map of impacts of climate change on grassland systems, including feedbacks.

134 2.2. Workshop Approach

135 A workshop was held between the 17<sup>th</sup> and 19<sup>th</sup> of June 2015 at Wageningen University and  
 136 Research Centre (The Netherlands). Workshop sessions were organised based on the ‘Futures  
 137 Workshop’ approach (Jungk and Müllert, 1987; Valqui Vidal, 2005) as adapted for use in the EU FP7  
 138 SOLID (Sustainable Organic and Low Input Dairying) project (<http://www.solidairy.eu>). Workshop  
 139 participants were divided into small groups (5-6 people) and were invited to identify challenges to  
 140 modelling in the subject areas covered by the workshop. Each participant wrote down as many  
 141 challenges as they wished. Asking contributors to write down their suggestions ensured that all  
 142 views were taken into account, reducing the problem of bias towards the opinions of the most vocal  
 143 participants, which has been recognised in some focus group settings (Kitzinger, 1995). In discussion  
 144 with their group, facilitators brought similar challenges together to remove duplication, and  
 145 arranged them logically according to identified links between topics. Secondly, groups identified the  
 146 ‘ideal world’ that would exist if each individual challenge were overcome. In the third step,  
 147 participants were asked to discuss the current position and the potential for moving towards the  
 148 ideal state for each challenge. Participants then identified practical research steps that could be

149 taken in each case. Finally, the small groups were brought together to exchange views and add  
150 further comments and thoughts to the ‘maps’ created. The approach enabled a structured set of  
151 challenges, research priorities and ideal world conditions to emerge from discussions of complex  
152 topics encompassing many different disciplines and viewpoints.

### 153 2.3. Questionnaire approach and synthesis of outputs

154 In order that views could be gathered from experts who could not attend the workshop, a  
155 questionnaire was designed using a similar structure to the workshop exercises and distributed to  
156 contributors (Appendix 1). The questionnaire asked respondents to list challenges to modelling, ideal  
157 states and the research steps required to move towards those ideals. Workshop outputs and  
158 questionnaire responses were combined in a single spreadsheet, removing duplicated challenges  
159 while retaining all distinct research steps identified. Information was shared with participants to  
160 provide another opportunity for them to add to the challenges and research steps defined, based on  
161 1) the development of their thoughts following initial participation, and 2) consideration of their  
162 workshop and questionnaire responses in the context of existing literature. This round of revision  
163 enabled descriptions of the current state of research to be enriched with reference to existing  
164 review and research papers. The final list of challenges, ideal states and research steps were then  
165 grouped into overarching themes.

166

## 167 3. Challenges and priorities for modelling

168 The workshop and questionnaire responses identified fifteen challenges. Twelve of these could be  
169 categorized using the different aspects of grassland systems under climate change depicted in Fig. 1,  
170 and three were cross-cutting challenges (Table 1). The first category of challenges relate to ‘direct  
171 and indirect climate change effects on the sward’. Challenges one to three refer to biophysical  
172 interactions which will require improved modelling in the context of climate change. These are  
173 followed by three challenges (four to six) relating to modelling plant responses to climatic change,  
174 while challenge seven considers the importance of widening the scope of modelling to take account  
175 of pests and pathogens, the impact of which is likely to alter as the environment changes. The  
176 category ‘Climate change effects on grassland system outputs’ (challenges eight to 10) focuses on  
177 how environmental changes affect the economic and environmental outputs of grassland systems.  
178 Challenges 11 to 12 in the category ‘Mediation of climate change impacts by site, system and  
179 management’ cut across individual biophysical aspects, and are related to increasing capacity in  
180 modelling different and changing systems, regions and management regimes. Finally, challenges 13

181 to 15 underpin the others, centring on making models that can adapt to stakeholder demands and  
 182 overcoming technical and data-related challenges. These groups of challenges and priorities are  
 183 described in the following section. The main lessons drawn from the challenges are then brought  
 184 together (section 4).

185 **Table 1:** Challenges for grassland modelling identified by experts. Except for the methodological challenges,  
 186 categories map onto the aspects of grassland systems depicted in Fig. 1. Challenges numbered as in the text.

Category	Challenge
Direct and indirect effects of climate change on the sward	<b>1</b> Modelling multi-species swards
	<b>2</b> Modelling soil variables/processes
	<b>3</b> Modelling livestock and pasture interactions
	<b>4</b> Modelling plant responses to environmental change
	<b>5</b> Modelling overwintering
	<b>6</b> Modelling the impact of extreme events
	<b>7</b> Incorporating plant pests & pathogens into models
Climate change effects on grassland system outputs	<b>8</b> Modelling the provision of ecosystem services
	<b>9</b> Modelling nutrient cycles and GHG balances
	<b>10</b> Modelling nutritional variables required to predict animal performance
Mediation of climate change impacts by site, system & management	<b>11</b> Modelling different regions and production systems
	<b>12</b> Modelling adaptation strategies
Cross-cutting methodological challenges	<b>13</b> Making models ‘fit-for-purpose’
	<b>14</b> Linking different scales of modeling and data
	<b>15</b> Providing data for models

187

188 *3.1. Direct and indirect effects of climate change on the sward*

189

190 1. Modelling multi-species swards

191 *The challenge:* Species-diverse swards may improve grassland resilience to changing climatic  
 192 conditions (MacDougall et al., 2013). However, biodiversity, which has been linked to the provision  
 193 of ecosystem services, may be affected by climate change, as relationships (both competitive and  
 194 mutualistic) between species alter in novel and more variable conditions (Tylianakis et al., 2008;  
 195 Vicca et al., 2006). Many grassland models were designed for application to single species swards, or



196 | to simple mixes such as clover and ryegrass (Lazzarotto et al., 2009). As a result, they are often  
197 | limited in their capacity to characterise interactions in multi-species swards. These types of  
198 | interaction may be complex, including above and below ground processes (Blomqvist et al., 2000;  
199 | Dhamala et al., 2015) and transfers of nitrogen from legumes to other species (Nyfeler et al., 2011;  
200 | Pirhofer-Walzl et al., 2011). There is growing recognition of the importance of understanding better  
201 | the role of groups such as legumes in mixed swards, with a need for high protein forages to reduce  
202 | reliance on expensive supplementary feeds and reduce nitrogen inputs (Lüscher et al., 2014; Suter et  
203 | al., 2015).

204 | Some current process based models incorporate species mixtures to some extent (Ma et al., 2015)  
205 | but further development is needed for uses that require characterisation beyond the definition of an  
206 | average vegetation, for example in relation to the simulation of changes in sward composition. Snow  
207 | et al. (2014) considered the ability of six grassland models to characterise multi-species swards,  
208 | finding a diverse range of approaches to this challenge. They highlighted potential limitations in  
209 | modelling more diverse swards, in the capacity of simpler approaches to adequately represent the  
210 | impacts of changed conditions, and in the capacity to model novel species mixtures, such as swards  
211 | including tree and shrub species. In the context of climate change, improving modelling capability in  
212 | these respects is of particular importance, because of the expected changes in environmental  
213 | conditions, increases in extreme events (challenge 6) and adaptation strategies incorporating  
214 | increased sward diversity and agro-forestry (challenge 12).

215 | *Research priorities:* A full review of current modelling capability, data and knowledge relating to  
216 | multi-species grasslands is required as a first step in defining the options for developing modelling  
217 | capacity, including a theoretical framework for new multi-species models. Outputs and approaches  
218 | from the vegetation modelling community can provide important insights with respect to  
219 | interactions between species or functional types and their responses to climate change (Scheiter et  
220 | al., 2013). An exploration of work on plant functional groups to identify the most important traits  
221 | and processes (parameters) for modelling would ideally be a part of such a review. The most  
222 | important types of sward for modellers to focus on could be investigated by reviewing information  
223 | on the species mixtures that (based on current knowledge) are believed to perform best under  
224 | climate change. Through the development of modular modelling approaches (challenge 13)  
225 | connecting biodiversity modules to existing models offers one potential route to improve modelling  
226 | capacity in relation to multi-species swards (challenge 8). Inventories of grassland models have been  
227 | compiled as part of the activities of current research networks such as MACSUR (Bellocchi et al.,  
228 | 2013) and comparisons of models such as that undertaken by Snow et al. (2014) provide the basis

229 for a more systematic synthesis of information about current models. Online repositories such as the  
230 Agricultural Modelling Knowledge Hub (AgriMod) (<http://agrimod.basedev.co.uk>) can be used to  
231 share such information, allowing model developers to update entries as their models are improved  
232 over time.

233

## 234 2. Modelling soil variables/processes

235 *The challenge:* Many grassland models include fairly sophisticated ways of representing physical,  
236 chemical and biological soil processes (Bellocchi et al., 2013). However, a range of complex  
237 processes occur within the soil across many variables, including soil capillarity, leaching, evaporation,  
238 effects of soil biota (such as earthworms), changes in the seed bank, soil microbial activity, impacts  
239 of manuring and other fertilisation, and changes in soil organic matter. In the context of climate  
240 change, experimental research and modelling has often focussed on the impacts of individual  
241 variables affecting soil processes (soil warming, nitrogen deposition, water availability, CO<sub>2</sub>  
242 fertilization and fire) whilst it is known that interactions between such variables mean that their  
243 combined effects are not easily predictable (Sierra et al., 2015). There are also complex interactions  
244 between plants, mesofauna (Rossetti et al., 2015) and microbial populations and activity (Bagella et  
245 al., 2014; Steinauer et al., 2015). Dunbabin et al. (2013) reviewed root architectural modelling and  
246 identified the need for more data and conceptual models relating to soil biology, rhizosphere  
247 chemistry, soil texture and mycorrhizas, as well as the need to consider root anatomy in models.

248 The development of SPACSYS (Wu et al., 2007) demonstrates how mechanistic plant (including root)  
249 modelling can be applied at the field scale, while Perveen et al. (2014) describe the characterisation  
250 in the SYMPHONY model of the impact of microbial diversity and the soil priming effect (the increase  
251 in soil organic matter decomposition after fresh organic input) on soil-plant interactions. Linking root  
252 modelling to soil models and engaging with plant modellers to drive real-world change (such as  
253 improving plant genomes or predicting plant responses to change in the field) has been recognised  
254 as a priority by the root modelling community (Dunbabin et al., 2013).

255 *Research priorities:* The preceding discussion indicates the need and scope for better communication  
256 between grassland modellers, specialised soil and root modellers and experimental researchers, to  
257 ensure that grassland models incorporate best practice in these disciplines, with as much detail as  
258 needed to effectively fulfil the functions required of them (challenge 13). Contacts through networks  
259 such as MACSUR, joint workshops, conference participation, and the development of infrastructure  
260 for exchanging information could all support improved communication. Undertaking assessments of

261 the validity of the various functions and approaches used in modelling specific soil processes also  
262 represents an important priority in reducing model uncertainty (Sierra et al., 2015). Improved  
263 modelling of soil and hydrological processes is considered further in the context of modelling  
264 nutrient cycles and GHG balances (challenge 9).

265

### 266 3. Modelling livestock and pasture interactions

267 *The challenge:* The impacts of livestock on grasslands, and the reciprocal impacts of grassland  
268 management on livestock are multi-faceted and complex. In mixed swards, selective grazing by  
269 animals and the spatial distribution of excreta can affect plant species composition and  
270 characteristics, through direct influences on inter-specific competition, and indirectly through the  
271 uneven distribution of nutrients (Liu et al., 2015; Xi et al., 2014). Grazing intensity is likely to affect  
272 soil water retention, poaching, compaction (challenge 2), nutrient leaching and run-off, and GHG  
273 emissions (challenge 9). Under conditions where the interaction between animal behaviour and the  
274 environment have severe impacts on the sward, the effects on both grassland and livestock become  
275 a function of management choices, as grazing pressure is reduced or animals are moved off the  
276 pasture. In turn, sward composition, plant cover and condition directly affect feed availability and  
277 digestibility (Hopkins and Wilkins, 2006), while external conditions, grazing behaviour and  
278 management choices can all affect the disease and parasite risk from the grassland environment  
279 (Fox et al., 2013; Smith et al., 2009). Models need to capture such relationships in order to identify  
280 the best animal species, breeds and management regimes to maximise the efficiency of grassland-  
281 based production under climate change in different environments. Snow et al. (2014) review the  
282 various aspects of modelling livestock-pasture interactions, highlighting the challenges relating to  
283 the trade-off between model usability and accuracy when attempting to model grazing interactions  
284 at animal level, taking into account all the physical variables affecting forage intake. They conclude  
285 that complex models are more important when grazing pressure is low (more extensive systems)  
286 and in model uses where such detail is needed to model the subsequent digestion of the forage. The  
287 importance of the challenges to improving modelling of livestock-pasture interactions is therefore  
288 related to the purpose of the modelling effort (challenge 13) and the nature of the system (challenge  
289 11).

290 *Research priorities:* Creating an inventory of the impacts of livestock on grassland (and the feedback  
291 effects of grassland on livestock) for different livestock species and systems, and mapping this onto  
292 the current capabilities of models, were seen by participants as important first steps to improve

293 modelling capacity. The biggest challenges are likely for models focussing on more extensive systems  
294 with more diverse swards, because for these systems modelling is more complex, both on the animal  
295 and the grassland side of the interaction. The described inventory can facilitate model comparisons,  
296 the identification of gaps in knowledge and the testing of different approaches. As in other  
297 challenges, improvements to allow both an accurate characterisation of livestock-pasture  
298 interactions, and to understand how adaptation strategies might affect such interactions, will  
299 require collaboration; in this case between grassland and livestock modellers (including animal  
300 behaviour modellers) and between modellers and experimental researchers. Progress will be linked  
301 to advances in modelling multi-species swards (challenge 1) and sward nutritive value (challenge 10).

302

#### 303 4. Modelling plant responses to environmental change

304 *The challenge:* The quantification of plant responses to changing climate is a fundamental challenge  
305 for crop grassland models. Climate change can affect grassland plants via changes in a range of  
306 environmental conditions (Fig. 1) and plant responses are likely to vary with species and location  
307 (Dumont et al., 2015). Plant responses to changes in climate include morphological and physiological  
308 adaptation to stress and to raised CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations and changes in photosynthesis, biological  
309 nitrogen fixation, and phenology; such responses involve changes in plant genes, proteins and  
310 metabolites at different time-scales (Ahuja et al., 2010). White et al. (2012) highlighted variation in  
311 methods and focus across experimental sites set up to study plant reactions to climate change, with  
312 some impacts (temperature and water) studied more than others (such CO<sub>2</sub> and N addition) so that  
313 results relating to individual impacts and interactions between impacts were hard to generalise. Only  
314 a few experimental studies have investigated the combined effects of multiple environmental  
315 stresses on grassland plants (Ahuja et al., 2010; Bertrand et al., 2008; Dieleman et al., 2012). Limits  
316 to knowledge are therefore a constraint on model development in this research area. Current grass  
317 and crop models characterise plant growth responses to a range of environmental impacts, including  
318 changes in temperature, radiation, nitrogen and atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> (Höglind et al., 2013; Wu et al.,  
319 2007) including impacts on forage nutritive value (Ben Touhami et al., 2013; Jégo et al., 2013; Jing et  
320 al., 2013; Thivierge et al., 2016). However, relatively few models incorporate all these aspects; some  
321 processes (such as the impacts of CO<sub>2</sub> and variation in N) may be dealt with in a basic way, while some  
322 interactions are not fully understood (Ramirez-Villegas et al., 2015). In relation to adaptive changes  
323 in plant response over time, crop models have been used to explore the impacts of genetic  
324 adaptation on yield under climate change conditions, and to define crop ideotypes for climate  
325 change resilience (Rötter et al., 2015). However, Ramirez Villegas et al. (2015) highlighted

326 challenges, such as the need to couple genetic and crop models to produce outcomes suitable for  
327 incorporation into breeding programmes, and the need to better quantify the robustness of model  
328 outputs. In permanent swards with multiple species a range of factors including epigenetic and  
329 plastic change and genetic change through natural selection and species sorting, shape grassland  
330 responses to the environment. Inter-specific interactions may affect responses to climate change,  
331 including changes in biomass production, sward composition and species diversity (Miranda-  
332 Apodaca et al., 2015; Olsen et al., 2016). Improved modelling of these types of grassland depends on  
333 the advancement of ecological knowledge, and progress in related topics including multi-species,  
334 nutritive value and soil and water modelling (challenges 1, 2, 10).

335 *Research priorities:* Meta-experiments have been recommended to create international networks of  
336 experimental sites which apply the same treatments and recording standards to investigate the  
337 responses of swards to environmental change (Fraser et al., 2013; White et al., 2012). Over the long  
338 term data from such programmes could facilitate more effective model improvement. Knowledge,  
339 data and current model descriptions of the mechanisms underlying grassland plant responses should  
340 be reviewed to assess capacity (which species are well characterised, which types of impact and  
341 which interactions are incorporated and what are the limitations to the approaches used). This  
342 should include consideration of how plant and field level responses are characterised in farm,  
343 regional and global models, to evaluate effectiveness and areas for improvement. Ensemble model  
344 exercises would be instructive in gaining an overview of current knowledge, including about the  
345 climatic and regional boundaries within which grassland models work adequately (Soussana et al.,  
346 2010). Drawing together such information would allow model development to be focused on the  
347 most important relationships and interactions, in terms of their likely impact on grassland yield,  
348 nutritive value and vulnerability to climate change. With respect to temporary grasslands, using  
349 approaches used in crop modelling to explore resilient ideotypes for grassland species will be  
350 important in better predicting the potential benefits of grass and legume breeding programmes in  
351 climate change adaptation.

352

## 353 5. Modelling overwintering

354 *The challenge:* Modelling work with the aim of evaluating grassland performance often focuses on  
355 the growing season. However, changes in permanent swards during the winter can, especially at  
356 high latitudes and in mountainous regions, have important effects on subsequent productivity and  
357 nutritional quality in spring and summer (Rapacz et al., 2014). Despite this, plant processes including,

358 hardening, de-hardening and re-hardening, vernalisation, winter respiration and allocation of  
359 carbohydrates to reserve tissues (which can all affect the status of the sward during and after the  
360 winter) are not sufficiently incorporated in most grassland models. As a result, the sensitivity of  
361 grassland yield and nutritive quality to temperature variability, the frequency of extreme cold events  
362 and snow cover depth, and management variables affecting winter performance (such as cutting  
363 timing and frequency) cannot be satisfactorily assessed with current grassland models. A few  
364 previous modelling attempts can serve as a basis for future efforts to improve the representation of  
365 winter conditions in grassland models. These attempts include models, which simulate the cold  
366 hardiness of winter wheat (Bergjord et al., 2008) and forage grass species (Thorsen and Höglind,  
367 2010) as expressed by the temperature at which 50% of plants in a population die (i.e. the LT50  
368 value). Changes to the LT50 value can be caused by hardening, de-hardening and re-hardening  
369 processes during the winter season, which are a function of the prevailing temperature in the upper  
370 soil layer surrounding the crown of the plant, and a cultivar-specific maximum hardiness parameter.  
371 Snow cover models have also been linked to the STICS model for continuous multi-seasonal  
372 simulations of annual spring crops in eastern Canada (Jégo et al., 2014). Recently, a full-year model  
373 (BASGRA), for timothy grass was developed by combining a growing season model with cold-  
374 hardening and soil physical models for the winter season (Höglind et al., Accepted).

375 *Research priorities:* An important next step for model development in this field will be to test the  
376 winter-related functions of grassland models against data from experiments simulating projected  
377 future winter conditions. Further model development in this field will depend on the availability of  
378 experimental data on cold sensitivity and the state of the sward (such as tiller density and leaf, stem  
379 and reserve weight during the growing season and over winter). As well as the collection of new  
380 data, the systematic organization of existing datasets on these variables according to temperature,  
381 precipitation and photoperiod gradients would be beneficial to the development and applicability of  
382 winter modules across geographic regions and climatic conditions.

383

## 384 6. Modelling the impact of extreme events

385 *The challenge:* The impacts of extreme events on grassland productivity are of increasing concern in  
386 relation to food security (Long and Ort, 2010) and the continuing supply of services from grassland  
387 systems (Bloor and Bardgett, 2012). While models are improving in terms of their ability to predict  
388 the impact of changes in average climate conditions on grassland yields, modelling the impact of  
389 extreme events such as droughts, heatwaves, flooding and frost exposure, remains a challenge. A

390 unique definition of an extreme event is also difficult to formulate. Beyond the statistical occurrence  
391 of an event exceeding a low or a high percentile threshold, an extreme weather event may be  
392 defined as one that has a high impact on society and biophysical systems. Thus, it is a hard-to-predict  
393 phenomenon far beyond normal expectations (Peterson et al., 2012). Different types of extreme  
394 events often occur together, so that different plant stress factors (e.g. high temperature, low water  
395 availability or flooding and waterlogging, evaporative demand and high light intensities) may affect  
396 vegetation simultaneously and in different combinations across geographical areas. This generates  
397 complexity in climate forcing / plant response relationships across a wide range of temporal and  
398 spatial scales. The poor description of this complexity in current grassland models can lead to  
399 inaccuracies in simulated processes (Soussana et al., 2010). These limitations become especially  
400 apparent when the capacity of grassland plants to acclimate to harsh conditions is substantially  
401 exceeded. For example, temperatures that are abnormally low or high often result in lower plant  
402 productivity at all subsequent temperatures (Zaka et al., Accepted). In climate change impact studies  
403 using grassland models, responses to extreme temperatures and prolonged water deficits are still  
404 not sufficiently considered (Reyer et al., 2013; Ruppert et al., 2015). They are also scarce in model  
405 calibration and validation datasets due to their low frequency in weather data time series (Ben  
406 Touhami and Bellocchi, 2015). The mechanistic relationships between plant processes and the  
407 impact of extreme events on these processes have only been fragmentarily documented, and the  
408 extent to which plants may be able to respond to extreme weather events remains an open field of  
409 research (Reyer et al., 2013). The many interactions between vegetation, soil and the atmosphere,  
410 and the role of management practices make our ability to simulate grassland systems limited.  
411 Predictions of the impact of extreme events therefore require accurate information about  
412 management, animal behaviour and the prior condition of the sward, in addition to data on weather  
413 conditions and methods for characterising the interactions between these variables. Few  
414 experimental data relate to extreme conditions, with much information collected when long-term  
415 monitoring captures the impacts of extreme events by chance (Thibault and Brown, 2008).

416 *Research priorities:* To improve modelling of the impacts of extreme events, a review of data and  
417 gaps in knowledge in relation to the types of event expected to affect grasslands under climate  
418 change is required, including an appraisal of current definitions of extreme events and the  
419 thresholds which produce them. An inventory of the capabilities of existing grassland models in  
420 relation to extreme events would enable limitations in current approaches to be identified, and  
421 options for improvement developed. These could include the development of extreme events  
422 functions (affecting transpiration, photosynthesis, tillering, resource allocation, etc.) that could be  
423 linked to existing grassland models. Such functions can draw on knowledge from studies about

424 processes of dehydration and recovery of plant communities and functional types (Zwicke et al.,  
425 2013) and the explicit representation of hydraulic processes (Tardieu et al., 2015) while also  
426 addressing interactions with water and nitrogen cycling (Calanca et al., 2016). Data from ongoing  
427 monitoring programmes will have an important role in model validation as new extreme events  
428 occur. Grassland data relating to previous extreme events can also be examined to better  
429 understand resilience. Current projects, such as MODEXTREME (<http://modextreme.org/>) and  
430 MERINOVA (<https://merinova.vito.be/Pages/home.aspx>) offer collaborative arenas for making  
431 progress in overcoming this challenge. The synthesis and sharing of outcomes from these projects in  
432 the wider modelling community will be important in the future development of modelling capacity.

433

#### 434 7. Incorporating plant pests and pathogens into models

435 *The challenge:* Pathogens and pests can affect crop and grassland yield in a range of ways (Gregory  
436 et al., 2009). Climate change is expected to have complex impacts on crops and their interactions  
437 with pathogens and pests, including increased plant vulnerability resulting from their genetic  
438 responses to the effects of environmental change, changes in pest and pathogen fecundity and  
439 growth rate, and changes in assemblages of pest antagonist species (Gregory et al., 2009; Rapacz et  
440 al., 2014; Zulka and Götzl, 2015). These relationships are complex. Although interactions between  
441 plants and pathogens in mixed species swards are not fully understood, there is evidence that  
442 pathogens can play an important role in maintaining sward diversity and even in maintaining higher  
443 productivity in diverse swards, with swards made up of few species more vulnerable to pests and  
444 pathogens (Bever et al., 2015).

445 In general, grassland models do not incorporate the impacts of pests and pathogens currently  
446 affecting European grasslands, nor the changes in pathogen spread expected as a consequence of  
447 climate change. At present the characterisation of pathogens and pests in the modelling of leys is  
448 fairly limited, for example assuming constraints based on the 'disease class' of different crops in crop  
449 rotation models (Annetts and Audsley, 2002). Looking beyond insect and microbial pests and  
450 pathogens, grazing by other species, such as waterfowl, can also cause significant problems for  
451 grassland productivity (Merkens et al., 2012), and to the authors' knowledge, this has yet to be  
452 addressed in grassland modelling.

453 *Research priorities:* Gregory et al. (2009) highlight the need for modelling the impacts of pests and  
454 pathogens under climate change that takes into account complex interactions of these species with  
455 other biotic and abiotic variables. This should go beyond current coupling of climate change and



456 weather-based disease forecasting, or the prediction of future pest and pathogen distributions  
457 based on information about their ecological niches and climate mapping.

458 Further developing process-based modelling approaches is important to better understand the  
459 impact of pathogens and pests under climate change conditions. In an example of this kind of  
460 approach, Whish et al. (2015) combined two process-based models – a pathogen population model  
461 (DYSIM) and the APSIM crop model – to investigate the impact of a wheat rust on yield. Such  
462 mechanistic approaches may be used to provide the insights required to model more complex multi-  
463 species interactions with pathogens. Assessing the impacts of adaptation measures, for example in  
464 the form of resilient cultivars, changes in crop rotations or the conservation and development of  
465 plant diversity in grasslands will also require improved knowledge of pest-pathogen interactions. A  
466 further priority will be to model how plot-level interactions are mediated by landscape  
467 characteristics; for example, the impacts of biodiverse semi-natural habitats which are known to  
468 promote antagonist species of pests (Zulka and Götzl, 2015), linking to the idea of resilient Climate  
469 Smart Landscapes (Scherr et al., 2012).

470 The collation of existing knowledge about key pests and pathogens of grasslands across different  
471 regions, including information about their ecology (such as their likely response to climate change  
472 and control by antagonist species) along with an assessment of models developed across disciplines  
473 to investigate them, would be a first step to improving modelling capacity. Such an inventory could  
474 be used as a basis to review the options for modelling the future effects of these pathogens under  
475 climate change, in mono-cultures and in multi-species swards.

476

### 477 *3.2. Climate change effects on grassland systems outputs*

478

#### 479 8. Modelling the provision of ecosystem services

480 *The challenge:* At present, many agricultural grassland models focus on productivity, without taking  
481 into account the value of ecosystem services provided by grasslands (Kipling et al., Accepted). A  
482 number of authors have identified a range of beneficial roles played by grassland systems (Hönigová  
483 et al., 2012; Zhao et al., 2003) including: soil erosion control and rainfall regulation (critical in the  
484 context of increased occurrence of extreme events under climate change; challenge 6), soil carbon  
485 accumulation and nutrient cycling (challenge 9), air quality purification, biodiversity maintenance

486 and the sustaining of cultural diversity. In relation to each of these services, models need to be able  
487 to characterise the impacts of climate change and associated changes in management strategies.

488 A range of modelling approaches is currently used to evaluate the impact of farm- and policy-level  
489 decisions on biodiversity, and to incorporate biodiversity into multi-objective models at the regional  
490 scale (Kipling et al., Accepted). There is also potential for, and some examples of, agricultural models  
491 being used in conjunction with ecological models to explore interactions between production,  
492 management choices and biodiversity (Tixier et al., 2013) while modelling tools are being developed  
493 to evaluate grassland ecosystem services more generally (Campion et al., 2014). The need for more  
494 research on carbon sequestration (challenge 9), water regulation and conservation of soils  
495 (challenge 2) across EU climate regions has also been recognised (Soussana et al., 2004). Advances in  
496 modelling these relationships rely on developments in experimental research to understand more  
497 fully the mechanisms underlying the provision of ecosystem services and their relationship to  
498 production (Pilgrim et al., 2010).

499 Given that ecological and social resilience to extreme events are intertwined (Adger, 2000) and that  
500 diversity and modularity are important components of social resilience (Carpenter et al., 2012) the  
501 role of grasslands in maintaining cultural diversity is no less important than the 'physical' services  
502 discussed in the context of climate change. In this respect, developing the capacity to model  
503 traditional extensive systems that have received less attention in the past (challenge 11) and  
504 participatory engagement with stakeholders to develop relevant models and explore adaptation  
505 alternatives, are important priorities (challenge 13).

506 *Research priorities:* Participants suggested that a first step towards the better characterisation in  
507 grassland models of ecosystem services and the impacts of climate change upon them would be to  
508 identify modelling capacity with respect to each pairing of ecosystem service and climate change  
509 impact across different European regions. This process could draw on published work and reports on  
510 ecosystem services, such as Hönigová et al. (2012), and climate change impacts, such as Iglesias et al.  
511 (2012), and on model inventories currently available in the literature. This exercise should be  
512 inclusive of ecology, vegetation, hydrology and soil models, to reveal not only gaps in capacity, but  
513 also areas in which models from these different disciplines could be used together to provide  
514 assessments of grassland systems encompassing the evaluation of non-commodified services.

515

516 9. Modelling nutrient cycles and GHG balances

517 *The challenge:* Modelling of GHG emissions from ruminant production systems has received much  
518 attention, but challenges still remain in the characterisation of anaerobic slurry digestion and CH<sub>4</sub>  
519 leakage, NH<sub>3</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>O emissions from manure, and the interaction of nitrogen with soil and weather  
520 in relation to NO<sub>3</sub> leaching (Kipling et al., Accepted). Focusing on grasslands, understanding and  
521 modelling soil processes is central to estimating nutrient flows (challenge 2).

522 -Reviewing models of carbon release arising from soil organic matter (SOM) decomposition, Sierra et  
523 al. (2015) identified the need for more data on and better characterisation of SOM decomposition  
524 processes at high temperature and extremes of moisture, and for a critical assessment of the range  
525 of functions used to represent such processes in different models. Recent modelling by Perveen et  
526 al. (2014) (see also challenge 2) incorporated the characterisation of the soil priming effect and  
527 microbial diversity into the SYMPHONY model, and used it to examine impacts on soil and plant  
528 interactions and carbon and nitrogen dynamics under climate change.

529 Studying combined impacts of environmental change on nutrient cycling, rather than the impact of  
530 individual changes in isolation, is an important challenge to be met (Sierra et al., 2015). Recent  
531 research has found that plant diversity may play a more important role than temperature in  
532 determining the communities of microbes involved in carbon, nitrogen and phosphorous cycles  
533 (Steinauer et al., 2015), and that the expected increase in soil carbon emissions arising from higher  
534 temperatures may be mediated by consumption of fungi by soil invertebrates (Crowther et al.,  
535 2015). These findings highlight the importance of considering biotic and abiotic processes together.  
536 Increasing the capacity to model such interactions will therefore require collaboration between  
537 modelling communities and with experimental researchers.

538 *Research Priorities:* Participants suggested that tests on the impacts of manure management on  
539 emissions (for example, the method and timing of applications and manure type) were required to  
540 support improved grassland modelling in this area, with more data on nitrogen fluxes and pools also  
541 important. The development of models characterising closed nitrogen cycles and incorporating the  
542 history of nitrogen in plants and the soil, was considered another priority for improving modelling  
543 capacity. Overall, improving model equations relating to N<sub>2</sub>O and CH<sub>4</sub> emissions, as well as improving  
544 the definition of carbon pools, and work to relate N<sub>2</sub>O emissions to the efficiency of nitrogen uptake  
545 by plants in models, are important areas for development, with the aim of tackling some of the  
546 complexity described in this section. These steps can help to reduce model uncertainty and increase  
547 the capacity to model nutrient cycles and emissions under different climate change scenarios.

548

549 10. Modelling nutritional variables required to predict animal performance

550 *The challenge:* Modelling sward nutritional value (see also challenge 1) is of particular importance  
551 for understanding the interactions between grasslands and livestock nutrition. Changes in nutritional  
552 value will alter the need for other feeds and supplements and affect productivity and the quality of  
553 final products. Impacts may also arise through altered intake by livestock caused by changes in  
554 grazing behaviour (challenge 3). The nutritional value of ruminant feed includes a range of variables:  
555 nitrogen fraction (total nitrogen, nitrogen solubility, nitrogen degradability, acid detergent insoluble  
556 nitrogen); potentially fermentable fraction (water soluble carbohydrates, pectins, starch and cell  
557 walls); non-fermentable fraction (volatile fatty acids, lactate, lipids) (AFRC, 1998). Climate change is  
558 expected to affect the nutritive value of grassland swards through nutritional changes in individual  
559 species, and changes in species composition, with impacts varying according to conditions (for  
560 example mountain versus Mediterranean grasslands) and species type (Dumont et al., 2015). Where  
561 grasslands are cut for silage, hay or in 'cut-and-carry' systems, rather than grazed directly by  
562 livestock, nutritive value will also be affected by cutting time, and by subsequent treatment and  
563 storage; climate change is expected to alter the optimal timing and number of silage cuts (in terms  
564 of yield and nutritive value) per year in northern Europe (Höglind et al., 2013). Given this complexity,  
565 the detail with which models characterise nutritive value must be tailored to reflect the aims of  
566 individual modelling exercises (challenge 13). The modelling of changes in grassland yields (Graux et  
567 al., 2013; Vital et al., 2013) is well developed. However, the characterisation of nutritive value in  
568 grassland models has been in general limited to species-specific responses to conditions, for  
569 example in timothy (Duru et al., 2010; Jégo et al., 2013) rather than changes in value in multi-species  
570 swards (Kipling et al., Accepted).

571 *Research priorities:* Grassland and livestock modellers and animal nutritionists need to work  
572 together to identify the most important nutritional parameters for incorporation into grassland  
573 models in relation to different applications. This should include gaining an overview of the extent to  
574 which current models are capable of characterising these parameters. Harmonising how nutritive  
575 value is reported and calculated for modelling, and in model outputs, will also require cooperation,  
576 with the aim of allowing models to be applied, compared and evaluated across Europe. These  
577 collaborative developments can facilitate the creation of more models able to provide the  
578 nutritional data required to support accurate predictions of animal performance under climate  
579 change.

580

581 3.3. Mediation of climate change impacts by site, system and management

582

583 11. Modelling different regions and production systems

584 *The challenge:* Models are often developed to answer questions relating to specific systems within a  
585 particular region. Llewellyn et al. (2007) found that stakeholders are most interested in local  
586 information, and that presenting such information can aid understanding and uptake of modelled  
587 solutions. As a result, models may not perform well when applied to other conditions. For example,  
588 the focus of previous modelling has often been on intensive and non-organic systems, such as that  
589 reported by Jing *et al.* (2012) and Jégo et al. (2013). In part, this may reflect the complexities of  
590 modelling heterogeneous extensive swards likely to contain multiple species (challenge 1). There are  
591 also gaps in the modelling of region-specific systems. For example, grassland models designed for  
592 temperate systems mainly characterise perennial species, while Mediterranean grasslands are  
593 dominated by annuals. In addition, perennial species in these systems undergo a period of summer  
594 dormancy due to harsh conditions in the summer months. Although some models, such as STICS  
595 (Ruget et al., 2009) consider summer dormancy in perennial species, relatively few models have  
596 focussed on these types of grassland, despite the expected negative impact of climate change on  
597 Mediterranean regions of Europe (Iglesias et al., 2012). In this case, the systems in question differ  
598 between regions, but differences may also cut across regions.

599 *Research priorities:* In order to realise the ideal of having models able to predict climate change  
600 impacts and the effectiveness of adaptation and mitigation strategies across systems and regions,  
601 undertaking a systematic assessment of current capacity was considered important. This could be  
602 achieved by using and further developing model inventories such as those created as part of the  
603 MACSUR project (Bellocchi et al., 2013), in order to match models to the systems and regions they  
604 were designed for, or could potentially be suitable for. Assessments of the potential for widening  
605 model applicability can draw on the findings of investigations that have used generic approaches to  
606 model biophysical processes across a variety of regions (Yuan et al., 2014). Recent work comparing  
607 models from different regions, such as carried out within the FP7 project MultiSward  
608 ([http://www.multisward.eu/multisward\\_eng/](http://www.multisward.eu/multisward_eng/)) the MACSUR project (Sándor et al., 2015; 2016) and  
609 the Agricultural Model Inter-comparison and Improvement Programme (AgMIP)  
610 (<http://www.agmip.org>) can provide further evidence about the applicability of models to different  
611 environments and systems. This baseline information could inform new modelling research and data  
612 collection in order to fill identified gaps in capacity, and to ensure that climate change impacts are

613 effectively modelled across regions and systems. The applicability of models to other systems and  
614 regions will depend on the characteristics of the focus system/region and of the model itself, but  
615 also on the level of detail required to achieve specific aims (challenge 13).

616

## 617 12. Modelling adaptation strategies

618 *The challenge:* Modelling adaptation strategies requires both that the designs of models allow  
619 changes in biophysical and/or economic variables to drive, and be driven by, management choices  
620 over successive model cycles, and that reactions to changing circumstances realistically characterise  
621 the behaviour of decision makers. The first part of this challenge therefore relates to the  
622 development of capacity to model the physical impacts of grassland management such as, cutting  
623 and grazing and interactions with re-growth and flowering, fertilization and interactions with pest  
624 and disease susceptibility, changes in soil organic matter, and changes in the system being used, for  
625 example, from mono-culture to mixed pasture or from permanent to temporary grassland.  
626 Adaptation also includes plant breeding strategies (see challenge 4); models can be used to  
627 investigate the traits or trait combinations of benefit for species under climate change in different  
628 contexts. However, so far models have rarely been applied to grassland species (Van Oijen and  
629 Höglind, 2015), and progress will require more data on the genetics of different plant traits, as well  
630 as new model methodologies.

631 Models will need to characterise how different management strategies interact with other variables  
632 and with outputs in terms of yield and quality; for example, the effect of a wet harvest season on  
633 herbage and silage nutritional value and on associated costs, such as the need to buy supplementary  
634 feeds. In this context, linking to other types of modelling will be important, for example to  
635 characterise the livestock health and environmental risks associated with manure application given  
636 expected climate-related changes in pathogen spread (Venglovsky et al., 2009). Recent models such  
637 as PaturaMata have been specifically developed in order to design management strategies for farms  
638 under climate change (Dusseux et al., 2015) and many current grassland models can be asked to  
639 respond to specific changes. Some process based farm scale models, such as the Integrated Farm  
640 Systems Model (Rotz et al., 2014) and some grassland models (Vuichard et al., 2007) are able to  
641 explore the impact of different management strategies (such as changes in cutting regimes) under  
642 climate change (Thivierge et al., 2016) but further development is required to improve the scope of  
643 adaptation options covered, and the characterisation of interactions between different strategies  
644 (Del Prado et al., 2013). Such development should take into account the need to explore the

645 potential of more 'explorative' adaptation strategies (Martin et al., 2013) such as the introduction of  
646 silvo-pasture (Broom et al., 2013).

647 Adaptation includes not just changes of management, but also changes of system. At regional level,  
648 economic land use models have been applied to forecast changes in agricultural land use as a result  
649 of climatic and socio-economic changes, based on profit thresholds for different land uses (Audsley  
650 et al., 2015). As farmers' choices about the adoption of adaptation strategies are known to be  
651 affected by both economic and non-economic considerations (for example, their perception of  
652 climate change risks) (Llewellyn, 2007; Lyle, 2015) the second part of this challenge (to more  
653 accurately characterise the uptake of adaptation strategies) is also complex.

654 *Research priorities:* To develop the capacity of models to characterise the impacts of adaptation  
655 strategies will initially require the collation of resources detailing available strategies for different  
656 systems and regions, such as provided by Iglesias et al. (2012) and Iglesias and Garrote (2015),  
657 including current knowledge related to their efficacy and the mechanisms via which they work.  
658 Assessments can then be made of the availability and limitations of modelling in relation to different  
659 strategies and their potential interactions with other management and policy decisions. Options for  
660 incorporating current understanding of stakeholder decision-making into bio-physical models need  
661 to be explored, in order to ensure that models better characterise the likely uptake of adaptation  
662 strategies. One approach would be to use the identified adaptation strategies to develop context-  
663 dependent adaptation scenarios, fitted to the expectations and knowledge of relevant stakeholders.  
664 Finally, management modules (as well as the characterisation of biophysical relationships) will need  
665 to be validated for climate change conditions.

666

#### 667 3.4. Cross-cutting methodological challenges

668

##### 669 13. Making models 'fit-for-purpose'

670 *The challenge:* The different contexts in which grassland models are used require those models to  
671 have very different characteristics, in terms of complexity (including the types and resolution of data  
672 they require; challenge 15), the scales of inputs required (challenge 14) and outputs delivered, and  
673 the level of capacity to model management changes and stakeholder choices (see also challenge 12).  
674 Mechanistic models have great value for understanding more about complex processes and  
675 interactions, while at larger scales and for more practical applications simpler mechanistic and  
676 empirical models, informed by this deeper understanding, can be effective predictive tools.

677 Therefore, the apparent trade-off between model usability and accuracy can be seen instead as an  
678 iterative development process (Kipling et al., Accepted). In this context, the type of model applied to  
679 a particular problem should reflect the nature of the problem and the needs of the stakeholders  
680 concerned (Ramirez-Villegas et al., 2015). This can be achieved through the iterative involvement of  
681 relevant stakeholders in model development and evaluation (Bellocchi et al., 2015). To achieve the  
682 best outcomes, stakeholders should also be able to easily choose between available modelling tools,  
683 requiring them to be shared and packaged to allow comparison of their usefulness in different  
684 contexts (Voinov and Bousquet, 2010). Modelling platforms which support the development of  
685 interchangeable sub-models, can produce modular modelling tools that are easily adapted for  
686 specific and emerging uses (Holzworth et al., 2015). In crop and grassland modelling, the Biophysical  
687 Models Applications (BioMA) framework (<http://bioma.jrc.ec.europa.eu>) is a good example of a  
688 software platform that supports modular model development and evaluation.

689 *Research priorities:* A key first step to developing more adaptable models is to gain an overview of  
690 their current capabilities in relation to different potential uses. Creating a checklist style inventory  
691 which clearly compares model applicability in relation to specific tasks would both highlight scales  
692 and types of modelling that are missing, and help stakeholders and policy-makers to select the most  
693 appropriate modelling tools to support their activities. Model inventories within projects such as  
694 MACSUR (Bellocchi et al., 2013) form the basis for the development of such a resource, while online  
695 hubs such as Agrimod provide the potential to share this information with wider scientific and  
696 stakeholder communities. A checklist inventory could be a starting point for reviewing the options  
697 for developing further flexibility and accessibility. While modular modelling and open access  
698 modelling can be valuable, the challenges to collaborative working need to be recognised in a  
699 competitive scientific environment. In this context, a resource presenting existing and developing  
700 tools in a format accessible to stakeholders may create more favourable conditions for mutual  
701 learning between modellers, while maintaining the valuable diversity required to tackle climate  
702 change related issues which can vary by region and system (challenge 11).

703

#### 704 14. Linking different scales of modelling and data

705 *The challenge:* Grassland simulations can be defined at different spatial scales ranging from plot to  
706 region. Input data are often supplied, and output data may be produced, at different scales than that  
707 at which the analysis is performed, thus requiring the application of down- or up-scaling techniques  
708 (Höglind et al., 2013). The level of detail of input and output data varies with the model (and often



709 with the country) and thus the required level of upscaling / downscaling. The spatial extent and  
710 resolution of data is therefore a critical issue which must be accorded special attention (Zhao et al.,  
711 2015) considering that changing spatial resolution by aggregation or disaggregation of data (e.g.  
712 using field-scale impact models with input data at scales other than that for which they were  
713 developed) bears the risk of missing the relevant scale of a process or phenomenon. Specifically,  
714 climate models produce large scale output data while micro-climatic changes can be important for  
715 grassland modelling. Extrapolations of local soil properties to larger regions can also help assess the  
716 requirement for soil input in regional estimations (Persson et al., 2015). Insufficient automation of  
717 composition and execution, and scalability of approaches can be one of the reasons for the absence  
718 of comprehensive, computer-aided, and spatiotemporal assessments. This is true especially in local  
719 contexts where automated procedures become essential to link downscaled climate scenarios to  
720 biophysical outputs and socio-economic impacts (Walz et al., 2014).

721 *Research priorities:* The systematic evaluation of the software and techniques available for down-  
722 scaling of data is required in order to understand the limitations and strengths of the different  
723 approaches, and to gain insight into the scale dependence of grassland models (Zhao and Liu, 2014).  
724 Better access for modellers to down-scaling techniques is also important, alongside evidence on  
725 their performance. In addition, systematic tests of model sensitivity to changes in data resolution,  
726 including in relation to climate data, are important in order to establish where scaling techniques, or  
727 the provision of data at a different resolution, would be most beneficial. Eza et al. (2015) describe  
728 the application of a modelling platform for climate change vulnerability studies (and their  
729 incorporation into management and planning), where grassland simulation capabilities are at the  
730 core of integrated and automated procedures (including down- and up-scaling approaches) usually  
731 employed in isolation.

732

### 733 15. Providing data for models

734 *The challenge:* Models rely on experimental data for their development, evaluation and application  
735 to different problems. Data issues vary for different areas of grassland modelling. They can be  
736 categorised as 1) The need for data from new experimental work 2) Quality and completeness of  
737 available data, 3) Data accessibility, and 4) Variation in data measurement and recording:

738 1) Datasets which include information about previous management (for example, the age  
739 of the grassland, previous fertilisation, cutting or grazing) are often lacking, for example  
740 in relation to data on soil carbon and carbon sequestration. In general there have been

741 fewer studies investigating interactions between variables, for example in studies of soil  
742 processes (challenge 2) with a focus on single variables more usual. Modelling can  
743 increase understanding of complex systems and the interactions within them (Van  
744 Paassen et al., 2007). In this way models can highlight priorities for future experimental  
745 research. Developing the relationship between modellers and experimental researchers  
746 can therefore drive well-focussed experimental research and data collection (Kipling et  
747 al., 2014).

748 2) The detailed information required for some aspects of grassland modelling can be  
749 obtained from experimental sites set up for long term data collection, such as  
750 micrometeorological flux measurement sites (Baldocchi et al., 2001). However, data  
751 from other sources need better evaluation in terms of the methods used, their  
752 compatibility with specific models, and the level of detail they include. Through the  
753 MACSUR knowledge hub, Kersebaum et al. (2015) developed a quantitative classification  
754 framework to evaluate the quality and consistency of existing agricultural datasets for  
755 use in crop models. This framework is likely to be applicable for the identification of data  
756 for grassland models, especially for models used to characterise both grassland and  
757 cropping systems (Bellocchi et al., 2013). New approaches to data collection include the  
758 use of remote sensing (Courault et al., 2010; Verrelst et al., 2015) and the development  
759 of virtual weather stations that combine a range of data sources to improve rainfall  
760 estimates (Racca et al., 2011). These advances can improve data accuracy and provide  
761 new data-sources of potential value for grassland modelling.

762 3) Open access data platforms such as FLUXNET (Baldocchi et al., 2001) provide examples  
763 of how standardised collecting, processing and delivery of data can be developed, and  
764 that data shared. In other areas, online resources to share meta-data have been created,  
765 for example for soil data at European and global levels (Kipling et al., 2015) and sites  
766 specifically focused on sharing information about models and data such as Agrimod  
767 provide important resources for grassland modellers.

768 4) Differences between nations and research groups in the way that variables are  
769 measured and recorded can cause problems, for example, differences in the definitions  
770 of forage nutrient values (challenge 10) can hinder the use of data for modelling.  
771 Differences in terminology and approach have been recognised as barriers to inter-  
772 disciplinary collaboration (Siedlok and Hibbert, 2014), and overcoming them requires  
773 enhanced communication and understanding between researchers across Europe. The

774 implementation of standardised collection, processing and delivery of data is particularly  
775 important when undertaking model inter-comparison studies.

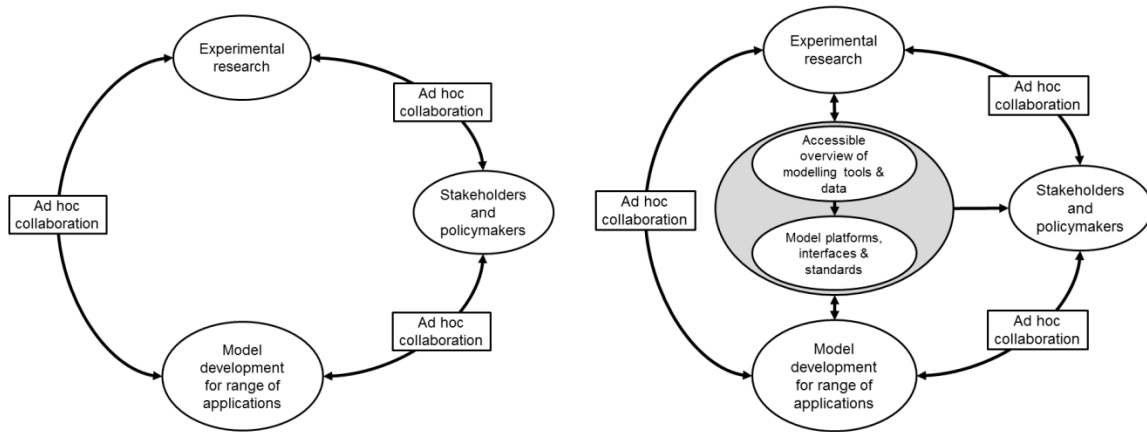
776 *Research priorities:* Improved communication between modelling groups and experimental  
777 researchers is vital to ensure that shared meta-data on available datasets allows their identification  
778 and evaluation for use by grassland modellers. This will require modellers to effectively  
779 communicate the data types and standards that they require, developing and sharing protocols for  
780 data evaluation such as those described in this section. The need for such developments is common  
781 to a range of agricultural modelling disciplines, and inter-disciplinary collaboration is therefore vital  
782 in this area to prevent duplication of effort. Networks such as MACSUR, AgMIP and the Global  
783 Research Alliance (<http://globalresearchalliance.org>) are essential in providing arenas in which  
784 modellers can collaborate to create and enhance these community resources. The development of  
785 networks of experimental sites and coordinated experiments across nations to investigate climate  
786 change impacts on grasslands (White et al., 2012) would also support model development, by  
787 providing high quality, comparable data.

788

#### 789 **4. Synthesis**

790 The fifteen challenges for grassland modelling identified here (Table 1) cover all aspects of  
791 modelling. Although many of the challenges have been discussed in previous reviews, such as Bryant  
792 and Snow (2008), Snow et al. (2014) and Holzworth et al. (2015), to the authors' knowledge this has  
793 been the first attempt to comprehensively assess the challenges and priorities for European  
794 grassland modelling in the context of climate change, using a collaborative horizon scanning  
795 approach. In identifying the research priorities associated with each modelling challenge,  
796 participants repeatedly highlighted the need for a clear and comprehensive collation and sharing of  
797 information on current grassland modelling tools and methodological approaches. Across the  
798 challenges considered, the benefit of such resources to drive both the development of modelling on  
799 specific topics, and the development of more adaptable, accessible modelling platforms and  
800 approaches was highlighted. These priorities suggest that, despite the development of a range of  
801 research networks and collaborative groupings relating to agricultural modelling, a high degree of  
802 compartmentalisation still exists between researchers in different research groups, institutes and  
803 nations. As well as spurring and focussing the development of new experimental and modelling  
804 research, rich, shared inventories of models and data are also important for stakeholders and policy-  
805 makers seeking the most relevant modelling tools to meet their needs (challenge 13). Access to

806 effective modelling tools is a vital element of supporting stakeholders in making effective decisions  
 807 (Voinov and Bousquet, 2010). The current state of grassland modelling can be illustrated by ad hoc  
 808 interactions between modellers, experimental researchers and stakeholders (Fig 2, left panel).  
 809 Addressing the modelling priorities identified in this exercise would move the community towards  
 810 greater coherence, with shared model and data inventories driving research and collaboration, and  
 811 supporting stakeholder choices (Fig 2, right panel).



812

813 **Figure 2:** Modelling, experimental research, and stakeholder interactions without community resources (left)  
 814 and with community resources (right).

815 Across the agricultural research community, the need for joined up approaches to tackling the issues  
 816 of climate change have long been appreciated (Soussana et al., 2012) and current network initiatives  
 817 are starting to move agricultural modellers towards the realisation of a more joined-up, focussed  
 818 modelling community, as some of the resources developed in MACSUR, GRA and AgMIP (Antle et al.,  
 819 2015; Bellocchi et al., 2013; Kersebaum et al., 2015; Yeluripati et al., 2015) demonstrate. However,  
 820 long term support and governance will be required if these efforts are to be successfully extended  
 821 (Kipling et al., Accepted) given the barriers to scientific collaboration, especially across disciplines  
 822 (Siedlok and Hibbert, 2014). While initiatives such as MACSUR have been shown to have a positive  
 823 impact on levels of collaborative engagement, there also appears to be more work to do to engage  
 824 with researchers beyond a well-connected core (Saetan and Kipling, Accepted) and to provide the  
 825 more comprehensive and accessible resources for grassland modellers and stakeholders described  
 826 here.

827 In relation to the more specific challenges for European grassland modelling, the need to learn from  
 828 advances in other fields was a noticeable component of many research priorities, for example: the  
 829 incorporation of understanding and approaches from soil and root modelling (challenge 2 and 9),  
 830 from livestock modelling (challenges 3 and 10), from plant and ecosystem modelling (challenge 1, 4,

831 5, 8) and from those involved in research and modelling of stakeholder decision-making (challenge  
832 12). Across the challenges relating to individual climate change impacts, the reliance of grassland  
833 models on the availability of suitable data (challenge 15) for further development was also clear.  
834 Finally, meeting the methodological challenges (13 – 15) will require technical dialogue between  
835 modelling disciplines which might successfully adopt the same methods despite widely differing  
836 subject matter. Better sharing and comparisons of models presented in accessible inventories, the  
837 subsequently improved visibility of opportunities for collaboration (Fig 2) and networking between  
838 disciplines, will be required to make these types of link in an effective way.

839 A horizon scanning approach has allowed the collation of views of grassland modellers and  
840 researchers from across Europe, while subsequent consideration of the literature validated opinions  
841 expressed in the workshop session and via questionnaire. It is hoped that the presentation of these  
842 findings will help grassland modellers to identify new directions and collaborative opportunities in  
843 their research, and guide policy makers involved in shaping the research agenda for European  
844 grassland modelling under climate change.

845

## 846 **5. Conclusions**

847 The horizon scanning exercise presented in this paper identified 15 challenges to European grassland  
848 modelling in the context of climate change (Table 1), considered the current state of modelling in  
849 relation to each challenge, and presented pathways to improving model capacity. The responses of  
850 participants to this exercise highlighted the need for the creation of shared resources within the  
851 grassland modelling community, in order to 1) allow stakeholders to identify and select modelling  
852 tools to suit their needs, and 2) drive experimental and modelling research by focussing attention on  
853 gaps in knowledge and opportunities for collaboration (including engagement with stakeholders  
854 during model development). The creation of such resources will require long-term support and  
855 governance in order to overcome the barriers to such cooperative endeavours in a competitive  
856 scientific environment. However, the complex, multi-faceted nature of climate change makes such  
857 developments essential.

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