



1 GOBLIN: A land-balance model to identify national agriculture and land use pathways to
2 climate neutrality via backcasting

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Abstract

18 The Paris Agreement commits 197 countries to achieve climate stabilisation at a global average
19 surface temperature less than 2°C above pre-industrial times, using nationally determined
20 contributions (NDCs) to demonstrate progress vis-à-vis this goal. Numerous industrialised
21 economies have targets to achieve territorial climate neutrality by 2050, primarily in the form
22 of “net zero” greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions. However, particular uncertainty remains over
23 the role of countries’ agriculture, forestry and land use (AFOLU) sectors for numerous reasons,
24 *inter alia*: the need to balance mitigation of difficult-to-abate agricultural emissions against
25 food security; agriculture emissions of methane do not need to be reduced to zero to achieve
26 climate stabilisation; land use should be a large net sink globally to offset residual emissions.
27 These issues are represented at a coarse level in integrated assessment models (IAMS) that
28 indicate the role of AFOLU in global pathways towards climate stabilisation. However, there
29 is an urgent need to determine appropriate AFOLU management strategies at national level
30 within NDCs. Here, we present a new model designed to evaluate detailed AFOLU scenarios
31 at national scale, using the example of Ireland where 34% of national GHG emissions originate
32 from AFOLU. GOBLIN (General Overview for a Back-casting approach of Livestock
33 Intensification) is designed to run randomised scenarios of agricultural activities and land use
34 combinations in 2050 within biophysical constraints (e.g. available land area, livestock
35 productivities, fertiliser-driven grass yields and forest growth rates). Based on AFOLU
36 emission factors used for national GHG inventory reporting, GOBLIN then calculates annual
37 GHG emissions out to 2050 for each scenario. The long-term dynamics of forestry are
38 represented up to 2120, so that scenarios can also be evaluated against the Paris Agreement
39 commitment to achieve a balance between emissions and removals over the second half of this
40 century. We outline the rationale and methodology behind the development of this biophysical
41 model intended to provide robust evidence on the biophysical linkages across food production,
42 GHG emissions and carbon sinks at national level. We then demonstrate how GOBLIN can be
43 applied to evaluate different scenarios in relation to a few possible simple definitions of
44 “climate neutrality”, discussing opportunities and limitations.

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47 *Keywords:* climate policy; climate modelling; LULUCF; GWP; food security; scenario analysis



48 1. Introduction

49 Article four of the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC)
50 Paris Agreement (UNFCCC, 2015) states that in order for parties to achieve long-term
51 temperature goals, peak greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions must be reached as soon as possible.
52 Parties must strive to “achieve a balance between anthropogenic emissions by sources and
53 removals by sinks of GHGs” (UNFCCC, 2015). The Agriculture Forestry and Other Land Use
54 (AFOLU) sector incorporates both agricultural activities, such as animal husbandry and crop
55 production, and landuse, landuse change & forestry (LULUCF) activities. As such, it contains
56 important GHG sources and sinks, making a net contribution of 24% to global GHG emissions
57 (Smith et al., 2014). However, LULUCF is regarded as a major potential carbon dioxide (CO₂)
58 sink that will be central to any future balance between emissions and removals (IPCC, 2019b;
59 Smith et al., 2014). Lóránt and Allen (2019) emphasise the central role that the AFOLU sector
60 will play to reach climate neutrality, through mitigation of current emission sources, reduced
61 emissions intensity of agricultural production linked with increased efficiency, production of
62 bio-based products to substitute more carbon-intensive products, and carbon sequestration.

63 An increasing number of countries have established ambitious national “climate neutrality”
64 targets for 2050 in legislation (Oireachtas, 2021; Reisinger and Leahy, 2019; UK CCC, 2019).
65 These targets pose a particular challenge for countries with high per-capita GHG emissions and
66 a high percentage land occupation with ruminant livestock production, such as Ireland (Duffy
67 et al., 2020c) and New Zealand (NZ-MfE, 2021) – because of the difficulty of reducing
68 ruminant livestock emissions of methane (CH₄) and nitrous oxide (N₂O) (Herrero et al., 2016),
69 and the large carbon dioxide (CO₂) sinks needed to offset remaining CH₄ and N₂O based upon
70 the 100-yr average global warming potentials (GWP₁₀₀) recommended for national inventory
71 reporting (UNFCCC, 2014). Furthermore, meeting climate neutrality targets is likely to require
72 AFOLU sectors to be better than climate neutral – and to provide net GHG offset to compensate
73 for difficult-to-mitigate residual emissions in other sectors, such as aviation (Huppmann et al.,
74 2018).

75 Hitherto, most national or AFOLU-specific plans for climate neutrality by 2050 have been
76 based on achieving a balance between GHG emissions and removals in terms of GWP₁₀₀
77 equivalents (Schulte et al., 2013; Searchinger et al., 2021; UK CCC, 2019). However, the
78 warming effect of stable but continuous CH₄ emissions is approximately constant, whilst the
79 warming effect of continuous CO₂ and N₂O emissions is cumulative (Allen et al., 2018).
80 Consequently, global climate modelling indicates that biogenic CH₄ reductions of 24-47%,
81 relative to 2010 are sufficient to achieve climate stabilisation at a global mean surface
82 temperature 1.5 degrees centigrade above pre-industrial times (Rogelj et al., 2018a). A
83 modified version of GWP₁₀₀, termed GWP*, has been proposed to evaluate future climate
84 forcing effect considering the recent *change* in CH₄ emissions, which is more consistent with
85 global climate modelling used to identify climate stabilisation pathways (Huppmann et al.,
86 2018; Rogelj et al., 2018b). However, GWP* diverges from current inventory reporting, and
87 effectively discounts attribution of recent warming caused by existing methane emissions,
88 posing challenges for attribution and questions for international equity if applied to determine
89 climate neutrality at national level (Rogelj and Schleussner, 2019). Furthermore, the Paris
90 Agreement specifically mentions to need to safeguard food security and end hunger (UNFCCC,
91 2015). Thus, there is considerable debate and uncertainty regarding the broad suite of
92 agricultural and land use activities compatible with climate neutrality at individual country
93 level, strongly depending on GHG aggregation metric (e.g. GWP₁₀₀ or GWP*), and/or various
94 approaches to downscale global emissions and sinks from particular scenarios compatible with



95 climate stabilisation (Huppmann et al., 2018; Rogelj et al., 2018b), and the particular impacts
96 of GHG mitigation on food production in different countries (Prudhomme et al., 2021). There
97 is an urgent need to explore implications of different definitions for national AFOLU sectors.

98 Ireland's AFOLU sector provides an excellent case study to explore the implications of
99 different definitions of, and pathways towards, climate neutrality because it sits at the
100 international nexus of livestock production and climate mitigation. Agriculture contributes
101 34% to national GHG emissions (Duffy et al., 2020c) owing to a large ruminant sector
102 producing beef and milk largely (90%) for international export. Somewhat unusually within
103 Europe, Ireland's LULUCF sector is also net source of GHG emissions owing to over 300,000
104 ha of drained organic soils emitting approximately 8 million tonnes of CO₂ eq. annually,
105 compared with a declining forestry sink of approximately 4.5 million tonnes of CO₂ annually
106 (Duffy et al., 2020c). Methane accounts for circa 60% of agricultural GHG emissions, and
107 LULUCF emissions of CH₄ could increase if organic soils are rewetted to reduce CO₂
108 emissions. The future shape of climate neutrality in Ireland's AFOLU sector, and the amount
109 of beef and milk that can be produced within associated emission constraints, is thus
110 particularly sensitive to CH₄ accounting (Prudhomme et al., 2021). Nonetheless, it is clear that
111 achieving climate neutrality will require dramatic changes in agricultural and land management
112 practises, not least because AFOLU emissions have been increasing over the past decade
113 (Duffy et al., 2020c). The debate about future land use has implications for livelihoods and
114 cultural norms (Aznar-Sánchez et al., 2019), and is therefore highly sensitive. In such a context,
115 pathways to climate neutrality cannot be objectively identified through extrapolation of recent
116 trajectories nor stakeholder "visions", invoking the need for a backcasting approach to first
117 establish what a climate neutral AFOLU sector *could* look like.

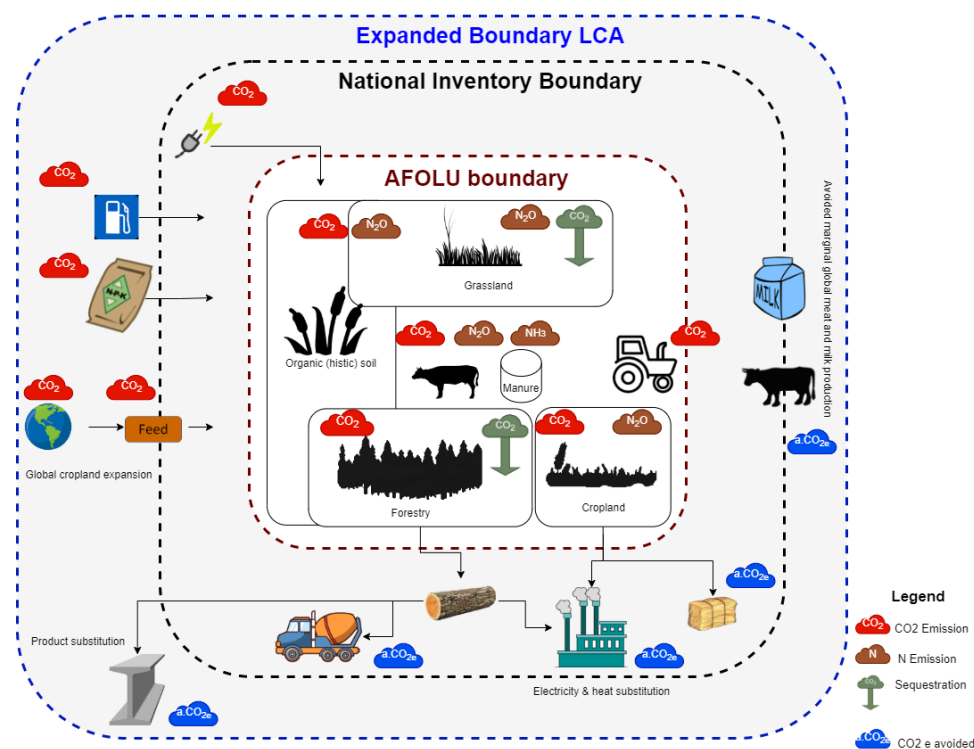
118 This paper presents a new biophysical model capable of identifying broad pathways towards
119 climate neutrality in Ireland's AFOLU sector, "GOBLIN" (General Overview for a Back-
120 casting approach of Livestock Intensification). GOBLIN integrates, with sensitivity analyses,
121 key parameters that influence agricultural production, GHG fluxes, ammonia (NH₃) emissions
122 and nutrient losses to water, using methodology aligned with Ireland's UNFCCC reporting.
123 The model is designed to be run repeatedly with randomly varied, biophysically compatible
124 combinations of parameter inputs in order to identify specific combinations of agricultural
125 production and land use that achieve climate neutrality from 2050 through to 2120. In the
126 following sections, we will describe the scope, model architecture, implementation and
127 functionality of GOBLIN, ending with discussion on its suitability for intended application and
128 conclusions.

129 2. Model scope & description

130 The scope of GOBLIN is currently confined to national AFOLU boundaries (Fig. 1),
131 accounting for the main AFOLU sources and sinks reported in national inventory reporting
132 (Duffy et al., 2020), *inter alia*, CO₂ fluxes to and from (organic) soils and forestry, CH₄
133 emissions from enteric fermentation, manure management and wetlands, and direct and indirect
134 losses of nitrogen (N) from animal housing, manure management and fertiliser application,
135 in the form of N₂O, ammonia (NH₃) and dissolved forms (e.g. nitrate, NO₃) (Duffy et al., 2020).
136 Fig. 1 highlights the main sources and sinks accounted for in GOBLIN, alongside related
137 sources and sinks that will be accounted for in subsequent life cycle assessment (LCA) through
138 coupling and/or integration with related models (Forster et al., 2021; Soteriades et al., 2019;
139 Styles et al., 2016, 2018).



140



141

142 **Figure 1. Key emissions sources and sinks critical to the determination of “climate**
 143 **neutrality” in Ireland’s AFOLU sector accounted for in GOBLIN (white), alongside**
 144 **linked upstream- and downstream- sources and sinks to be included in subsequent life**
 145 **cycle assessment (LCA) modelling to determine wider climate mitigation efficacy.**

146 In the form of a global sensitivity analysis (Saltelli et al., 2009), GOBLIN varies key uncertain
 147 parameters within the AFOLU sector to calculate emissions and sequestration up to the year
 148 2120, associated with linear rates of land use change up to the initial target year for neutrality,
 149 2050 (additional complexity around forestry described later). The back-casting approach used
 150 in GOBLIN makes explicit the linkages across biophysical constraints relating model outputs
 151 (emission reduction targets) with model inputs (parameters defining production systems and
 152 land management). These explicit linkages enable GOBLIN users to better understand
 153 complementarities and trade-offs across AFOLU activities with respect to the climate neutrality
 154 objective, based on transparent and objective scenario construction. A primary aim of the
 155 model is to ensure consistency of scenarios in terms of land use (e.g. within available areas for
 156 grazing and carbon sequestration), associated agricultural production potential within land
 157 constraints and related to key production efficiency parameters, and associated GHG fluxes.
 158 The model allows scenarios to be built based on standardized sampling methods for key input
 159 parameters, avoiding sampling bias introduced by screening methods (Saltelli et al., 2000). The
 160 model is designed to run a large number (e.g. 100s) of times to generate a suite of results
 161 representing different land use scenarios by 2050, and time series of emissions and
 162 sequestration up to 2120. Scenarios can then filtered to identify which ones comply with



163 climate neutrality based on different definitions and metrics, e.g.: (i) net zero GHG balance
164 based on GWP₁₀₀ (IPCC, 2013); (ii) no *additional* warming based GWP* (Allen et al., 2018;
165 Lynch et al., 2020); (iii) compliance with a specific CH₄ targets downscaled from Integrated
166 Assessment Models (IAMs) combined with a GWP₁₀₀ balance across CO₂ & N₂O fluxes.
167 Climate neutrality can be determined at one point in time (2050), and/or as a time-integrated
168 outcome over the second half of the century as per the Paris Agreement (UNFCCC, 2015).
169 Filtered scenarios enable identification of input combinations compatible with climate
170 neutrality as an objective evidence base for stakeholders to elaborate more detailed pathways
171 towards climate neutrality considering wider socio-economic factors (Clarke et al., 2014).

172 A key feature of GOBLIN is its relation of complex interactions across livestock production,
173 grassland management and emissions offsetting within the AFOLU sector to a few simple input
174 parameters used to define a plethora of possible scenarios. Reflecting the dominance of bovine
175 production within Ireland's AFOLU sector, primary input data to initialise the model are
176 national herd sizes (derived from milking cow and suckler-cow numbers) and average animal-
177 level productivity (e.g. milk yield per cow) to determine feed energy intake, fertiliser
178 application rates and grass utilisation rates to determine stocking densities and production
179 outputs, followed by proportions of any spared grassland (relative to the baseline year) going
180 to alternative land uses. In v1.0, alternative land uses are limited to fallow or commercial or
181 conservation forestry and rewetting of drained organic soils (bioenergy cropping and anaerobic
182 digestion can be readily integrated for coupling with downstream energy models). Subsequent
183 iterations and model coupling will account for upstream effects of e.g. fertiliser and feed
184 production and extend downstream value chains to consider e.g. energy and material
185 substitutions, taking a full LCA approach (Fig. 1). Activity data and emission coefficients are
186 largely based on those used in Ireland's National Inventory Report (NIR) (Duffy et al., 2020),
187 which are in turn based on IPCC (2006) and IPCC (2019a) good practice guidelines for national
188 GHG reporting at Tier 1 level for soil emissions, Tier 2 level for animal emissions and Tier 3
189 level for forestry carbon dynamics.

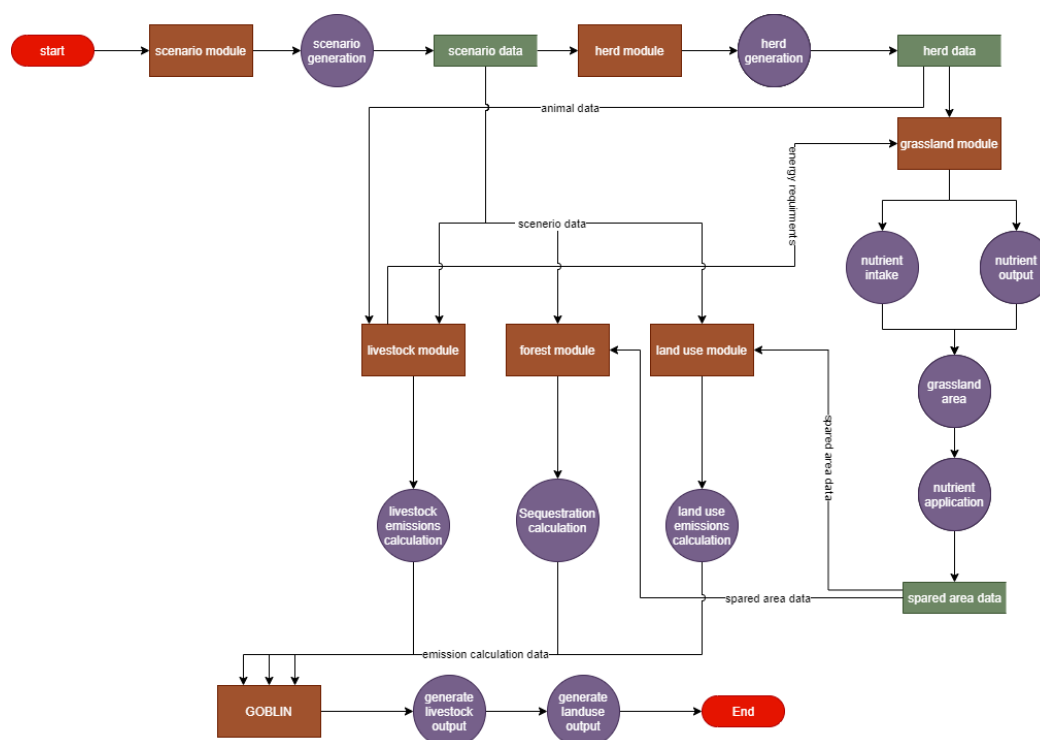
190 2.1 Modelling architectural overview

191 GOBLIN incorporates seven modules, displayed in a dataflow diagram (Pressman, 2010) in
192 Fig. 2, a number of which are derived from previous models on national grassland
193 intensification (Mc Eniry et al., 2013), farm LCA (Jones et al., 2014; Styles et al., 2018) and
194 forest GHG fluxes (Duffy et al., 2020a). The flow of data is represented by arrows between
195 interlinked modules (brown rectangles), processes (purple circles) and data stores (green, open
196 ended rectangles) (Fig. 2). The scenario, herd, grassland, livestock, land use, forestry, and
197 integration modules included in GOBLIN reflect initiation and synthesis functions, along with
198 data on the main activities and emissions arising within the AFOLU sector. The modules are
199 run in sequential order, with subsequent modules relying on the output generated by previous
200 modules.

201 Initially, the scenario generation module (1) varies the key input parameters utilised in the sub
202 modules. The cattle and sheep livestock herd module (2) computes the national cattle herd and
203 ewe flock from milking and suckler cow numbers and upland and lowland were numbers (input
204 parameters) based on coefficients derived from the average national composition (Donnellan
205 et al., 2018) – see Table 3. The grassland module (3) computes the energy (feed) requirements
206 of each animal cohort within the national herd, fertiliser application and subsequently the area
207 of grassland needed (depending on concentrate feed inputs, fertiliser application rates and grass
208 utilisation rate) and the grassland area free for other purposes (“spared grassland”). Emissions
209 related to livestock production are computed in the livestock module (4) and rely on inputs



210 from the cattle herd (2) and grassland (3) modules, based on a Tier 2 IPCC approach (Duffy et
211 al., 2020c; IPCC, 2019a). Once the grass and concentrate feed demand has been calculated
212 (detailed in subsequent sections), using the herd and grassland modules, the land use module
213 (5) computes the remaining emissions from land uses related to cropland, wetlands, settlements
214 and other land. The remaining LULUCF categories related to forest are captured in the forest
215 module (6) and are utilised by the land use module (5). The scenario generation module
216 provides the proportion of spared grassland to be converted to each alternative land use
217 (forestry, rewetting, etc.). GOBLIN does not currently include a harvested wood products
218 module, however, this will be included in subsequent versions, and will utilise harvestable
219 biomass outputs from the forest module related tree cohort, management practises and age
220 structure. The sequential resolution of these modules allows for an accurate representation of
221 biophysically resolved land use combinations in terms of land areas, production (meat, milk,
222 crops and forestry) and emissions.



223

224 **Figure 2. GOBLIN Data Flow Diagram. Arrows represent data flow. Modules are**
 225 **represented by brown rectangles, processes by purple circles, and open-ended green**
 226 **rectangles represent data stores.**

227 **2.2 Modelling Application**

228 Grass feed requirements are calculated based on the Tier 2 IPCC (IPCC, 2006) net energy
 229 requirements for livestock (NE_{feed}) related to animal cohort (c) and productivity (p), minus net
 230 energy received from supplementary (concentrate) feeds ($NE_{supp.}$) and grass net energy density
 231 ($D_{NE-grass}$) (Eq. 1). Subsequent calculation of N excretion (N_{ex}) from animals and share of time
 232 indoors (IPCC, 2019a) enables average organic nutrient loading to grassland to be calculated.
 233 Organic nutrient loading is then combined with average synthetic fertiliser application rate
 234 (exogenous variable) to determine total N inputs (N_{input}) and average grass yield (Y_{grass}) based
 235 on the grass yield function reported by Finneran et al. (2012). According to the grass utilisation
 236 coefficient (U_{grass}), calibrated for baseline (2015) animal grass feed requirements and grassland
 237 area ($A-BL_{grass}$), the calculated required area of grassland is then subtracted from the grassland
 238 area reported in the baseline year (2015) to calculate spared grass area ($A-S_{grass}$).

239

240



$$241 \quad A - S_{grass} = A - BL_{grass} - SUM_{c,p} \left(\frac{NE_{feed} - NE_{supp}}{\frac{D_{NE-grass}}{Y_{grass} \cdot U_{grass}}} \right) \quad (1)$$

242

243 Spared grassland area is then apportioned to various alternative land uses based on exogenous
 244 inputs via the scenario module. The GOBLIN integration module then combines outputs from
 245 the grassland, livestock, forest and land use modules to calculate relevant GHG fluxes. Table
 246 1 gives a brief description of the modules and their purpose. The following sections will
 247 elaborate on scenario generation, cattle herd building, grassland management, land balance,
 248 emissions and forestry sequestration calculations.

249 **Table 1. Summary of module functions within GOBLIN**

Module	Function	Details
Scenario Module	The production of randomised scenario parameters.	Samples input variables from predefined maximum ranges (technical potential) with a Latin Hyper Cube algorithm to build each of the scenarios.
Herd Module	The generation of dairy, cattle, upland and lowland sheep national herd/flock numbers.	Utilises herd/flock coefficient data derived from (Donnellan et al., 2018) to create the national herd based on milking- and suckler- cow numbers and ewe numbers (from Scenario module).
Grassland Module	Calculation of grassland area required for livestock production and calculation of nutrient application to grassland area.	Utilises IPCC (IPCC, 2006) guideline tier 2 functionality to calculate grass land area required based on: (i) nutritional requirements of the national herd (see Eq. 1); (ii) organic N returns to soil; (iii) average fertiliser application rates, linked with grass productivity fertiliser response curve. Deduces spared grassland available for other purposes (Eq. 1).
Livestock Module	Calculation of agricultural emissions and nutritional requirements related to livestock production.	Algorithms for emissions of CH ₄ , N ₂ O, NH ₃ and CO ₂ to air based on IPCC (IPCC, 2006) and IPCC (IPCC, 2019a) methodologies. Includes tier 2 functionality for the estimation of nutritional requirements of livestock.
Land Use Module	Calculation of emissions related to land use and land use change	Algorithms for emissions of methane CH ₄ , N ₂ O, NH ₃ and CO ₂ to air based on IPCC (IPCC, 2006) and IPCC (IPCC, 2019a) methodologies. Land use calculations relate to forested lands, wetlands and grasslands.



Forestry Module	Calculation of emissions and sequestration related for afforestation.	Calculation of forest sequestration based on IPCC (IPCC, 2006), IPCC (IPCC, 2019a) and Duffy et al (Duffy et al., 2020a). Past sequestration is estimated as well as projected future sequestration. Other emissions associated with management of soils under forestry are also calculated here.
GOBLIN Module	Coordination and integration of the program modules and production of final results.	Management module utilising tools and functions from previous modules to produce the final results.

250

251 **2.2.1 Scenario Generation**

252 There are 65 input parameters included in the global sensitivity analyses that influence the
 253 outputs of GOBLIN. Table 2 outlines the definitions, baseline values and scenario ranges of
 254 the key input parameters. The objective of the GOBLIN model is to identify which
 255 combinations of input variables are compatible with climate neutrality in the target year. With
 256 this number of input parameters (65) and the complexity of the relationships between them, it
 257 is impossible to study all combinations of parameters. To reduce the number of simulations
 258 while keeping a broad and unbiased exploration of the possible value ranges for these
 259 parameters, a Latin Hypercube sampling algorithm will be employed (McKay et al., 2000).
 260 This established sampling method allows the values taken by the input parameters in the
 261 scenarios to be distributed across plausible (technically possible) ranges.

262 **Table 2. Definitions and selected value range examples for key GOBLIN input**
 263 **parameters**

Parameter category	Definition	Baseline (2015) values	Scenario value range
Livestock population	Milking cow/suckler-cow/sheep numbers	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Milking cow: 1,268,000 • Dry cow: 1,065,000 • Lowland ewe: 1,960,000 • Upland ewe: 490,000 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Milking cow: 0 – 1,430,000 • Dry cow: 0 – 1,550,000 • Lowland ewe: 0 – 1,960,000 • Upland ewe: 0 – 440,000
Productivity	Milk and beef output per head	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Milk output: 13.8 kg per cow per day • Beef finish weights for heifer 1 & 2 years: (275, 430 kg per head) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Milk output: 13.8 – 15.9 kg per cow per day • Beef finish weights for heifer 1 & 2 years: (275, 430 kg per head) - (322, 503 kg per head)
Grassland area		4.07 M ha	Deduced
Cropland area		361.6 k ha	Static
Drained organic grassland soils		287 k ha	Deduced from spared grassland area
Wetland area		1226 k ha	Deduced
Drained wetland area		63 k ha	Deduced



Grassland utilisation	The proportion of grass production consumed by livestock via grazing and feeding on conserved grasses (silage and hay).	57%	50% – 80%
Afforested area	The proportion of spared grassland area on mineral soils that will be utilised for forest.	NA	0 – 100% of spared mineral soil area
Proportion broadleaf	Proportion of forest area that is under broadleaf (vs conifer).	20% (existing forest)	30% – 100% (new forest)
Proportion conifer harvested	Proportion of conifer area that is harvested.	90% (existing forest)	0 – 100% (new forest)
Proportion of conifer thinned	The proportion of harvested conifer area that is thinned.	50% (existing forest)	0-100% (new forest)

264 These input parameters are randomly varied and then utilised by downstream modules to
 265 generate results.

266 2.2.2 Cattle herd model

267 Calculation of national livestock numbers relies on coefficients relating animal cohorts to the
 268 numbers of milking- and suckler-cows (Donnellan et al., 2018). In terms of cattle production,
 269 dairy (milking) and beef-suckler cow numbers are exogenous parameters bounded between 0
 270 and 1.43 and 0 and 1.55 million head respectively in each scenario. A calving rate of between
 271 0.81 and 1 for dairy cows, and between 0.8 and 0.9 for suckler cows, is used to derive the
 272 number of 1st year and second year male and female calves (48 % of male calves under 1 year,
 273 44% of male calves between 1 and 2 years and 46% of male calves over 2 years). The dairy
 274 and suckler heifers are then derived with a replacement rate of respectively 0.23 and 0.15.
 275 Finally, the number of bulls is computed as a share of suckler cows. The dairy and beef herd
 276 are thus recomputed for different dairy and suckler cow numbers. Table 3 shows the
 277 coefficients utilised in the computation of national cattle and sheep herds for 2015, based on
 278 the number of milking, suckler cows, and upland and lowland ewes.

279

280 **Table 3. Coefficients utilised to compute animal numbers across cohorts based on**
 281 **milking- and suckler-cow numbers**

Livestock System	Goblin Animal Cohorts	Value
Dairy & Beef	Heifer aged more than two years	0.22
Dairy & Beef	Heifer aged less than two years	0.59
Dairy & Beef	Male calves	0.44
Dairy & Beef	Female calves	0.44
Dairy & Beef	Steers	0.27
Dairy & Beef	Bulls	0.01
Sheep	Lowland lamb aged more than one year	0.06



Sheep	Lowland lamb aged less than one year	0.45
Sheep	Male lowland lamb aged less than one year	0.45
Sheep	Lowland ram	0.03
Sheep	Upland lamb aged more than one year	0.06
Sheep	Upland lamb ages less than one year	0.45
Sheep	Male upland lamb aged less than one year	0.45
Sheep	Upland lamb	0.031

282 *Animal cohort populations are calculated as a proportion of adult stock utilising the relevant cohort coefficient,
283 derived from Donnellan et al (Donnellan et al., 2018).

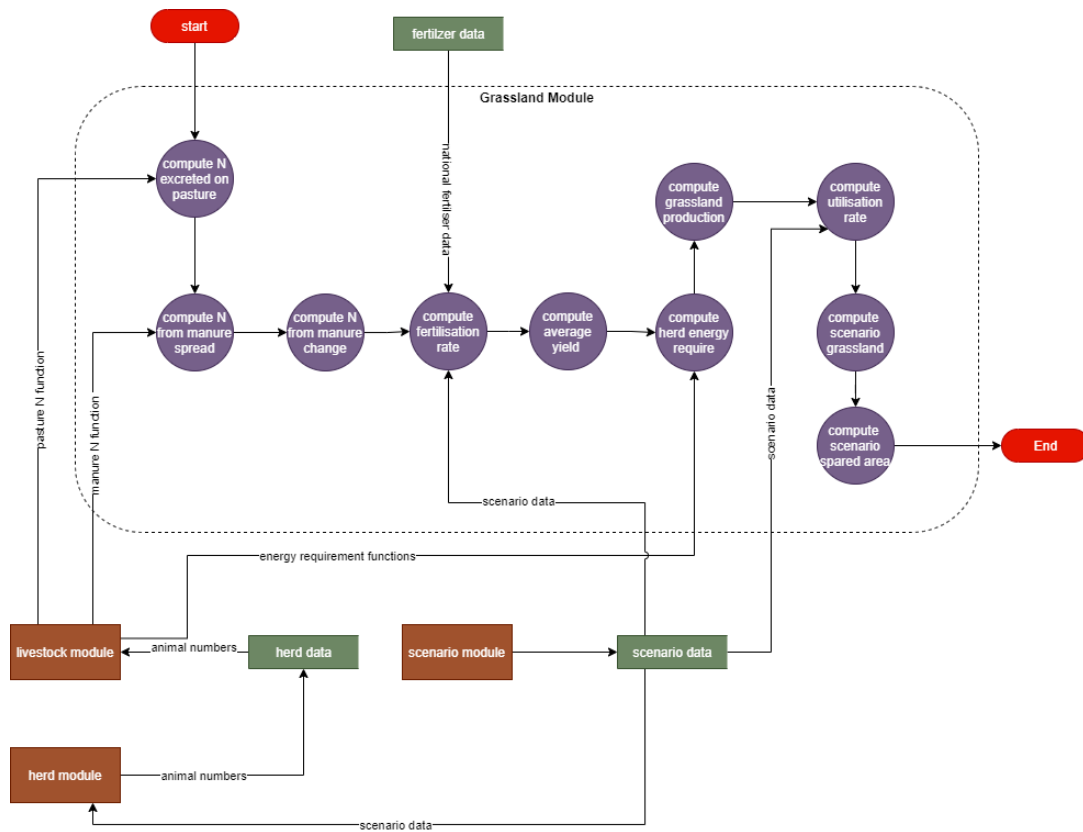
284 Estimation of current milk yield is derived from CSO (2018) and future milk yield are based
285 on the Teagasc (Teagasc, 2020b) dairy sector roadmap. The milk yield ranges from 5049 to
286 5800 kg of milk per cow per year. Live weights are based on research conducted by O'Mara et
287 al (O'Mara, 2007). Live weight gain of female and male calves are kept constant at 0.7 and 0.8
288 kg/head/day, respectively, and average baseline live weights for dairy cattle are assumed
289 constant at 538, 511, 300, 290, 320 and 353 kg/head for milking cows, dry cows, heifers, female
290 calves, male calves and bullocks, respectively, based on farm LCA model default values
291 (Soteriades et al., 2018). The same is assumed in relation to beef cattle with the exception year
292 1 and 2 heifers whose live weights range from 275 to 322 and 430 to 503kg/head, respectively.
293 Increased beef liveweights are based on the Teagasc sectoral roadmap (Teagasc, 2020a). Live
294 weights, live weight gains and milk yields, are used to calculate net energy requirements for
295 specified animal cohorts (IPCC, 2006).

296 2.2.3 Grassland management module

297 The purpose of the grassland module is to estimate the required area of land necessary to
298 maintain the scenario-specific herd/flock at a given yield and utilisation rate. Grassland
299 utilisation rate is calibrated at 57% based on calculated grass uptake and total grassland area
300 utilised in baseline year (2015). The calibrated rate is between the average rate of 60% reported
301 by McEniry et al. (2013), and a rate of 53% deduced from average grass dry matter (DM)
302 utilisation report by Creighton et al. (2011) divided by average DM production reported by
303 Donovan et al (2021). The estimation of grassland area is contingent on establishing the energy
304 requirements of herd/flock and grassland fertilisation rates, as described above. Fig. 3 shows
305 the data flow within the grassland module.



306



307 **Figure 3. Data flow and processing through the grassland module. Arrows represent**
 308 **data flow. Modules are represented by brown rectangles, processes by purple circles,**
 309 **and open-ended green rectangles represent data stores.**

310 Grassland production is computed per major soil group (Gardiner and Radford, 1980; McEniry
 311 et al., 2013), from group 1 (highest productivity potential) to group 3 (lowest productivity
 312 potential). Each grass type has a different yield class (YC) based on its soil group. GOBLIN's
 313 grassland module deduces the area required to satisfy the livestock grass demand for each
 314 category of grass (pasture, silage, hay) for each YC (1,2,3) and year. The basic equation is as
 315 follows:

$$316 \quad D_{land,grass,YC,t} = \frac{S_{grass,YC,t}}{Y_{grass,YC,t}} \quad (2)$$

317 Where D_{land} refers to area demand, $grass$ refers to grass type, YC refers to grass YC based
 318 on soil group, and t refers to year. The parameter S_{grass} refers to the grass supply, while Y_{grass}
 319 refers to the grass yield.

320



321 GOBLIN allocates the silage, hay and grazed grass requirement at the year t ($S_{grass,t}$) between
322 soil group based on the share the soil group in the grass production at the reference year (2015)
323 ($\frac{S_{grass,YC,2015}}{S_{grass,2015}}$) as following:

$$324 \quad S_{grass,YC,t} = S_{grass,t} \times \frac{S_{grass,YC,2015}}{S_{grass,2015}} \quad (3)$$

325 The grassland management module utilises a similar approach to the determination of grassland
326 DM yield reported by McEniry et al. (2013), based on Finneran et al (2011):

$$327 \quad Y_{grass,YC,t} = f(N_{rate}) \times \alpha_{yield\ gap,YC} \times \alpha_{Utilisation,t} \quad (4)$$

328 Where $f(N_{rate})$ refers to the maximum yield response to fertiliser nitrogen rate from Finneran
329 et al. (Finneran et al., 2012) in experimental fields, given as:

330

$$331 \quad f(N_{rate}) = -0.000044 \cdot N_{rate}^2 + 0.038 \cdot N_{rate} + 6.257 \times \frac{N_{rate}^{manure}}{N_{rate,ref}^{manure}} \quad (5)$$

332 where N_{rate}^{manure} is the manure excretion on pasture and $N_{rate,ref}^{manure}$ is the manure excretion on
333 pasture in the reference year. This term considers the influence of the livestock stocking rate
334 on pasture fertilization. For grassland other than pasture (Hay and grass silage), $\frac{N_{rate}^{manure}}{N_{rate,ref}^{manure}} = 1$.
335 N_{rate} represents the nitrogen application (manure and synthetic application).

336 The remaining elements of equation 4 are $\alpha_{yield\ gap,YC}$ and $\alpha_{Utilisation,t}$, where $\alpha_{yield\ gap,YC}$
337 refers to the yield gap of each YC category (0.85, 0.8 and 0.7 for respectively YC 1,2,3), and
338 $\alpha_{Utilisation,t}$ refers to the utilisation rate (calibrated as described above).

339 Once land use demand has been satisfied, the area available for land use change
340 ($D_{land,available}$) is computed as follows:

$$341 \quad D_{land,available} = \sum_{grass,YC} D_{land,grass,YC,2015} - D_{land,grass,YC,t} \quad (6)$$

342 Once the spared area ($D_{land,available}$) has been determined, it can then be allocated to
343 alternative land uses.

344 3. GHG fluxes

345 The GOBLIN integration module coordinates the livestock and other agricultural emissions
346 with LULUCF fluxes. The following subsections will elaborate on each of these in turn,
347 beginning with the estimation of livestock and other agricultural emissions

348 3.1 Livestock emissions

349 This module utilises an adapted farm LCA model developed in previous studies of UK
350 livestock systems (Soteriades et al., 2018, 2019b; Styles et al., 2015) to estimate environmental



351 footprints. Algorithms for emissions of CH₄, N₂O, ammonia (NH₃), and CO₂ to air were applied
352 to relevant activity data inputs. Enteric CH₄ and manure management CH₄ and N₂O emissions
353 were calculated using IPCC Tier 2 equations (IPCC, 2006, 2019a) and Tier 2 calculation of
354 energy intake and N_{ex} according to dietary crude protein (CP) intake. Enteric fermentation is
355 based a methane conversion factor (Y_m) value of 6.5%, and 4.5% for lambs, applied to gross
356 energy intake calculated by cohort as previously described, and an average feed digestibility of
357 730 g/kg for Irish cattle (Duffy et al., 2020c). Soil N₂O emissions are derived from N_{ex} during
358 grazing, and the application of synthetic fertiliser (as urea or calcium ammonium nitrate) and
359 manure spreading. Indirect emissions of N₂O were calculated based on NH₃ emission and N-
360 leaching factors from the most recent national emission inventory (Duffy et al., 2020c).

361 Emissions of CH₄, NH₃ and direct/indirect N₂O from housing and manure management were
362 calculated from total N_{ex} indoors based on the proportion of time animals are housed, housing
363 type, and manure management system specific emission factors (IPCC, 2019). The fraction of
364 time spent indoors for milking cows, suckler cows, heifers, female and male calves, bullocks
365 and bulls are respectively, 0.43, 0.39, 0.36, 0.48, 0.07 and 0.43 (O'Mara, 2007). Manure storage
366 NH₃-N EFs of 0.05 and 0.515 of total ammoniacal N (TAN) for tanks (crusted) and lagoons
367 were taken from (Misselbrook et al., 2010), assuming 60% of N excretion is TAN (Webb and
368 Misselbrook, 2004) – applied to 92% and 8% of managed cattle manures, respectively
369 (O'Mara, 2007).

370 3.2 Soil emissions

371 Emissions from agricultural soils originate from mineral fertilization, manure application and
372 urine and dung deposited by grazing animals. The average annual mineral N fertilization rate
373 across all grassland is 70 kg ha⁻¹ in the baseline (McEniry et al., 2013). Direct N₂O emissions
374 for manure spreading are calculated based on IPCC (IPCC, 2006) utilising an emissions factor
375 of 0.01 kg N₂O-N/kg N. The NIR (2020c) utilises country specific disaggregated emissions
376 factors in relation to direct emissions from faeces and urine, which are 56% lower than that of
377 the IPCC (2006). As such, an emissions factor of 0.0088 is utilised for urine and dung deposits.
378 An assumption of 10% leaching of fertiliser, residue and grazing N inputs to water is also
379 utilised (Duffy et al., 2020). In addition, an NH₃-N emissions factor of 0.06 was applied to
380 grazing TAN deposition (Misselbrook et al., 2010). Indirect N₂O-N emissions were calculated
381 as per (IPCC, 2019a): 0.01 of volatilized N, following deposition, and 0.01 of leached N. Other
382 sources (residues, cultivation of organic soils, mineralization associated with loss of soil
383 organic matter) are kept constant. NIR (2020c) country specific emissions factors relating to
384 synthetic fertiliser direct emissions were applied. These emissions factors correspond to: 0.014,
385 0.0025 and 0.004 kg N₂O-N/kg N applied, respectively for CAN, urea and urea + n-butyl
386 thiophosphoric triamide. The fraction of synthetic fertiliser N that volatilises as NH₃ and NO_x
387 (kg N volatilised (kg of N applied)⁻¹) is also disaggregated by type (0.45, 0.097 and 0.02
388 corresponding to urea, urea + n-butyl thiophosphoric triamide and CAN, respectively). These
389 values are based on updated IPCC Misselbrook and Gilhespy (2019).

390 Emissions from organic and mineral grassland area are computed utilising a IPCC (2006) Tier
391 1 methodology. Areas of mineral soil under improved, unimproved and rough grazing
392 grasslands and areas of organic soil under different management are deduced from the NIR of
393 2017 (Duffy et al., 2018). The CO₂ emissions from land-use change on mineral soils between
394 grassland and other land uses are based on IPCC (2006) methodology. Emissions of CH₄, N₂O
395 and CO₂ from organic soils are computed for drained and rewetted soils based on the Tier 1 of
396 IPCC methodology described in the 2013 wetlands supplement (Hiraishi et al., 2014).

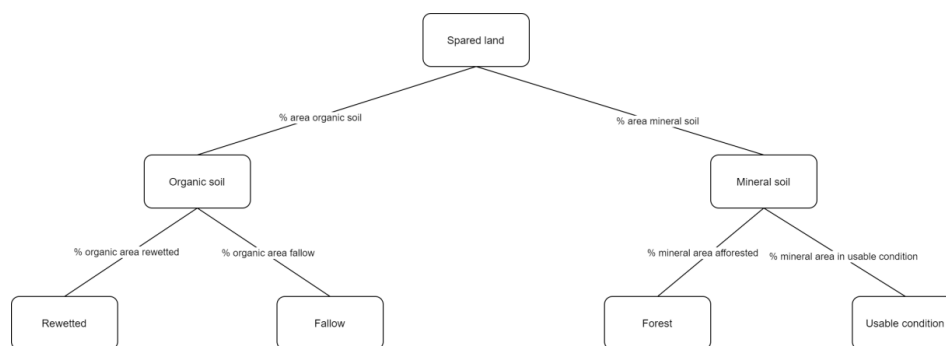


397 3.3 Land use module

398 The land use module coordinates a range of emission calculations and allocation of spared land
399 between different land uses based on input parameters defined in the scenario module, as
400 outlined in the subsections below.

401 3.3.1 Land-use allocation

402 Spared land is computed in the grassland module. The proportion of spared area that is organic
403 or mineral soil is defined by the scenario input parameters. The proportion of area that is
404 organic is limited by the total organic grassland area in 2015. GOBLIN prioritises the sparing
405 of organic soils because of the imperative to rewet these soils in order to mitigate LULUCF
406 emissions. Any spared area that exceeds the area of organic grassland soil is deemed mineral
407 soil by default. The spared organic and mineral soil areas are then assigned various land uses.
408 Drained organic soils are either rewetted or converted to fallow (drainage maintained)
409 depending on scenario input regarding fraction of spared organic soils rewetted. On spared
410 mineral soil areas, the proportion of area afforested is determined by the scenario input values.
411 Area that has not been allotted to afforestation is said to be left in “usable condition”. Fig. 4
412 summarises the apportioning of spared area in GOBLIN.



413

414 **Figure 4. Allocation of spared land across different primary uses**

415 3.3.2 Forest emissions

416 Additional land use emissions not accounted for in the forest sequestration module are
417 calculated in the land use module. These emissions relate to drainage and rewetting of organic
418 soils, biomass burning, land use conversion and deforestation. The CO₂, N₂O and CH₄
419 emissions from drained organic forest soils and drain ditches are based on the IPCC good
420 practice guidelines (IPCC, 2006) and the 2013 wetlands supplement (Hiraishi et al., 2014). In
421 addition, the NIR (Duffy et al., 2020c) breaks these organic soils into nutrient-rich and nutrient-
422 poor organic soils. The default emission factor of 2.8 kg ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ N₂O-N is applied to nutrient-
423 rich organic soils, however, Duffy et al (2020c) utilise a country specific emission factor of 0.7
424 kg ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ N₂O-N on organic soils classed as poor. The CH₄ emissions from drained organic
425 soils and drained ditches are also based on default emission factors from the IPCC wetland
426 supplement (Hiraishi et al., 2014) and country-specific parameters were derived from the NIR
427 (Duffy et al., 2020c).



428 3.3.3 Grassland Emissions

429 Grassland emissions accounted for in the land use module relate to drainage and rewetting of
430 organic soils, biomass burning and land use conversion. A Tier 1 methodology from the IPCC
431 (2006) is utilised to estimate the direct carbon loss from drainage of organic soils. The default
432 emissions factor of $5.3\text{t C ha}^{-1}\text{ y}^{-1}$ for shallow drained managed grassland soils for cold
433 temperate regions is derived from the 2013 wetlands supplement (Hiraishi et al., 2014). The
434 estimation of emissions from the drained inland organic soils derives from the 2013 wetlands
435 supplement (Hiraishi et al., 2014). The default emission factor of $4.3\text{ kg N}_2\text{O-N yr}^{-1}$ for nutrient
436 poor, drained grassland from the 2013 wetlands supplement (Hiraishi et al., 2014) is utilised.
437 Tier 1 IPCC (2006) methodology is used to estimate CO_2 removals (from the atmosphere) via
438 uptake by soils, CO_2 losses from dissolved organic carbon to water, and CH_4 emissions.
439 Emissions factors are again derived from the 2013 wetlands supplement (Hiraishi et al., 2014).
440 Finally, emissions of CH_4 and N_2O from the burning of biomass are estimated utilising the
441 IPCC (2006) Tier 1 approach.

442 3.3.4 Wetland Emissions

443 Wetland emissions include CO_2 from horticultural peat extraction, drainage and rewetting and
444 burning, CH_4 and N_2O from drainage and burning, and CH_4 from rewetting. The NIR (Duffy
445 et al., 2020c) includes emissions related the extraction and use of peat products under the
446 category of “horticultural peat”. Data related to the quantities of exported peat are reported by
447 United Nations Commodity Trade Statistics Database (UN, 2016). To calculate off-site
448 emissions from peat products, GOBLIN utilises a Tier 1 methodology (IPCC, 2006) to estimate
449 carbon loss by product weight.

450 Carbon stock changes in biomass are determined by the balance between carbon loss due to
451 the removal of biomass when preparing for peat harvesting, and the gain on areas of restored
452 peat lands (Duffy et al., 2020c). Non- CO_2 emissions related to drainage and rewetting are CH_4
453 and N_2O . CH_4 emissions estimations utilise the methodology provided in the 2013 wetlands
454 supplement (Hiraishi et al., 2014) and require an estimate of the area impacted by drainage and
455 the density of drainage ditches. Annual direct $\text{N}_2\text{O-N}$ emissions from drained organic soils are
456 estimated utilising a Tier 1 approach based on the IPCC (2006) methodology and a default
457 emission factor of $0.3\text{ kg N}_2\text{O-N yr}^{-1}$.

458 GOBLIN also calculates emissions from CH_4 and N_2O from biomass burning. The value used
459 in the NIR (Duffy et al., 2020c) to represent the mass of fuel available for burning is 336 t ha^{-1}
460 DM . The emissions factor values utilised for CO_2 , CH_4 and N_2O correspond to 362 g kg^{-1} , 9
461 g kg^{-1} and $0.21\text{ g kg}^{-1}\text{ DM}$ burned, respectively.

462 3.3.5 Cropland Emissions

463 Cropland emissions are estimated utilising a Tier 1 approach (IPCC, 2006). CO_2 emissions
464 include emissions related to land use transitions from grassland or forested land to cropland
465 and from biomass burning. N_2O and CH_4 are also related to biomass burning. Emissions of
466 CO_2 , CH_4 and N_2O from the burning of crop biomass are also estimated utilising the IPCC
467 (2006) Tier 1 approach.



468 3.4 Forest management

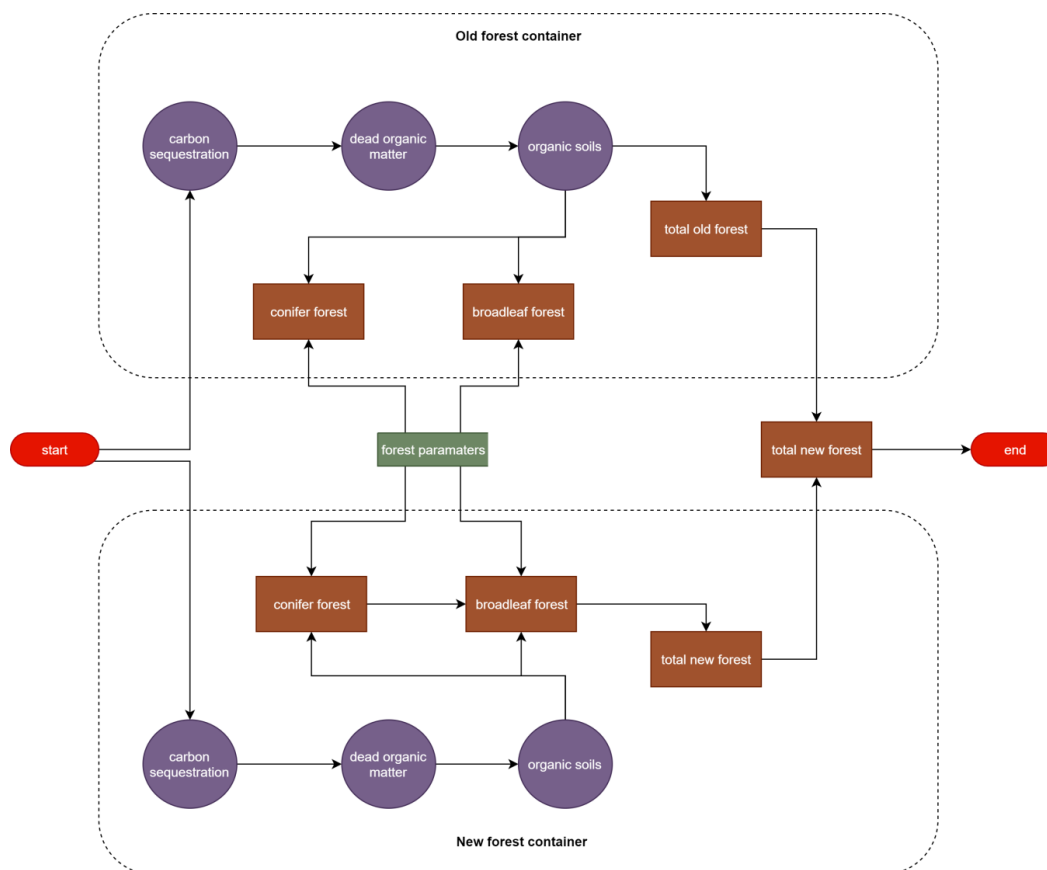
469 Irish forest cover accounts for about 11% of total land area (DAFM, 2018). Conifers make up
470 over 71% of the forest estate, the main species being Sitka spruce (*Picea sitchensis* (Bong.)
471 Carr.) (SS) comprising over 50% of total forest land area. In 2017, broadleaf species made up
472 almost 29% of total forest land area (DAFM, 2018; Duffy et al., 2020b, 2020a). However,
473 given that the historic rate of broadleaf inclusion within afforestation was less than 10% for
474 significant periods (DAFM, 2020b), GOBLIN utilises an aggregate value of 20% broadleaf
475 inclusion to represent historic afforestation. Given the complexity in both representing the
476 current forest estate, and simulating future afforestation/reforestation, the forest module is split
477 into two containers: the old forest container (OFC) and the new forest container (NFC). The
478 OFC estimates sequestration from afforestation from 1922 until 2025, and is used to determine
479 the age profile of standing forest. After 2025, the OFC no longer adds area to the model, but
480 continues calculation of growth (carbon sequestration) and harvest (terrestrial carbon removal)
481 in pre-existing forested area until the end of the simulation has been reached (2050 in our
482 example).

483 From 2025 onwards, sequestration from afforestation is calculated in the NFC utilising
484 annualised afforested areas derived from the target-year spared area calculated in the grassland
485 management model and shares of that area going to forest types (scenario module). The NFC
486 computes sequestration from afforestation from 2025 to the end point of the simulation. The
487 results of the OFC and NFC are added together to calculate total net sequestration in forests.
488 The purpose of this two-step calculation is to save system resources. Net sequestration in the
489 existing forest estate only needs to be calculated once as it remains the same across different
490 scenarios, irrespective of changes in the afforestation rate. As such, we utilise the OFC a single
491 time, adding the static results to the variable output from each scenario generated in the NFC.

492 Fig. 5 illustrates the flow of data through the forest model. The brown rectangles represent
493 entities, mainly conifer and broadleaf, for old and new forest. The purple circles represent
494 processes, while the green rectangle represents a common data store. The old and new forests
495 are kept in separate containers before being aggregated. To estimate the various elements
496 (sequestration from biomass, organic and mineral soil emissions, dead organic matter, etc.) for
497 the forest estate, a matrix approach is adopted. For each element in the forest model, a value
498 matrix is established based on the age of the forest stand. Stand age is then utilised to establish
499 the total biomass, dead organic matter and emissions from organic soils. Once the final matrix
500 has been established, it is aggregated into a single vector with a single cell per year. At this
501 point, any further annual additions or subtractions that need to be made are factored into the
502 model. For further detail on the calculation of biomass increment, DOM, organic and mineral
503 soil emissions refer to Duffy et al (2020a).



504

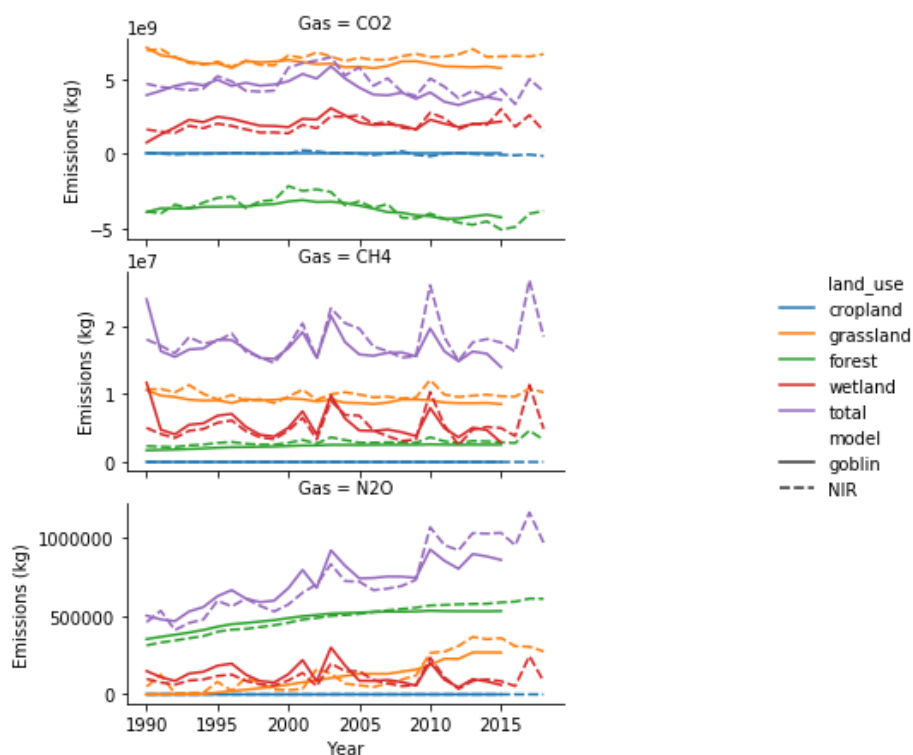


505 **Figure 5. GOBLIN forest module calculation methodology. Arrows represent data**
506 **flow. Modules are represented by brown rectangles, processes by purple circles, and**
507 **open-ended green rectangles represent data stores.**



508 4. Model validation

509 Validation of emissions computations for livestock production and land use (change) is
510 achieved by running GOBLIN using the same Central Statistics Office (CSO) activity data
511 used for NIR activity inputs for a time series between 1990 and 2018. Emissions across all
512 major sources are then compared between GOBLIN (1990 – 2015) and the NIR (1990 – 2018),
513 using CRF files dating back to 1990. Fig. 6 and 7 illustrate validation across major emission
514 sources. Beginning with land use and land use change (Fig. 6), solid lines represent CO₂, CH₄
515 and N₂O emissions modelled in GOBLIN, while the dashed lines represents equivalent
516 emissions reported in the NIR. Absolute emission levels and trends calculated by GOBLIN
517 very closely match those of the NIR, with the most notable deviation arising for forest
518 sequestration (representing the complex Tier 3 modelling of fluxes, sensitive to compound
519 estimates of stand age profiles across hundreds of land parcels). Fig 6. shows validation of
520 agricultural emission sources. Enteric and manure management CH₄ from GOBLIN and the
521 NIR are almost identical, while CO₂ and N₂O emissions levels and trends are very similar. This
522 validation specifically indicates that emission factors, land area calculations, forestry
523 increments and harvest removals, and animal feed intake calculations derived from raw input
524 data are in line with NIR methodology, providing confidence in scenario extrapolations based
525 on variations in these input data.

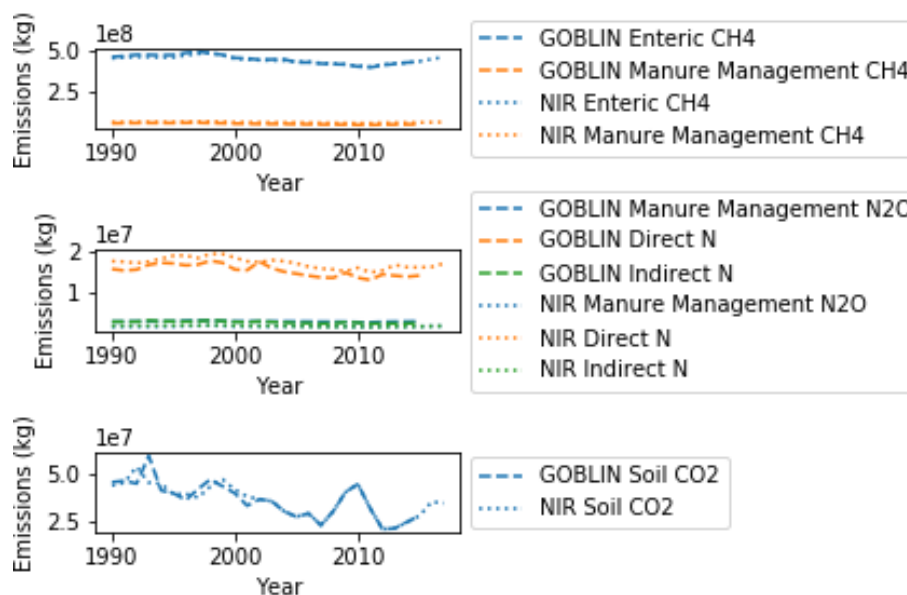


526

527 **Figure 6. Comparison of land-use emissions between GOBLIN and the NIR, derived**
528 **from the same activity data for 1990 to 2015**



529



530

531 **Figure 7. Comparison of agricultural emissions between GOBLIN and the NIR,**
532 **derived from the same activity data for 1990 to 2015**



533 **5. Example of Model Output**

534 To demonstrate and explore the critical functions of GOBLIN, several scenarios were analysed
 535 to reflect national level GHG reductions within the AFOLU sector (Table 4). As set out in
 536 Ireland’s Climate Action Bill (2021), Ireland must achieve a 51% emission reduction by 2030.
 537 Given that agriculture makes a significant contribution to the national emissions profile
 538 (DAFM, 2020a), the illustrative scenarios produced as part of this model summary reflect
 539 potential emissions reduction pathways. In terms of animal numbers, all scenarios reflect
 540 reductions in dairy, beef and sheep numbers of 10%, 50% and 50%, respectively, by 2050. In
 541 terms of land use, all scenarios, with the exception of scenario 4, assume at least the baseline
 542 (recent average) afforestation rate continues to 2050 (the average afforestation rate was 6,664
 543 ha yr⁻¹ between 2006 and 2017 (Duffy et al., 2020a)). All annual afforestation rates continue
 544 to 2050, with zero afforestation assumed after 2050, and are based on a 70:30 conifer:broadleaf
 545 mix.

546 **Table 4. Summary of indicative scenarios analysed using GOBLIN**

Num	Description	Details	Afforestation rate (ha per year)
0	Animal reduction	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Dairy, Beef and sheep herd numbers reduced by 10%, 50% and 50%, respectively by 2050 Base afforestation rate applied 	6664
1	Animal reduction and rewetting	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Dairy, Beef and sheep herd numbers reduced by 10%, 50% and 50% by 2050, respectively. 100% of organic soil under grassland rewetted Base afforestation rate applied Remaining spared land kept in “farmable condition”. 	6664
2	Animal reduction and afforestation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Dairy, Beef and sheep herd numbers reduced by 10%, 50% and 50% by 2050, respectively. 100% area mineral and afforested. 	35785
3	Animal reduction, afforestation and wetlands	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Dairy, Beef and sheep herd numbers reduced by 10%, 50% and 50% by 2050, respectively. 100% of organic soil under grassland rewetted Remaining area assumed to be mineral and afforested. Remaining organic area taken out of production 	26086



4	Animal reduction and increased production	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Dairy, Beef and sheep herd numbers reduced by 10%, 50% and 50% by 2050, respectively. Milk output increased by 14% per cow Beef live weight + 20% 	0
5	Animal reduction, increased, afforestation and wetlands production	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Dairy, Beef and sheep herd numbers reduced by 10%, 50% and 50% by 2050, respectively Milk output increased by 14% per cow Beef live weight + 20% 100% of organic soil under grassland rewetted Remaining area assumed to be mineral and afforested. Remaining organic area taken out of production 	24299

547

548 Fig. 8 and 9 present the main AFOLU GHG fluxes. Firstly, the agricultural emissions (Fig. 8)
 549 illustrate the results for CH₄ emissions from enteric fermentation and manure management,
 550 N₂O results from manure management and other direct and indirect N₂O emission pathways,
 551 and finally, CO₂ emissions from fertiliser application to soils Emissions related to livestock are
 552 slightly higher in scenarios that have increased production related to milk and beef output than
 553 scenarios with default production estimates.

554 Fig. 9 illustrates land use emissions related to CH₄, N₂O and CO₂. Firstly, we examine CH₄
 555 emissions from land use and land use change. The changes relative to the baseline year are as
 556 a result of a decrease in grassland area and changes in forest and wetland areas. Changes in
 557 grassland CH₄ results from reduction in animal numbers, rewetting of organic soils and
 558 removal of production from organic soils. Relative to scenario 0, the straight animal reduction
 559 scenario, there is a 19, 20 and 22% increase in CH₄ emissions in scenarios 1, 3 and 5,
 560 respectively owing to rewetting of drained organic soils. These increases are largely observed
 561 in the grassland category, with some additional emissions in the forest and wetland categories.
 562 In the wetland and cropland categories, an increase is observed relative to the baseline year.
 563 This is explained by the utilisation of a multi-year average to estimate the burned area, this
 564 average is higher than the baseline year, as such emissions related to burning in the target year
 565 are higher.

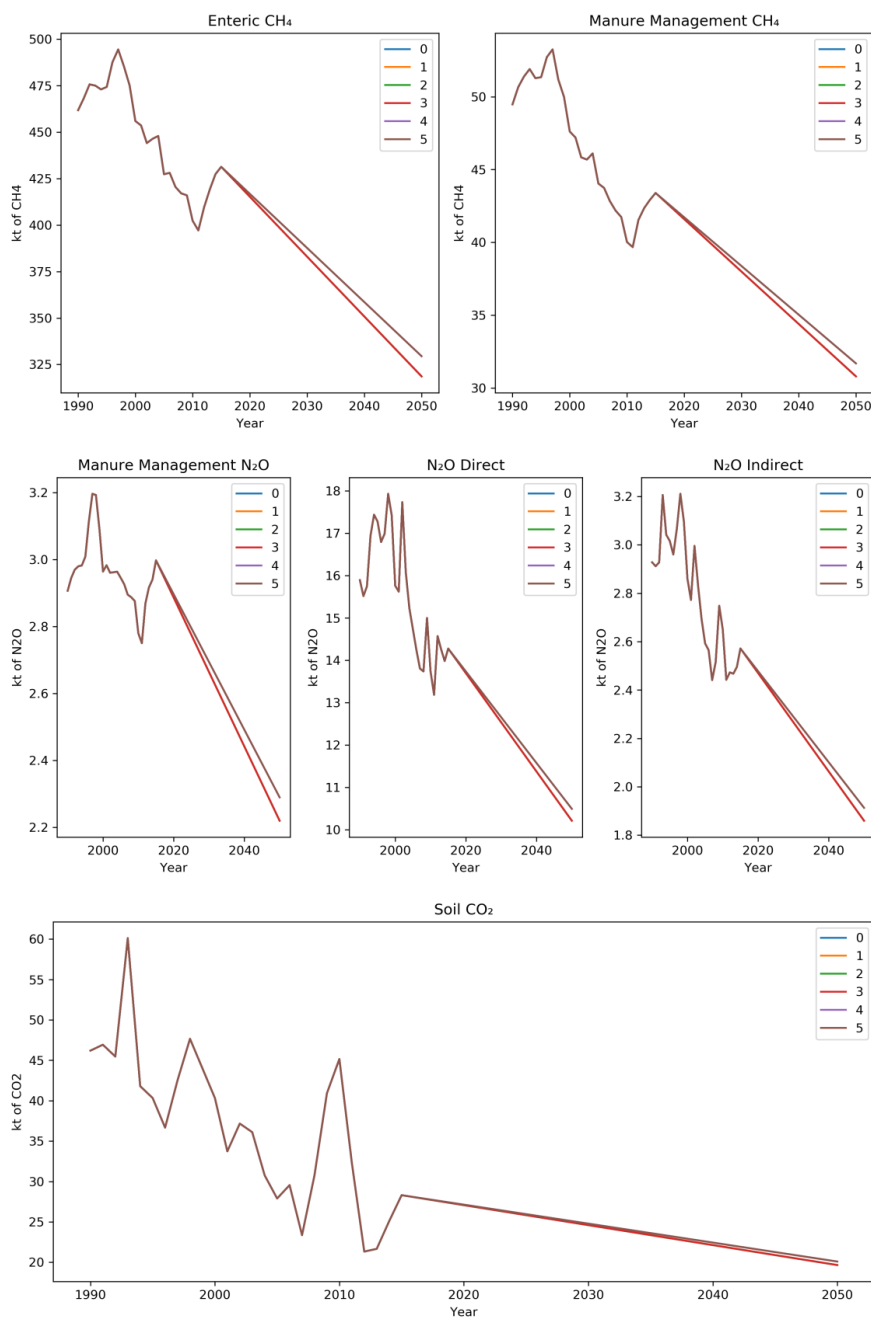
566 Secondly, we examine N₂O emissions related to land use and land use change. Relative to
 567 scenario 0, we can observe a 3-4% increase in emissions for scenarios 1, 3 and 5, respectively.
 568 The increases in emissions from wetland areas are related to the rewetting of previously drained
 569 soils. Again, we can see that cropland emissions seem to increase, however, this is again a
 570 reflection of burned area assumptions. The next noticeable difference is in terms of grassland
 571 N₂O emissions which appear to fall dramatically. Past N₂O emissions in this category are
 572 driven largely by conversion of modest amounts of forested land to grassland. As the model
 573 assumes land is converted from grassland to other uses, and not the other way around, the
 574 emissions in this category drop significantly. Relative to scenario 0, emissions in scenarios



575 where rewetting takes place increase by 20%. As there are no changes to cropland, emissions
576 remain constant among scenarios, the increase relative to the baseline year is again explained
577 by assumptions regarding the burned area.

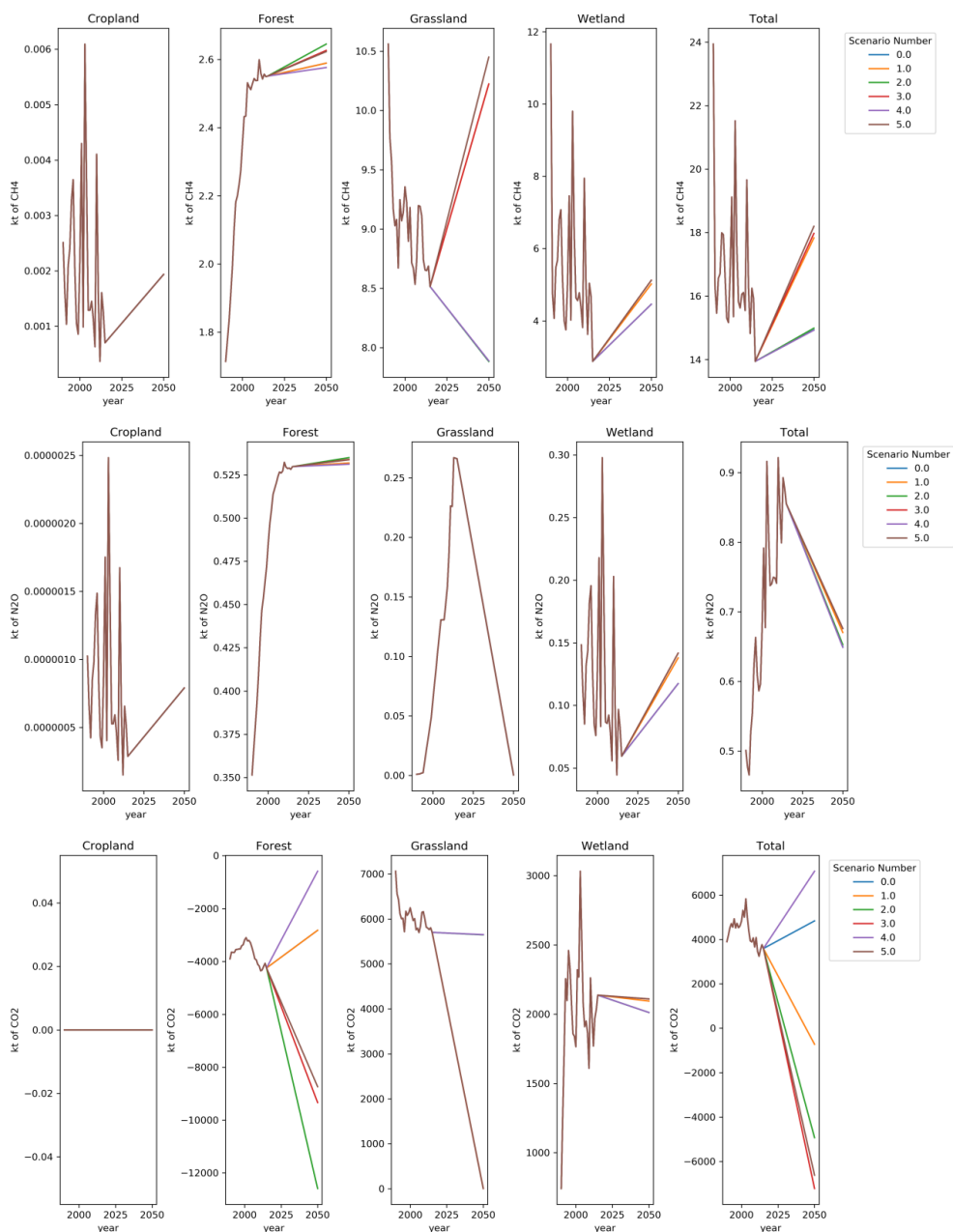
578 Finally, Fig. 9 presents the CO₂ emissions from land use change. Emissions related to
579 grassland, relative to scenario 0, drop to less than 0.1% in scenarios (scenarios 1, 3 and 5)
580 where rewetting has taken place. Regarding forestry, Fig. 9 highlights the expected value in
581 2050, drawing a line linearly from 2015 to 2050. As expected, sequestration potential is greater
582 at higher levels of afforestation. The entire time series is explored in more detail in Fig. 10.
583 Wetland emissions increase, relative to scenario 0, by 4 and 5% in scenarios in which rewetting
584 takes place. Lastly, we have assumed no emissions changes for cropland.

585 To further elaborate the forestry modelling, Fig. 10 shows the forest sequestration time series
586 for each of the scenarios. As can be seen, scenarios 0, 1 and 4 reflect the average afforestation
587 rate, or the “business-as-usual” land use change, and no afforestation. Scenarios 2, 3 and 5
588 increase sequestration potential significantly. Scenario 2 assumes that all spared area is on
589 mineral soils and as such this scenario has the highest afforestation rate, and the highest
590 sequestration potential. Scenario 3 assumes that all drained areas are rewetted, and the
591 remaining land area is mineral and afforested. Lastly, scenario 5 assumes the same, however,
592 there is less land area available as a result of increased production output from animals. The
593 time series also inherently factors in the harvesting rates. All scenarios assume that
594 afforestation, if applicable, take place up to 2050, with zero thereafter.



595

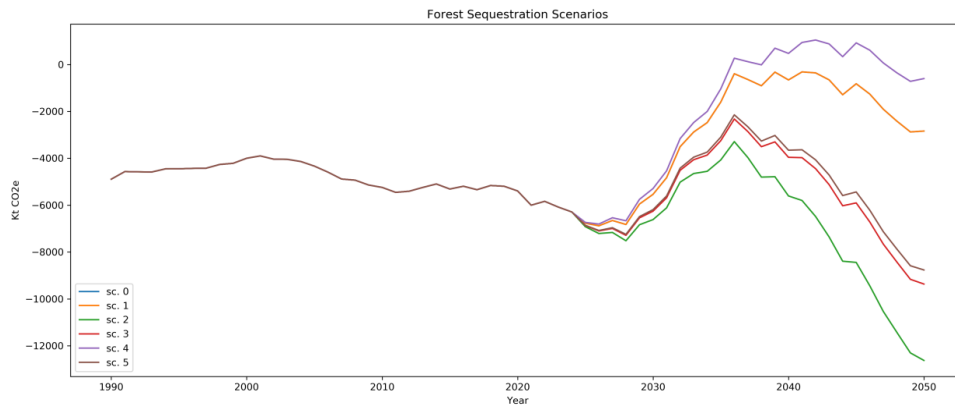
596 **Figure 8. Scenario agricultural CH₄ N₂O & CO₂ emissions from enteric**
597 **fermentation, manure management, direct and indirect N₂O sources and synthetic**
598 **fertiliser application to soils**



599

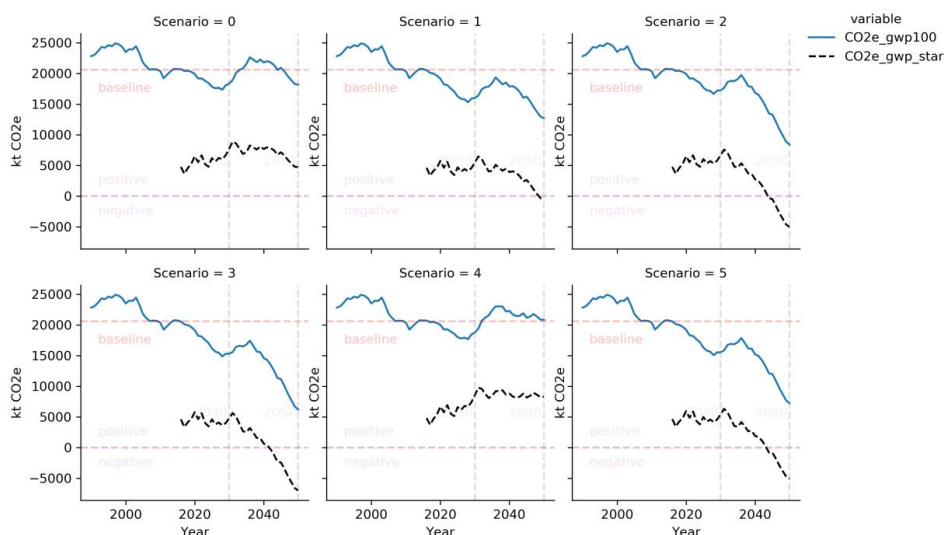
600 **Figure 9. Scenario agricultural CH₄, N₂O CO₂ emissions/removals cropland, forest,**
 601 **grassland and wetland land uses**

602



603

604 **Figure 10.** Net marginal (CO₂e emissions accounted for) CO₂e sequestration time
605 series from 1990 to 2050



606

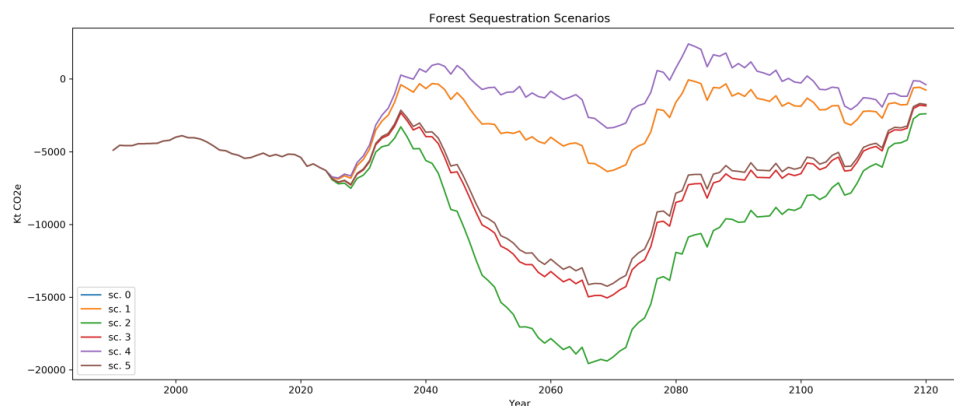
607 * blue lines represent GWP100, black line represents the GWP*.

608 **Figure 11. GOBLIN scenario CO_{2e} aggregation represented in GWP₁₀₀ (blue line)**
609 **and GWP* (black line)**

610 Finally, Fig. 11 represents the aggregated emissions from the AFOLU sector for each scenario
611 using either GWP₁₀₀ or GWP* to equate warming potential to CO_{2e} emissions. The calculation
612 of GWP* is based on Lynch et al. (2020). The aggregated emissions are presented net of forest
613 sequestration in order to present a final emissions balance. As can be seen, the reduction in
614 animal numbers drives both emissions reductions. The rewetting of previously drained land
615 provides an easy win in terms of emissions reductions. However, the potential to offset
616 remaining emissions, in terms of carbon sequestration, comes by utilising spared land for
617 afforestation. Both organic soil rewetting and higher rates of afforestation are needed to reduce
618 the GWP₁₀₀ emissions balance, which in the best case (scenario 3) is reduced by circa 73%
619 from the 2015 balance.

620 6. Forest sequestration time series extension

621 Fig. 12 presents an extended time series for forest sequestration to 2120. Specifically, Fig. 12
622 illustrates afforestation to 2050, with 0 afforestation thereafter. A forest conservation approach
623 is considered for all new forest, assuming a 0% harvest rate. This conservation approach does
624 successfully avoid the so called “carbon cliff” in scenarios 2, 3 and 5. However, the marginal
625 gains are reduced over time as trees reach maturity. Ongoing model development will enable
626 longer-term mitigation associated with harvested wood use to be represented.



627

628 **Figure 12. Net marginal (CO₂e emissions accounted for) CO₂e sequestration time**
629 **series from 1990 to 2120 with 0% afforestation post 2050 and 0% harvest rate**

630 7. Discussion

631 7.1. National AFOLU models for climate policy

632 The AFOLU sector is central to global efforts required to stabilise the climate, and will need
633 to shift from being a net source to a net sink of emissions by 2050 in order to constrain
634 anthropogenic global warming to 1.5°C (Masson-Delmotte et al., 2019). Such a shift will
635 require widespread and rapid deployment of appropriate mitigation options to reduce the
636 emissions intensity of agricultural production whilst maintaining food security, alongside food
637 demand management and actions to realise emissions removals via forestry and bioenergy
638 (Huppmann et al., 2018; IPCC, 2019b). The GOBLIN model described here was developed as
639 a tool to quantify long-term (circa 100 year) GHG emission fluxes associated with different
640 AFOLU scenarios representing changes in land use over the next three decades. The intention
641 is to bridge the gap between hindsight representation of national emissions via UN FCCC
642 reporting (Duffy et al., 2020c) and global IAM models (Huppmann et al., 2018) that are broad
643 in scope but lack (sub)national detail. IAM global pathways towards climate stabilisation
644 involve many assumptions, and are difficult to downscale to national targets. Whilst a number
645 of countries have set national “net zero” GHG emission targets for 2050 (UK CCC, 2019),
646 there remains considerable uncertainty about the role of distinct national AFOLU sectors,
647 particularly with respect to appropriate targets for CH₄ emissions and CO₂ offsetting within
648 NDCs (Prudhomme et al., 2021). Ireland provides an excellent case study country to explore
649 possible trade-offs between food production and various definitions of climate neutrality owing
650 to high per capita GHG (including CH₄) emissions from AFOLU, both from ruminant food
651 production destined for export and from land management (Duffy et al., 2020c).

652 GOBLIN has been calibrated against Ireland’s NIR (Duffy et al., 2020c) to align outputs with
653 GHG reporting methodologies, but applies a novel land balance approach to determine future
654 combinations of emissions sources and sinks by relating animal feed energy requirements to
655 grass production under different fertilisation and grazing (utilisation efficiency) regimes.
656 Through integration of animal energy demand functions and grass fertiliser response curves,
657 the model is able to vary areas needed to support different combinations of livestock systems
658 at the national level. This functionality enables critical aspects of livestock production



659 efficiency to be explicitly varied within scenarios, providing deep insight into interactions
660 between livestock production, including sustainable intensification trajectories (Cohn et al.,
661 2014; Havlík et al., 2014) that represent implications for future food production, and
662 biophysically compatible levels of organic soil rewetting and sequestration across forest types.
663 The latter functionality derives from integration of aforementioned livestock system modelling
664 with detailed representation of the complex carbon dynamics of existing and “new” forests.
665 This represents a significant advance in national AFOLU GHG modelling capability, and will
666 build on modelling of livestock emissions displacement with forestry offsets recently
667 calculated in (Duffy et al., 2020a) to provide a solid evidence base for development and
668 implementation of NDCs.

669 Crucially for a national AFOLU sector so far from complying with any definition of climate
670 neutrality, fully randomised scenario analyses with GOBLIN will generate new evidence on
671 which biophysically coherent combinations of agricultural activities and land uses satisfy
672 particular definitions of climate neutrality. Such a back-casting approach can inform objective
673 comparison of trade-offs, and may also help to elicit more constructive and focussed
674 stakeholder engagement on a complex and sensitive topic. The small number of scenarios
675 modelled in this paper were designed simply to demonstrate the technical potential of the
676 model, but it can be used as a platform to support participatory modelling (Basco-Carrera et
677 al., 2017) or for systematic analysis of alternative land use choices (Loucks and Van Beek,
678 2017). Combining the biophysical outputs of GOBLIN with socio-economic assessment will
679 be crucial to determine effective climate policy at national level.

680 7.2. Defining “climate neutrality”

681 When model development began in 2018 it was assumed that achieving “net zero” GWP₁₀₀
682 balance would be the primary objective for GOBLIN scenario modelling. Such an approach
683 remains valid and in line with UN FCCC reporting, and is applied for other countries’ 2050
684 climate targets (Lóránt and Allen, 2019; UK CCC, 2019). Since then, there has been significant
685 debate about how to combine the short term warming effect of CH₄ with the long-term
686 cumulative warming effect of CO₂ and N₂O (Cain et al., 2019; Prudhomme et al., 2021). An
687 important but initially unanticipated use of GOBLIN will therefore be to explore the
688 implications of various possible definitions of “climate neutrality”, underpinned by different
689 value judgements. It is clear from the small selection of indicative scenarios analysed in this
690 paper that choice of GHG aggregation metric and definition of climate neutrality profoundly
691 alters the mix of agricultural production and land use (change) compatible with climate
692 neutrality in 2050 and beyond. Specifically, a “no further warming” definition, represented by
693 a zero balance for GWP* (Lynch et al., 2020), is achieved (or exceeded) by 2050 among four
694 of the six indicative scenarios explored here, whilst “net zero GHG”, represented as a zero
695 balance for GWP₁₀₀ (IPCC, 2013), is not achieved across any of the scenarios by 2050. For
696 example, reducing the dairy herd by 10%, and beef cattle and sheep numbers by 50%, could
697 result in “no further warming” (GWP* balance) climate neutrality in 2050 assuming all organic
698 soils are rewetted and recent rates of afforestation (just under 6,700 ha yr⁻¹) are maintained.
699 However, the same scenario brings the AFOLU sector only half way towards net zero GHG
700 emissions (GWP₁₀₀ balance) by 2050. Separate calculation of each major GHG within
701 GOBLIN will enable a wider range of climate neutrality “filters” to be applied beyond these
702 simple GWP balance examples, such as a separate target for CH₄ combined with a GWP₁₀₀
703 balance across N₂O and CO₂. Over half of global CH₄ emissions come from food production
704 (Saunois et al., 2020); detailed modelling of ruminant food production compatible with various



705 approaches to determine territorial climate neutrality could contribute significantly to policy
706 formulation on separate CH₄ targets, e.g. the EU Methane Strategy.

707 7.3. Model limitations and development priorities

708 GOBLIN examines rewetting of drained organic soils and forestry as the primary mechanisms
709 of emissions mitigation and offset within Ireland's LULUCF sector, reflecting the "main
710 levers" that can be pulled to achieve climate neutrality. Additional land use-technology
711 interactions that could realise significant GHG mitigation by 2050 include bioenergy crop
712 production, such as willow and miscanthus for electricity, heat or advanced liquid biofuel
713 chains, and manures or grasses for biomethane production (Englund et al., 2020; Van Meerbeek
714 et al., 2019). GOBLIN can be adapted and coupled with existing downstream energy emissions
715 models to explicitly represent AFOLU consequences of such options, as well as to illustrate
716 inter-sectoral mitigation pathways (Fig. 1). In this regard, it is important to note that the forestry
717 element of GOBLIN is relatively sophisticated, representing forest composition in terms of
718 broadleaf and conifer species mixes, differing forest management practises and harvest rates.
719 This provides interesting possibilities to link AFOLU mitigation with future use of harvested
720 wood products, possibly in cascading value chains that store carbon in wood products before
721 end-of-life use for bioenergy carbon with capture & storage (BECCS) that can transform
722 forestry CO₂ sequestration into potentially permanent offsets (Forster et al., 2021). One of the
723 first applications of GOBLIN will be to couple AFOLU forestry outputs with downstream LCA
724 modelling of wood value chains in order to generate robust projections of CO₂ offsetting out
725 to 2120, providing new insight into the post-2050 longevity of various climate neutrality
726 scenarios. Finally, whilst GOBLIN has been extensively validated against the NIR for current
727 management practises, components such as fertiliser-response curves for grass productivity
728 could be altered by new grass varieties or mixed grass-clover swards, or updated to be more
729 spatially explicit in relation to soil and land categorisations (O'Donovan et al., 2021). There is
730 potential to adapt this (and other) components of GOBLIN to represent specific mitigation
731 options. Acknowledging that there are still important developments related to, *inter alia*,
732 management of harvested wood products and bioenergy production to be included in future
733 iterations of the model, GOBLIN represents a powerful tool for academics and policy makers
734 to better understand what is required to reach climate neutrality within Ireland's AFOLU sector
735 (and indeed other national AFOLU sectors dominated by livestock production). Crucially,
736 GOBLIN decouples scenario generation from preconceptions of what pathways to climate
737 neutrality could look like by enabling randomised scenarios to be generated and filtered in a
738 backcasting approach. Although such modelling on its own cannot provide all the answers, it
739 does establish a range of biophysically plausible targets which stakeholders can select from
740 and chose to navigate towards, considering important factors such as delivery of wider
741 ecosystem services, and socio-economic and cultural feasibility.

742 8. Conclusion

743 The AFOLU sector is both a source and a sink for GHG emissions. The sector will play a key
744 role in mitigation of emissions via reduced agricultural emissions intensity and increased
745 carbon sequestration and other off-setting/displacement activities. GOBLIN is a high
746 resolution "bottom-up" bio-physical model for Ireland's AFOLU sector. Then novelty of
747 GOBLIN lies in its integration detailed land requirements and GHG emissions associated with
748 different levels of livestock intensification and grassland management on one hand, and
749 sophisticated representation of forestry carbon dynamics on the other, alongside other
750 important land use emission sources and sinks. GOBLIN is aligned with, and validated against,



751 Ireland's inventory reporting methodology for GHG emissions, including a Tier 2 approach for
752 livestock emissions and a Tier 3 approach for forestry. By calculating GHG flux trajectories
753 towards (randomised) future (2050) scenarios of agricultural activities and land use (change),
754 GOBLIN is able to provide new insight into the biophysical boundaries associated with
755 different definitions of climate neutrality. This could help ground an increasingly polarised
756 debate around the role of AFOLU in ambitious national climate policy. Detailed representation
757 of current and future forestry combinations (species, management and harvesting mixes) also
758 provides a powerful platform for future downstream modelling of harvested wood product uses
759 in the bioeconomy. This could be complemented by integration of bioenergy uses for spared
760 land through further model development and/or coupling with existing bioenergy models, and
761 will enable the evaluation of long-term (to 2120) GHG fluxes in order to determine more
762 enduring climate neutrality actions. Following model development and validation, GOBLIN
763 will be used to provide a unique, impartial and quantitatively rigorous evidence base on actions
764 and strategies needed to achieve climate neutrality across Ireland's AFOLU sector.
765

766 **Code Availability**

767 The exact version of the model used to produce the results used in this paper is archived on
768 Zenodo (Duffy et al., 2021) and freely available for download.

769 **Author Contribution**

770 Duffy, C conducted design, development, analysis, testing and validation and manuscript
771 preparation.

772 Prudhomme, R conducted design, development, analysis and validation.

773 Duffy, B conducted design and development.

774 Gibbons J conducted validation, review and editing.

775 O'Donoghue, C conducted validation, review and editing.

776 Ryan, M conducted validation, review and editing.

777 Style, D conducted design, development, analysis, review and editing.

778 **Competing Interests**

779 The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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784



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