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Title: A bio-economic model for cost analysis of alternative management strategies in beef finishing systems.

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Abstract:

Global population growth together with rising incomes is increasing the demand for meat-based products. This increases the need to optimize livestock production structures, whilst ensuring viable returns for the farmers. On a global scale, beef producers need tools to assist them to produce more high-quality products whilst maintaining economic efficiency. The Grange Scottish Beef Model (GSBM) was customized to simulate beef finishing enterprises using data from Scottish beef finishing studies, as well as agricultural input and output price datasets. Here we describe the model and its use to determine the cost-effectiveness of alternative current management practices (e.g. forage- and cereal-based finishing) and slaughter ages (i.e. short, medium or long finishing duration). To better understand drivers of profitability in beef finishing systems, several scenarios comparing finishing duration, gender, genetic selection of stock for growth rate or feed efficiency, as well as financial support were tested. There are opportunities for profitable and sustainable beef production in Scotland, for both cereal and forage based systems, particularly when aiming for a younger age profile at slaughtering. By careful choice of finishing systems matched to animal potential, as well as future selection of high performing and feed efficient cattle, beef finishers will be able to enhance performance and increase financial returns.

Keywords: Beef production systems; Bio-economic modelling; Finishing stage; Economic viability

1 Introduction

2 Global consumer demand for food is expected to rise due to population growth and increased
3 per capita incomes, with developing countries expected to experience a marked increase in
4 consumption of animal products (Alexander et al., 2015; Godfray et al., 2010; Tilman and
5 Clark, 2014). During recent decades, there have been large changes in the structure of the
6 developing world's diet, with a move away from a starch dominated diet to one with more
7 energy from animal products (Popkin, 2006). A shift to a more western diet, with higher levels
8 of protein intake, will lead to an expected 21% increase in beef consumed in developing
9 countries over the next decade, with 45% of additional beef demand attributed to Asian
10 markets (Agriculture and Horticulture Development Board, 2017; OECD/FAO, 2017). This
11 "westernization" of Asian diets results will increase demand for high-value temperate zone
12 products, transforming food supply systems and providing export opportunities (OECD/FAO,
13 2017; Pingali, 2007).

14 Every region's agriculture activities are related to land type; the pasture-based agricultural
15 landscape of Scotland indicates that the ruminant livestock sector, and principally cattle
16 production, is the main agricultural activity (ERSA, 2016; Vosough Ahmadi et al., 2015).
17 Scotland's economy is extremely reliant on ruminant livestock farming, while in terms of
18 dependency on cattle production across European Union (EU) states, the region is second
19 only to Ireland (Ashworth, 2009). Nevertheless, producers tend to report low or negative
20 margins and rely greatly on Common Agricultural Policy (CAP) support payments to sustain
21 their farming activities (Scottish Government, 2014). This increasing reliance on subsidies
22 raises concerns over the sector's financial performance and stability (AHDB, 2016). To
23 capitalize on future opportunities, the challenge for Scotland's beef industry will be to make

24 optimum use of resources and unlock the best combination of management practices to
25 improve production efficiency and profitability. Scottish forage-based beef production
26 systems might be sustainable in environmental terms, but economic sustainability is yet to be
27 achieved for most farms, partly due to a volatile business environment and uncertain price
28 conditions (Scottish Government, 2014). There is a need to investigate adaptations that
29 counter the effects of uncertainty by helping farmers building strategies to capitalize on the
30 region's unique assets (AHDB, 2016).

31 Simulation models enable researchers to investigate and reveal possible impacts of changes
32 in agricultural production technologies. This often leads to designing tools that can
33 complement, and even substitute for, conventional, 'on-the-ground' experimental methods
34 (Antle et al., 2017; Bywater and Cacho, 1994). Beef production systems can be investigated
35 with mathematical models to explore various sets of farm constraints, policy parameters and
36 management alternatives (Nielsen et al., 2004; Rotz et al., 2005; Tess and Kolstad, 2000; van
37 Calker et al., 2004; Veysset et al., 2005). A number of authors have established simulation
38 models to study beef cattle growth and carcass composition (Hoch and Agabriel, 2004;
39 Kilpatrick and Steen, 1999), beef production systems (Crosson et al., 2006), ration formulation
40 (Oltjen and Ahmadi, 2013), slaughtering policies (Nielsen et al., 2002), feed intake and animal
41 performance (Rotz et al., 2005), feeding strategies (Bonesmo and Randby, 2010), decisions
42 during the fattening process (Makulska et al., 1870), systems' technical efficiency (Ruiz et al.,
43 2000) and various innovation options (Ash et al., 2015).

44 Although, these studies have covered various beef production issues, there is a need for
45 livestock simulation modelling approaches based on region-specific robust datasets that will
46 be effectively pre-parameterized for conditions common to the system examined (Antle et

47 al., 2017). Here, a static simulation model utilized Scottish beef farm systems as a case study
48 for a methodology that could be used to explore cost effectiveness of beef finishing in other
49 regions. The aim of this study was to assemble information to support a decision-making
50 process contributing to the development of cutting-edge farm-management systems that
51 address low profitability (Jones et al., 2017). The paper describes the structure of the Grange
52 Scottish Beef Model (GSBM). The model is then applied, to investigate scenarios that study
53 the effects of variation in market conditions, policy environment and management practices
54 on enterprise profitability.

55 **Model description**

56 The GSBM shares a common structure with farm systems models developed by Teagasc (The
57 Agriculture and Food Development Authority in the Republic of Ireland) (Ashfield et al.,
58 2014b, 2013; Bohan et al., 2016; Crosson et al., 2015; Crosson et al., 2006; Finneran et al.,
59 2012). Thus, the approach was to develop a biophysical depiction of the farm system within
60 a single year, adopting a static and deterministic framework with provision for an economic
61 analysis of annual performance. The animal nutritional data and equations used in another
62 model developed by Teagasc were considered appropriate due to the similarity of production
63 systems, climate and breeds between Scotland and Ireland (Ashfield et al., 2013; Heaton et
64 al., 2008). Furthermore, European market specifications are shared between the two regions
65 (Quality Meat Scotland, 2017). The GSBM diverged from previous Teagasc models to provide
66 a dedicated depiction of the Scottish beef finishing sector, including a range of production
67 systems reflecting the variety of options available to beef farmers.

68 **Origin of experimental data**

69 Data were obtained from experiments in Scotland to define the main coefficients and
70 production functions (Bell et al., 2016; Hyslop et al., 2016). Production systems modelled
71 were based on the “Lifetime growth pattern and beef eating quality” (“Growth Path”) project,
72 previously reported by AHDB Beef & Lamb (Hyslop et al., 2016). This three year study was
73 selected because Limousins were the most used beef sire in Scotland and the UK between
74 1997 and 2017 (Quality Meat Scotland, 2017). A total of 72 animals entered the study at 12
75 months of age (yearlings) and were taken through divergent finishing strategies; offered
76 either a mixture of concentrates with forage based finishing diets or grazing on diverse quality
77 grasslands. Steers and heifers, representative of the Limousin crossbred beef cattle genotype,
78 experienced three different treatments that led to three distinct “growth-paths” (Hyslop et
79 al., 2016). Further details of the Growth path study are included in the Supplementary
80 Material.

81 The model simulates two genders of one important genetic type (Limousin crossbreds) under
82 three management regimes. Modelling of individual systems was based on growth patterns
83 recorded in the study, which represent production systems typical of commercial practice for
84 UK and Scottish farms (Hyslop et al., 2016). Six production options were modelled, which
85 represent the short, medium and long finishing treatments along with two genders (steers
86 and heifers), reproducing the continuous experimental design of the “Growth Path” trial.

87 Instead of employing generic growth curves, animal growth curves were adopted from the
88 “Growth Path” experiment dataset (Hyslop et al., 2016). Figure 1 shows the difference
89 between these curves and those produced using INRA equations for late maturing steers and
90 heifers (Sauvant et al., 2018). Whilst the standard INRA curves corresponded closely for

91 medium-duration finishing systems, they under-predicted for short-duration and over-
92 predicted form long-duration finishing systems. In beef finishing systems, when animals are
93 sufficiently fed after a period of reduced energy via restricted nutrition, the physiological process of
94 compensatory growth is observed, which signifies a period of enhanced growth compared with those
95 not submitted to feed restriction (Hornick et al., 2000; Sainz et al., 1995). Previous studies have
96 highlighted the role of compensatory growth when estimating beef cattle performance (Hoch and
97 Agabriel, 2004; Keele et al., 1992; Oltjen et al., 1986). In addition, compensatory growth could
98 influence a farm' financial performance (Ashfield et al., 2014b), as it can be employed as a strategy to
99 reduce feeding costs (Lopes et al., 2018), and it was found to have an effect on meat's sensory
100 characteristics and quality (Keady et al., 2017). The variability in experimentally-derived growth
101 curves was a result of actual feed availability, and this was particularly obvious for the long-
102 duration finishing systems which incorporated two grazing periods.

103 **Model Components**

104 To investigate production related scenarios, an existing model, the Grange Dairy Beef Systems
105 Model (GDBSM), was used as a base, re-parameterized and adjusted to fit Scottish conditions
106 (Ashfield et al., 2013). The GDBSM was developed to evaluate grassland based dairy calf to
107 beef production systems in Ireland (Ashfield et al., 2014c, 2014a, 2013). Similar to the
108 structure of GDBSM, this model also consists of four sub models i.e. the farm system, animal
109 nutrition, feed supply and financial performance. Each component of the model will be briefly
110 discussed, along with alterations and adjustments made to develop a regionalized model for
111 Scotland. A representation of the approach adopted during the development of the GSBM is
112 demonstrated in Figure 2.

113 **Farm system sub model**

114 The farm system sub model simulates the beef finishing system and calculates on a monthly
115 basis the animal numbers, individual live-weights, housing requirements and slurry
116 production during the indoor period. The finishing systems of the farm system sub model
117 were re-designed to replicate animal treatments during the “Growth path” study. Simulation
118 initiates when animals enter the farm on 1st May, which is typical for spring-born yearlings in
119 Scotland (Hyslop et al., 2016). The exception to this is cattle on short duration systems, which
120 entered the farm on 1st March. Animals were assumed to be purchased at the prevailing
121 yearling store price. Additional cattle purchases can occur at any time during the finishing
122 stage. The default mortality rate was set to 2%, equally distributed over the year (SAC
123 Consulting, 2017).

124 Live-weights were simulated based on initial variability measured during the “Growth Path”
125 experiment and was calculated at the start of each month and based on the previous month’s
126 starting live-weight and live-weight gain. Key default parameters like starting live-weight and
127 monthly live-weight gains used data from the “Growth Path” experiment (Hyslop et al., 2016).
128 The amount of slurry produced was based on number of animals, number of days spent
129 indoors, as well as the amount of slurry produced per animal per day (SAC Consulting, 2017).
130 All animals were accommodated in straw bedded systems and were supplied primarily with
131 grass silage diets. Another assumption was that cattle were sold directly to abattoirs, and
132 carcass data were obtained from the same experiment (Allen, 2014; Hyslop et al., 2016).

133 **Animal nutrition sub model**

134 The animal nutrition sub model controlled the energy demand and feed requirements of the
135 modelled herd. It has been designed to calculate animal requirements and formulate diets

136 using grazed grass, grass silage and concentrates to meet these demands (Ashfield et al.,
137 2013). Nutritional specifications were described as animal energy requirements and were
138 subject to a maximum intake capacity, which was described in Cattle Fill Units (CFU's). Energy
139 requirements were specified in UFL's (Feed Unit for lactation) and UFV's (Feed Unit for
140 maintenance and meet production) for growing and finishing animals respectively (Jarrige et
141 al., 1986). The equations of Ashfield et al. (2013), based on liveweight and liveweight gain
142 were adopted to calculate the net energy requirements and animal intake capacity for GSBM
143 (Ashfield et al., 2013). In this version of the model protein requirements were not considered,
144 as it was assumed that that fulfilment of energy requirements simultaneously satisfies protein
145 requirements (Crosson et al., 2006b). The outputs of the model have been verified to ensure
146 that the protein requirements of animals are satisfied (Crosson et al., 2006b). For a possible
147 scenario where protein requirements have not been fulfilled, the user must specify to feed
148 appropriate concentrates until requirements are met (Ashfield et al., 2013). Actual growth
149 rates adopted from the "Growth path" study controlled the animal intake and were used as
150 inputs to calculate net energy requirements. Moreover, feed grown in the farm was modelled
151 as a constraint for forage intake, while brought-in concentrates offered compensate for the
152 difference.

153 When simulating proportions of grass and forage fed, no silage was fed during the grazing
154 period, and likewise no grazed grass was fed during the housing period. In instances where
155 the forage quantity calculated for satisfying energy demands surpassed its intake capacity,
156 the amount of forage originally considered was fed at the maximum level, with
157 supplementary concentrates used to meet the total energy demand (Ashfield, 2014). But, the
158 inclusion of concentrate lead to the reduction of forage intake and the extent of this

159 replacement depends on the forage fill value and amount of concentrate fed. Thus, the
160 “apparent fill” method was employed to calculate the change in forage dry matter per unit of
161 additional concentrate fed (i.e. substitution rate) (Jarrige et al., 1986). The process selected
162 was based on forage’s apparent fill value (AFV), taking account of the ration energy density
163 (RED) of the diet and the energy content of the forage (UFL or UFV). The model determine
164 AFV based on tables previously published for a range of RED’s and UFV’s typical to temperate
165 grasslands (Jarrige et al., 1986).

166 **Feed supply sub model**

167 The feed supply sub model regulates the forage system that calculated the grazed grass and
168 grass silage production of the farm. Most of the land area of grassland based beef finishing
169 systems in Scotland consists of permanent perennial ryegrass swards (Quality Meat Scotland,
170 2013). During peak growth periods, some of the perennial ryegrass swards are isolated for
171 grass silage production. Supplementary concentrate feeds were purchased and used
172 alongside the forage dietary components when required.

173 The grass grazing area was the total farm area minus the total area required for grass silage
174 on a monthly basis. Grass growth (t DM/ha) was modelled based on a field experiment that
175 took place at Crichton Royal Farm, Dumfries (55°02’N, 3°35’W) in South-West Scotland, UK,
176 on a long-term permanent grassland site (Bell et al., 2016). The data were used to generate
177 an equation that predicts grass growth based on the nitrogen response (organic and
178 inorganic) application rates (kg/ha). Expected yield and monthly distribution of grass growth
179 throughout the year was calculated based on historic Scottish data from the Scotland’s Rural
180 College (SRUC) Dairy Research and Innovation Centre (Dumfries).

181 The utilization of grazed grass was fixed initially at 50% to reflect the level of performance of
182 a set stocking grazing system for typical Scottish beef farms (Quality Meat Scotland, 2013).
183 Two harvest regimens were modelled (one –harvest and two-harvests), using data published
184 from the British Grassland Society to account for yield and quality parameters when cutting
185 on different dates (Hopkins, 2000). It is typical on beef farms in Scotland for the first harvest
186 to take place late in May or early June and the second approximately six weeks later, or else,
187 depending on the weather and production systems selected, a single harvest might be taken
188 in June (Farmers Guardian, 2017). Further details for modelled harvest dates, yields and silage
189 quality are provided in Supplementary Material. Demand for grass silage, driven by the animal
190 nutrition sub model, regulates the proportion of the area required for grass silage. When grass
191 silage harvesting is complete, all of the farm area is available for grazing. Concentrate rations
192 for the finishing animals were simulated as a typical Scottish barley-based concentrate with
193 an energy content of 1.15 UFL or UFV/kg DM (Quality Meat Scotland, 2017).

194 A key input was nitrogen (N) application to the grazed area, since it determines the overall
195 stocking rate. Stocking rates were defined as organic nitrogen output per hectare for cattle
196 and, in accordance with the Nitrates Directive, the maximum amount of organic nitrogen
197 output is limited to 170 kg N/ha for the UK (The Scottish Government, 2008). Specifications
198 on nitrogen, phosphorus and potassium inputs originate from (Ashfield et al., 2013), as these
199 figures were already embedded in the model, and they better characterize the stocking rate
200 effect. The same principles apply to slurry production, its nutrient content and available
201 nutrients. Slurry was allocated to the grass silage areas with 70% applied in spring and 30%
202 over the summer, while its nutrient content was considered when calculating chemical
203 fertilizer requirements. Whilst retaining the more complex Irish model, these estimates were

204 consistent with the range of values suggested for Scotland in the Technical Note for fertilizer
205 recommendations for grasslands (Sinclair et al., 2013).

206 **Financial sub model**

207 The key purpose of GSBM is to simulate the biological operation and economic performance
208 of Scottish beef finishing enterprises. Recent Scottish pricing data were used as a baseline.
209 Beef prices were calculated by gathering and analysing monthly data, publicly available from
210 the Scottish Farmer, for the period of 2012 to 2017 (The Scottish Farmer, 2018). The beef
211 price used in the model is a function of the conformation and fat class of the animal.

212 Seasonal and yearly fluctuation of beef prices were accounted by employing ModelRisk, a risk
213 analysis add-in for Excel (Vose Software, 2018). Options include monthly average, with
214 minimum and maximum monthly prices taken from the last five years as an input for both
215 carcass and yearling store prices. Additionally, a stochastic approach was used, where
216 ModelRisk fits normal and lognormal distributions to the carcass and store prices based on
217 weekly data over the five year period of 2012 to 2017. Thus, the model generates random
218 carcass prices and yearling store values for each run. This technique enhances the model's
219 capacity, as it enables testing of the resilience of beef finishing systems under diverse market
220 conditions. In an attempt to understand enterprises' financial performance under different
221 pricing schedules, pricing grids from two major beef processors were included. ABP and
222 Dunbia, have pricing grids that reflect the supermarket specifications and consumer
223 preferences, thus providing a lower price for over-age cattle and carcass weights in excess of
224 specific thresholds. The model included age penalties for cattle over 30 months, as well as
225 weight penalties for carcasses outside latest specifications (Dunbia, 2015; Robert Forster,
226 2015).

227 Pricing data were collected from various sources including Farm Management Handbook
228 (2016), websites, publications from Scottish Government and personal communication with
229 SAC Consultants (AHDB Beef & Lamb, 2018; Ashworth, 2009; ERSA, 2016; Hyslop et al., 2016;
230 SAC Consulting, 2017; Scottish Government, 2014; The Scottish Government, 2015a, 2015b,
231 2008). Less critical prices were adopted from Ashfield (2014), converted from Euro to Pound
232 Sterling (OFX Group Ltd, 2018) and adjusted for inflation according to a process described by
233 the Bank of England (Bank of England, 2018).

234 Variable costs typically include concentrate, fertiliser, silage making (contractor, additives and
235 polythene), veterinary and medicine, reseeded, straw, slurry spreading, milk replacer,
236 interest on working capital, market and abattoir costs, transport costs and land rental
237 (Ashfield et al., 2013). Data from Scottish Government were collected to estimate land rental
238 for different areas of Scotland, to account for the large variation encountered (The Scottish
239 Government, 2015b). Fixed costs included expenses like electricity, car, phone, land
240 improvements maintenance and interest on an assumed long term loan. Other fixed costs
241 included, machinery operating, building maintenance, and the corresponding depreciation,
242 plus interest on machinery and land improvements. The initial method for calculating the cost
243 of the buildings and machinery was described by (Ashfield et al., 2013). It was also assumed
244 that the machinery owned by the farmer included a tractor and static machinery for routine
245 field operations (e.g. fertiliser spreading and grass topping), while operations like grass silage
246 harvesting, reseeded and slurry spreading were carried out by a contractor. The interest rate
247 for long term borrowing was set at 8%, including investments on land improvements,
248 accommodation for animals during the indoor period and machinery. Paid labour was
249 included in the fixed costs. Average labour hours per month for different categories of beef

250 finishing system, as well as rates for skilled and casual agricultural labour for Scotland were
251 used (Nix and Redman, 2016; SAC Consulting, 2017). The model does not account for the
252 opportunity cost of owned land, or for unpaid family labour. The main output from the
253 financial sub model is the monthly and annual cash flow and annual profit and loss account.

254 **Model Validation**

255 Farm systems models are difficult to validate formally due to lack of independent datasets,
256 and therefore are often evaluated using a panel of experts (Crosson et al., 2006). As a result
257 of the absence of a robust dataset for Scottish beef finishing systems, the process selected
258 for evaluating the model was “face validity” by “knowledgeable individuals” as described by
259 various authors (Qureshi et al., 1999; Rykiel, 1996; Sargent, 2010). During the design process
260 for the GDBSM, regular consultations with researchers at Teagasc, Grange Research Centre
261 were taking place, to ensure that the proper biological relationships were specified and to
262 validate coefficients used in the model (Crosson et al., 2006).

263 A workshop to evaluate the GSBM took place with the Beef, Sheep & Dairy KT Strategy Group
264 of SAC Consulting and SRUC. Thirteen knowledgeable individuals (e.g. beef specialist
265 consultants, grass specialists, professors, farm managers, researchers) were present for the
266 workshop, which purpose was to gain feedback from beef experts regarding the model’s
267 performance and accuracy. Workshop activities involved presenting the model’s structure,
268 testing several scenarios (e.g. resources, input prices and performance indicators), and
269 completing a questionnaire with twelve questions using a 5-point Likert response scale to
270 measure how well they agree with model’s outputs (Likert, 1932). The questionnaire also
271 included open questions on the model’s outputs. Workshop results are summarised in Figure
272 3.

273 Although, the model appeared to accurately depict animal performance of continental breeds
274 in Scotland; there were aspects that needed recalibration. The model was not accurate for
275 the current financial situation of Scottish beef enterprises. In response to survey results,
276 individual sessions were held with SAC consultants, where new values were estimated for
277 input prices, and it was decided to include beef prices only for years 2015-17; excluding
278 previous years with extreme volatility affecting the mean (The Scottish Farmer, 2018). Also,
279 the equation used for grass production estimation was decreased by 20%, along with option
280 for second cut silage, which was decreased by the same amount for yield (t DM/ha) and dry
281 matter digestibility (g/kg). After recalibrating the model, beef experts were contacted again
282 and after a series of consultations aiding both to model verification and model validation
283 process, they were content that GSBM was simulating beef finishing systems in Scotland
284 within an acceptable range of technical and financial outputs.

285 Sensitivity analysis is the process of recalculating outcomes under alternative assumptions to
286 determine the impact of an input variable and is considered critical to model validation
287 (Pianosi et al., 2016). For the purpose of identifying which inputs cause significant uncertainty
288 and testing the robustness of the model, sensitivity analysis was performed for a beef
289 finishing system slaughtering heifers at 24 months of age. The main inputs examined were
290 carcass prices, concentrate costs and yearling values (Figure 10).

291 **Model Application**

292 GSBM was used to investigate the technical and economic performance of the most common
293 beef production systems in Scotland. Scenarios involving finishing either male or female
294 animals on a range of finishing ages for each of three distinct treatments, whereby cattle were
295 slaughtered at monthly intervals of 14-17, 18-24 and 25-35 months of age ('short', 'medium'

296 and 'long' durations respectively). Implications for the systems' financial performance were
297 of interest because the management approaches varied greatly in inputs and outputs. Land
298 area was constrained to 120 ha, typical for a beef finishing farm in Scotland. Likewise, the
299 inorganic nitrogen input on the grazing area was fixed at 175 kg N/ha across the different
300 systems. Additional nitrogen quantity, which was attributed to extra concentrates, N
301 mineralisation (i.e. from the soil) and potentially from N fixation by legumes, was assumed to
302 enter the farm system on a yearly basis. All livestock were purchased as yearlings and the
303 number of animals was matched to land area and forage production. For the shorter duration
304 finishing systems, only one silage cut harvest date was modelled, on 29th May. In contrast, for
305 the medium and longer pasture based systems, two silage cuts were assumed with 6 weeks
306 of regrowth.

307 **Scenario analysis**

308 In order to examine the resilience of Scottish beef production systems, scenarios based on
309 altering factors that affect financial outcome were constructed and investigated. These
310 illustrate two different approaches: scenarios about finishing duration, choice of animal's
311 gender, feed efficiency and within-herd variation take a bottom-up approach driven by what
312 the farmer might be able to change, while the ones concerning a simulated governmental
313 financial aid subsidies have a top-down approach, directed from the administrative
314 authorities and what they might do to make up incomes.

315 **Scenario 1.** The first scenario explored the effect of different finishing durations on farm's
316 profitability. Several authors have identified system intensity variation in finishing durations
317 to be vital determinants of profitability for beef systems (French et al., 2001; Keane and Allen,
318 1998; Keane et al., 2006). The GSBM was employed to determine the cost-effectiveness of

319 different management practices and slaughter ages (at monthly intervals) for beef finishing
320 systems. The most common beef finishing systems in Scotland were reflected in the different
321 treatments (i.e. 'short', 'medium' and 'long' duration).

322 **Scenario 2.** The second scenario considered the effect of using different genders on
323 profitability. It has been shown previously that steers consume more feed, gain weight faster,
324 and are more efficient than heifers. Hence, steers tend to be more profitable than heifers
325 (Koknaroglu et al., 2005). However, variation in sale prices, feeder prices, and feed conversion
326 rates are also significant in explaining possible differences in steer and heifer profitability over
327 time (Langemeier et al., 1992). Simulation results enabled a comparison between genders, to
328 identify difference in performances for each finishing age.

329 **Scenario 3.** The third scenario investigated the effect of genetically selecting cattle for
330 improved feed efficiency. Considerable resources and expenses of a beef enterprise are
331 allocated to the feed budget (McGee, 2014). Consequently, feed efficiency in growing and
332 finishing cattle, which translates as the ability of animals to reach a target body weight with
333 the least amount of feed intake, is a key factor in the beef cattle industry (Cantalapiedra-Hijar
334 et al., 2018). Several studies have attempted to gain an understand into the biological basis
335 governing deviating phenotypes for feed efficiency in bovine by examining animals' blood
336 metabolites and hormones (Bourgon et al., 2017; Cònsolo et al., 2018; Gonano et al., 2014;
337 Richardson et al., 2004), or by studying cattle's hepatic function (Casal et al., 2018;
338 Montanholi et al., 2017). Other studies focused on (Lu et al., 2013), analysing interactions
339 with the rumen microbiome (Paz et al., 2018), associations with meat quality (Herd and
340 Bishop, 2000), or concentrated in the host genomics (Lu et al., 2013; Snelling et al., 2011).
341 Further sStudies on genetic selection using divergent breeds of cattle from around the world

342 have shown that within any group there could be a variance of around 20% in feed efficiency
343 between the most efficient and the least efficient animals (Fitzsimons et al., 2014; Grigoletto
344 et al., 2017; Kenny et al., 2014; Lawrence et al., 2012; McGee, 2016; Takeda et al., 2018).
345 GSBM simulated the genetic selection effect for feed efficiency by decreasing the daily energy
346 requirements of animals by 20% while achieving the same level of live-weight gain. This
347 scenario attempted to simulate the effect of selection across the national herd rather than an
348 individual breeder selecting for feed efficiency, while all animals were bought into the farm.

349 **Scenario 4.** The fourth scenario explored effects of within-herd variation in performance
350 related to genetic differences (Jenkins et al., 1991). This scenario simulates the significant
351 amount of animal-to-animal variation that occurs around the average feed efficiency
352 observed in beef cattle reared in similar conditions (Cantalapiedra-Hijar et al., 2018). Intra-
353 population genetic variation can have a long-term impact on genetic change for various
354 productivity objectives. This approach is often used to complement the quicker and more
355 targeted genetic selection between breeds, which was simulated in Scenario 3 (Jakubec et al.,
356 2003). To formulate this scenario to effectively portray intra-herd selection outcomes, the
357 best performing animals within the group were identified and the model then assumed that
358 all animals of the herd share these characteristics.

359 **Scenarios 5 & 6.** For the fifth and the sixth scenario, technical variability of prevalent beef
360 finishing systems in Scotland was compared alongside the fixed effect of policy changes
361 regarding a direct support payments scheme, simulating the current level of an EU support
362 payments. Age at slaughter profiles for cattle were retrieved from the Red Meat Industry
363 Profile, which showed that during 2017, the most common systems for both steers and heifers
364 in Scotland were finishing cattle at 24 months (Quality Meat Scotland, 2018). Hence, 24-

365 month finishing systems were used as the baseline for this modelling analysis. The current
366 fFarmer support payments from the European Union were included; these are land-based
367 and non-enterprise specific subsidies, aimed at supporting environmental, economic and
368 rural development (SAC Consulting, 2017). The effect of policy change regarding financial
369 support subsidies on a range of financial performance of beef farms in Scotland was examined
370 using a stochastic analysis for two different scenarios using Monte Carlo simulation. One
371 scenario excluded, and the other included, the current level of subsidies available for beef
372 enterprises. Monte Carlo simulation, a method of risk assessment, was applied to measure
373 the uncertainty generated by input values and carcass prices (Figure 4).

374 **Results**

375 **Scenario 1**

376 Levels of applied organic nitrogen exceeded the level of 250 kg N/ha allowed by UK
377 regulations (The Scottish Government, 2008) for some systems (e.g. 14- and 15-month
378 systems) and these were rejected as non-compliant. Only thirteen of the forty systems
379 examined were found to be profitable without subsidies. With steers the least profitable
380 systems were the longer finishing ones, with the largest loss of £563/animal reported for the
381 35 month finishing system. The most profitable system was the medium finishing at 18
382 months, with a profit of £169/animal. For the short duration systems, diet was set to only
383 include silage and concentrates, thus, the model assumed that these types of systems could
384 sustain a great number of animals, depicting larger intensive feedlot-type beef finishing
385 enterprises. For the heifer finishing systems, positive net margins were reported for short
386 duration systems, with 16 and 17 month systems both generating profits of £134 per animal.
387 Low financial returns were evident for long duration systems, with the 34 and 35 month

388 systems reporting heavy losses (net margins of -£459 and -£523 per animal respectively).
389 Further details for each gender and finishing duration are provided in Supplementary
390 Material.

391 **Scenario 2**

392 Steers showed higher financial returns than heifer systems in 17 out of the 20 different cases
393 compared (Figure 5). Exceptions were noted when slaughtering at 30, 34 and 35 months of
394 age, where heifer systems were more profitable. The largest difference between the two
395 genders, £82 per animal, was recorded for 16 month finishing systems.

396 **Scenario 3**

397 Impacts of selecting for feed efficiency on farm profitability were analysed for both steer and
398 heifer systems. Unsurprisingly, net margins increased for all systems examined and five
399 systems, (steers slaughtered at 23 and 24 months, and heifers slaughtered at 22, 23 and 24
400 months) transformed from loss making to profitable. The full analysis of the effects of
401 increasing feed efficiency for steers and heifers on systems with different finishing duration
402 is presented on Figure 6. The impact of feed efficiency is greater in steers than heifers, and
403 becomes more pronounced with longer finishing durations.

404 **Scenario 4**

405 In Figure 7 financial results for the highest growth rate animals in each group are compared
406 with the average performing animals. There is potential to increase margins with better
407 performing animals of the same breed and sex, especially on short and medium duration
408 fattening systems. The influence of within-herd performance variation delivered the highest
409 increase on net margin in 17 month system for steers and in 24 month system for heifers. The
410 positive effect a high level of growth has on profitability decreases the longer the animals are

411 kept in a system for both steers and heifers (though at different rates). It was interesting to
412 compare on selection between the two sexes, as it had a large effect on profitability,
413 especially for the longer duration systems with heifers. Figure 8 shows the comparison
414 between the two genders and highlights the move to slightly more profitable heifer systems
415 on longer finishing durations.

416 **Scenarios 5 & 6**

417 Distributions of net margin levels for 1000 simulations of 24 month steer systems, with or
418 without financial support provided by the statesubsidies are presented on Figure 9. An
419 enterprise without receiving economic aid subsidies was calculated to generate a loss of
420 £69/animal, with a standard deviation of £52/animal. The likelihood of a farm making profit
421 was only 9%. When financial support subsidies-waswere included the mean shifted to
422 producing a profit of £13/animal, with a standard deviation of £51/animal. After the
423 incorporation of state economic relief subsidies-were included the probability of a farm
424 recording loss was reduced to 39%. Following the same methodology, distributions of net
425 margin for the 24 month heifer systems with and without financial aid subsidies-were
426 calculated. Results were similar with the steer systems, with mean net margin without
427 subsidiesfor the examined scenario was likely to be a loss. The probability of an enterprise
428 recording positive net margins was as low as 2%. In contrast, when governmental fiscal aid
429 was subsidies-were included only a 33% of the simulation runs generated losses. Although,
430 these results look promising for both steers and heifers, there is still a significant chance that
431 the system would record losses, even with after the current level of financial support provided
432 to beef enterprises was subsidies-included.

433 Figure 10 reports the results of sensitivity analysis carried out for finishing heifers at 24
434 months on net margin change in response to a 25% variation in yearling price, concentrate
435 cost and carcass value. Net margin calculated using the model values reported above resulted
436 in a loss of £75/heifer. Further analysis revealed that the greatest effect on system
437 profitability is attributed to carcass prices variation. The effect of shifting carcass prices on
438 net margin variance was £655/animal, while the effect of yearling costs and concentrates
439 costs was £321 and £63 per animal, respectively. This analysis suggest that for the 24 month
440 heifer system to generate a profit, yearling prices would need to decrease by 15%, carcass
441 prices would need to increase by 10%, or there would be need to be a more than 25%
442 decrease in concentrate costs.

443 **Discussion**

444 **General Discussion**

445 A model for simulating beef finishing systems has been developed and Scotland was used as
446 a case study. GSBM considers the complex relationships between enterprise efficiency, farm
447 capacity and animal performance. Several finishing systems relevant to Scottish conditions
448 were simulated, and their financial performance was investigated under different economic
449 scenarios.

450 Beef finishing operations decide on livestock to purchase considering the corresponding beef
451 prices. Steer systems were found to be more profitable than heifer systems for continental
452 breeds in Scotland. Continental steers tend to grow faster and producing heavier carcasses
453 than heifers, resulting in a greater carcass output per area farmed (Steen and Kilpatrick,
454 1995). At the same time, heifers deposit fatty tissue quickly and it has a direct impact on their

455 carcass profile and value (Keane and Drennan, 1987). The most cost-effective systems were
456 the 18 and the 16 month slaughtering age for steers and heifers respectively. However, there
457 are limitations to this simulation exercise, as the figures employed represent only one
458 production cycle, due to restrictions on available datasets for Scotland. Another reason for
459 caution is that in the current exercise grazing was excluded from shorter finishing duration
460 systems, while a relatively large number of animals were assumed. All systems were based on
461 the same available farming area, and simulate the most common slaughtering age options.
462 Each system can be analysed in depth using the model highlighting its unique advantages and
463 drawbacks, but these were considered to be outside the scope of this paper, where the
464 performance and accuracy of a new model are being discussed. For example, despite the
465 apparent advantages for animal performance and profitability when mainly on concentrate
466 based diets, there are niche markets for high value products produced from grass-fed animals
467 that could potentially offer higher returns. Consequently, opportunities for a region like
468 Scotland may be found in the profitable medium term finishing systems, where a proportion
469 of grass is included in the diet as well (AHDB, 2016).

470 When selecting for feed efficiency or including the current level of financial aid provided by
471 the governments subsidies, all systems benefited from the positive effect, while in some cases
472 the influence proved to be critical, as it allowed systems to generate profit. Considerable
473 genetic variation exists in beef cattle for feed efficiency, unaccounted for by differences in
474 weight and growth rate (Fitzsimons et al., 2014; McGee, 2016). The use of plausible decrease
475 in animals' daily energy requirements derived from expert knowledge and guided by available
476 literature may be considered inferior to a complex bio-economic model. However, instead of
477 aiming for a detailed understanding of biophysical processes underpinning feed efficiency in

478 cattle (Pitchford, 2004), this paper investigates the potential range of variation in net margins
479 associated with genetically select animals for feed efficiency changes for representative farms
480 in a study region. Opportunities to improve the profitability of beef production systems occur
481 when focusing on producing selection tools that incorporate biological and economic
482 parameters to support breeding programs. Cattle that were bred for feed efficiency were
483 found to have multiple benefits, such as decreased DMI, less manure production, and less
484 emission of methane, thus; minimizing their environmental impact (Cantalapiedra-Hijar et al.,
485 2018; Fitzsimons et al., 2014; Hegarty et al., 2007; Nkrumah et al., 2006). Within-herd
486 variation in animal growth rates had a substantial impact on profitability of individuals. When
487 comparing economic performance with the effect, margins increased noticeably for both
488 steers and heifers, especially for the longer duration heifer systems. Although, different
489 breeds can be selected to optimize performance levels for growth traits more quickly than
490 through selection within breeds, it might be a useful tool when used concurrently. It is argued
491 that within herd variation should have the largest long term impact on genetic change for
492 particular aims (Jakubec et al., 2003).

493 While, a system's performance may appear to be promising when applying average values,
494 investigating its resilience and adaptability using stochastic analysis is crucial for gaining
495 confidence in the predicted results (Villalba et al., 2006). During the analysis of the 24 month
496 steer and heifer finishing systems, there were 39% and 33% chances of recording losses,
497 despite adding basic grants. The rural schemes examined in this paper were the Basic
498 Payment Scheme available to Scotland along with the Greening payments; both part of
499 European Union Common Agricultural Policy (Pillar 1 - Direct payments). This study simulated
500 the possible effects of changes in domestic policy agricultural policy, in the form of reinstating

501 or maintaining a form of direct payments, would have on the profitability of beef finishing
502 enterprises. The total abolition of CAP-related financial aid for Scottish beef farms presents
503 only one of the factors that are considered to shape the future landscape of the UK's agri-
504 sector. In fact, measuring the possible consequences on agriculture is itself a complex and
505 multifaceted task that requires extensive research in scenario developing (Davis et al., 2017;
506 Feng et al., 2017; Harvey et al., 2019; Hubbard et al., 2018). It is worth noting that although
507 there is some uncertainty associated with the UK leaving the European Union the UK
508 government has pledged to keep overall payments to the same level until 2022 (SAC
509 Consulting, 2017). These systems are highly reliant on direct payments schemes from the EU
510 and given the economic status of agri-sector in Scotland, policy mechanisms should be in
511 place to protect livestock systems from severe economic shocks.

512 **Innovations of approach and other models**

513 The GSBM facilitates a detailed economic analysis that leads to evaluating the performance
514 of Scottish beef enterprises. This could contribute to developing a deeper understanding of
515 complex relationships that govern beef production systems. This paper builds on previous
516 studies on feed efficiency by exploring the effects of breeding for feed efficiency along with
517 effects of within-herd variation on financial performance (Hill, 2012; Kenny et al., 2018).
518 Furthermore, knowledge gained could be employed to guide the design of novel systems, so
519 as to be in a position to sustain self-sufficient and cost-effective enterprises. Afterwards, the
520 model could analyse the profitability of newly designed systems and compare it with the
521 existing ones. By constructing and analysing a range of scenarios, GSBM supports a framework
522 for investigating multiple effects of alternative policies, market and production conditions on
523 profitability. This model simulates economic conditions for the livestock sector, while

524 including a variety of options on genders, finishing ages and feeding strategies, to provide a
525 relevant flexibility when determining profitable systems or identifying areas that could cause
526 a system to underperform. Also, the model supports an array of sensitivity and Monte Carlo
527 simulation analysis, while retaining the option of modifying input/output values as well as
528 performance parameters.

529 **Limitations of approach and future research**

530 In principle, the GSBM is a general simulation model that can be employed for the evaluation
531 of beef production systems in Scotland. Nevertheless, it is highlighted in the literature that
532 simulation models are not able to represent a real system completely and hence, they will
533 have to be constantly improved (Gradiz et al., 2007). In addition, when developing a general
534 model there will be a trade-off between a more practical approach for less accuracy and
535 precision (Hirooka et al., 1998). The model was able to take into account the variability
536 created by fluctuation in prices. However, various areas that could significantly influence the
537 model behaviour are yet to be fully studied and included, for example animal performance,
538 energy demands, grazed grass and grass silage yields.

539 Another constraint for the model was that the dataset employed, though it described typical
540 Scottish systems, it included only one beef production cycle; therefore, limitations involve
541 exclusion of plausible year-to-year variation. Additionally, to further investigate implications
542 of breed selection on farms' profitability, other breeds with different performance
543 characteristics (e.g. Aberdeen Angus or Luining) should be included in the model.

544 Future research ought to focus on potential environmental factors and their effect on system
545 profitability, an area of great interest in the last decades because of the collective effort to
546 mitigate the greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions attributed to beef production sector (Bellarby

547 et al., 2013; Foley et al., 2011; Lesschen et al., 2011). Beef production is considered to have a
548 substantial environmental footprint, contributing around 41% of the entire livestock sector
549 emissions (Gerber et al., 2015, 2013; Poore and Nemecek, 2018). Several studies point out to
550 the fact that feedlot-based short duration beef finishing systems have lower land
551 requirements and GHG emissions per kilogram of meat compared to longer duration grass-
552 based systems (Bragaglio et al., 2018; Capper, 2012; Nguyen et al., 2010; Peters et al., 2010).
553 Nevertheless, grazing ruminant production systems provide ecosystem services (Dick et al.,
554 2016), have a positive effect on long-term soil fertility (Horrocks et al., 2014) and a high
555 potential for carbon sequestration (Conant et al., 2017), along with numerous health benefits
556 that have been attributed to moderate consumption of grass-fed beef in comparison to
557 concentrate-fed beef (Warren et al., 2008). The growing meat demand of an expanding
558 human population, coupled with the challenges of global climate change, highlight the
559 importance of exploring alternative beef production systems that have the potential to
560 reduce environmental impacts from meat production and to guarantee long-term food
561 security (Alexander et al., 2015; Eisler et al., 2014; Swain et al., 2018). The model described in
562 this study has the potential to be employed in further livestock systems research for
563 investigating environmental and economic scenarios, to enhance understanding of current
564 systems and explore alternative strategies to address both low profitability and potential GHG
565 mitigation.

566 **Broader Implications**

567 In this paper, the region of Scotland was employed as a case study to demonstrate the
568 capabilities of the GSBM. While in some cases, results from the GSBM were found to be
569 relevant to beef production systems in other areas of the temperate climate zone, this

570 approach focused on the highlighting the region's unique conditions. However, the
571 methodology employed to calculate financial outcomes of beef finishing farms in GSBM was
572 designed to be universally applicable. Inputs such as livestock live weights, growth rates and,
573 ration composition will differ between regions, but the core methodology of the approach
574 was not specific to a particular geographic region. Consequently, the same approach that was
575 used to localize the model for Scotland could be employed to simulate beef finishing systems
576 in other contexts and regions. In addition, GSBM could further assist the on-going efforts to
577 breed cattle for feed efficiency, as it has the potential to examine scenarios simulating the
578 effects of such efforts on farm's profitability.

579 **Conclusion**

580 The GSBM simulated the physical and financial performance of Scottish beef finishing
581 systems. It was demonstrated that it can be used to analyse current and future scenarios of
582 interest. The model offers the user the opportunity to gain insights and tests various
583 managerial options about the beef fattening stage. Profitable opportunities for finishing late-
584 maturing cattle in Scotland were identified by investigating alternative finishing durations for
585 different systems. It was more cost-effective to finish cattle on shorter or medium duration
586 systems. Another crucial decision with economic impact would be the choice of livestock
587 gender. Steers were more profitable than heifers on most occasions, especially for the short
588 and medium length systems. In addition, the range of profit that specialized breeding could
589 deliver to farmers was presented for different systems via simulating the effects of improving
590 the cattle's feed efficiency and within herd performance variation. These insights could
591 contribute in making an informed decision regarding aspects of beef production that are
592 under the farmer's control.

593 It is anticipated that the model will be employed to construct agricultural policy, as well as
594 market and production related scenarios. The model identified the level of dependence on
595 EU's financial aid, along with the effects of carcass and store price volatility on profitability
596 for the most popular fattening systems in Scotland. It becomes pressing in the face of the
597 latest political developments to further investigate the sector's dependence on receiving
598 governmental fiscal support subsidies and adopt systems that would prove more reliant and
599 well-adjusted to each region's strengths. Therefore, model outcomes could be then used to
600 reduce costs or increase productivity to make systems more profitable. The methodology
601 described can be employed to tailor the model for other regions.

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