

1 **Agent-based modelling of alternative futures in the British land use system**

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21 **Key Points:**

- 22 • A national-scale agent-based model is developed to represent paired climatic and socio-
23 economic scenarios in the land system.
- 24 • Key scenario characteristics relate to forms of human behavior, interactions and societal
25 preferences.
- 26 • Large differences emerge between scenarios in terms of land management intensities,
27 ecosystem service provision and land sparing.

28

29 **Abstract**

30 Socio-economic scenarios such as the Shared Socioeconomic Pathways (SSPs) have been widely
31 used to analyse global change impacts, but representing their diversity is a challenge for the
32 analytical tools applied to them. Taking Great Britain as an example, we represent a set of
33 stakeholder-elaborated UK-SSP scenarios, linked to climate change scenarios (Representative
34 Concentration Pathways), in a globally-embedded agent-based modelling framework. We find
35 that distinct model components are required to account for divergent behavioural, social and
36 societal conditions in the SSPs, and that these have dramatic impacts on land system outcomes.
37 From strong social networks and environmental sustainability in SSP1 to land consolidation and
38 technological intensification in SSP5, scenario-specific model designs vary widely from one
39 another and from present-day conditions. Changes in social and human capitals can generate
40 impacts larger than those of technological and economic change, and comparable to those of
41 modelled climate change. We develop an open-access, transferrable model framework and
42 provide UK-SSP projections to 2080 at 1km² resolution, revealing large differences in land
43 management intensities, provision of a range of ecosystem services, and the knowledge and
44 motivations underlying land manager decision-making. These differences suggest the existence
45 of large but underappreciated areas of scenario space, within which novel options for land
46 system sustainability could occur.

47

48 **1 Introduction**

49 If efforts to mitigate climate change in the coming years are not transformative, then the impacts
50 themselves likely will be. The adoption of effective mitigation and adaptation strategies is
51 therefore essential, and these depend upon thorough knowledge of possible future conditions
52 (Rounsevell et al., 2021). To help generate such knowledge, various sets of scenarios have been
53 developed to provide structures within which analyses can be conducted (Schindler & Hilborn,
54 2015). Currently, the most widely-used scenario sets for environmental studies are the
55 Representative Concentration Pathways (RCPs) describing alternative greenhouse gas
56 concentration trajectories, and the Shared Socioeconomic Pathways (SSPs) describing alternative
57 socio-economic trajectories (O'Neill et al., 2020).

58 The RCP-SSP framework has been adopted across disciplines, and a decade's worth of research
59 has built upon it (O'Neill et al., 2020). It has proven particularly useful because it allows various
60 combinations of climatic and socio-economic conditions to be explored, providing coherent
61 storylines of plausible future conditions. RCP-SSP combinations have been defined for
62 numerous contexts from global to local scales, often through participatory processes of
63 stakeholder engagement (e.g. Kebede et al., 2018; Kok et al., 2019; Wear & Prestemon, 2019).
64 Together, these scenarios describe radically different 'worlds' in which societal structures and
65 priorities differ, are subject to different modes of governance, and are constrained by different
66 socio-economic resources.

67 One of the main uses of these scenario storylines has been in computational modelling. This
68 modelling supports the identification of pathways towards particular outcomes, such as limiting
69 global mean-temperature increases to 1.5°C (Rogelj et al., 2018), or reversing global biodiversity
70 declines (Leclère et al., 2020). Model-based implementations of the RCPs and SSPs have

71 become the de facto basis for anticipatory policy-making at the international level, effectively
72 defining the expected scope of actions and outcomes during the 21st century (O'Neill et al.,
73 2020).

74 Reliance on computational models for quantitative exploration of future conditions is largely
75 inevitable, but is not without drawbacks. Faced with widely divergent SSPs, it would be
76 appropriate to use similarly divergent modelling approaches to fully explore scenario space
77 (Brown et al., 2021; Polasky et al., 2011). However, large-scale land system models have been
78 relatively convergent in approaches and assumptions (Brown et al., 2017; Gambhir et al., 2019;
79 Haasnoot et al., 2013; Uusitalo et al., 2015). Most rely on cellular automata, econometric or
80 similar models with statistical transition probabilities between broad land use classes based on
81 observed (past) changes (Brown et al., 2017; Verburg et al., 2019). Only a small subset of
82 scenario components have been explored as a result, usually those related to economic or policy
83 change. Aspects of scenarios most neglected in large-scale land system models relate to human
84 behaviour within the land system, ecosystem services provision, representing land use (as
85 opposed to land cover) alternatives across sectors, and explicit links between global and smaller-
86 scale dynamics (Müller et al., 2019; Verburg et al., 2019). As a result, the highly divergent
87 nature of SSP scenarios may be obscured, and important areas of scenario space unexplored
88 (Estoque et al., 2020; Pedde et al., 2019).

89 Here we take a set of detailed, stakeholder-developed, qualitative and quantitative SSPs for the
90 United Kingdom, and simulate the development of the British land system throughout these
91 scenarios using a flexible agent-based modelling framework driven by national and global
92 scenario storylines. In adapting this framework to each UK-SSP in turn, we highlight the ways in
93 which the scenarios differ from the present day and from one another. We develop a new model
94 application that contains scenario-specific elements and settings, and consider model outputs in
95 the light of the design choices we make and their underlying scenario elements. In doing so we
96 further develop an open-access and transferrable agent-based modelling framework capable of
97 representing paired SSP-RCP scenarios at national to continental scales, and evaluate its
98 application through the comprehensive TRACE protocol (in SI). We also provide new
99 projections to 2080 of the UK-SSPs at 1km² resolution, accounting for key scenario elements
100 related to human behaviour, ecosystem service valuation and land management intensity. We use
101 our findings to understand potential changes in the British land system in particular, and
102 potential advances in the simulation of SSPs in the land system in general.

103 1.1 The UK context

104 The UK makes a particularly appropriate case study for scenario analysis for a number of
105 reasons. First, its land systems span wide ranges of uses, intensities, environmental and climatic
106 conditions, and economic viabilities – from highly productive arable farming in the south-east to
107 marginal and extensive livestock management in the north west. Second, the UK has well-
108 developed data and land system research facilities. Third, land management in the UK faces a
109 particularly uncertain future, with fundamental changes to policy frameworks following the
110 UK's exit from the European Union that are likely to diverge to some extent between the
111 country's four constituent nations. Combined with substantial expected climatic changes and
112 strong remaining links to global markets, these give a notably broad space for scenario
113 exploration. Participatory processes have already been used to explore this space (Holman et al.,

114 2008), most recently with the development of detailed UK-SSP scenarios describing alternative
115 social, economic and political trajectories (CEH, 2021; Harmáčková et al., 2022; Pedde et al.,
116 2021).

117 Nevertheless, modelling of the British land system under alternate scenarios has been limited.
118 Much of the modelling that has been done has focused on the impacts of climate change
119 (Rounsevell & Reay, 2009), and/or has been sub-national in scale and focused on particular
120 scenario elements, issues or ecosystem services (Cantarello et al., 2011; Holman et al., 2005,
121 2016). Bateman et al. (2013) developed an integrated environment-economy model covering
122 different ecosystem services, but their optimisation approach involved constraining economic
123 rules and was only applied to a limited set of scenarios. Policy-oriented reports on UK land use
124 futures therefore have been able to draw on only limited evidence from modelling studies, and
125 none that covers a representative range of British land uses and future scenarios (Foresight Land
126 Use Futures Project, 2010). The UK therefore provides a particularly relevant, well-understood
127 and dynamic analogy for many other national contexts, but one for which limited scenario
128 explorations exist. We aimed to develop a detailed, cross-scale and cross-sectoral model that
129 remains sufficiently efficient and user-friendly to be used in participatory processes for UK
130 scenario analyses.

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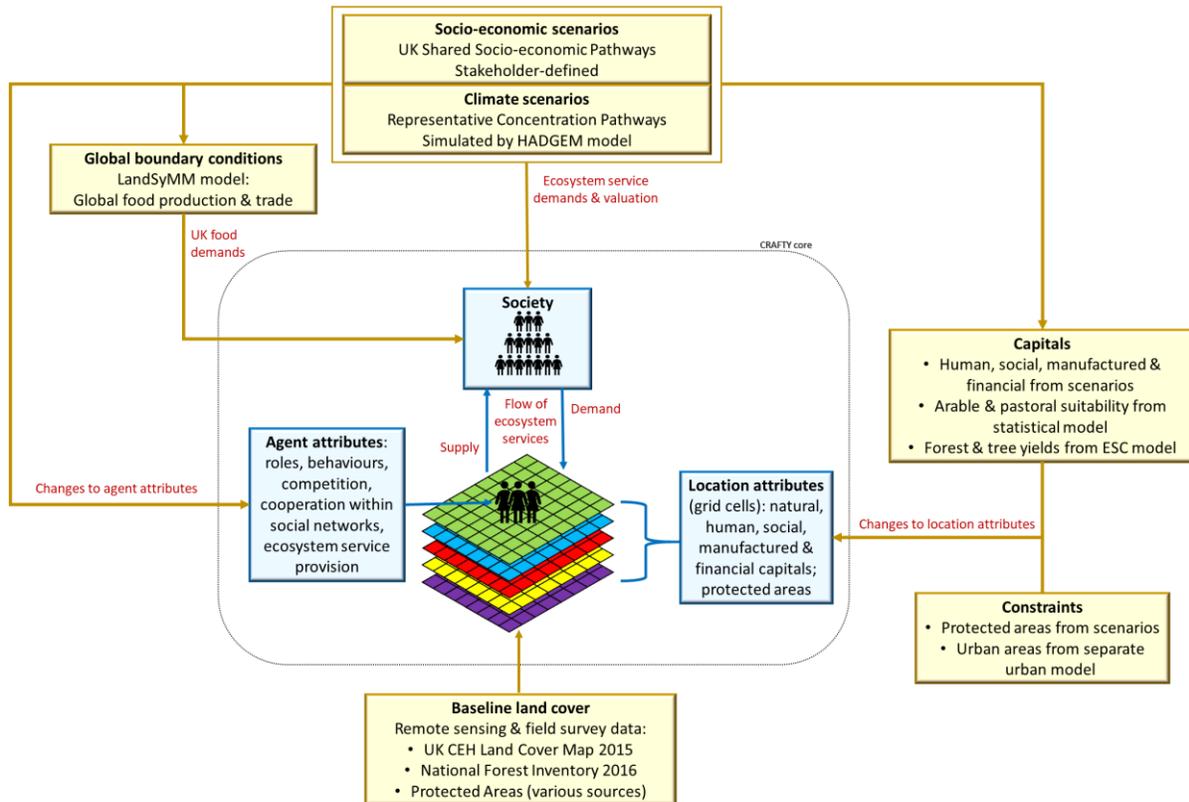
132 **2 Materials and Methods**

133 We make use of two main resources in this study: a set of qualitative and quantitative UK-RCP
134 and UK-SSP scenarios described in detail in Harmáčková et al. (2022), Merkle et al. (2022) and
135 Robinson et al. (2022), and a newly-developed UK land use model described below and in the
136 supporting information. By pairing these scenarios and model, we explore potential future land
137 system change in Great Britain prompted by linked climatic and socio-economic conditions
138 (referred to below as the 'UK-RCP-SSPs'). The model is further embedded within a global
139 modelling framework to account for global change and the UK's international trade under each
140 scenario. Here we describe the general design and calibration of the model before explaining
141 how it was tailored to each of the UK-RCP-SSPs. Full details are contained in a stand-alone
142 methods section and TRACE model evaluation document in the Supporting Information.

143 2.1 Overview

144 We develop CRAFTY-GB, a new agent-based model of the British land system based on a broad
145 range of available land system data and operating at 1km² resolution. The range of the model is
146 restricted to Great Britain rather than the UK as a whole because consistent data were not
147 available for Northern Ireland. CRAFTY-GB is an application of the CRAFTY agent-based
148 modelling framework (Murray-Rust et al., 2014). The core model is therefore the same as in
149 earlier applications of this framework (e.g. to Europe (Brown et al., 2019), Sweden (Blanco et

150 al., 2017) and Brazil (Millington et al., 2021)) while the inputs were tailored to the British
 151 context (Fig. 1).



152

153 **Figure 1.:** Schematic diagram of CRAFTY-GB structure and information flows. The blue
 154 features belong to the generic core of CRAFTY, and the yellow features are specific to the
 155 British model implementation, providing information to the core processes. This external
 156 information is derived from observational, modelled and stakeholder-developed data explained
 157 in the text. Red labels describe particular information exchanges.

158 The basis for modelled land use change in CRAFTY-GB is a set of capitals that describe location
 159 resources or attributes for each 1km² cell (Tables S1 – S3). Each cell is also assigned an agent
 160 representing a specific form of land management through a modelled process of competition
 161 with other agents (Table S4). CRAFTY uses the concept of Agent Functional Types (Arneth et
 162 al., 2014) to create simplified typologies of land managers according to their objectives,
 163 behaviours, and their forms and intensities of land management. These agents are able to use the
 164 capitals to produce services that satisfy societal demands, which are exogenously defined.
 165 Agents are initially distributed using baseline land use data, and then engage in a simulated
 166 process of competition for cells. This competition is driven by the level of demand for the
 167 services that different agents provide, and the relative valuation of each of those services.
 168 Competition outcomes vary with the productive and behavioural characteristics of the agents, as
 169 well as cooperation between them through modelled social networks.

170 This basic model circuit is driven by exogenous scenarios that describe scenario-based climatic
 171 and socio-economic changes over time. These changes can affect capital values, agent

172 characteristics, societal demand levels, competition processes and policy objectives. The nature
173 and spatio-temporal properties of modelled land use change therefore depend on the interaction
174 of these core model components. In this application, scenarios are also used to calibrate the
175 model parameters and to determine which modelled processes are active, which is a novel aspect
176 of the approach. Below we describe model inputs before going on to scenario implementation.

177 2.2 Model components

178 Capitals describing resources or attributes of each individual cell underpin simulated land use
179 change in CRAFTY-GB. Capitals are divided into human, social, manufactured, financial and
180 natural capitals, with natural capital further divided into yields or suitabilities for arable, pastoral
181 and forest land uses or species (Tables S1 & S2). Social, human, financial and manufactured
182 capitals were derived from UK-SSP projections of eight socio-economic indicators from (Merkle
183 et al., 2022) (see Table S2). Forest suitabilities were modelled using the Ecological Site
184 Classification (ESC) yield class model (Forest Research, 2021; Pyatt, 1995), and arable, and
185 improved and semi-natural pastoral suitabilities were modelled statistically (SI section
186 'Capitals'). Protected areas belonging to 11 different types of national and international
187 designation and to five different private land-owning organisations (NGOs) were included in the
188 model, and varied according to SSP storylines (Table S3, Fig. S1).

189 Across the modelled landscape, CRAFTY-GB includes a range of agent types designed to
190 capture the main forms of land use in Great Britain, including gradations of intensity and
191 multifunctionality. Agent types were divided between arable land uses (intensive arable for food,
192 intensive arable for fodder, sustainable arable and extensive arable), pastoral land uses (intensive
193 pastoral, extensive pastoral, very extensive pastoral), forest land uses (productive native conifer,
194 productive non-native conifer, productive native broadleaf, productive non-native broadleaf,
195 multifunctional mixed woodland and native woodland for conservation), and combined classes
196 (bioenergy and agroforestry) (Table S4). Variation in ecosystem service provision within these
197 classes allows them to represent a continuous range of forms of land management rather than
198 arbitrarily distinct groups. Variations in decision-making behaviour further allow individual
199 agents and groups of agents to respond differently to modelled changes (SI section 'Behaviour',
200 Table S5). Urban areas were projected in the scenarios by an independent urban model (more
201 details in the SI, and full details in Merkle et al., in review). The initial distribution of land uses
202 was based on a range of data sets described in Table S4.

203 Each modelled land use was represented as providing a range of provisioning, regulating and
204 cultural ecosystem services and other indicators (e.g. biodiversity, employment) of relevance to
205 the UK-SSP scenarios. These services are defined in Tables S6 and S7. The potential and
206 required provisioning of these services varied according to the UK-RCP-SSP scenarios. Demand
207 levels for foods were derived from the LandSyMM (Land System Modular Model;
208 www.landsymm.earth) global modelling framework running global RCP-SSP scenario
209 combinations (Rabin et al., 2020), as described in SI section 'Services & demand levels'. Non-
210 food demands were taken from the UK-SSP scenarios, and are described in (Merkle et al., 2022).

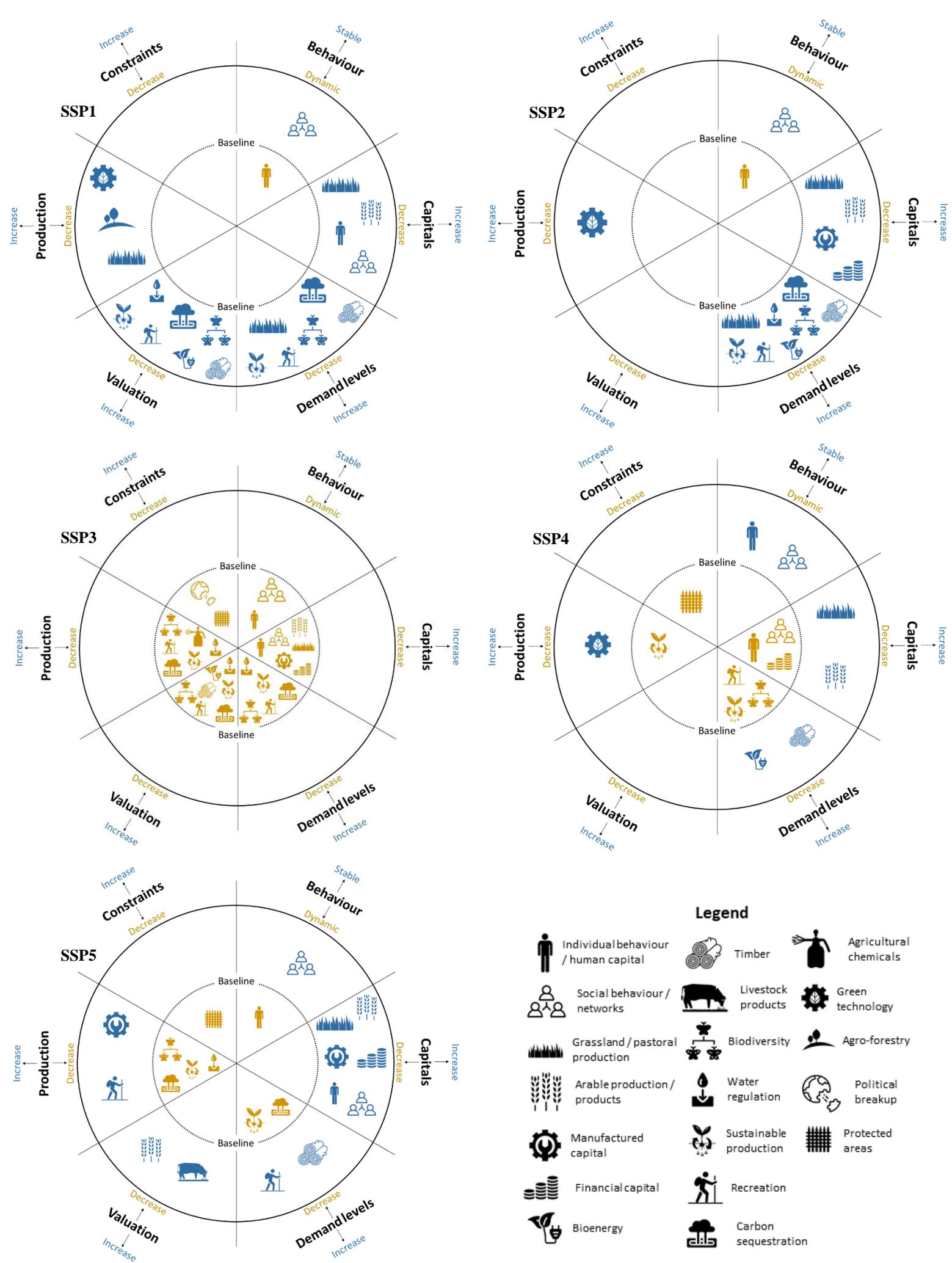
211 Demand levels are shown in the results below, and are available along with all model data (see
212 'data availability' section).

213 2.3 Scenarios

214 The SSPs were specified for the UK as described in Pedde et al. (2021), Harmáčková et al.
215 (2022) and Merkle et al. (2022). These substantial extensions of the global SSPs provide detailed
216 narratives and quantifications of social, economic and political developments across the UK until
217 2100. The narratives integrate national stakeholder knowledge on locally-relevant drivers and
218 indicators with higher level information from the European and global SSPs. These narratives
219 were simplified and converted into model parameterisations (Fig. 2, Table S8). The UK-SSPs
220 were put in a global context through LandSyMM global land system modelling to provide
221 consistency with the broader SSP framework and to account for the UK's international trade.
222 The SSP implementation also utilised the forms of behaviour represented in CRAFTY to capture
223 land management decision-making (Table S6). Of these behaviours, social networks are the only
224 new addition to the CRAFTY framework. These allow agents of the same type to affect one
225 another's competitiveness within defined spatial neighbourhoods, to represent the benefits both
226 of improved local knowledge diffusion and of economies of scale.

227 The RCPs were specified for the UK as described in the SI (section 'Scenarios') and (Robinson
228 et al., 2022). Climatic conditions were taken from the CHESS-SCAPE future climate data set,
229 which extends the regional climate model (RCM) output in the UK Climate Projections 2018
230 (UKCP18) (Lowe et al., 2018; Met Office Hadley Centre (MOHC), 2018) by downscaling them
231 from 12km to 1km resolution and producing realisations for three RCPs in addition to RCP8.5.
232 This data set covers several physical climate variables to 2080 at 1 km spatial resolution and time
233 steps ranging from daily to decadal averages. Spatially and temporally explicit values for several
234 climate variables were generated for the UK, including temperature and precipitation, potential
235 evapotranspiration and growing degree days. These variables were then used as inputs to the
236 crop, grassland and forest modelling to produce annual scenario-specific capital values.

237 RCP-SSP combinations were chosen to: (i) cover a broad range of uncertainty in both emissions
238 (and hence climate) and socio-economic developments; and (ii) include any combination of SSPs
239 and RCPs that is plausible, meaningful and useful. The six combined scenarios we use (RCP2.6-
240 SSP1, RCP4.5-SSP2, RCP4.5-SSP4, RCP6.0-SSP3, RCP8.5-SSP2, RCP8.5-SSP5) cover weak
241 to strong climate change, as well as future societies with high and low challenges to adaptation
242 and mitigation. The selection also allows analysis of the effects of different RCPs within the
243 same SSP (RCPs 4.5 and 8.5 with SSP2), and the effects of different SSPs within the same RCP
244 (SSPs 2 and 4 with RCP4.5; SSPs 2 and 5 with RCP8.5). Furthermore, low adaptation challenges
245 (SSP1/5) and high adaptation challenges (SSP3/4) are confronted with different RCPs.



271 **Figure 2:** Summary of the implementation of the UK-SSPs in CRAFTY GB. Items included here
272 represent main scenario conditions and refer specifically to the CRAFTY-GB implementation,
273 relative to the baseline, and are in addition to the broader scenario storylines. Changes in demand
274 shown here are per capita and do not represent the overall demand changes summarised in Fig. 4.
275 The ‘Behaviour’ segment in the plots varies between ‘stable’ and ‘dynamic’ rather than
276 ‘increase’ and ‘decrease’ because behavioural variations are not directional but affect the
277 heterogeneity and temporal dynamism of agent behaviour (see Table S5).

278 2.4 Model evaluation

279 Model evaluation is presented in detail in a TRACE (“TRAnsparent and Comprehensive model
280 Evaluation”) model evaluation document in the SI (Augusiak et al., 2014; Ayllón et al., 2021;
281 Grimm et al., 2014; Schmolke et al., 2010), with main components summarised here. The
282 CRAFTY framework has been evaluated using combinations of unit tests, sensitivity and
283 uncertainty analyses, comparisons to empirical data and to the results of other models, full peer-
284 reviewed descriptions of model design and functioning, and full, free access to the model itself
285 including interactive online systems for exploring model outputs
286 (<https://landchange.earth/CRAFTY>) (e.g. Alexander et al., 2017; Brown et al., 2014, 2018;
287 Holzhauser et al., 2019; Murray-Rust et al., 2014; Synes et al., 2019). The technical
288 implementation of this framework through the CRAFTY-GB model and its application to the UK
289 RCP-SSPs was evaluated through sensitivity analyses as the model was developed, consultations
290 with experts and stakeholders (as described in Merkle et al. (2022)), and finally comparison to
291 existing relevant literature on UK land use projections. We did not check CRAFTY-GB’s ability
292 to reproduce historical land use change within the UK as such change has no definite relevance
293 to future changes, and because there is no temporally consistent UK land cover data against
294 which to check modelled change (the UK Land Cover Map data do not allow for comparison of
295 all CRAFTY-GB classes across years, and other inputs are unavailable for matching timepoints).

296 We carried out further evaluation of the representativeness of CRAFTY-GB agent types. The
297 baseline allocation of agent types was compared against (semi-)independent datasets to check its
298 coverage and interpretation with respect to agricultural and ecological characteristics. These
299 datasets were 1) LCM 2015 (Rowland et al., 2017), to provide a summary of the translation of
300 LCM classes into CRAFTY-GB classes (Table S4), 2) The standardised European EUNIS
301 habitat classification scheme at 100m resolution (European Environment Agency, 2019; Weiss &
302 Banko, 2018), 3) The UK CEH Land Cover Plus: Fertilisers and Pesticides data (Jarvis et al.,
303 2020; Osório et al., 2019). Comparison to these data provides an evaluation of the agent typology
304 and its initial geographic distribution because it reveals the extent to which the ranges of
305 different ecological and agricultural characteristics found in British land systems are captured by
306 the typology as a whole, and the extent to which individual agent types can be interpreted as
307 representing specific characteristics from those ranges. It is not a targeted validation because the
308 agent typology is not designed specifically to achieve these objectives, but it provides a basis

309 from which to better interpret model results. On the basis of these and previous evaluations, we
310 believe the model is appropriate for the purpose for which it is used here.

311 2.5 Representing levels of management intensity in the model outputs

312 To improve the interpretability of the results, we developed a land use intensity mapping
313 approach. This involved the assignment of values on a continuous range for each of the arable,
314 and each of the pastoral (except very extensive pastoral) classes across the scenarios. Intensity
315 values were defined as a combination of the use of agricultural inputs (fertilisers, pesticides and
316 machinery), technology, and modelled production levels. For the purposes of illustration these
317 are combined multiplicatively here and used to select colour saturation levels in the map figures.
318 Alternative representations are possible, and it is important to note that our presentation does not
319 distinguish the specific use of technology to reduce the use of chemical inputs, as in UK-SSP1.
320 This method does however make scenarios results more comparable and means that differences
321 in land management intensities among the scenarios are readily apparent.

322

323 3 Results

324 3.1 Agent typology evaluation

325 Results of the comparison between baseline CRAFTY agent types and independent habitat and
326 management maps suggested that the typology has good coverage, with clear but variable
327 associations between agent types and each of the characteristics included (SI section 'Agent
328 typology evaluation', Figs S4-S9). At a basic level, the baseline mapping reproduced the LCM
329 classes that were the primary data used to locate agents geographically (Fig. S2, Table S4).
330 Forest types were the most inconsistent between the CRAFTY-GB baseline and the LCM data,
331 and comparisons at the sub-grid scale reveal that forest types are generally more associated with
332 heterogeneous landscapes compared to intensive arable and pastoral agents (Figs S4 & S5). The
333 ranges of LCM class coverage within each agent type also reflects the mixed nature of land cover
334 in many of the CRAFTY-GB cells. This mixture is reflected in the capitals and service levels
335 more fully than in the generic agent type labels, but is also further revealed by the EUNIS habitat
336 comparison.

337 The EUNIS classes were widely distributed between agent types, but with clear associations
338 (Figs S6 – S8). These were generally as expected, for example with grassland habitats strongly
339 associated with pastoral areas, farmland habitats with agricultural areas and so on. Woodland
340 habitats were particularly strongly associated with forested areas in the baseline map, providing
341 some confirmation of their locations and interpretation. Nevertheless, many different specific
342 habitats occurred even within the most intensive agent types at baseline, and these can be
343 expected to persist or even increase in proportion in most scenarios, with the exception of SSPs 4
344 and 5 where the scenario storylines include consolidation of farms and fields across larger areas,
345 implying loss of secondary habitats.

346 The quality of all of these habitats is also dependent on usage of chemical inputs and machinery.
347 As expected, chemical inputs were most strongly associated with intensive arable areas (within
348 which sustainable arable agents were randomly distributed at baseline, allowing no distinction in

349 levels of chemical application) (Fig. S9). Once again, the association of productive broadleaf
350 woodlands with agricultural areas was apparent in the elevated levels of chemical inputs within
351 those cells. Farmland and broadleaf woodland habitats can therefore be expected to be most
352 affected by the increased application of agricultural chemicals in SSPs 4 and 5.

353 3.2 Scenario results

354 The application of CRAFTY-GB to the UK RCP-SSP scenarios introduced very different driving
355 conditions to the model, which resulted in significant divergence between simulated land use
356 over time (Table 1). Most notably, divergence occurred in terms of intensity of land use. This
357 was partly because intensity was determined by the scenario conditions, and partly because
358 intensity changed as an emergent property of the simulations. For example, the gradual
359 restriction of agricultural pesticides in UK-SSP1 led to a direct reduction in management
360 intensity (when defined partly in terms of chemical inputs), but also an indirect reduction as
361 agents that did not require chemical inputs, and were therefore unaffected by the restriction,
362 became more competitive. Such direct and indirect changes in intensity were substantial in all of
363 the scenarios. Overall, these socio-economic effects were far stronger than climatic effects on
364 land use outcomes.

365 In UK RCP2.6-SSP1 (low emissions coupled with the Sustainability scenario) the emphasis on
366 sustainable agricultural and forestry production and the delivery of multiple ecosystem services
367 led to an overall lower intensity of land management compared to most other scenarios, despite
368 intensification options being available. Reduced meat demand caused a substantial move away
369 from pastoral management in many areas (Fig. 3). However, as the remaining livestock
370 production focused on grass-fed livestock products (as opposed to domestic or imported
371 feedstocks) and other agricultural land uses became more extensive, the area reduction of
372 agricultural management was limited. Intensity gains were simulated in small areas (Fig. 4), but
373 overall sustainable and extensive management became more widespread. By 2080, sustainable
374 arable management dominated eastern England, while the British uplands were largely given
375 over to extensive pastoral management (Fig. 3). Nevertheless, substantial areas were also
376 covered by natural vegetation (whether unmanaged or managed for conservation) and, in
377 forestry, native conifer and broadleaf species (Fig. S10). This resulted in some large, contiguous
378 areas under either natural vegetation or native tree cover, especially in south-west England,
379 Wales and southern Scotland. Despite the relative increase of extensive, mixed and sustainable
380 land uses, under-supplies of biodiversity, employment, recreation and carbon increased during
381 the simulation, with a slight but persistent over-supply of grass-fed red meat. The UK land
382 system was unable to meet the very high demands for the wide range of ecosystem services in
383 UK-SSP1.

384 UK-SSP2 (the Middle of the Road socio-economic scenario) was run under two climatic
385 scenarios, RCP4.5 and RCP8.5. Overall, the different climatic conditions had limited effects,
386 being most apparent in slightly larger areas of forest under RCP8.5, within which species were
387 more separated between conifer-dominated forests in the south and broadleaf-dominated in the
388 north, following climatic suitability (Fig. S10). In both cases, forests were more widespread than
389 in UK-SSP1 due to increased demands for afforestation to sequester carbon and produce timber.
390 Non-native species dominated these forests, especially in Scotland and in RCP8.5. As a result,
391 the area of natural vegetation was relatively low outside (substantial) areas under conservation

392 management. These were possible because of intensification of arable agriculture in particular,
393 and a decrease in the demand for grass-fed livestock products that allowed food demands to be
394 met consistently (Fig. 4). This also led to a very large reduction (ca. 60%) in the area of intensive
395 pastoral management (much of which was converted to forestry; Fig. 5), which also became
396 dispersed among other land uses in less productive areas. This was reinforced by a large drop in
397 meat and milk demand over the first decade of the simulation, and concurrent increase in timber
398 demand. The scenario generated very little over-supply, but biodiversity and carbon were slightly
399 under-supplied (at around 90% of demand) by the end of the simulation. Intensive arable
400 agriculture remained concentrated in the south-east, with extensive pastoral in the north-west
401 (Fig. 3).

402 UK RCP6.0-SSP3 (relatively high emissions coupled with the Regional Rivalry scenario) is a
403 highly dystopian scenario with increasing barriers to trade and widespread social tensions and
404 conflict. Overall, simulated land use was highly extensive (more extensive than in any other
405 scenario or even in the baseline) because capitals and inputs supporting agriculture were lacking
406 in the storyline. This occurred both within land uses (e.g. decreasing intensity of management
407 within 'intensive arable' cells) and between them (e.g. a widespread initial transition from
408 intensive pastoral to extensive arable management) (Figs. 3-5). Nevertheless, this extensive
409 agricultural management occupied large, contiguous areas as growing food for survival becomes
410 the primary demand (Fig. 3). Many forest areas were converted to arable agriculture, with
411 remaining forests dominated by conifers (Fig. S10). As the scope for intensive management
412 decreased during the century, supply levels fell below demands and utilisation of depleted
413 intensification options increased. Nevertheless, food crops were only able to satisfy around 60%
414 of demand at some points, with employment levels even lower (Fig. 4). In areas where
415 intensification options were most limited due to low levels of multiple capitals (much of
416 Scotland and Wales, where independence from England also meant that demands had to be
417 satisfied domestically), multifunctional alternatives such as agroforestry and sustainable arable
418 production emerged as competitive ways of maintaining some food production.

419 UK RCP4.5-SSP4 (medium emissions coupled with the Inequality scenario) is dominated by a
420 business and political elite who take over much of the British land system and invest in large-
421 scale industrial agriculture. This produced a substantially more intensive land system than SSPs
422 1-3, which was especially pronounced in increasing arable extent and intensity (Fig 5). A
423 decrease in the relative demand for grass-fed livestock products led to a reduction in intensive
424 pastoral production from around 2050, but meat and milk were still highly over-supplied at some
425 points in time as demand levels fluctuated (with milk supply at more than 150% of demand early
426 and in the middle of the century) (Fig. 4). Conversely, intensive arable production increased as
427 pastoral decreased, as did bioenergy, which was ultimately grown across the country in marginal
428 agricultural areas (Fig. 3). This left little room for forest management, but large areas of
429 abandonment and conservation management did emerge in some upland areas, partly due to
430 demand for recreation by the rich elite in the scenario. Within forests, non-native conifers
431 dominated, being used to satisfy timber demand. Large land holdings had a competitive
432 advantage, and land use became particularly homogeneous in productive areas, implying further
433 degradation of habitats.

434 UK RCP8.5-SSP5 (high emissions coupled with the Fossil Fuel Development scenario) was the
435 most intensive land use scenario, with massive urban expansion and agricultural intensification

436 as demand levels increased due to a substantial rise in the UK population and a shift to highly
437 individualistic and consumptive lifestyles. Protected areas were removed as concern for the
438 environment was low. Declining social capital made marginal production vulnerable to change,
439 while strong local networks allowed consolidation of dominant land uses. Nevertheless, there
440 was a substantial amount of sustainable arable agriculture and conservation, because these
441 provided multiple low-priority ecosystem services in single cells. Limited forest area was
442 concentrated in southern and north-west England, the Welsh borders, and north-west Scotland,
443 with native broadleaf and conifer species dominating outside Scotland (Fig. S10). The pastoral
444 land area was almost maintained in this scenario due to very high demands for livestock products
445 (Fig. 5). Despite some urban expansion into productive land and extensification of unproductive
446 land, overall land use intensity increased dramatically (Fig. 4). Food supply increased too, but
447 not enough to satisfy demands for grass-fed red meat. There was a general shortfall in supply of
448 intangible services, supporting the existence of sustainable and conservation management to
449 supply several of these within the intensive landscapes. Land abandonment in the uplands was an
450 emergent response to intensification elsewhere, but this was consistent with the scenario
451 storyline of upland rewilding to deliver recreation benefits.

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SSP5 (RCP8.5)
2080

SSP4 (RCP4.5)
2080

SSP2 (RCP8.5)
2080

SSP3 (RCP6.0)
2080

SSP2 (RCP4.5)
2080

SSP1 (RCP2.6)
2080

Present-day

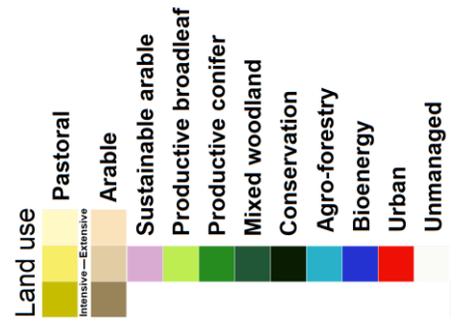


Fig. 3: Maps of amalgamated agent types in 2080 in each RCP-SSP combination

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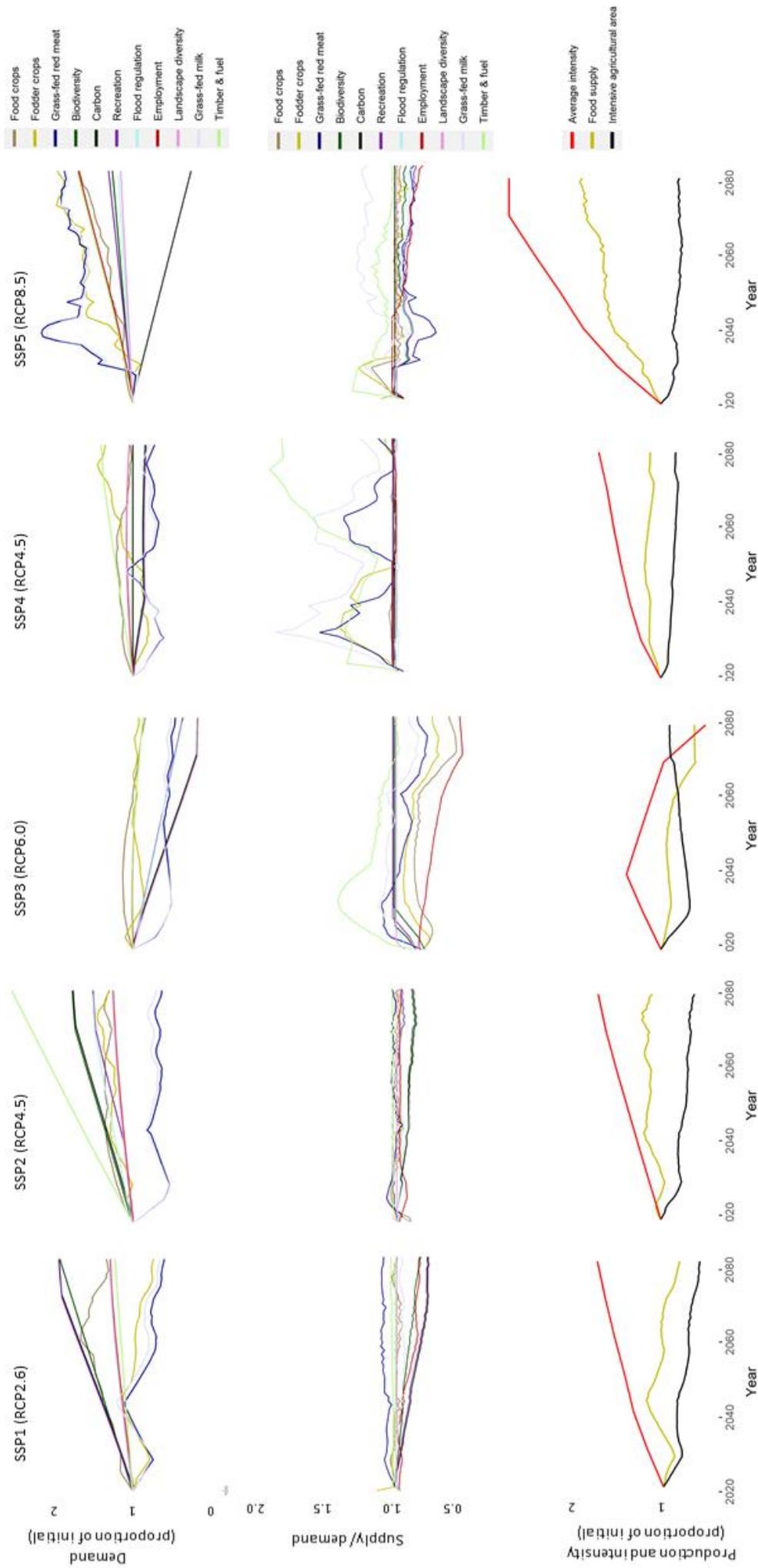


Fig. 4: Demand levels, supply as proportion of demand, and land use intensity, food supply and intensive area throughout each SSP scenario (RCP8.5-SSP2 results were very similar to those shown for RCP4.5-SSP2, and can be found in Fig. S11).

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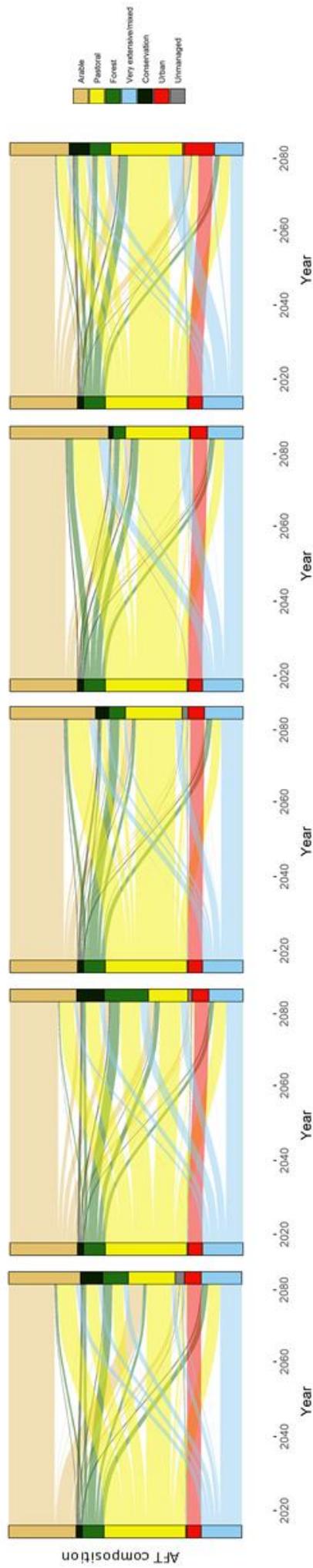
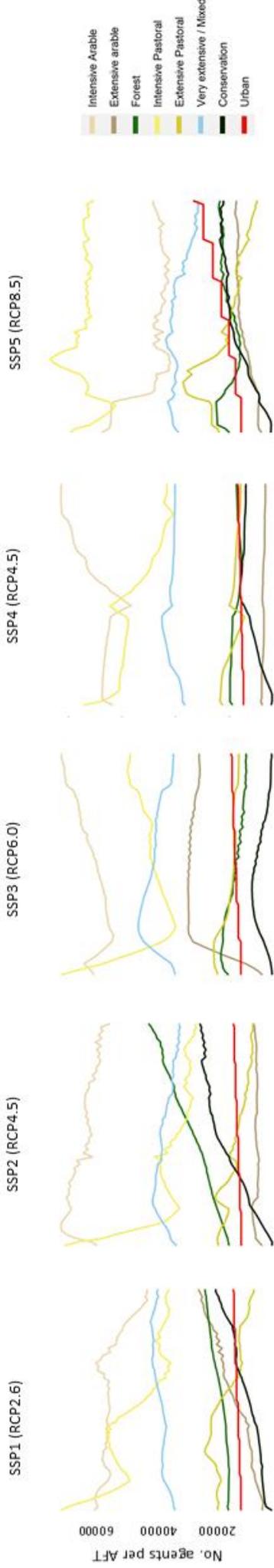


Fig. 5: Agent Functional Type (AFT) dynamics throughout each SSP scenario: numbers of agents within amalgamated AFTs (top) and transitions between broad land use types (bottom). RCP8.5-SSP2 results were very similar to those shown for RCP4.5-SSP2, and can be found in Fig. S11.

Scenario	Description	Distinguishing features in CRAFTY-GB	Main outcomes
SSP1 - Sustainability	UK-SSP1 shows the UK transitioning to a fully functional circular economy as society quickly becomes more egalitarian leading to healthier lifestyles, improved well-being, sustainable use of natural resources, and more stable and fair international relations. It represents a sustainable and co-operative society with a low carbon economy and high capacity to adapt to climate change.	Novel forms of sustainable agriculture with strong societal support	Decreasing area of intensive agriculture, greater multifunctionality of agricultural land
		Low demand levels for livestock products, but preference for grass-fed production	Move away from livestock production and decrease in pastoral area, limited by relatively low-efficiency of pastoral production
		Preference for native tree species in forestry	Substantial shift towards native species in forests, depending on suitabilities
SSP2 – Middle of the Road	UK-SSP2 is a world in which strong public-private partnerships enable moderate economic growth but inequalities persist. It represents a highly regulated society that continues to rely on fossil fuels, but with gradual increases in renewable energy resulting in intermediate adaptation and mitigation challenges.	Established forms of agriculture with potential for intensification	Intensification and increasing efficiency of agriculture, leading to intensive area declines
		Increasing demand for timber and forest-based carbon sequestration	Large increase in forest area, dominated by non-native tree species
		Low demand for grass-fed livestock products	Large decrease in intensive pasture area, most livestock production feed-based
SSP3 – Regional rivalry	The dystopian scenario, UK-SSP3, shows how increasing social and economic barriers may trigger international tensions, nationalisation in key economic sectors, job losses and, eventually a highly fragmented society with the UK breaking apart. It represents a society where rivalry between regions and barriers to trade entrench reliance on fossil fuels and limit capacity to adapt to climate change.	Large decreases in most capitals	Extensification of production as inputs become unavailable, shortfalls in supply and increasing area with maximum possible intensity
		Trade barriers reduce food imports. Decreasing demand for most other services	Food production dominates land uses, with other ecosystem services being by-products of enforced low-intensity management
		Very weak social networks	Heterogeneous and frequent changes in land use, suboptimal exploitation of available capitals
		Political breakup of the UK	Divergence in land system trajectories between England, Wales and Scotland, with least intensive production methods being only feasible options in smaller nations
SSP4 - Inequality	UK-SSP4 shows how a society dominated by business and political elites may lead to increasing inequalities by curtailing welfare policies and excluding the majority of a disengaged population. The business and political elite facilitate low carbon economies but large differences in income across segments of UK society limits the adaptive capacity of the masses.	Economies of scale in agriculture	Large, homogeneous areas of agriculture emerge, representing large farms with large fields
		High demand for recreation among economic elites	Conservation/recreation management in upland areas, loss of marginal land uses
		Low demand for grass-fed livestock products	Decline in pasture, livestock production using crop-based feed
		High demand for bioenergy	Expansion of bioenergy on arable land in many areas; overall increase in arable area & intensity, at expense of forest areas
SSP5 – Fossil-fuelled development	UK-SSP5 shows the UK transitioning to a highly individualistic society where the majority become wealthier through the exploitation of natural resources combined with high economic growth. It represents a technologically advanced world with a strong economy that is heavily dependent on fossil fuels, but with a high capacity to adapt to the impacts of climate change.	Increasing demands for urban areas and food production	High pressure on land area and strong competition between land uses
		Increasing intensification options	Very high levels of intensification in agriculture supporting large increases in production
		Removal of Protected Areas and low demands for related ecosystem services	Expansion of productive land uses into natural areas, with consequent abandonment in upland and marginal areas not under protection.

527 **Table 1:** Descriptions of each UK-SSP, the main drivers that distinguish each within CRAFTY-GB, and the results
528 of those drivers observed in the model outputs.

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530 **4 Discussion**

531 This study targets the gap between detailed stakeholder-developed SSP storylines and their
532 representations in computational models. We attempt to extend scenario modelling using flexible
533 model structures and parameterisations that are not limited to the single pathway established by
534 historical land use change (Fig. 2, Table 1). This is not a predictive exercise, but an exploration
535 of possible consequences of alternate futures as envisioned in detail by a group of policy-makers
536 and other stakeholders (Harmáčková et al., 2022; Merkle et al., 2022; Pedde et al., 2021). While
537 some aspects of the scenarios remain unrepresented in the model, the substantial scenario-
538 specific modifications we made confirmed some elements of the scenario storylines (e.g. upland
539 land abandonment in UK-SSP5), challenged others (e.g. the provision of high-levels of many
540 ecosystem services in UK-SSP1), and revealed further emergent differences not previously
541 anticipated (e.g. extensification of agriculture as a response to altered competition dynamics in
542 UK-SSPs 1 and 5).

543 The level of land use intensity was the most notable variation between scenario outcomes, in
544 terms of levels of agricultural inputs and levels of ecosystem service outputs. In UK-SSP1 we
545 found deliberate extensification (land sharing) leading to some environmental benefits of the
546 kind envisioned in the scenario storyline, but still with less success in meeting ecosystem service
547 demands than some other more intensive (land sparing) scenarios. In the land sparing scenarios
548 (UK-SSPs 4 and 5), environmental benefits were indirect and, from the point of view of the
549 agents represented in the model, a by-product of their primary activity. In UK-SSP3 such
550 benefits occurred because strong intensification was not possible given the lack of agricultural
551 inputs (manufactured, chemical, financial and social), but in UK-SSP5 they occurred because
552 intensification freed up land that could be managed multifunctionally, or abandoned to rewilding.
553 At the same time, substantial increases in farm sizes and agricultural chemical application
554 implies that environmental quality on farmland declined substantially in UK-SSPs 4 and 5.

555 These changes occurred within a consistent global framework that provided at least some
556 coherence between the internal and external drivers of British land system change. For instance,
557 the scenarios took account of global population projections and resultant trade shifts, meaning
558 that development in Great Britain remains within appropriate global boundary conditions. When
559 implemented in this way, the UK-SSPs had far more substantial effects on land system outcomes
560 than the climatic UK-RCP scenarios (see also e.g. Brown et al., 2019; Kriegler et al., 2017;
561 Molotoks et al., 2021; Wiebe et al., 2015). Nevertheless, the absence of extreme events from
562 RCP8.5 in particular (because the spatial and temporal resolution of the climate modelling limits
563 representation of such events) does imply that very large climatic impacts may be missing (Kopp
564 et al., 2016; Otto et al., 2020). Furthermore, there was no simulated impact of land degradation
565 on agricultural productivity, potentially arising from climatic extremes, or the high intensity of
566 use envisaged within the UK-SSP5 storyline. National changes can also be seen in their global
567 context, for instance in terms of extremely high import levels in UK-SSP5, and for some

568 commodities in UK-SSPs 1 and 2, suggesting indirect land use change abroad as an externality
569 of either land sparing or land sharing domestically (Fuchs et al., 2020).

570 Some of these findings are broadly consistent with the comparable study of (Bateman et al.,
571 2013), who found that including ecosystem services in modelling based on economic valuations
572 led to very different balances among service provision. We find a similar importance of the
573 valuation of ecosystem services, and a similar importance of considering spatial and temporal
574 variations in ecosystem service provision levels. In developing a full UK RCP-SSP scenario
575 implementation we also find, however, that policy options and the associated room for
576 manoeuvre are limited by other factors, including the level of international trade, societal
577 tolerance for intensive methods of production, the rate at which land managers become aware of,
578 and adopt, new technologies or practices, and the levels of supporting capitals available to land
579 managers. Two of these, human and social capital, vary enormously across the scenarios, but are
580 usually absent from scenario modelling. Pedde et al. (2019) showed that they are nevertheless
581 essential for major policy targets such as the Paris climate agreement, quite possibly more so
582 than the far-more-studied technological and economic factors. We also concur with earlier
583 studies that concluded that social factors can be more important than climate policy in achieving
584 societal objectives (Liu et al., 2020), because they determine the realised impacts of those
585 policies.

586 Other findings relate to further necessary development. This model, and land use models in
587 general, will have greater utility as they become more closely aligned with biodiversity
588 outcomes, in particular by more fully assessing the role of land management in driving either
589 declines or recovery in terrestrial biodiversity (Leclère et al., 2020; Rounsevell et al., 2018;
590 Urban et al., 2021). More realistic assessment of land-based climate change mitigation is also a
591 priority (Estoque et al., 2020). Both of these will also require improved modelling of forest (and
592 forestry) dynamics, and especially the links between tree species growth, management practices
593 and decisions, and competition within the broader land system (Blanco et al., 2017; Brown et al.,
594 2017; Shifley et al., 2017; Vulturius et al., 2017). Together with the development of urban areas,
595 forest management is very sensitive to socio-economic conditions in the SSPs, and in turn has
596 strong implications for the extent of climate change mitigation (Bukovsky et al., 2021).

597 While we propose that these extensions of scenario modelling improve the realism and utility of
598 model outputs, we also acknowledge that they increase uncertainty (revealed uncertainty at least,
599 as the same uncertainty can be said to be hidden in models that do not account for these factors).
600 It has been argued (e.g. by Rosen, 2021) that the SSPs have not been useful for climate
601 mitigation policy analysis because they are implemented differently in different models, leading
602 to a lack of agreement about what different SSPs actually imply. Rosen (2021) suggests a
603 reduction in the number and variance of models used, to develop canonical representations of the
604 SSPs. We disagree with that argument. Instead, we suggest that models should be further
605 developed to capture the key elements of SSP scenarios that have been previously neglected –
606 social change, non-economic values of ecosystem services, variations in land use intensity and
607 competition between forms of management. Even then, we suggest that more diversity in models
608 and modelling approaches is needed to properly explore the rich and complex storylines of
609 stakeholder-developed scenarios. The application of multi-model ensembles to explore future
610 scenario space is an especially promising option. Rather than being a recipe for confusion, we
611 view this as a way to gradually build up an improved understanding of potential futures and,

612 crucially, to support the development of genuinely robust policy pathways towards societal
613 objectives.

614

615 **Acknowledgments**

616 This work was supported by the Helmholtz Association, the Natural Environment Research
617 Council award number NE/R016429/1 as part of the UK-SCAPE programme delivering National
618 Capability (SPEED project), the UK Climate Resilience Programme (award number CR19-3)
619 and the Forestry Commission. In addition, ECM was supported by UK Engineering and Physical
620 Sciences Research Council (EPSRC) funded Data Science of the Natural Environment (DSNE)
621 project (award number EP/R01860X/1). PAH was partially supported by the Natural
622 Environmental Research Council award number NE/T003952/1. PA was funded by UK's Global
623 Food Security Programme project Resilience of the UK food system to Global Shocks (RUGS,
624 BB/N020707/1). RP was funded by the German Academic Exchange Service (DAAD) with
625 funds from the German Federal Ministry of Education and Research (BMBF). PAH, RD and
626 ELR would also like to thank James Bullock for his insightful comments on the climate, socio-
627 economic and land use scenarios through the SPEED project ([https://uk-scape.ceh.ac.uk/our-
628 science/projects/SPEED](https://uk-scape.ceh.ac.uk/our-science/projects/SPEED)). We acknowledge support by the IT department of IMK-IFU,
629 Karlsruhe Institute of Technology for model running and data processing. We also gratefully
630 acknowledge the computational and data resources provided by the Leibniz Supercomputing
631 Centre (www.lrz.de), through the project 'Global Agent Based Land Use Modelling (pn69tu)'.

632

633 **Open Research**

634 All output data and model code are freely available through <https://landchange.earth/CRAFTY>
635 and <https://doi.org/10.17605/OSF.IO/CY8WE>.

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