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1 **Impacts of increased bioenergy demand on global food markets:**
2 **an AgMIP economic model intercomparison***

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48

49 **Abstract**

50 Integrated Assessment studies have shown that meeting ambitious greenhouse gas mitigation
51 targets will require substantial amounts of bioenergy as part of the future energy mix. In the
52 course of the Agricultural Model Intercomparison and Improvement Project (AgMIP), five
53 global agro-economic models were used to analyze a future scenario with global demand for
54 ligno-cellulosic bioenergy rising to about 100 ExaJoule in 2050. From this exercise a tentative
55 conclusion can be drawn that ambitious climate change mitigation need not drive up global food
56 prices much, if the extra land required for bioenergy production is accessible or if the feedstock,
57 e.g. from forests, does not directly compete for agricultural land. Agricultural price effects across
58 models by the year 2050 from high bioenergy demand in an ambitious mitigation scenario appear
59 to be much smaller (+5% average across models) than from direct climate impacts on crop yields
60 in a high-emission scenario (+25% average across models). However, potential future scarcities
61 of water and nutrients, policy-induced restrictions on agricultural land expansion, as well as
62 potential welfare losses have not been specifically looked at in this exercise.

63

64

65 **1. Introduction**

66 Future scenarios from Integrated Assessment and energy modeling studies (Clarke et al. 2009,
67 Calvin et al. 2012, van Vuuren et al. 2010, Popp et al. 2011) have shown that meeting ambitious
68 mitigation targets with respect to global greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions requires substantial
69 amounts of bioenergy as part of the future energy mix. Especially in the longer term, bioenergy
70 from ligno-cellulosic feedstocks may become relevant for reducing carbon emissions in the
71 transportation sector, as other technical low-emission options are relatively expensive. This has
72 been shown in various studies on the future energy mix (Luckow et al. 2010, Azar et al. 2010,
73 van Vuuren et al. 2010, Luderer et al. 2012) and indicated by the International Energy Agency
74 (IEA 2004). But various forms of bioenergy are also attractive for other energy conversion
75 pathways, as they are easily storable and can be transformed into various forms of secondary and
76 final energy such as liquid fuel, electricity and hydrogen (Luderer et al. 2012). Currently,
77 bioenergy production worldwide is dominated by first-generation transport biofuels, like ethanol
78 from sugar cane, grains and sugar beets, or bio-diesel from oil crops. These conversion
79 technologies are readily available and national mandates for blending biofuels with fossil fuels
80 have favored their strong rise in production in recent years (Chum et al. 2011).

81 While medium-term trends in first-generation biofuel demand are taken into account, the focus
82 of this particular paper is on the longer-term development of bioenergy demand, based on ligno-
83 cellulose as the primary input. Within the next few decades, energy sector studies suggest that
84 new technologies will emerge for converting different types of ligno-cellulosic biomass into
85 transportation fuel and other types of secondary energy carriers (Calvin et al. 2012, Luderer et al.
86 2012). If GHG emissions were priced at a certain level and if technologies like the Fischer-
87 Tropsh process were to become competitive, this would open up a much larger potential for

88 bioenergy feedstocks. According to several estimates, global demand for ligno-cellulosic
89 bioenergy would need to rise to about 100 ExaJoule in 2050 (Popp et al. 2011, Calvin et al.
90 2012) if global warming is to be held at about 2°C above pre-industrial levels (comparable with a
91 representative concentration pathway RCP2.6 (Moss et al. 2010)).

92 First-generation biofuel use has a direct impact on food markets, as fuel production competes
93 with food and feed production for basically the same raw products and inputs. Various studies
94 have pointed to these market effects as well as impacts on land-use change and the environment,
95 as biofuel demand induces additional pressure on agricultural markets which have often
96 sustained long periods of strain during the past decade (Clarke et al. 2009, van Vuuren et al.
97 2010). It has also been shown that for first-generation biofuels specific GHG savings are rather
98 low and marginal abatement costs are rather high (OECD 2008).

99 Possible feedstocks for ligno-cellulosic bioenergy would include crop and forest residues,
100 wastes, but also purpose-grown grasses (e.g. miscanthus, switch grass) or fast-growing trees (e.g.
101 poplar, willow, eucalyptus) (Chum et al. 2011). Potential energy yields per ha for ligno-
102 cellulosic bioenergy crops are much higher than for current agricultural crops, except for sugar
103 cane (Havlík et al. 2011). For instance (Woods et al. 2010) show switch grass yields of about
104 180GJ/ha, while ethanol from winter wheat is accounted as about 90 GJ/ha. The global technical
105 potential for ligno-cellulosic bioenergy is estimated at about 100-400 ExaJoule (EJ) (Chum et al.
106 2011). While uncertainty about these estimates is still high, it is clear that these amounts could
107 provide a considerable share of total energy use by the middle of the 21st century and beyond.
108 The economic potential has been estimated at around 100 EJ in 2050 (Popp et al. 2011).

109 In this paper we show to what extent a strong increase in ligno-cellulosic bioenergy deployment
110 may affect agricultural markets and land-use change. As part of the Agricultural Model
111 Intercomparison and Improvement Project (AgMIP, www.agmip.org; von Lampe et al. 2013),
112 five global economic models with a focus on agricultural production, trade and land use have
113 been applied to analyze a future scenario with strongly rising bioenergy demand until the year
114 2050. As part of the AgMIP economic model intercomparison, we also compare the specific
115 impacts of bioenergy demand to the direct impacts of climate change on crop yields and
116 productivity.

117 **2. Methods: Overview of participating models and scenarios**

118 Model descriptions

119 Five very different models have participated in this model comparison. They include two
120 computable general equilibrium (CGE) models and three partial-equilibrium (PE) models. The
121 AIM model is primarily used for Integrated Assessment studies of climate change and climate
122 policy issues. The MAGNET model has a focus on the links between agricultural markets and
123 the general economy as well as detailed analyses of agricultural policy issues. In previous
124 studies, it has also been linked to the IMAGE Integrated Assessment model. The GCAM model
125 has a PE representation of agricultural and energy markets as part of a wider Integrated
126 Assessment framework. GLOBIOM and MAgPIE are both PE mathematical programming
127 models with a focus on spatially explicit land use and land use change analyses. They explicitly
128 link biophysical constraints on land and water availability as well as crop yields with the
129 economics of agricultural production and trade. GLOBIOM is the only model with a detailed
130 representation of the forestry sector. Both GLOBIOM and MAgPIE have also been used for

131 Integrated Assessment studies, linked to energy-economy models. This diversity of models
132 should make sure that the “model uncertainty” of the results, due to different processes and
133 parameterizations, can be explored to some degree in the analysis. The specific implementation
134 of agricultural land expansion into currently unused land across the models is described in
135 Schmitz et al. (2013).

136 AIM

137 AIM (the Asia-pacific Integrated Model) is a CGE model used for the analysis of global and
138 national CO₂ emissions, mitigation costs or carbon taxes. The base year data for 2005 are
139 assembled and reconciled by the model development team, based on the GTAP database,
140 national accounts, industrial statistics, and energy balance tables (Fujimori and Matsuoka 2011).
141 Production is captured by multi-nested structures, and CES (Constant Elasticity Substitution)
142 functions are mainly used. Demand is represented by LES (Linear Expenditure System)
143 functions, income elasticities are derived from FAO projections. Land is classified into three
144 types of AEZs (Agro-Ecological Zones). The inputs for each production activity, the aggregated
145 land, and three specific types of land are nested by a logit function. The land owner, i.e.the
146 aggregate household, decides on the share of land use allocated to cropland, pasture and forest
147 land. Natural forest and grassland are assumed to be available for agricultural use. The land share
148 decision is also made by a logit function.

149 MAGNET

150 The MAGNET model is a multi-regional, multi-sectoral, static, applied general equilibrium
151 model based on neo-classical microeconomic theory. It is an extended version of the standard
152 GTAP model (van Meijl et al. 2006) which is characterized by an input–output structure, based

153 on regional and national input–output tables, that explicitly links industries in a value-added
154 chain from primary goods, over continuously higher stages of intermediate processing, to the
155 final assembling of goods and services for consumption. MAGNET uses a multilevel nested CES
156 production function. In the primary value-added nest, the multilevel CES production function
157 describes the substitution of different primary production factors (land, labor, capital and natural
158 resources) and intermediate production factors (e.g. energy and animal feed components). The
159 CES nest is also introduced to allow for substitution between different energy sources including
160 biofuels (Banse et al. 2008). The model uses fixed input-output coefficients for the remaining
161 intermediate inputs. Land and natural resources are heterogeneous production factors, and this
162 heterogeneity is introduced by using a CET transformation function which allocates these factors
163 among the agricultural sectors. Capital and labor markets are segmented between agriculture and
164 non-agriculture. Labor and capital are assumed to be fully mobile within each of these two
165 groups of sectors, but imperfectly mobile across them. This leads to differences in prices of
166 capital and labor between agriculture and non-agriculture. This is implemented by using a linear
167 dynamic agricultural employment equation in the model which explains the agricultural
168 employment growth by agricultural relative to non-agricultural wages and total factor supply
169 (Tabeau and Woltjer 2010). This relationship is consistent with the theoretical Harris and Todaro
170 (1970) model describing rural-urban migration, which asserts that rural to urban migration rate
171 will be zero when the expected rural income equals the expected urban income.

172 GCAM

173 The Global Change Assessment Model (GCAM) (Edmonds and Reilly 1985, Clarke et al. 2009)
174 is an Integrated Assessment model of energy, agriculture, and climate, that has been used
175 extensively by the IPCC, US government agencies, and the research community. GCAM is a

176 dynamic-recursive partial equilibrium model that uses physical-based representations of the
177 various technologies, crops, resources, and land being modeled. As implemented in the present
178 study, GCAM includes 16 geopolitical regions, and 173 agriculture and land use regions, defined
179 by the intersection of the geopolitical regions with the 18 GTAP agro-ecological zone types
180 (AEZs; Monfreda et al. 2009). The agricultural and land use component is documented in Wise
181 and Calvin (2011) and Kyle et al. (2011). In summary, land use is calibrated to the base year
182 2005, and in future periods is allocated among different uses according to relative land profit
183 rates, using a nested logit choice formulation. This approach assumes a distribution of profits for
184 each land use type (in contrast to constrained linear optimization, for example). In the future
185 periods, land allocated to ligno-cellulosic bioenergy production within any agricultural region
186 and time period depends on its profitability compared with other land uses (both commercial and
187 non-commercial). The profitability of bioenergy production is influenced in turn by endogenous
188 bioenergy demands, which include production of electricity, liquid fuels, and heat.

189 GLOBIOM

190 The Global Biosphere Management Model (GLOBIOM) (Havlík et al. 2013) is a partial
191 equilibrium model that covers the agricultural and forestry sectors, including the bioenergy
192 sector. It is used for analyzing medium- to long-term land use change scenarios. In GLOBIOM,
193 the world is divided into 30 economic regions, in which a representative consumer is modeled
194 through a set of iso-elastic demand functions. The spatial resolution of the supply side relies on
195 the concept of Simulation Units, which are aggregates of 5 to 30 arcmin pixels belonging to the
196 same altitude, slope, and soil class within a single country. For crops, grass, and forest products,
197 Leontief production functions covering alternative production systems are calibrated on the basis
198 of biophysical models like EPIC (Williams 1995). For the present study, the supply side spatial

199 resolution was aggregated to 120 arcmin (about 200 x 200 km at the equator). GLOBIOM
200 incorporates a particularly detailed representation of the global livestock sector distinguishing
201 between several alternative production systems. Six land cover types are explicitly considered:
202 cropland, grassland, short-rotation tree plantations, managed forest, unmanaged forest, and other
203 natural vegetation. Depending on the relative profitability of the individual activities and on the
204 inertia constraints, the model can switch from one land cover type to another. Economic
205 optimization is based on the spatial equilibrium modeling approach (Takayama and Judge 1971).
206 The price-quantity equilibrium is computed as in (McCarl and Spreen 1980) at the regional level.
207 The model is calibrated to year 2000 FAOSTAT activity levels and is then recursively solved in
208 10-year time steps.

209 MAGPIE

210 The Model of Agricultural Production and its Impact on the Environment (MAGPIE) is a non-
211 linear recursive-dynamic optimization model for global land and water use (Lotze-Campen et al.
212 2008, Popp et al. 2011, Schmitz et al. 2012). MAGPIE links regional economic information with
213 grid-based biophysical constraints simulated by the dynamic vegetation and hydrology model
214 LPJmL (Bondeau et al. 2007). The model considers spatially explicit patterns of production,
215 land-use change and water constraints in different world regions, consistently linking economic
216 development with food and energy demand. Ten world regions represent the demand side of the
217 model. Required calories for the demand categories (food and non-food energy intake) are
218 determined by a cross-sectional country regression based on population and income projections.
219 The model has a cost-minimization objective function. In order to fulfill food, feed and
220 bioenergy demand, the model allocates 19 cropping and 5 livestock activities to the spatially
221 explicit land and water resources, subject to resource, management and cost constraints.

222 MAgPIE has three options to increase total production in agriculture at additional costs:
223 agricultural land expansion, spatial crop re-allocation, and an endogenous mode for agricultural
224 intensification. The model takes four different cost types into account: production costs for crop
225 and livestock production, investments in technological change, land conversion costs and intra-
226 regional transport costs.

227 Regional aggregation

228 All five models use different aggregations from countries to economic world regions. For
229 comparability of results, regional aggregations for reporting of model outputs have been
230 harmonized as much as possible. The overall AgMIP economic model comparison distinguishes
231 13 world regions. For this bioenergy study, we focus on eight different regional aggregates that
232 can be well compared across the five models: CHN – China, EUR – Europe, FSU – Former
233 Soviet Union, MEN – Middle East and North Africa, NAM – North America, OAM – Other
234 America, SEA – Southeast Asia, SSA – Sub-Saharan Africa.

235 Technological change in agriculture

236 The treatment of future productivity changes in agriculture in the different models is important,
237 as it determines the ability of the agricultural sector to adjust to increased bioenergy demand. All
238 models, except MAgPIE, use a harmonized series of exogenous productivity shifters for all
239 major crops, which has been provided by the IMPACT modeling group (Rosegrant and IMPACT
240 Development Team 2012, von Lampe et al. 2013). Next to these exogenous shifters, each model
241 has different options for factor substitution in production which may lead to varying trends in
242 effective yield changes over time. The MAgPIE model, by contrast, uses an exogenously fixed

243 trajectory of food demand, and derives an endogenous rate of agricultural productivity increase
244 (Schmitz et al. 2012).

245 Scenario description and implementation of bioenergy demand

246 The focus of this study is on the effects of large-scale ligno-cellulosic bioenergy deployment in
247 the energy sector. Hence, we compare a scenario with strong increase in ligno-cellulosic
248 bioenergy demand (S8) to a reference scenario for the period 2005-2050 where ligno-cellulosic
249 bioenergy does not enter the market beyond the level of the base year 2005 (S7). The scenario
250 numbers are part of the nomenclature of the overall AgMIP economic model comparison, as
251 described in von Lampe et al. (2013). Population and GDP growth in both scenarios are in line
252 with the shared socioeconomic pathway SSP2 (Kriegler et al. 2012). In order to analyze the
253 isolated effects of bioenergy use on agricultural markets, both scenarios in this study do not
254 account for direct climate impacts on crop productivity. Other relevant scenarios in the overall
255 model comparison include a reference scenario S1 as well as four climate impact scenarios (S3-
256 6) (see von Lampe et al. (2013) and Nelson et al. (2013) for more details).

257 The demand for first-generation biofuels used in the AgMIP exercise is the same in both scenario
258 S7 and S8. Due to different model implementations, it has not been fully harmonized across
259 models, but is generally based on the political commitments from different countries to
260 incorporate a certain share or an absolute quantity of liquid biomass into their fossil fuel mix for
261 transportation. Total demand for first-generation bioenergy, which is mainly determined by
262 public policy measures, rises to about 6 ExaJoule (EJ) of final energy globally in 2030 (Annex
263 Table A1). The support programs taken into account are mainly the USA Renewable Fuel
264 Standards (RFS2) and the EU Renewable Energy Directive. Precise analysis of the first-

265 generation targets corresponding to these programs can be found in (Mosnier et al. 2012) for the
266 US or in (Laborde and Valin 2012) for the EU. For Brazil, we assume that the current
267 incorporation share is maintained, and the biofuel policy development is driven by the growing
268 demand for transportation fuel (Crago et al. 2010). Other developments which are taken into
269 account include the recent expansion of biodiesel in Argentina, Canada and China, based on
270 information from the USDA Foreign Agricultural Service. All these programs provide
271 information on current development and mid-term projections (up to 2020 for EU and 2022 for
272 USA). We make the assumption that these programs follow their expansion trend until 2030.
273 Due to political and scale economy considerations, first-generation biofuel demand after 2030 is
274 kept constant rather than phased out (Babcock et al. 2011). Hence, all market, price and land-use
275 effects in the scenario S7 already include the impacts of the projected development of first-
276 generation biofuel mandates in major world regions.

277 The total global ligno-cellulosic bioenergy production in 2050, in terms of primary energy
278 content, is intended to be consistent with a wide range of scenarios focused on emission
279 mitigation, documented in the recent IPCC Special Report on Renewables (Fischedick et al.
280 2011). The total used here is approximately the mean of studies examining long-term
281 stabilization of CO₂ concentrations between 440 and 600 parts per million by volume (ppmv).
282 The demand for ligno-cellulosic bioenergy in scenario S8 is derived from an Integrated
283 Assessment scenario exercise by the GCAM group (Calvin et al. 2012). Global demand is
284 expected to rise to 108 EJ in 2050 (Table 1). These figures are in line with a very ambitious
285 climate policy scenario to limit global warming at about 2°C above pre-industrial levels
286 (comparable to RCP2.6) (Calvin et al. 2012, van Vuuren et al. 2010). This scenario can be
287 considered as a high-level scenario with respect to the impacts of energy emission mitigation on

288 the agricultural sector. The regional allocation of demand is predefined by the GCAM model and
289 used as a harmonized input by the other models.

290

291 < **Table 1 about here** >

292

293 The demand trajectory for bioenergy has been implemented in different ways in the five models.
294 In the AIM model, the level of bioenergy demand is endogenously adjusted by the choice of an
295 appropriate carbon price. All other models take the bioenergy demand trajectory as an exogenous
296 driver for the agricultural sector. GLOBIOM and MAgPIE implement bioenergy as an additional
297 demand component. As this is not an option in the CGE model MAGNET, here the amount of
298 ligno-cellulosic bioenergy, as provided by the GCAM model, is translated into an additional
299 demand for land for production, which is subtracted from the total agricultural land endowment.

300 Ligno-cellulosic bioenergy can be produced from specific grass or tree crops or from forest or
301 other residues, but not all of these production modes are available in all models. In the present
302 GLOBIOM version, ligno-cellulosic bioenergy can be produced from woody biomass which
303 comes either from dedicated short-rotation tree plantations, from traditional forests as a by-
304 product of saw-log harvesting or as a single-purpose harvest, or from sawmill residues. In
305 MAgPIE, ligno-cellulosic bioenergy can only be produced with short-rotation tree plantations or
306 different types of energy grasses (e.g. miscanthus). In GCAM, the following ligno-cellulosic
307 bioenergy sources are included: short-rotation woody species (eucalyptus, willow), several
308 perennial grass species (switchgrass, miscanthus), and a drought-tolerant oil crop (Jatropha) for
309 some arid regions. In this study, the GCAM output for land area and production does not include

310 the use of residues from crops, forestry, or milling. The AIM model implements two types of
311 ligno-cellulosic bioenergy. One is produced from crop or wood wastes and the other from energy
312 grasses. In all models, except AIM, ligno-cellulosic biomass can be traded internationally.

313 **3. Results**

314 The key results we report are changes in world market prices, regional market prices, land-use
315 change as well as food and feed consumption by the year 2050. In terms of agricultural
316 commodities, the focus is on five major agricultural crop groups, i.e. wheat (WHT), coarse
317 grains (CGR), rice (RIC), sugar crops (SUG), and oilseeds (OSD), as well as the aggregate of
318 these (CR5). In terms of land use, we distinguish between total cropland (CRP), pasture land
319 (PAS), and ligno-cellulosic bioenergy land.

320 The five models react differently to reference scenario drivers, like population and income
321 growth, due to different implementations of demand, productivity changes, factor substitution in
322 production, and international trade in food, feed and bioenergy. For the reference scenario S1
323 and the no-bioenergy scenario S7, MAGNET, GCAM and GLOBIOM show either flat or
324 slightly falling world market prices by 2050, compared to 2005 (for more details see Robinson et
325 al. (2013)). By contrast, the MAgPIE model shows price increases of 54% for CR5, while AIM
326 shows lower price increases at about 20%.

327 Increased bioenergy demand in scenario S8 causes world market prices for the aggregate CR5 to
328 increase by 2-9%, compared to S7 (Fig. 1). MAgPIE shows the highest average price effect, and
329 GCAM the lowest. The average price increase across models is about 5%, compared to scenario
330 S7. MAgPIE also shows the strongest price increase for most single crops, going as high as 21%
331 for WHT. Price spreads are especially large for OSD, SUG and WHT.

332 < **Figure 1** about here >

333

334 While average world market price effects for CR5 are rather small, there is more variation across
335 the models at the regional level (Fig. 2). The highest price effects are shown for Europe by
336 MAgPIE (+39%) and AIM (+22%), and for FSU and NAM (+25%) by MAgPIE. AIM even
337 projects falling prices in CHN (-2%), FSU (-9%), and SSA. The variance across models is largest
338 for EUR, FSU and NAM. The related changes in net trade are provided in Annex Figure A1.

339

340 < **Figure 2 about here** >

341

342 In Figure 3, the overall modest price effects for CR5 in the ligno-cellulosic bioenergy scenario
343 S8 are compared with the overall price effects from the climate change scenarios (S3-6) in the
344 model comparison (von Lampe et al. 2013). The average price effect of direct climate impacts on
345 crop yields (across four different crop model inputs) for a strong climate signal (see Nelson et al.
346 2013) is much stronger. With the exception of the GCAM model (+5%), all models show a
347 climate-induced price effect by 2050 of between +22% (AIM) and +47% (MAgPIE). The
348 average effect across models is about +25% for the climate change scenarios S3-6, compared to
349 about +5% in the bioenergy scenario S8.

350

351 < **Figure 3 about here** >

352

353 The five models adjust very differently to provide the resources for producing 108 EJ of primary
354 energy from ligno-cellulosic biomass. Fig. 4 shows for the year 2050 the global area changes for
355 cropland (CRP), pasture land (PAS), ligno-cellulosic bioenergy, and other land use and cover
356 types. It must be remembered that CRP only includes land for food, feedstuffs and first-
357 generation bioenergy production, and thus is strictly separated from ligno-cellulosic bioenergy
358 land. The models allocate between 188 million ha (GLOBIOM) and 431 million ha (GCAM) to
359 ligno-cellulosic bioenergy production. In GLOBIOM, only about 70% of the primary energy is
360 satisfied from dedicated cellulosic bioenergy crops. The other 30% come from forests and forest
361 industry residues (the related area is not reported here). In GLOBIOM the additional land for
362 bioenergy is partly provided by reducing cropland by 27 million ha and pasture land by 30
363 million ha. The remaining 131 million ha come from previously unmanaged land. Pasture land is
364 also reduced by 40 million ha in MAGNET and 110 million ha in GCAM. While in MAgPIE
365 pasture land is fixed in the standard implementation, cropland is reduced by 238 million ha by
366 increasing crop productivity (see below). This accounts for almost all the required bioenergy
367 area, so only about 30 million ha is taken from previously unmanaged land in this model.
368 MAGNET, AIM, and GCAM require between 200 and 340 million ha of additional land. The
369 apparently counter-intuitive small global increases in CRP by GCAM and PAS by AIM can be
370 explained by the specific regional composition of land-use change effects (see Fig. 6 and 7).

371

372 < **Figure 4 about here** >

373

374 Regional allocation of ligno-cellulosic bioenergy production is also very different across models
375 (Fig. 5). The largest variance across models can be observed in CHN and FSU, while in OAM
376 and especially in MEN the variance is much lower. MAgPIE shows the largest area in FSU,
377 while GCAM allocates large shares of bioenergy area to FSU, NAM and SSA. AIM shows high
378 shares in CHN, EUR and NAM.

379

380 < **Figure 5 about here** >

381

382 Figs. 6 and 7 show relative changes in cropland and pasture land across regions. MAgPIE shows
383 reduction of cropland by more than 20% in EUR, FSU and MEN. GCAM projects increases in
384 cropland of between 9 and 16% in SSA, SEA, and OAM. AIM shows cropland increases of
385 about 12% in FSU. The highest variance across models is revealed in FSU and MEN.

386 In AIM, GCAM, MAGNET and GLOBIOM, pasture land is reduced in almost all regions, to
387 allow for bioenergy production. The strongest reductions occur in GCAM in NAM, SEA, and
388 EUR at minus 8-11%, and in GLOBIOM in EUR and FSU at minus 6-9%. Pasture land is
389 increased by MAGNET in OAM, and by AIM in CHN. In MAgPIE, pasture is constant in the
390 current implementation. Variance across models is highest in SEA, EUR, and FSU.

391

392 < **Figure 6 about here** >

393

394 < **Figure 7 about here** >

395

396 Another option for adjustment in the agricultural sector to allow for additional bioenergy
397 production is through reduction in food and feed demand. While total food demand is determined
398 by an exogenous trend in MAgPIE, GCAM has inelastic demand for crops, but allows for some
399 flexibility in demand for livestock products. All other models react with a reduction in food
400 demand to the additional bioenergy pressure in scenario S8. Fig. 8 illustrates this for CR5
401 demand for food, which is reduced between 0% and 1.1% across models. Demand for CR5 as
402 livestock feed is reduced between 0.1% and 1.6%. Here, also MAgPIE shows small internal
403 adjustments in the composition of livestock feed.

404

405 < **Figure 8 about here** >

406

407 **4. Discussion**

408 Meeting ambitious climate change mitigation targets may require substantial amounts of
409 bioenergy as part of the future energy mix. The potential for reducing GHG emissions can even
410 be increased, if bioenergy use is combined with carbon capture and storage (CCS) technologies,
411 which are expected to develop over the coming decades as well (Luderer et al. 2012). Bioenergy
412 with CCS (BECCS) plays a key role in the overall energy technology mix to limit global
413 warming to about 2°C above pre-industrial temperature levels, especially later in the 21st century.
414 BECCS, according to some studies, is a plausible technology which enables what have been

415 called “negative carbon emissions” (Luckow et al. 2010, Azar et al. 2010). Several Integrated
416 Assessment studies have shown that, without this option, GHG abatement costs and related
417 welfare losses either become very high, or the models do not find a feasible solution (Knopf et
418 al. 2010, Masui et al. 2011). In these energy sector studies, beyond the year 2030 ligno-cellulosic
419 bioenergy typically becomes competitive against other forms of renewable energy (e.g. solar,
420 wind, hydropower) and remains so later in the century (Luderer et al. 2012). Van Vuuren et al.
421 (2011) showed that the land area expected to be used for biomass crops in an RCP2.6 scenario
422 could be about 250 million ha in 2050. While high-yielding ligno-cellulosic bioenergy crops and
423 use of residues will reduce the pressure on traditional agricultural production and markets, the
424 sheer size of the energy market could still have strong implications for agricultural resource use
425 by the middle of the century.

426 Given the challenge of climate change mitigation in general and particularly the complexity of
427 agricultural market interactions and the land-use system, we applied and compared five
428 structurally different models to explore the impacts of large-scale ligno-cellulosic bioenergy
429 production on agricultural prices, land-use change, and food and feed demand by the year 2050.
430 Two general-equilibrium models (AIM, MAGNET) and three partial-equilibrium models
431 (GCAM, GLOBIOM, MAgPIE) participated in this study. As this economic model
432 intercomparison has shown, there are significant differences in how the models implement
433 allocation of ligno-cellulosic bioenergy production, land-use change, productivity change,
434 demand and international trade.

435 First, there are some specific model characteristics on the demand side. The MAgPIE model uses
436 an exogenous demand trajectory for food and, as a consequence, shows the highest price
437 responses across the models also in the reference scenario S1 (for more details see von Lampe et

438 al. 2013). In the AIM model, the change in bioenergy demand is implemented via CO₂ emission
439 constraints and a carbon price. Generally, the emission constraints cause welfare and GDP
440 losses. As is discussed in the introduction, the bioenergy scenario S8 is consistent with an
441 RCP2.6 stabilization scenario and GDP losses are significantly high. As a result, the household
442 demand itself is pushed down, including the demand for agricultural commodities.

443 Second, the five models have very different coverage of international trade in agricultural
444 commodities and bioenergy. GCAM and GLOBIOM have relatively flexible trade
445 implementations and show rather small and proportional price increases across regions. This
446 implies that ligno-cellulosic bioenergy production is shifted to the most competitive regions and
447 that trade in agricultural commodities and bioenergy adjust rather flexibly to account for
448 increased regional bioenergy demand (see Figure A1). AIM and MAGNET reveal more limited
449 price transmission through trade and slightly higher average price responses. Surprisingly, AIM
450 even shows decreasing prices for some regions, which may be due to strong re-allocation of
451 agricultural production and the GDP loss associated with carbon emission constraints. MAgPIE
452 has a rather static trade implementation, based on historical regional self-sufficiency ratios, and
453 reports the highest average price increases and the largest spread across regions. AIM and
454 GLOBIOM are also more responsive in terms of food and feed demand, which is in line with
455 small price effects for GLOBIOM, but seems counter-intuitive for AIM.

456 Third, differences in land availability for agricultural expansion across models also contribute to
457 different price responses (for more details see also Schmitz et al. 2013). All models need
458 additional land, at additional costs, from currently unmanaged resources to accommodate ligno-
459 cellulosic bioenergy production in scenario S8. With respect to the GHG emission reduction
460 potential of bioenergy, these changes in land use could trigger significant additional emissions,

461 which are not accounted for in this analysis. However, the specific reactions of the models are
462 quite different and can be partly explained by the models' behavior in the reference scenario.
463 GCAM, MAGNET and AIM show the highest flexibility in expanding ligno-cellulosic bioenergy
464 production into currently unmanaged land. In GLOBIOM, a significant part of bioenergy
465 production is contributed from forestry, including residues. In the version of GCAM used here,
466 only purpose-grown crops are used to supply ligno-cellulosic bioenergy. Some counter-intuitive
467 results (increases in CRP in GCAM and increases in PAS in AIM) can be explained by the
468 allocation of bioenergy to areas of high productivity and a shift of crop and livestock production
469 to less productive areas. Within the CGE modeling framework of AIM, a strong climate
470 mitigation policy with related GDP losses is inevitable and may contribute to such results. In the
471 case of GCAM, the demand for crop-based agricultural goods is price-inelastic, and as such the
472 amount of land required for CRP is largely a function of the yields. Having an additional
473 bioenergy demand on the land resources will, all else equal, tend to put downward pressure on
474 average yields and may increase cropland requirements in some regions. MAgPIE shows the
475 smallest reduction in unmanaged land, despite comparable overall bioenergy areas. The model
476 assumes a smaller area potential for agricultural land expansion than the other models, and most
477 of this potential is already used in the reference scenario. With limited additional land available
478 in the bioenergy case, the model relies almost completely on endogenous increases in crop
479 yields. This also drives up the total costs of production and contributes to the comparatively
480 stronger price increases in this model. The MAGNET model uses GCAM inputs on ligno-
481 cellulosic bioenergy land to adjust land availability for agriculture. The decrease in pasture land
482 in most regions, due to a reduction of agricultural land for bioenergy production, is partly
483 compensated by an increase in pasture land in SEA and OAM. Land availability is affected least

484 in these two regions and agricultural land area expands by 30-40 percent. These regions have
485 comparative advantage in agricultural production.

486 The range of results with respect to land requirements arising from large-scale ligno-cellulosic
487 bioenergy deployment are in line with previous studies (e.g. van Vuuren et al. 2011). However,
488 the compared models show large differences with respect to the availability of land for
489 agricultural expansion and the elasticity of land supply, which are even more pronounced at the
490 regional level. The uncertainty and lack of data with respect to land availability and land quality
491 remains a serious constraint on improving the robustness of this kind of scenario study (Lotze-
492 Campen 2011).

493 Finally, the price effects of the bioenergy scenario S8 have been compared with the impacts of
494 climate change on crop yields and prices (scenarios S3-6). This was meant to contrast a very
495 ambitious climate mitigation scenario with a “worst-case” climate impact scenario by 2050.
496 Therefore, the climate impact scenarios assume no autonomous adaptation in crop growth, a
497 high-level emission scenario (in line with RCP8.5), and no CO₂ fertilization effect (see Nelson et
498 al. 2013). On the other hand, in the bioenergy scenario S8 no specific policy-based land-use
499 restrictions were imposed for forest protection, and no other resource constraints, e.g. related to
500 water availability, were taken into account. Hence, this could lead to an over-estimation of the
501 difference in average price effects between the climate mitigation scenario S8 and the climate-
502 impact scenarios S3-6. Furthermore, if the conversion of previously unmanaged land for
503 agricultural or bioenergy production induces significant GHG emissions, the positive effects of
504 increased bioenergy production for climate change mitigation may be over-estimated.

505 **5. Conclusions**

506 Results from the detailed model comparison suggest that the overall impacts of high demand for
507 second-generation bioenergy on global food prices are rather modest. Most models show either
508 relatively elastic land supply beyond current agricultural areas, or they provide for some
509 flexibility in adjusting livestock and feed production. Regional allocation of bioenergy
510 production differs across models. This type of model comparison can also show to what extent
511 specific implementations of food and feed demand, trade and land supply, and ligno-cellulosic
512 bioenergy feedstocks matter. From this exercise a tentative conclusion can be drawn that
513 ambitious climate change mitigation need not drive up global food prices much, if the extra land
514 required for bioenergy production is accessible or if the feedstock, e.g. from forests, does not
515 directly compete for agricultural land. Agricultural price effects across models by the year 2050
516 from high bioenergy demand in an RCP2.6-type scenario appear to be much smaller (+5%
517 average across models) than from direct climate impacts on crop yields in an RCP8.5-type
518 scenario (+25% average across models).

519 However, the potential scarcity of water and nutrients, strong policy-based restrictions on
520 agricultural land expansion, e.g. for tropical forest protection, and overall welfare losses have not
521 been specifically looked at in this exercise. Price effects might be considerably stronger if
522 agricultural land expansion were restricted and the supply of residues for energy use limited. A
523 harmonized analysis of these additional constraints, which could increase the pressure on
524 agricultural markets, remains a challenge for further research. Improved and harmonized
525 coverage of residues from crop and forestry production as well as explicit implementation of a
526 variety of purpose-grown bioenergy crops in various models could also enhance the analysis.
527 These challenges related to bioenergy coverage in the models, together with the uncertainties
528 about the direct effects of climate change on crop yields, have to be overcome to better

529 understand the relative pressures from climate change adaptation and mitigation on the
530 agricultural sector.

531

532

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640

641

642 **Annex**

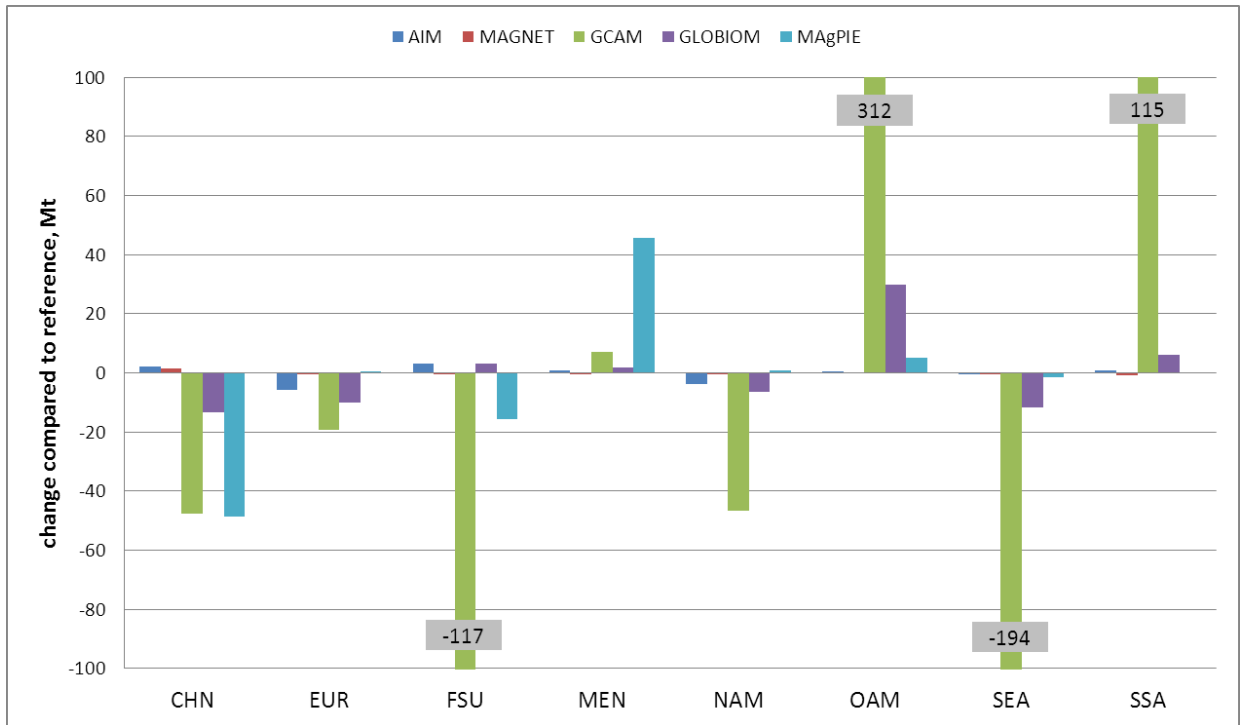
643 **Table A1: Future trends in first-generation bioenergy demand in ExaJoule (EJ) final**
644 **energy (Scenarios S7, S8)**

Region	Country		2000	2005	2010	2020	2030
CHN	China	Ethanol	0.00	0.02	0.04	0.10	0.15
EUR	EU27	Ethanol	0.01	0.03	0.11	0.30	0.49
EUR	EU27	Biodiesel	0.03	0.12	0.42	0.89	1.36
NAM	USA	Ethanol	0.13	0.32	1.05	1.40	1.74
NAM	USA	Biodiesel	0.00	0.01	0.08	0.20	0.32
NAM	Canada	Ethanol	0.00	0.01	0.03	0.04	0.05
OAM	Brazil	Ethanol	0.20	0.22	0.47	1.09	1.71
OAM	Brazil	Biodiesel	0.00	0.00	0.08	0.18	0.28
OAM	Argentina	Biodiesel	0.00	0.00	0.02	0.06	0.11
WLD	World total		0.37	0.74	2.31	4.26	6.20

645 Sources: Mosnier et al. (2012), Laborde and Valin (2012), Crago et al. (2010)

646

647 **Figure A1: Bioenergy-induced changes in regional net-trade in 2050 (CR5, S8 compared to**
 648 **S7, Mt)**



649

650 Source: AgMIP model calculations.

651

652 **Tables**

653

654 **Table 1: Future trends in ligno-cellulosic bioenergy demand (Scenario S8) (ExaJoule**
 655 **primary energy)**

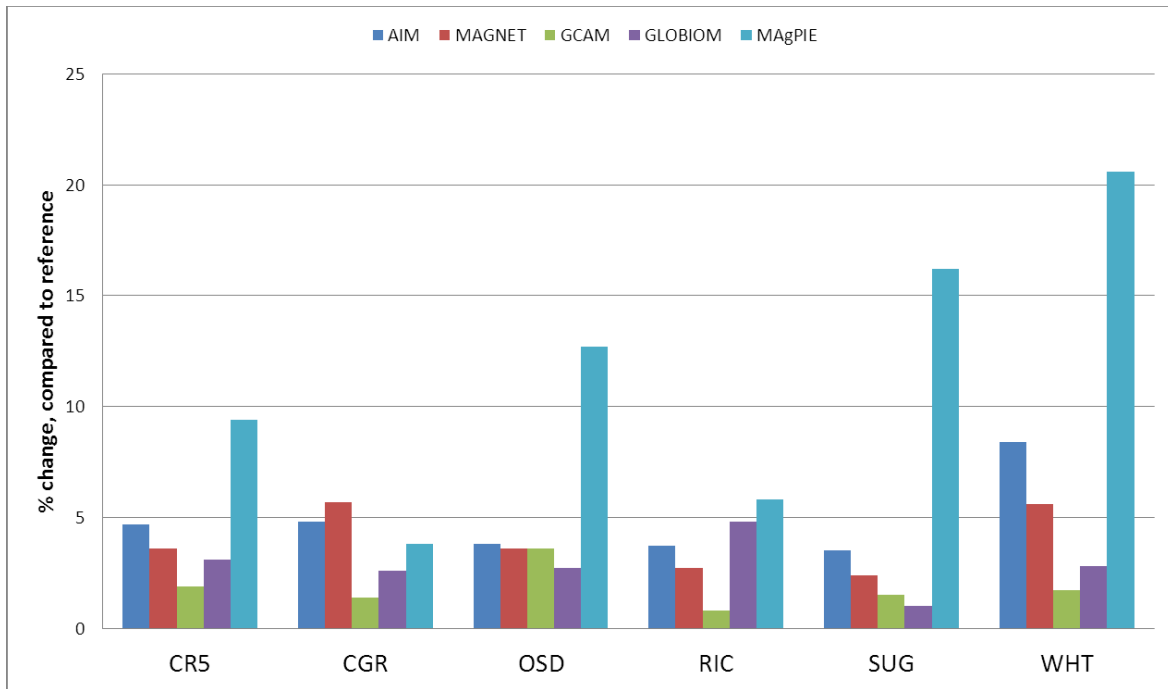
Region	2005	2010	2020	2030	2040	2050
CHN	0.0	0.0	2.0	7.8	11.7	16.7
EUR	0.0	0.0	3.3	8.1	9.7	11.1
FSU	0.0	0.0	3.3	13.5	21.8	32.2
MEN	0.0	0.0	1.3	5.2	8.1	11.3
NAM	0.0	0.0	2.2	10.3	15.5	22.4
OAM	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.3	0.5	0.8
SEA	0.0	0.0	0.3	1.0	1.5	2.1
SSA	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.5	0.8	1.0
Other	0.0	0.0	1.2	5.0	7.5	10.4
WLD	0.0	0.0	13.7	51.8	76.9	107.8

656 Source: see text for explanation.

657

658 **Figures**

659 **Fig. 1: Bioenergy-induced change in world market prices in 2050 (S8 compared to S7, %)**



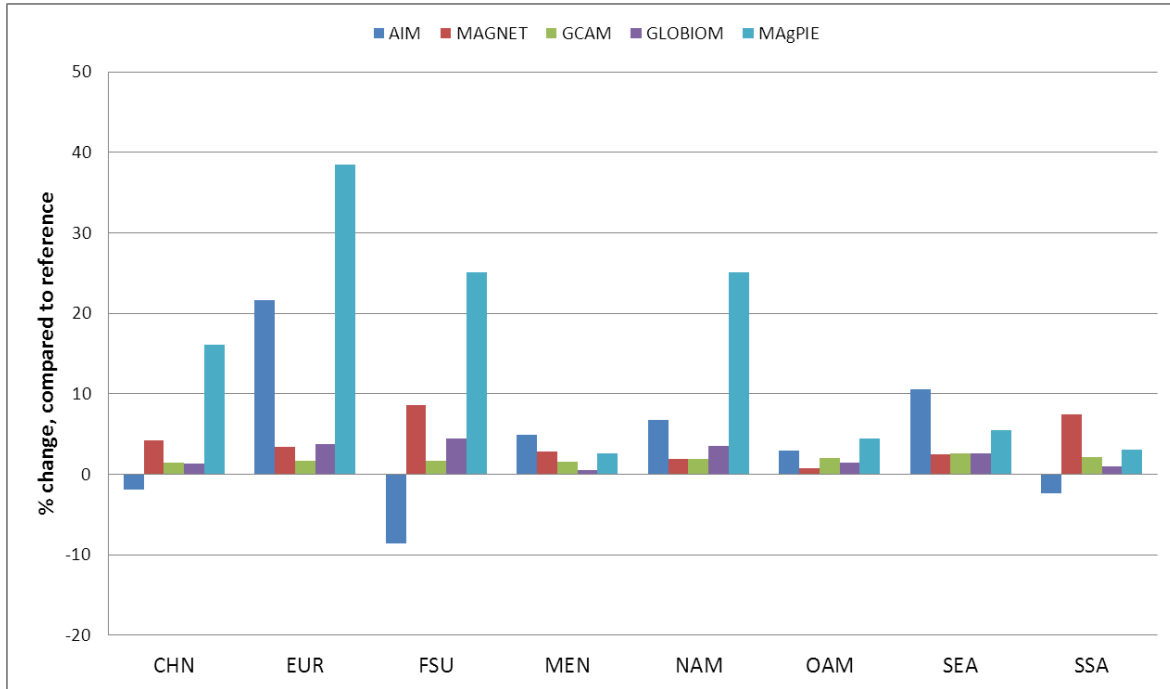
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661 Source: AgMIP model calculations.

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663

664 **Fig. 2: Bioenergy-induced change in regional market prices in 2050 (CR5, S8 compared to**
665 **S7, %)**

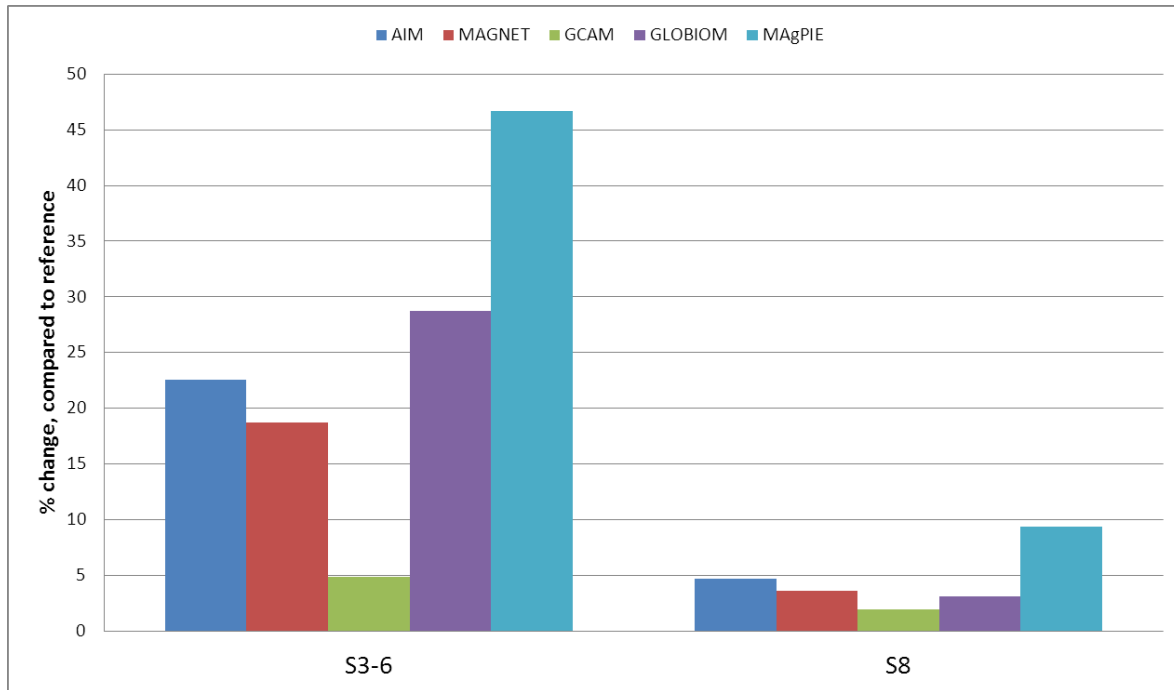
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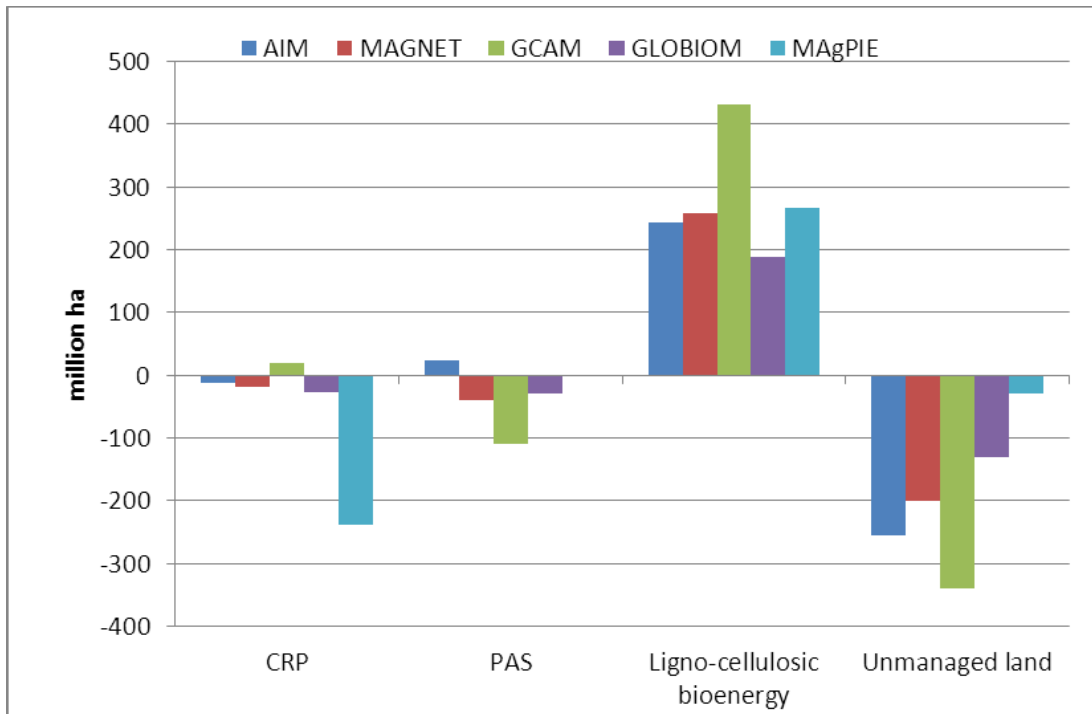
Source: AgMIP model calculations.

670 **Fig. 3: Changes in world market prices in 2050: Climate shock (S3-6 compared to S1) vs.**
671 **Bioenergy shock (S8 compared to S7) (CR5, %)**



672 Source: AgMIP model calculations.
673
674
675

676 **Fig. 4: Changes in global land use in 2050 (S8 compared to S7, million ha)**

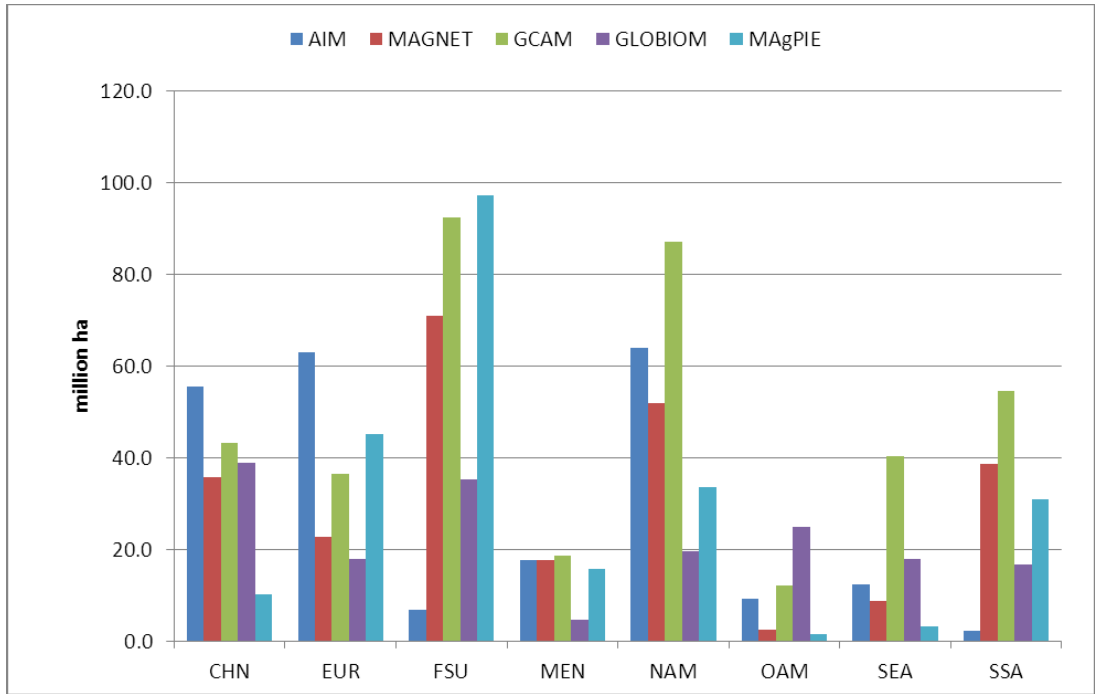


677 Source: AgMIP model calculations.

678 Note: Changes in unmanaged land are calculated residually from changes in crop, pasture and
 679 ligno-cellulosic bioenergy land.

681

682 **Fig. 5: Regional area of ligno-cellulosic bioenergy in 2050 (million ha)**

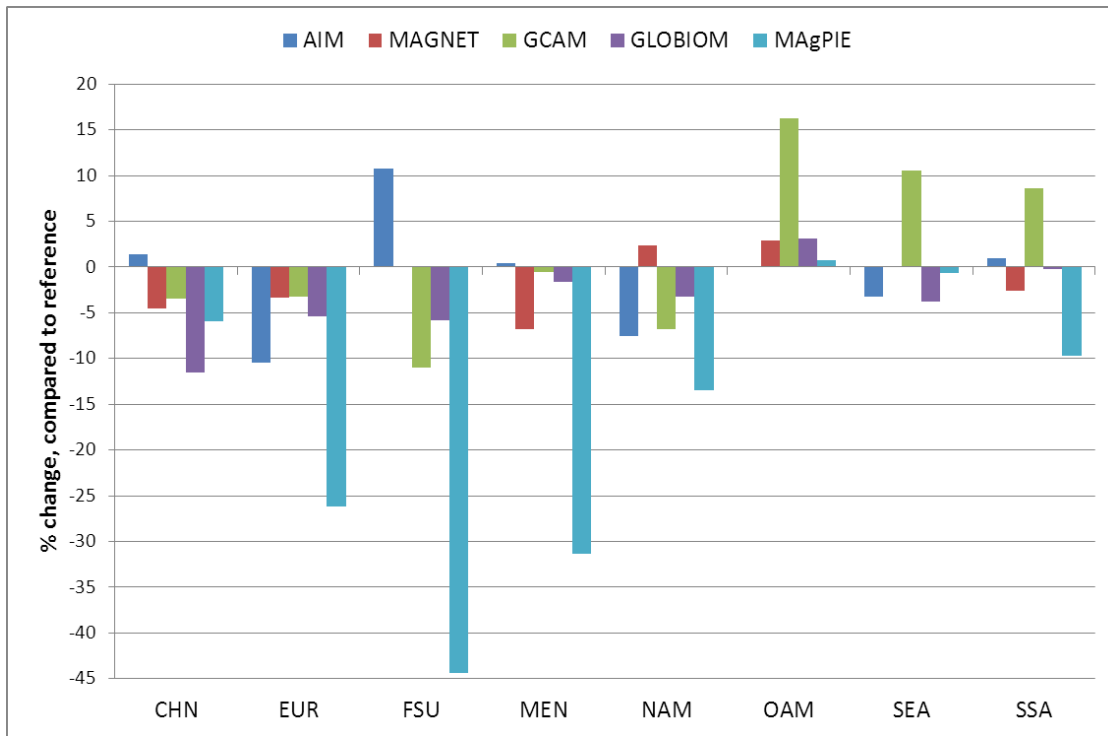


683

684 Source: AgMIP model calculations.

685

686 **Fig. 6: Changes in regional cropland in 2050 (CRP, S8 compared to S7, %)**

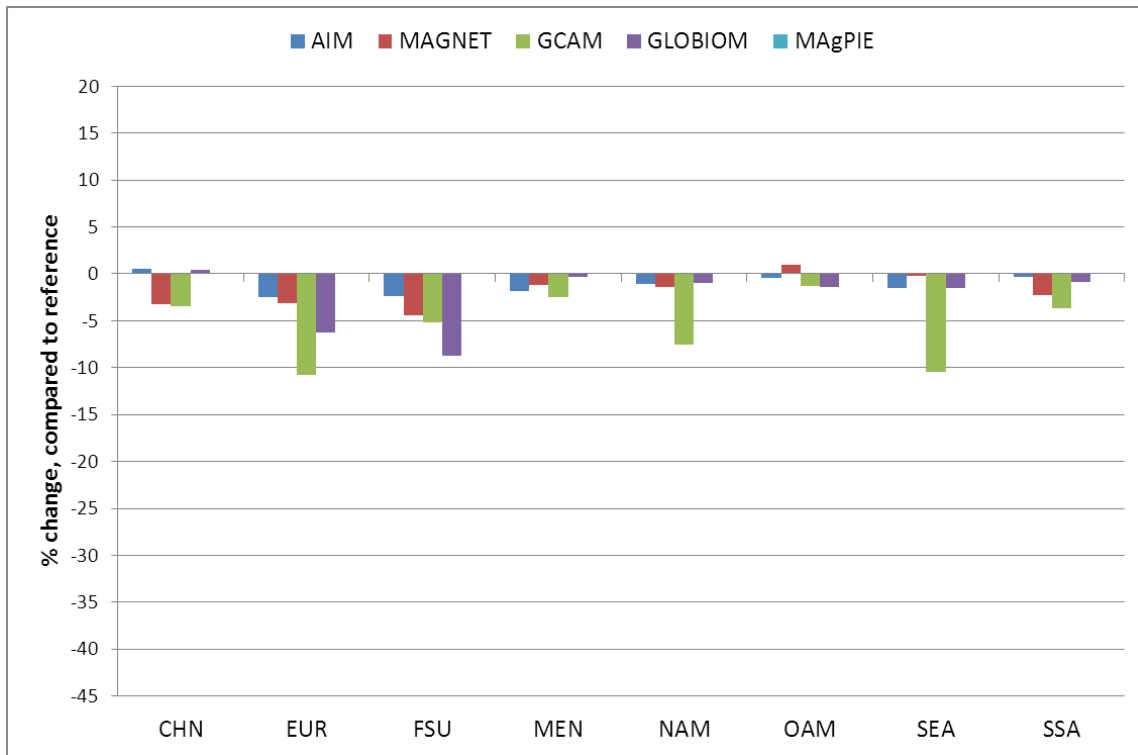


687

688 Source: AgMIP model calculations.

689

690 **Fig. 7: Changes in regional pasture land in 2050 (PAS, S8 compared to S7, %)**

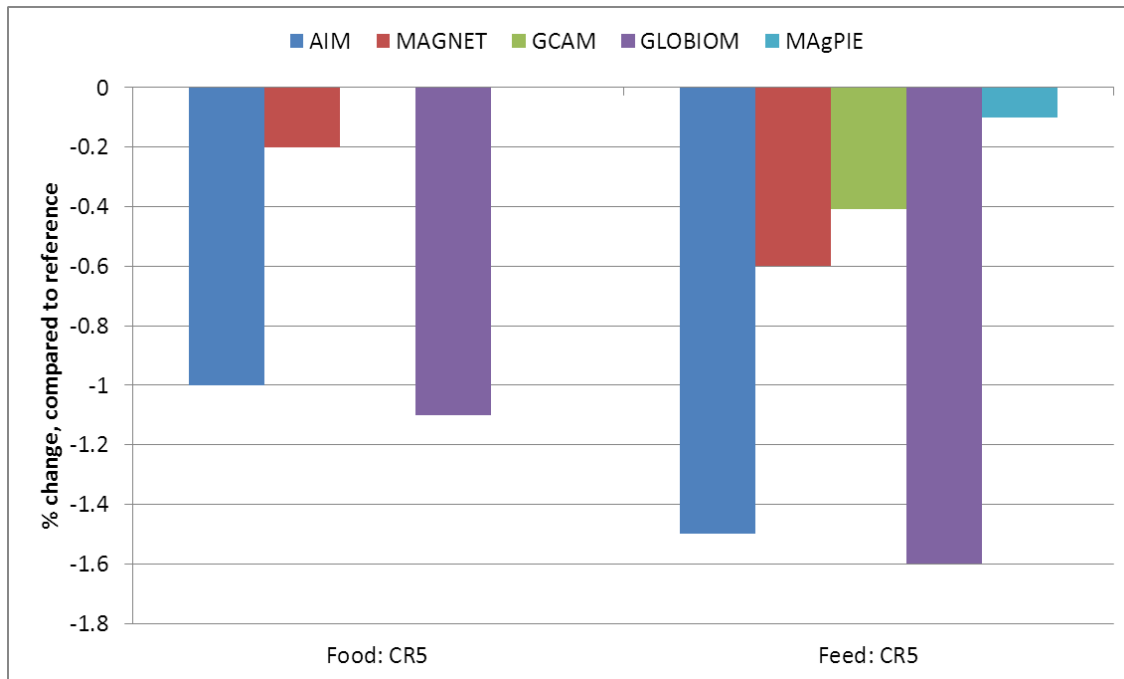


691

692 Source: AgMIP model calculations.

693

694 **Fig. 8: Changes in global food and feed consumption (S8 compared to S7, %)**



695

696 Source: AgMIP model calculations.