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Additional Information

1 Identification of representative dairy cattle and fodder crop production typologies at regional scale in 2 Europe

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19 Abstract

20 European dairy production faces significant economic, environmental, and social sustainability challenges.
21 Given the great diversity of dairy cattle production systems in Europe, region-specific concepts to improve
22 environmental and socioeconomic sustainability are needed. Regionally integrated dairy cattle-crop systems
23 emerge as a more resilient and sustainable alternative to highly specialized farming systems. Identifying
24 different dairy cattle production typologies and their potential interactions with fodder crop production is
25 presented as a step in transitioning to optimized agricultural systems. Currently existing typologies of
26 integrated systems are often insufficient when characterizing structural, socioeconomic, and environmental
27 components of farms. We fill this gap in the literature by identifying, describing, and comparing representative
28 dairy cattle production system typologies and their interrelation with regional fodder crop production at the
29 European regional scale. This is a necessary step to assess the scope for adapted mitigation and sustainability
30 measures in the future. For this purpose, a multivariate statistical approach is applied. We show how different
31 land-use practices, farm structure characteristics, socio-economic attributes, and emission intensities condition
32 dairy production. Furthermore, the diversity of regional fodder crop production systems is demonstrated by
33 analyzing their distribution in Europe. Together with identified typologies, varying degrees of regional

34 specialization in milk production allow for identifying future strategies associated with the application of
35 integrated systems in key European dairy regions. This study contributes to a better understanding of the
36 existing milk production diversity in Europe and their relationship with regional fodder crop production. In
37 addition, we discuss the benefits of integrated systems as a clear, viable, and resilient alternative to ongoing
38 livestock intensification in the European context. Identifying interactions between components of integrated
39 systems will facilitate decision-making, the design and implementation of measures to mitigate climate change
40 and the promotion of positive socio-economic and environmental interactions.

41 **Key words:** Dairy cattle, fodder crops, integrated systems, sustainability and typologies.

42 **1. Introduction**

43 Over the last decades, different initiatives, political bodies, and research institutions have highlighted the role
44 of livestock in the transition towards more sustainable agricultural production (Köchy et al. 2015; Feil et al.
45 2020; Joint Programming Initiative on Agriculture 2020). Changes in dietary patterns and the reduction of
46 production costs have led to a growing demand in the consumption of animal-based products (Westhoek et al.
47 2011; Searchinger et al. 2014; Duval et al. 2021). As a substantial part of animal production systems, dairy
48 production significantly contributes to global greenhouse gas (GHG) and nitrogen (N) emissions, as well as to
49 natural resource use (Steinfeld et al. 2006; Gerber et al. 2013; Styles et al. 2018). Despite adverse
50 environmental effects, this sector is key to implementing practices that favor integrated sustainability and
51 providing high quality protein products (Opio et al. 2013; Mehrabi et al. 2020). Hence, identifying, analyzing,
52 and implementing measures that contribute to dairy sustainability, is presented as one of the cornerstones for
53 future actions towards sustainable development of agricultural systems (Animal Task Force 2021). In this
54 context, integrated crop-livestock systems have been described as an alternative to specialized livestock
55 production by potentially contributing to the overall sustainability of agroecosystems (Ryschawy et al. 2012;
56 Sneessens et al. 2019).

57 Ongoing agricultural intensification can have conflicting effects on the three sustainability pillars (i.e.,
58 environmental, economic, and social) (Pretty 2018; Pretty et al. 2018; Rasmussen et al. 2018). Dairy cattle
59 production systems (DPS) are no exception to the intensification trend. Structural changes such as reduced
60 farm numbers, greater specialization, and higher stocking rates can enhance the productivity of DPS while also
61 increasing external input demand resulting in adverse environmental impacts (EIP-AGRI Focus Group 2017;
62 Balaine et al. 2020). Even though recent advances in breeding and feeding management have reduced the
63 overall environmental footprint of the livestock sector, there has been a shift in emissions sources due to a
64 higher dependency on external inputs (del Prado et al. 2021). In this context, main sources of greenhouse gas
65 (GHG) emissions and air pollutants from DPS include enteric fermentation, manure storage, field application
66 (manure and synthetic fertilizers), fossil fuel consumption, and external feed production (Murphy et al. 2017;

67 Rotz 2018; Sanchis et al. 2019; Amon et al. 2021). While milk production intensification can decrease emission
68 intensity by unit of product of methane (CH₄), nitrous oxide (N₂O), carbon dioxide (CO₂), and ammonia (NH₃)
69 (Salou et al. 2017), it can also cause other context-specific social and environmental impacts (Clay et al. 2020).
70 Recently, integrating dairy and fodder crop production scenarios have been suggested as crucial step towards
71 the design of resilient and resource-efficient food production systems of the future (Karlsson and Rööös 2019).

72 DPS rely on concentrates and forage to meet the nutritional needs of animals. More than 50% of the dry matter
73 supplied to bovine animals in the European Union (EU) consists of fodder maize, grass, and other roughage
74 crops, which are mostly locally produced (Karlsson et al. 2021). Inversely, Europe depends at a larger extend
75 on third countries for the supply of protein-rich animal feedstuff (European Commission 2019). Many of the
76 feedstuff used for animal feeding in the EU are imported from the Americas becoming a risk to the
77 sustainability of the sector in the continent (San Martin et al. 2021). This provides opportunities for local fodder
78 crop and livestock production systems, favoring resilient DPS based on short supply chains (Perrin and Martin
79 2021). Balancing fodder crop production with livestock nutritional needs at the farm level is described as a
80 “win-win” integrated strategy for greater economic and environmental sustainability of agricultural production
81 (Dos Reis et al. 2021). In this context, recoupling crops and livestock offers new opportunities for economic
82 growth, the provision of ecosystems services, and the reduction of negative environmental impacts (Stavi et
83 al. 2016; Garrett et al. 2020; Animal Task Force 2021). Hence, integrated systems favor the creation of
84 synergies between farmers, facilitating not only the exchange of products but also of knowledge in a context
85 of circular economy (Martin et al. 2016; Muscat et al. 2021; Schut et al. 2021).

86

FIGURE 1

87 Europe is diverse and complex as far as farming and livestock systems are concerned (Neumann et al. 2009;
88 Guiomar et al. 2018). Different land uses, diet composition, crop species, herd management strategies, and
89 manure management patterns largely determine the characteristics of the dairy-fodder crop production systems
90 in each European region. Thus, a region-specific analysis is needed to assess the sector’s challenges (van den
91 Pol-van Dasselaar et al. 2020). More specifically, tailored sustainability strategies require selecting an
92 adequate scale for proposing and implementing measures adapted to specific circumstances and particularities
93 of the different regions. In this regard, the EU provides an administrative classification for the entire territory:
94 the Nomenclature of Territorial Units for Statistics (NUTS) (EUROSTAT 2020). However, official statistics
95 alone are often insufficient or incomplete when applying sustainability measures, due to the lack of detail about
96 structural, socio-economic, and environmental aspects of farms and their interrelationships. Several authors
97 have analyzed typologies of DPS at different European scales from the perspective of structural or economic
98 characteristics (Gonzalez-Mejia et al. 2018; Poczta et al. 2020). Nonetheless, integrated and regional
99 approaches could better assess the sustainability of this systems and thus enable better policies (Acosta-Alba

100 et al. 2012; Arulnathan et al. 2020). Therefore, an adequate assessment of the existing fodder and dairy
101 production system typologies cooperates to a better understanding of their diversity and heterogeneity (Alvarez
102 et al. 2018), opening the door to the implementation of future integrated systems.

103 Including fodder production in the assessment of DPS typologies is presented as a necessary step to estimate
104 the specific needs and specificities of each region, apply adapted measures, optimize resource use, and reduce
105 negative environmental impacts. Thus, the main objective of this work is to identify and describe representative
106 DPS typologies and account their connection with selected fodder crop production systems at the European
107 NUTS2 scale. In addition, this work evaluates the limitations of current databases for the characterization of
108 different dairy and fodder crop production typologies across European regions. The proposed typology analysis
109 will facilitate informed decisions when selecting mitigation and sustainability measures through a better
110 understanding of the sector's diversity at the regional scale.

111 **2. Material and methods**

112 First, a framework of indicators was selected to describe the dairy cattle-fodder crop production systems at
113 NUTS2 regional scale. These include specific indicators for DPS, fodder crop production, and emission
114 intensities. Second, a multivariate statistical approach was applied.

115 **2.1 Dairy and fodder production indicators**

116 Indicators related to physical characteristics, economic performance and emissions have been commonly used
117 for the determination of farm typologies (Gonzalez-Mejia et al. 2018; Bánkuti et al. 2020; Kihoro et al. 2021).
118 Therefore, a framework of indicators was built for the identification of the existing DPS typologies based on
119 their structural, land use, socio-economic, and emission intensity characteristics. The boundaries of the
120 analysis were the farm itself, discarding all possible indicators describing off-farm impacts or characteristics.
121 Consequently, a set of 11 indicators was selected for this analysis (Table 1). The results of the Farm Structure
122 Survey (FSS) were used as data source for populating the indicators (EUROSTAT 2013a). Specific data for
123 DPS was obtained by selecting the “FT45-specialist dairying” farm category. All European NUTS2 regions
124 were initially eligible for the analysis. Data from 2013 was used since it was the most recent set with complete
125 records for all the regions considered.

126 **TABLE 1**

127 In addition, the percentage (%) of utilized agricultural area (UAA) associated with specialized dairy farms
128 over the total UAA of each region was calculated to assess the degree of regional specialization for dairy
129 production (EUROSTAT 2019). For this purpose, the following equation was used (Eq. 1):

$$130 \quad SP_{dairy} = \frac{UAA_{dairy}}{UAA_{total}} \times 100 \quad (1)$$

131 Where SP_{dairy} represents the percentage (%) of UAA associated with dairy specialist farms over the total
 132 UAA of each the region, UAA_{dairy} is the UAA associated with dairy farms per region (ha) and UAA_{total}
 133 represent the total UAA available in each region (ha).

134 DPS typologies were also identified and described using two emission indicators: i) intensity of total GHG
 135 and ii) intensity of ammonia (NH₃) emissions (Table 1). Intensity of total GHG emissions was estimated by
 136 means of the 2013 National Inventory Reports (NIR) (European Environmental Agency 2022). The following
 137 most representative direct farm-level GHG emission categories from DPS were assessed: i) CH₄ emissions
 138 from enteric fermentation, ii) CH₄ emissions from manure management, and iii) direct N₂O emissions from
 139 manure management. Due to the lack of specific data at the European NUTS2 scale, a three-fold approach was
 140 followed for their estimation: i) total national emissions were determined for each GHG category through the
 141 NIR, ii) the share of livestock units (LU) for “specialist dairying” category in the region over the total national
 142 population was used to calculate regional emissions, and iii) the raw milk production per NUTS2 was used for
 143 the estimation of emission intensity per region for each GHG. Data for the year 2013 was used for populating
 144 this indicator. The following equation was used (Eq. 2):

$$145 \quad E_{reg} = \frac{(GHG_{total} \times POP_{reg})}{Milk} \quad (2)$$

146 Where E_{reg} is the emission intensity per unit of product for each one of the GHG at a NUTS2 scale (kgCO_{2eq}
 147 kg milk⁻¹), GHG_{total} are the total national emissions for dairy cattle for each GHG category (kgCO_{2eq}), POP_{reg}
 148 is the share of livestock units (LU) for the “specialist dairying” category in the region over the total national
 149 dairy cattle population, and the $Milk$ is the total regional raw milk production (kg of raw milk). Total regional
 150 GHG emissions were obtained by adding all individual emissions of each of the gases estimated (Eq. 3):

$$151 \quad \sum GHG = E_{CH_4_{ent}} + E_{CH_4_{man}} + E_{N_2O_{man}} \quad (3)$$

152 Where $\sum GHG$ is the total GHG emission intensity of milk production (kgCO_{2eq} kg⁻¹), $E_{CH_4_{ent}}$ are the CH₄
 153 emissions from enteric fermentation (kgCO_{2eq} kg⁻¹), $E_{CH_4_{man}}$ are the CH₄ emissions from manure management
 154 (kgCO_{2eq} kg⁻¹) and $E_{N_2O_{man}}$ are the direct N₂O emissions from manure management (kgCO_{2eq} kg⁻¹). Individual
 155 GHG emissions for CH₄ and N₂O were converted to CO_{2eq} using the Global Warming Potential (GWP100) for
 156 the year 2021 (IPCC 2021). GWP values of 27.2 and 273 were used for the CH₄ and N₂O respectively.

157 In order to estimate the intensity of NH₃ emissions from manure management, national emissions were
 158 retrieved from the data reported on the 2013 Informative Inventory Reports (IIR) in the context of the
 159 Convention on Long Range Transboundary Air Pollution (CLRTAP) (European Environmental Agency 2022).

160 Share of livestock units (LU) for “specialist dairying” category in the region over the total national dairy cattle
161 population and raw milk production per NUTS2 were used for the estimation of emission intensity per region.
162 Data for the year 2013 was used for populating this indicator. The following equation was used (Eq. 4):

$$163 \quad NH_{3total} = \frac{(NH_{3man} \times POP_{reg})}{Milk} \quad (4)$$

164 Where NH_{3total} is the regional NH_3 emission intensity per unit of product, NH_{3man} accounts for the national NH_3
165 emissions derived from manure management (housing and storage) excluding reactive N emissions from
166 grazing or manure application to soils, POP_{reg} is the share of livestock units (LU) for the “specialist dairying”
167 category in the region over the total national dairy cattle population, and $Milk$ is the total regional raw milk
168 production per year (kg of raw milk year⁻¹) for each NUTS2 region.

169 Regarding the fodder production indicators, these crops are defined as the ones that are intended primarily as
170 animal feed. Fodder crops are divided into temporary or permanent according to their management and harvest
171 patterns (FAO 1994). Permanent crops are associated with the same land for more than five years. In this
172 regard, the EU statistics considers fodder roots, brassicas, temporary grasslands, green maize and legumes as
173 temporary fodder crops, and permanent meadows and grasslands as permanent fodder crops (EUROSTAT
174 2013b).

175 In order to analyze the different patterns of fodder crop production at the European regional level, a database
176 with the areas occupied by selected fodder crop categories (temporary grasslands, leguminous crops, green
177 maize, and permanent grasslands) for each of the NUTS2 regions was created (Supplementary material 1). The
178 FSS for the year 2013 was used as the data source for populating all the 4 indicators selected (Table 1). The
179 ratio of each crop over the total UAA of the region was calculated to determine the predominance of one or
180 another crop category in the region.

181 DPS and fodder crop production datasets can be found in Supplementary Material 1. All the retrieved national
182 GHG and NH_3 emissions are provided in the Supplementary Material 2.

183 **2.3 Data analysis**

184 Identification of existing DPS clusters was carried out following a three-step multivariate statistical approach:
185 i) principal component analysis (PCA), ii) K-means clustering and iii) cluster description and comparison. For
186 the identification of existing fodder crop production clusters, a two-fold approach was applied: i) K-means
187 clustering, and ii) cluster description and comparison. PCA analysis was not applied in this second clustering
188 process due to the lower dimensionality of the data. Similar multivariate approaches have been described as a
189 useful procedures for identifying farm typologies (Madry et al. 2013; Robert et al. 2017; Sinha et al. 2021)

190 NUTS2 regions with incomplete data were excluded from the DPS typology analysis and subsequently from
191 the fodder crops database. Then, the data was standardized. Of the 283 regions initially included in the analysis,
192 32 were excluded (11.3%) based on the criteria of data completeness. The data was analyzed using the R
193 statistical software (R Core Team 2021). Identified DPS and fodder crop production clusters were spatially
194 represented using geographic information systems by means of the QGIS software (version 3.16) (QGIS
195 Development Team 2021).

196 **2.3.1 Principal Component Analysis (PCA)**

197 In order to analyze the existing interrelationships between DPS indicators, and thus reduce the number of
198 variables used in successive steps, a PCA analysis was carried out. New linear combinations were calculated
199 from existing indicators, cumulating the variability of the data in a reduced number of principal components
200 (PC). This analysis also enables to assess the contribution of each of the original indicator to the obtained PC.

201 Before performing the PCA, a correlation matrix of all DPS indicators was computed, in order to identify the
202 level of correlation between the indicators in the dataset. Of those indicators that were highly correlated ($r < -$
203 0.85 or $r > 0.85$), only one of each pair was retained. The “Corrplot” package of R was used to visualize the
204 correlation matrix (Wei and Simko 2017). The suitability of the sample size for this statistical procedure was
205 determined using the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure. In addition, Bartlett's test of sphericity (Bartlett
206 1951) was applied to check if the correlation matrix was an identity matrix. Both functions are included in the
207 R “Psych” package (Revelle 2020). The “prcomp” function was used to build the PC. A number of PC whose
208 cumulative variance was over 70% (Rea and Rea 2016) of the total variance was retained. Rotation of the
209 eigenvectors of the respective PC was computed with the objective of analyzing the contribution of each
210 indicator to each PC (< -0.4 and > 0.4). The “Factoextra” (Kassambara and Mundt 2020) package was used to
211 visualize the results of the analysis.

212 **2.3.2 Cluster analysis**

213 The optimal cluster number was determined using “NbClust” package (Charrad et al. 2014). By computing 30
214 different indexes, optimal number of clusters in a dataset is determined. The function was adjusted for the k-
215 means clustering method, setting the minimum cluster number to 2 and the maximum number to 10. The
216 retained principal components were used as input in the clustering procedure. Once the optimal cluster number
217 was identified, the “kmeans” function was used to allocate the different NUTS2 regions into the previously
218 identified clusters.

219 **2.3.3 Cluster description and comparison**

220 The characterization and comparison between clusters was performed using two non-parametric statistical
221 procedures. First, the Kruskal-Wallis test, by means of the “kruskal.test” function, was used to assess the
222 significant differences across clusters. The *chi2* statistic was computed as a factor for determining the sum of
223 the squared deviations among clusters. Second, the Wilcoxon rank sum test, by means of the
224 “pairwise.wilcox.test” function, was then performed in order to calculate pairwise comparisons between
225 clusters. The p-values were adjusted by means of the Benjamin and Hochberg method (Benjamin and
226 Hochberg 1995).

227 **3. Results and discussion**

228 **3.1 Results**

229 **3.1.1 DPS typologies**

230 High positive correlation was found between the indicators "Average animal number per farm" and "Average
231 farm size by total UAA", and between “Average emission intensity of total GHG” and “Average emission
232 intensity of NH₃ from manure management”. In addition, high negative correlation was found between
233 "Average share of arable land over the total UAA per farm" and "Average share of permanent grasslands over
234 the total UAA per farm". In all cases, the latter indicator was retained. The results for both KMO and Barlett’s
235 sphericity tests show that the database is appropriate for the following statistical analysis.

236 The PCA found that the first four PC cumulate 78.7% of the variance. More precisely, PC1 accounts for 35.7%
237 of the variance, while PC2, PC3 and PC4 described 18.6, 13.3, and 11.1% of the variance, respectively. To
238 assess the contributions of each indicator to the PC computed, the weight of the corresponding eigenvectors
239 was analyzed through the rotation value of their components. The standard deviation, percentage variance,
240 percentage cumulative variance and rotated value of the selected components can be found in the
241 Supplementary material 3.

242 The first PC brings together those indicators that describe the productivity and farm size by means of the milk
243 production ("Average milk yield per cow"), farm size (“Average animal number per farm”) and total workforce
244 (“Average workforce per farm”). The second PC describes the emission intensity by means of the indicator
245 “Average emission intensity of total GHG” and the livestock density expressed by the “Average livestock
246 density over total UAA per farm”. Farm tenure is represented by PC3, given the high contributions of the
247 indicator "Average share of owned land over rented land" to this component. Finally, the prominence of arable
248 crops over permanent grassland at the farm level is represented by PC4, which has a large contribution from
249 the indicator "Average share of arable land over the total UAA per farm".

250 The scores of the first four PC were used to determine the different DPS clusters. According to the results of
251 the "NbClust" function, a significant number of analyzed indices indicated that the optimal cluster number was
252 4. Each of the formed clusters had different contributions from the four retained PC, thereby allowing for their
253 characterization and comparison. Analyzed NUTS2 regions were allocated to one of the identified clusters.
254 The mean value and standard deviation for each indicator, including those not used for the clustering analysis,
255 are shown by cluster in Table 2. In addition, statistically significant differences were found between the clusters
256 for all the variables analyzed.

257

TABLE 2

258 The results presented in Table 2 reveal the diversity of DPS when analyzing the considered characteristics.
259 The largest farm size, in terms of both dairy animal numbers and UAA per farm, can be observed in Clusters
260 1 (CL1) and 2 (CL2). Likewise, the productivity observed in both clusters is substantially higher than in
261 Clusters 3 (CL3) and 4 (CL4) with lower emission intensities for both GHG and NH₃. Although CL2 represents
262 larger and more productive farms than those in CL1, both clusters present land uses predominantly directed to
263 arable crop production, with a lower share of permanent grasslands. The average number of workers is
264 inversely proportional to the share of family labor. This is observed in CL1 and CL2, which have a higher
265 number of total workers and fewer family laborers compared to CL3 and CL4. As can be seen in Figure 3, the
266 geographical distribution of NUTS2 regions included in CL1 is very heterogeneous, with a notable presence
267 in Spain, France, Denmark, Hungary, the United Kingdom, Norway, Sweden, Finland, and Flanders in
268 Belgium. CL2 is mainly concentrated in Eastern Germany, the Czech Republic, and Estonia.

269 Likewise, a greater presence of permanent grasslands relative to arable crops is observed for CL3 and CL4. In
270 the case of CL4, significantly higher values are observed for family labor, GHG and NH₃ emission intensity,
271 the number of animals per hectare of UAA, and the share of owned land. As for CL3, a highly heterogeneous
272 geographical distribution is observed. This type of DPS is representative of all regions of Ireland, Poland,
273 Lithuania, Latvia, Austria, Croatia, or Bulgaria. Likewise, the Atlantic coast of Spain, the west coast and the
274 central regions of the United Kingdom, the Mediterranean coast of France, and most of the Netherlands are
275 represented by this cluster. CL4 is the most represented in Romania and Greece, and it is the least
276 geographically representative cluster in Europe.

277 Concerning the ratio of UAA used by specialized dairy farms over the total UAA available in each region, the
278 results show unequal levels of specialization across Europe in terms of land use (Figure 2). Higher levels of
279 specialization are observed in regions of the Netherlands, southern Germany, western-southern France, eastern
280 Poland, Sweden, and Finland. Likewise, the southern (Spain, Italy, Portugal, and Greece) and eastern
281 (Romania, Bulgaria, and Hungary) European NUTS2 regions show lower specialization values.

282

FIGURE 2

283

3.1.2 Fodder crop production typologies

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Regarding the fodder crop production typologies, no highly significant correlation was found between any of the indicators included ($r < -0.85$ or $r > 0.85$). After standardization of the observations, the results obtained from the "NbClust" function indicated that 5 was the optimal cluster number. Each of the formed clusters has different contributions from the different crops analyzed, allowing for the characterization and comparison of the clusters based on the relevance of the assessed crops per region. The mean value and standard deviation for each indicator, are shown by cluster in Table 3. In addition, statistically significant differences were found between the clusters for all the variables analyzed.

291

TABLE 3

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The results revealed a heterogeneous distribution of the analyzed crops among the different NUTS2 regions (Table 3). Within Cluster 1 (CCL1) regions, 50% of the total available UAA is dedicated to cultivating temporary grasslands, 16% to permanent grasslands, and <1% to green maize. This cluster comprises regions from Norway, Sweden, and Finland (Figure 3). Moreover, both Clusters 1 (CCL2) and 2 (CCL2) present a clear predominance of one of the fodder crops analyzed. In the case of CCL2, 70% of the available UAA is occupied by permanent grasslands, followed to a lower extent by temporary grassland (6%), green maize (2%), and leguminous fodder crops (<1%). This cluster is mainly located in Ireland, the United Kingdom, and some Atlantic regions of the Iberian Peninsula and the Mediterranean (Figure 3).

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Regarding the CCL3, 24% of the available UAA is occupied by permanent grasslands, followed by temporary grasslands (5%), green maize (3%), and leguminous fodder crops (<1%). This cluster is evenly distributed across Europe (Figure 2). Cluster 4 (CCL4) is characterized by having 28% of its UAA intended for permanent grasslands, 16% to green maize, 8% to temporary grasslands, and less than 1% to leguminous fodder crops. Regions included in this CCL4 are concentrated in western France, Belgium, the Netherlands, Denmark, and northeast Germany. Furthermore, the NUTS2 regions of Central and Eastern Europe are primarily included in cluster 5 (CCL5), where 27% of the area is occupied by permanent grasslands, 4% by green maize, 4% by leguminous fodder crops, and 1% by temporary pasture.

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Overall, the results reveal different levels of specialization at the NUTS2 regional scale with regard to the production of fodder crops. In the case of CCL1, CCL2, and CCL4, more than half of the available UAA is destined to fodder crop production, obtaining values of 67, 79, and 53%, respectively. A lower presence of the analyzed crops is observed in CCL3 and CCL4 with 40 and 37% values.

312

3.2 Discussion

313 **3.2.1 Integrated assessment of key dairy-fodder crop production systems**

314 To date, previous studies have highlighted the need to move towards more sustainable farming systems across
315 the three sustainability pillars (Duval et al. 2021; Helfenstein et al. 2022). In this sense, livestock production
316 in high-and middle income countries is experiencing a transition towards more intense, concentrated, and
317 productive systems (Britt et al. 2018). This intensification has clear effects on the environmental sustainability
318 in these regions, and may affect less intensive systems in other parts of the world in similar ways in the future
319 (Curien et al. 2021; Munidasa et al. 2021). Identifying the diversity of livestock systems such as DPS together
320 with their interactions with fodder crops would allow to better address these impacts in an adapted manner.
321 Furthermore, by promoting the relationship between crop production and livestock farming, feeding and
322 fertilizer needs could be satisfied (Jouan et al. 2020). The results obtained in this study cooperate in this regard
323 by showing how different productive systems and land uses interrelate with fodder crops in Europe, enabling
324 the application of regionally-tailored measures to promote integrated sustainability.

325

FIGURE 3

326 Although there is currently no individual indicator that analyzes the degree of specialization in milk production
327 of European NUTS2 regions, concrete proxies can be used to assess it. By analyzing the share of total UAA
328 dedicated to dairy cattle specialist farms, the degree of regional specialization can be inferred, thus allowing
329 for the identification of those regions where DPS play a more relevant role in the territory. As shown in Table
330 4, among the DPS clusters identified, CL3 shows the highest specialization of its UAA. In this case, 21% of
331 the UAA is oriented to milk production, with maximum values of 75% in some regions. In the case of CL1
332 and CL2, the average values of UAA specialization are 13 and 10%, respectively. The lowest average
333 specialization values were found in CL4, with an average of 2% of the UAA oriented to DPS. . As the most
334 specialized cluster for dairy production, CL3 largely overlaps with fodder crop production systems where
335 permanent grasslands are the main fodder source (CCL2) (Supplementary Material 4). Moreover, the clusters
336 (CCL3) where additional fodder sources such as temporary grasslands, green maize and leguminous crops are
337 present could also be found in CL3. Unlike temporary grasslands, predominant in CCL1, permanent grasslands
338 have been associated with less intensive management practices such as lower inputs of manure and fertilizer,
339 grazing pressure, tillage frequency, and grassland showing renewal (Lesschen et al. 2016). As mentioned by
340 other authors, it is vital to point out the existing differences in the provision of ecosystem services and
341 multifunctionality between permanent and temporary grasslands (Schils et al. 2022). Although the productivity
342 of temporary grasslands is substantially higher than that of permanent ones, the intensive management applied
343 (e.g. fertilizers and tillage) could reduce their natural value (Reheul et al. 2007). In this regard, preserving
344 these permanent grasslands could have positive long-term effects in ensuring their productivity and favoring

345 the provision of ecosystem services (Qi et al. 2018; Dumont et al. 2019), thus enhancing the potential for
346 climate change mitigation.

347

TABLE 4

348 Regions included in CL1, showed an average of 12.8% of dairy-oriented agricultural land over the total
349 available UAA (Table 4). These DPS are characterized by more intensive systems than those found in other
350 clusters, observing high levels of milk production, medium farm sizes, and greater presence of surface area
351 oriented to arable land. In terms of, fodder crops, 48.1% of the regions gathered in CL1 overlap with CCL3,
352 which does not show any predominance among the crops under study. In addition, a presence of green maize,
353 represented by CCL4, can be observed in 17.2% of the regions included in CL1. The observed link between
354 farming intensity, low presence of grasslands and cultivation of green maize could indicate of higher silage
355 and concentrate supply (Leiber et al. 2017). While this type of farm management may be associated with lower
356 emission intensities (Bava et al. 2014; Jayasundara et al. 2019), the large use of concentrates, mostly based on
357 cereals and other human-edible feeds, highlights food-feed competition (Ertl et al. 2015). It can also lead to an
358 increase of indirect emissions from off-farm feed production and fossil fuel consumption (Guerci et al. 2013).
359 In this context, reducing the dependence on commercial concentrates could foster the transition towards
360 farming systems which rely more heavily on locally produced inputs, maximizing the utilization of farm-
361 grown crops (Horn et al. 2014). In this way, synergies between farmers could be facilitated, thereby enabling
362 the interrelationships between the different components of the agrological production and promoting
363 agroecological principles (Bonaudo et al. 2014; Wezel et al. 2020).

364 Lower levels of regional specialization could be observed in CL2 and CL4 with 9.8 and 2.1% of the total
365 available UAA oriented to milk production, respectively (Table 4). Regarding the distribution of fodder crops
366 in the clusters, large areas of these regions overlap with CCL3 (i.e., 41.2% for the CL2 and 46.2% for CL4)
367 (Supplementary material 4), which suggests that are largely occupied by crops not included in this study. In
368 this regard, high milk yields and farm sizes observed in CL2 could be associated with a larger presence of
369 crops potentially included in the animal diet such as cereals, leguminous or other non-fodder crops. As shown
370 in Table 2, the DPS described by CL4 are characterized by small family-owned, low performance farms.
371 Although these DPS typology presents several challenges for the future, mainly due low profitability
372 (Markova-Nenova and Wätzold 2018), there is also potential for applying measures to increase their
373 sustainability by favoring self-consumption of inputs and promoting a higher degree of agro-biodiversity
374 (Guarín et al. 2020). 33.3% of these regions are characterized by the presence of leguminous crops (CCL5)
375 (Supplementary Material 4). Cultivating these crops, as a source of protein for animals, would positively affect
376 nitrogen fixation while reducing the economic dependence on external inputs (Peyraud and Macleod 2020;
377 Ditzler et al. 2021). In this regard, multiple authors have highlighted the additional difficulties associated with

378 leguminous crops compared to others (such as green maize) mainly during the conservation process (Peyraud
379 et al. 2009; Tabacco et al. 2018). However, they can contribute to the economic sustainability of less
380 industrialized DPS by providing protein-rich feed sources, reducing the need for external feeds. Maximization
381 of profit per unit of product is presented as a fundamental factor of the financial drivers that condition the
382 succession and expansion of dairy farms (Hayden et al. 2021). Hence, the application of integrated dairy-
383 fodder systems, could ensure their continuity through the application of more sustainable and resilient farming
384 practices (Shadbolt et al. 2017).

385 In addition, the results obtained from this combined analysis allow for the identification of regions where the
386 link between key dairy cattle and fodder crop production systems is more likely to occur (Figure 4).
387 Interconnections between DPS and fodder crops are remarkable in the Netherlands, Germany, Belgium, and
388 southern Denmark. The observed higher dairy specialization of the UAA indicates a strong bond between these
389 systems accompanied by a notable presence of green maize (CCL4) among the fodder crops analyzed.
390 However, differences in the farm structure between the eastern parts of Germany (CL2) and other regions of
391 the Netherlands, Germany, Belgium and Denmark (CL1), indicate unequal sectorial development, notably due
392 to different production backgrounds (e.g. state-owned farms). Similarly, evident interrelations between fodder
393 crops and DPS are observed in north-western France. In this case, intensive medium size farms (CL1) with a
394 strong presence of UAA oriented to DPS and a remarkable presence of green maize are found (CCL4).
395 Concerning the presence of different grassland typologies, their distribution varies across the different DPS
396 identified. In this respect, the Scandinavian regions are characterized by high levels of specialization and a
397 prevalence of intensive farming systems (CL1) where temporary grasslands are predominant (CCL1).
398 Permanent and temporary grassland are distributed across the Atlantic regions of Spain, Ireland, western UK,
399 and Croatia where the role of this fodder crop category is fundamental (CCL2) in supporting more extensive
400 DPS systems (CL3). This connection is also noticeable in some alpine regions of Austria and Slovenia, where
401 similar DPS (CL3) rely to a large extent on permanent grasslands (CCL2), probably due to the climatic and
402 biophysical characteristics of these regions. Lastly, the low levels of specialization observed in some Eastern
403 Europe regions are accompanied by a clear presence of leguminous crops (CCL5) where small, family-owned,
404 low productive, and high emission intensity farms (CL4) are found.

405 **FIGURE 4**

406 **3.2.2 Future prospects**

407 Interconnected crop-livestock systems are presented as more resilient systems than highly specialized DPS,
408 due to the implementation of practices such as input reduction, resource conservation, or ecosystem services
409 provision (Shadbolt et al. 2017; Stark et al. 2018; Wezel et al. 2020). European initiatives such as the "Farm
410 to Fork" strategy open the door to strengthening synergies between DPS and fodder crop production, which

411 would be beneficial from the perspective of all three sustainability pillars (European Commission 2020). In
412 this sense, previous authors have identified multiple climate change mitigation and adaptation measures
413 oriented to integrated systems whose application favors the reduction of the overall environmental impact of
414 DPS (Buller et al. 2015; De Souza Filho et al. 2019; Boeraeve et al. 2020). DPS are widely associated with
415 significant nutrient losses at the farm scale (Dentler et al. 2020). In this respect, synergies between dairy and
416 crop production could be enhanced in the context of circular systems by improving manure storage and
417 application practices and techniques (Bosch-Serra et al. 2020). Likewise, integrated systems where farm-
418 grown protein crops play a more significant role could represent "win-win" strategies from both economic and
419 environmental standpoints, allowing strong interactions between farmers (Catarino et al. 2021). In addition,
420 better conservation of biotic and abiotic resources by optimizing and adapting integrated practices, such as
421 grazing, could better mitigate the environmental impact of the livestock activity (Teague et al. 2011; Ravetto
422 Enri et al. 2017; Díaz de Otálora et al. 2021; Senga Kiessé et al. 2022).

423 Given the large diversity of European DPS demonstrated in this study, there is no "one-fits-all" solution to
424 mitigate these environmental impacts at a continental scale. In line with the initial hypothesis of this work, the
425 diversity of existing systems in Europe could allow the application of specific measures for each region,
426 favoring adapted strategies oriented to resilient and sustainable DPS. Moving from existing linear production
427 patterns onto integrated systems based on better resource management and the implementation of circular
428 economy principles could cooperate in this regard (Duru and Therond 2015). Furthermore, better
429 understanding of the different sociological aspects of farming activity could enable future policy interventions
430 oriented to sustainability challenges (Bartkowski et al. 2022). Moreover, adaptation to new economic, social,
431 and environmental contexts is essential when designing and securing future food systems. The analysis of
432 existing databases allows us to identify areas for improvement and reaffirm the need to expand the scope of
433 the current data collection schemes to cover aspects related to environmental and social sustainability.

434 **4. Conclusions**

435 The proposed typology analysis follows an innovative approach that allows different stakeholders to obtain a
436 more comprehensive view of dairy cattle-fodder crop production systems at a European regional scale. This
437 study sets the base for the identification and application of holistic and adapted concepts to create more
438 sustainable and resilient DPS at a regional scale. Hence, the results of this study have direct practical
439 implications and can facilitate informed decision-making regarding the integrated sustainability of dairy cattle-
440 fodder production systems in Europe.

441 Furthermore, knowledge gaps, mainly concerning specific indicators for the assessment of the relationship
442 between fodder crops and DPS, the level of regional specialization in different livestock activities, and the
443 intensity of emissions specific to each production type and region, were identified and overcome. Further

444 research is needed to integrate into the analysis farm-level data on diets, crop allocation and circularity in the
445 context of dairy cattle-fodder production systems. Future database improvements should reflect more specific
446 indicators, and cooperate in the development and implementation of the integrated dairy-crop production
447 systems. Notably, accounting for intra-national specificities such as feeding regimes and management in GHG
448 and air pollutant inventories, will allow for a better analysis of DPS environmental impacts. In this context,
449 future studies should focus on addressing these interactions at a lower regional breakdown scale (NUTS3),
450 facilitating even more adapted measures.

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